
ANUGA User Manual

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ANUGA

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Credits:

- **ANUGA** was developed by Stephen Roberts, Ole Nielsen, Duncan Gray and Jane Sexton. It is currently being developed and maintained by Stephen Roberts and Gareth Davies.

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Acknowledgments:

- Ole Nielsen, James Hudson, John Jakeman, Rudy van Drie, Ted Rigby, Petar Milevski, Joaquim Luis, Nils Goseberg, William Power, Trevor Dhu, Nariman Habili, Gareth Davies, Linda Stals, Matt Hardy, Jack Kelly and Christopher Zoppou who contributed to this project at various times.
- A stand alone visualiser (anuga_viewer) based on Open-scene-graph was developed by Darran Edmundson and James Hudson.
- The mesh generator engine was written by Jonathan Richard Shewchuk and made freely available under the following license. See source code `triangle.c` for more details on the origins of this code. The license reads

```

/*****
/*
/*      8888888888      ,o,      / 888      */
/*      888      888o88o      "      o88888o      888o88888o      888      o888888o      */
/*      888      888      888      88b      888      888      888      888      d888      88b      */
/*      888      888      888      o88^o888      888      888      "88888"      888      88888o888      */
/*      888      888      888      C888      888      888      /      888      q888      */
/*      888      888      888      "88o^888      888      888      Cb      888      "88oooo"      */
/*                                  "8oo8D      */
/*                                  */
/*  A Two-Dimensional Quality Mesh Generator and Delaunay Triangulator.      */
/*  (triangle.c)      */
/*      */
/*  Version 1.6      */
/*  July 28, 2005      */
/*      */
/*  Copyright 1993, 1995, 1997, 1998, 2002, 2005      */
/*  Jonathan Richard Shewchuk      */
/*  2360 Woolsey #H      */
/*  Berkeley, California 94705-1927      */
/*  jrs@cs.berkeley.edu      */
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*****/
```

- Pmw is a toolkit for building high-level compound widgets in Python using the Tkinter module. Parts of Pmw have been incorporated into the graphical mesh generator. The license for Pmw reads

```
"""
```

```
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```

```
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```

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```

```
"""
```

Abstract

ANUGA is a hydrodynamic modelling tool that allows users to model realistic flow problems in complex 2D geometries. Examples include dam breaks or the effects of natural hazards such as riverine flooding, storm surges and tsunami.

The user must specify a study area represented by a mesh of triangular cells, the topography and bathymetry, frictional resistance, initial values for water level (called *stage* within **ANUGA**), boundary conditions and operators such as rainfall, stream flows, windstress or pressure gradients if applicable.

ANUGA tracks the evolution of water depth and horizontal momentum within each cell over time by solving the shallow water wave equation governing equation using a finite-volume method.

ANUGA also incorporates a mesh generator that allows the user to set up the geometry of the problem interactively as well as tools for interpolation and surface fitting, and a number of auxiliary tools for visualising and interrogating the model output.

Most **ANUGA** components are written in the object-oriented programming language Python and most users will interact with **ANUGA** by writing small Python programs based on the **ANUGA** library functions. Computationally intensive components are written for efficiency in C routines working directly with Python numpy structures.

CONTENTS

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Purpose	1
1.2	Scope	1
1.3	Audience	1
1.4	Background	2
1.5	Which flow algorithm	2
1.6	Restrictions and limitations on ANUGA	3
1.7	Citing ANUGA	4
1.8	Installation	4
2	Getting Started	5
2.1	A Simple Example	5
2.2	Outline of the Program	5
2.3	The Code	6
2.4	Establishing the Domain	6
2.5	Initial Conditions	6
2.5.1	Elevation	7
2.5.2	Friction	7
2.5.3	Stage	7
2.6	Boundary Conditions	8
2.7	Evolution	9
2.8	Output	9
2.9	How to Run the Code	10
2.10	Exploring the Model Output	10
3	A slightly more complex example	13
3.1	Overview	13
3.2	The Code	13
3.3	Establishing the Mesh	13
3.4	Model Output	14
3.5	Changing boundary conditions on the fly	14
3.6	Output	15
3.7	Flow through more complex topographies	15
4	An Example with Real Data	17
4.1	Overview	17
4.2	The Code	17
4.3	Establishing the Mesh	17
4.4	Initialising the Domain	20
4.5	Initial Conditions	21
4.5.1	Stage	21
4.5.2	Friction	21
4.5.3	Elevation	21

4.6	Boundary Conditions	21
4.7	Evolution	22
4.8	Exploring the Model Output	23
5	ANUGA Validation Tests	29
5.1	Overview	29
5.2	Analytical_exact	29
5.3	Behaviour_only	29
5.4	Case_studies	29
5.5	Experimental_data	31
5.6	Other_references	32
6	Mesh Generation	33
6.1	High Level Mesh Generation Functions	34
6.2	Advanced mesh generation	35
6.2.1	Key Methods of Class Mesh	35
7	The Domain	39
7.1	Key Methods of Domain	39
7.2	Evolution	42
7.3	Diagnostics	42
8	Initial Conditions and set_quantity	47
9	Boundary Conditions and set_boundary	51
9.1	Predefined boundary conditions	51
9.1.1	Reflective Boundary	51
9.1.2	Boundaries that set specific quantity values	51
9.1.3	Transmissive Boundaries	52
9.2	User-defined boundary conditions	53
10	Operators and Structures, Erosion and Culverts	55
10.1	Culvert operators	56
10.2	User developed operators	57
11	Querying SWW model output files	59
12	Parallel Simulation	61
12.1	The Code	61
12.2	Structure of the Code	61
13	Checkpointing	63
13.1	The Code	63
13.2	Structure of the Code	63
14	ANUGA Public Interface	65
14.1	Documentation	65
14.2	Public vs Private Interface	65
14.3	Other	66
15	ANUGA File Formats	67
15.1	Manually Created Files	67
15.2	Automatically Created Files	67
15.3	SWW, STS and TMS Formats	67
15.4	Mesh File Formats	68
15.5	Formats for Storing Arbitrary Points and Attributes	69
15.6	ArcView Formats	69
15.7	DEM Format	69
15.8	Basic File Conversions	69

16 ANUGA mathematical background	71
16.1 Introduction	71
16.2 Model	71
16.3 Finite Volume Method	71
16.4 Parallel Implementation	73
16.5 Flux limiting	75
16.6 Slope limiting	76
17 Basic ANUGA Assumptions	79
17.1 Time	79
17.2 Spatial data	79
17.2.1 Projection	79
17.2.2 Internal coordinates	79
17.2.3 Polygons	79
A Supporting Tools	81
A.1 caching	81
A.2 anuga_viewer	82
A.2.1 Installing on Ubuntu	82
A.2.2 Installing on Windows	83
A.2.3 Commands	83
A.3 utilities/polygons	85
A.4 geospatial_data	88
A.5 Miscellaneous Functions	90
A.6 Graphical Mesh Generator GUI	91
A.7 class Alpha_Shape	92
A.8 Numerical Tools	93
B Glossary	95
Index	97

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose

The purpose of this user manual is to introduce the new user to the inundation software system, describe what it can do and give step-by-step instructions for setting up and running hydrodynamic simulations. The stable releases of **ANUGA** and this manual are available on github at http://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga_core/releases.

A snapshot of the current work in progress is at http://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga_core.

This manual describes **ANUGA** version 2.0.3. To check for later versions of this manual go to http://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga_core/doc/anuga_user_manual.pdf.

1.2 Scope

This manual covers only what is needed to operate the software after installation and configuration. It does not include instructions for installing the software or detailed API documentation, both of which will be covered in separate publications and by documentation in the source code.

The latest installation instructions may be found at: http://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga_core/INSTALL.rst.

1.3 Audience

Readers are assumed to be familiar with the Python Programming language and its object oriented approach. A good Python tutorial is <https://docs.python.org/2/tutorial>.

Readers also need to have a general understanding of scientific modelling, as well as enough programming experience to adapt the code to different requirements.

1.4 Background

Modelling the effects on the built environment of natural hazards such as riverine flooding, storm surges and tsunami is critical for understanding their economic and social impact on our urban communities. Geoscience Australia and the Australian National University are developing a hydrodynamic inundation modelling tool called **ANUGA** to help simulate the impact of these hazards.

The core of **ANUGA** is the fluid dynamics module, called `shallow_water`, which is based on a finite-volume method for solving the Shallow Water Wave Equation. The study area is represented by a mesh of triangular cells. By solving the governing equation within each cell, water depth and horizontal momentum are tracked over time.

A major capability of **ANUGA** is that it can model the process of wetting and drying as water enters and leaves an area. This means that it is suitable for simulating water flow onto a beach or dry land and around structures such as buildings. **ANUGA** is also capable of modelling hydraulic jumps due to the ability of the finite-volume method to accommodate discontinuities in the solution and the bed (using the latest algorithms (see section 1.5))

To set up a particular scenario the user specifies the geometry (bathymetry and topography), the initial water level (stage), boundary conditions such as tide, and any operators that may drive the system such as rainfall, abstraction of water, erosion, culverts See section 10 for details of operators available in **ANUGA** .

The built-in mesh generator, called `graphical_mesh_generator`, allows the user to set up the geometry of the problem interactively and to identify boundary segments and regions using symbolic tags. These tags may then be used to set the actual boundary conditions and attributes for different regions (e.g. the Manning friction coefficient) for each simulation.

Most **ANUGA** components are written in the object-oriented programming language Python. Software written in Python can be produced quickly and can be readily adapted to changing requirements throughout its life-time. Computationally intensive components are written for efficiency in C routines working directly with Python numpy structures.

The visualisation tool developed for **ANUGA** is based on OpenSceneGraph, an Open Source Software (OSS) component allowing high level interaction with sophisticated graphics primitives. See [nielsen2005] for more background on **ANUGA** .

1.5 Which flow algorithm

Up to version 2.0 our default flow algorithm assumed a continuous bed. This allowed for a robust algorithm, but did lead to complications associated with well balancing and the introduction of useful structures such as riverwalls.

From version 1.3 we have made available flow algorithms which can use discontinuous bed and have introduced riverwalls for those algorithms. In addition, for those algorithms, it has been much easier to deal with operations that change the bed (such as erosion).

To choose a particular flow algorithm use the following command in your **ANUGA** script:

```
domain.set_flow_algorithm('alg')
```

where `alg` is one of the following:

alg	Description	Comments
DE0	Uses first order timestepping and a fairly diffusive second order spatial approximation.	Very robust, more accurate than 1_5. This is our default algorithm since version 2.0. Useful for standard flow problems and tsunamis.
DE1	Uses second order timestepping and a much less diffusive second order spatial approximation.	More accurate than, but about 1/2 the speed of DE0. Useful for problems with forced waves or tidal flows over many tidal cycles.
DE2	Uses third order timestepping and the same spatial approximation as DE1	Slightly more accurate than DE1. About 1/3 the speed of DE0.
1_5	Uses first order timestepping and similar spatial approximation to DE0.	Very robust, slightly fast than DE0. The default algorithm before version 2.0.
2_0	Uses second order timestepping and similar spatial approximation to DE1.	More accurate than, but about 1/2 the speed of 1_5
2_5	uses third order timestepping and similar spatial approximation to DE1 .	Slightly more accurate than 2_0. About 1/3 the speed of 2_0.

From version 2.0 the default algorithm is DE0. Usually there is no need to change from the default algorithm.

1.6 Restrictions and limitations on **ANUGA**

Although a powerful and flexible tool for hydrodynamic modelling, **ANUGA** has a number of limitations that any potential user needs to be aware of. They are:

- The mathematical model is the 2D shallow water wave equation. As such it cannot resolve vertical convection and consequently not breaking waves or 3D turbulence (e.g. vorticity).
- All spatial coordinates are assumed to be UTM (meters). As such, **ANUGA** is unsuitable for modelling flows in areas larger than one UTM zone (6 degrees wide), though we have run over 2 zones by projecting onto one zone and living with the distortion.
- Fluid is assumed to be inviscid – i.e. no kinematic viscosity included.
- The finite volume is a very robust and flexible numerical technique, but it is not the fastest method around. If the geometry is sufficiently simple and if there is no need for wetting or drying, a finite-difference method may be able to solve the problem faster than **ANUGA** .
- Frictional resistance is implemented using Manning’s formula.

1.7 Citing **ANUGA**

When citing **ANUGA** cite this manual:

Bibtex entry:

```
@manual{anugamannual,  
  title={ANUGA User Manual},  
  author={Roberts, S and Nielsen, O. and Gray, D. and Sexton, J. and Davies, G.},  
  organization={Geoscience Australia},  
  year={2015}  
}
```

or this article

Bibtex entry:

```
@article{nielsen2005hydrodynamic,  
  title={Hydrodynamic modelling of coastal inundation},  
  author={Nielsen, O and Roberts, S and Gray, D and McPherson, A and Hitchman, A},  
  journal={MODSIM 2005 International Congress on Modelling and Simulation},  
  pages={518--523},  
  year={2005}  
}
```

1.8 Installation

We suggest visiting the page anuga.anu.edu.au or https://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga_core/blob/master/INSTALL.rst to find up to date instructions on installing **ANUGA** on Ubuntu and Windows.

GETTING STARTED

This section is designed to assist the reader to get started with **ANUGA** by working through some examples. Two examples are discussed; the first is a simple example to illustrate many of the concepts, and the second is a more realistic example.

2.1 A Simple Example

What follows is a discussion of the structure and operation of a script called 'runup.py' (which is available in the 'examples' directory of 'anuga.core').

This example carries out the solution of the shallow-water wave equation in the simple case of a configuration comprising a flat bed, sloping at a fixed angle in one direction and having a constant depth across each line in the perpendicular direction.

The example demonstrates the basic ideas involved in setting up a complex scenario. In general the user specifies the geometry (bathymetry and topography), the initial water level, boundary conditions such as tide, and any forcing terms that may drive the system such as rainfall, abstraction of water, wind stress or atmospheric pressure gradients. Frictional resistance from the different terrains in the model is represented by predefined forcing terms. In this example, the boundary is reflective on three sides and a time dependent wave on one side.

The present example represents a simple scenario and does not include any forcing terms, nor is the data taken from a file as it would typically be.

The conserved quantities involved in the problem are stage (absolute height of water surface), x -momentum and y -momentum. Other quantities involved in the computation are the friction and elevation.

Water depth can be obtained through the equation:

$$\text{depth} = \text{stage} - \text{elevation}$$

2.2 Outline of the Program

In outline, 'runup.py' performs the following steps:

1. Sets up a triangular mesh.
2. Sets certain parameters governing the mode of operation of the model, specifying, for instance, where to store the model output.
3. Inputs various quantities describing physical measurements, such as the elevation, to be specified at each mesh point (vertex).
4. Sets up the boundary conditions.
5. Carries out the evolution of the model through a series of time steps and outputs the results, providing a results file that can be viewed.

2.3 The Code

For reference we include below the complete code listing for ‘runup.py’. Subsequent paragraphs provide a ‘commentary’ that describes each step of the program and explains its significance.

2.4 Establishing the Domain

The very first thing to do is import the various modules, of which the **ANUGA** module is the most important.

```
import anuga
```

Then we need to set up the triangular mesh to be used for the scenario. This is carried out through the statement:

```
domain = anuga.rectangular_cross_domain(10, 5, len1=10.0, len2=5.0)
```

The above assignment sets up a 10×5 rectangular mesh, triangulated in a regular way with boundary tags ‘left’, ‘right’, ‘top’ or ‘bottom’.

It is also possible to set up a domain from “first principles” using `points`, `vertices` and `boundary` via the assignment:

```
domain = anuga.Domain(points, vertices, boundary)
```

where

- a list `points` giving the coordinates of each mesh point,
- a list `vertices` specifying the three vertices of each triangle, and
- a dictionary `boundary` that stores the edges on the boundary and associates with each a symbolic tag. The edges are represented as pairs (i, j) where i refers to the triangle id and j to the edge id of that triangle. Edge ids are enumerated from 0 to 2 based on the id of the vertex opposite.

(For more details on symbolic tags, see page 8.)

An example of a general unstructured mesh and the associated data structures `points`, `vertices` and `boundary` is given in Section 6.

This creates an instance of the `Domain` class, which represents the domain of the simulation. Specific options are set at this point, including the basename for the output file and the directory to be used for data:

```
domain.set_name('runup')
domain.set_datadir('.')
```

In addition, the following statement could be used to state that quantities `stage`, `xmomentum` and `ymomentum` are to be stored at every timestep and `elevation` only once at the beginning of the simulation:

```
domain.set_quantities_to_be_stored({
    'stage': 2, 'xmomentum': 2, 'ymomentum': 2, 'elevation': 1})
```

However, this is not necessary, as the above is the default behaviour.

2.5 Initial Conditions

The next task is to specify a number of quantities that we wish to set for each mesh point. The class `Domain` has a method `set_quantity`, used to specify these quantities. It is a flexible method that allows the user to set

quantities in a variety of ways – using constants, functions, numeric arrays, expressions involving other quantities, or arbitrary data points with associated values, all of which can be passed as arguments. All quantities can be initialised using `set_quantity`. For a conserved quantity (such as `stage`, `xmomentum`, `ymomentum`) this is called an *initial condition*. However, other quantities that aren't updated by the equation are also assigned values using the same interface. The code in the present example demonstrates a number of forms in which we can invoke `set_quantity`.

2.5.1 Elevation

The elevation, or height of the bed, is set using a function defined through the statements below, which is specific to this example and specifies a particularly simple initial configuration for demonstration purposes:

```
def topography(x, y):  
    return -x/2
```

This simply associates an elevation with each point (x, y) of the plane. It specifies that the bed slopes linearly in the x direction, with slope $-\frac{1}{2}$, and is constant in the y direction.

Once the function `topography` is specified, the quantity `elevation` is assigned through the simple statement:

```
domain.set_quantity('elevation', topography)
```

NOTE: If using function to set `elevation` it must be vector compatible. For example, using square root will not work.

2.5.2 Friction

The assignment of the friction quantity (a forcing term) demonstrates another way we can use `set_quantity` to set quantities – namely, assign them to a constant numerical value:

```
domain.set_quantity('friction', 0.1)
```

This specifies that the Manning friction coefficient is set to 0.1 at every mesh point.

2.5.3 Stage

The stage (the height of the water surface) is related to the elevation and the depth at any time by the equation:

```
stage = elevation + depth
```

For this example, we simply assign a constant value to `stage`, using the statement:

```
domain.set_quantity('stage', -0.4)
```

which specifies that the surface level is set to a height of -0.4 , i.e. 0.4 units (metres) below the zero level.

Although it is not necessary for this example, it may be useful to digress here and mention a variant to this requirement, which allows us to illustrate another way to use `set_quantity` – namely, incorporating an expression involving other quantities. Suppose, instead of setting a constant value for the stage, we wished to specify a constant value for the *depth*. For such a case we need to specify that `stage` is everywhere obtained by adding that value to the value already specified for `elevation`. We would do this by means of the statements:

```
h = 0.05      # Constant depth  
domain.set_quantity('stage', expression='elevation + %f' % h)
```

That is, the value of `stage` is set to $h = 0.05$ plus the value of `elevation` already defined.

The reader will probably appreciate that this capability to incorporate expressions into statements using `set_quantity` greatly expands its power. See Section 8 for more details.

2.6 Boundary Conditions

The boundary conditions are specified as follows:

```
Br = anuga.Reflective_boundary(domain)
Bt = anuga.Transmissive_boundary(domain)
Bd = anuga.Dirichlet_boundary([0.2, 0.0, 0.0])
Bw = anuga.Time_boundary(domain=domain,
                             f=lambda t: [(0.1*sin(t*2*pi)-0.3)*exp(-t), 0.0, 0.0])
```

The effect of these statements is to set up a selection of different alternative boundary conditions and store them in variables that can be assigned as needed. Each boundary condition specifies the behaviour at a boundary in terms of the behaviour in neighbouring elements. The boundary conditions introduced here may be briefly described as follows:

- **Reflective boundary** Returns same `stage` as in its neighbour volume but momentum vector reversed 180 degrees (reflected). Specific to the shallow water equation as it works with the momentum quantities assumed to be the second and third conserved quantities. A reflective boundary condition models a solid wall.
- **Transmissive boundary** Returns same conserved quantities as those present in its neighbour volume. This is one way of modelling outflow from a domain, but it should be used with caution if flow is not steady state as replication of momentum at the boundary may cause numerical instabilities propagating into the domain and eventually causing **ANUGA** to crash. If this occurs, consider using e.g. a Dirichlet boundary condition with a stage value less than the elevation at the boundary.
- **Dirichlet boundary** Specifies constant values for stage, x -momentum and y -momentum at the boundary.
- **Time boundary** Like a Dirichlet boundary but with behaviour varying with time.

Before describing how these boundary conditions are assigned, we recall that a mesh is specified using three variables `points`, `vertices` and `boundary`. In the code we are discussing, these three variables are returned by the function `rectangular`. The example given in Section 4 illustrates another way of assigning the values, by means of the function `create_mesh_from_regions`.

These variables store the data determining the mesh as follows. (You may find that the example given in Section 6 helps to clarify the following discussion, even though that example is a *non-rectangular* mesh.)

- The variable `points` stores a list of 2-tuples giving the coordinates of the mesh points.
- The variable `vertices` stores a list of 3-tuples of numbers, representing vertices of triangles in the mesh. In this list, the triangle whose vertices are `points[i]`, `points[j]`, `points[k]` is represented by the 3-tuple `(i, j, k)`.
- The variable `boundary` is a Python dictionary that not only stores the edges that make up the boundary but also assigns symbolic tags to these edges to distinguish different parts of the boundary. An edge with endpoints `points[i]` and `points[j]` is represented by the 2-tuple `(i, j)`. The keys for the dictionary are the 2-tuples `(i, j)` corresponding to boundary edges in the mesh, and the values are the tags are used to label them. In the present example, the value `boundary[(i, j)]` assigned to `(i, j)` is one of the four tags `'left'`, `'right'`, `'top'` or `'bottom'`, depending on whether the boundary edge represented by `(i, j)` occurs at the left, right, top or bottom of the rectangle bounding the mesh. The function `rectangular` automatically assigns these tags to the boundary edges when it generates the mesh.

The tags provide the means to assign different boundary conditions to an edge depending on which part of the boundary it belongs to. (In Section 4 we describe an example that uses different boundary tags – in general, the possible tags are entirely selectable by the user when generating the mesh and not limited to 'left', 'right', 'top' and 'bottom' as in this example.) All segments in bounding polygon must be tagged. If a tag is not supplied, the default tag name 'exterior' will be assigned by **ANUGA**.

Using the boundary objects described above, we assign a boundary condition to each part of the boundary by means of a statement like:

```
domain.set_boundary({'left': Br, 'right': Bw, 'top': Br, 'bottom': Br})
```

It is critical that all tags are associated with a boundary condition in this statement. If not the program will halt with a statement like:

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "mesh_test.py", line 114, in ?
    domain.set_boundary({'west': Bi, 'east': Bo, 'north': Br, 'south': Br})
  File "X:\inundation\sandpits\onielsen\anuga_core\source\anuga\
    abstract_2d_finite_volumes\domain.py", line 505, in set_boundary
    raise msg
ERROR (domain.py): Tag "exterior" has not been bound to a boundary object.
All boundary tags defined in domain must appear in the supplied dictionary.
The tags are: ['ocean', 'east', 'north', 'exterior', 'south']
```

The command `set_boundary` stipulates that, in the current example, the right boundary varies with time, as defined by the lambda function, while the other boundaries are all reflective.

The reader may wish to experiment by varying the choice of boundary types for one or more of the boundaries. (In the case of `Bd` and `Bw`, the three arguments in each case represent the stage, x -momentum and y -momentum, respectively.)

```
Bw = anuga.Time_boundary(domain=domain,
    f=lambda t: [(0.1*sin(t*2*pi)-0.3), 0.0, 0.0])
```

2.7 Evolution

The final statement:

```
for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=0.1, duration=10.0):
    print domain.timestepping_statistics()
```

causes the configuration of the domain to 'evolve', over a series of steps indicated by the values of `yieldstep` and `duration`, which can be altered as required. The value of `yieldstep` controls the time interval between successive model outputs. Behind the scenes more time steps are generally taken.

2.8 Output

The output is a NetCDF file with the extension `.sww`. It contains stage and momentum information and can be used with the **ANUGA** viewer `anuga_viewer` to generate a visual display (see Section A.2). See Section 15 (page 67) for more on NetCDF and other file formats.

The following is a listing of the screen output seen by the user when this example is run:

2.9 How to Run the Code

The code can be run in various ways:

- from a Windows or Unix command line as in `python runup.py`
- within the Python IDLE environment
- within emacs
- within Windows, by double-clicking the `runup.py` file.

2.10 Exploring the Model Output

The following figures are screenshots from the **ANUGA** visualisation tool `anuga_viewer`. Figure 2.1 shows the domain with water surface as specified by the initial condition, $t = 0$. Figure 2.2 shows later snapshots for $t = 2.3$ and $t = 4$ where the system has been evolved and the wave is encroaching on the previously dry bed.

`anuga_viewer` is described in more detail in Section A.2.

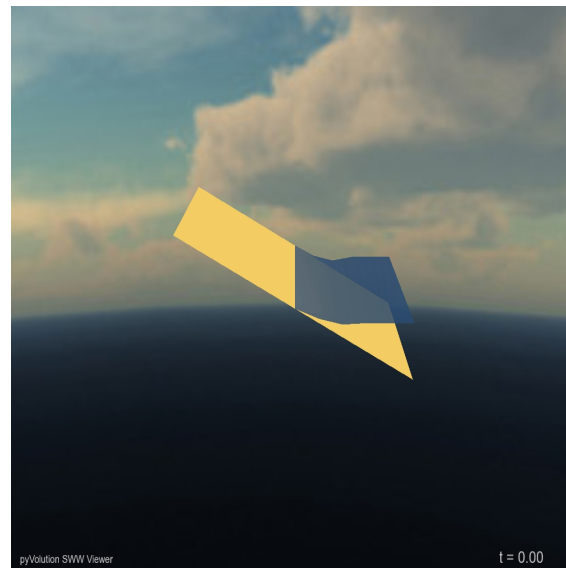


Figure 2.1: Runup example viewed with the **ANUGA** viewer

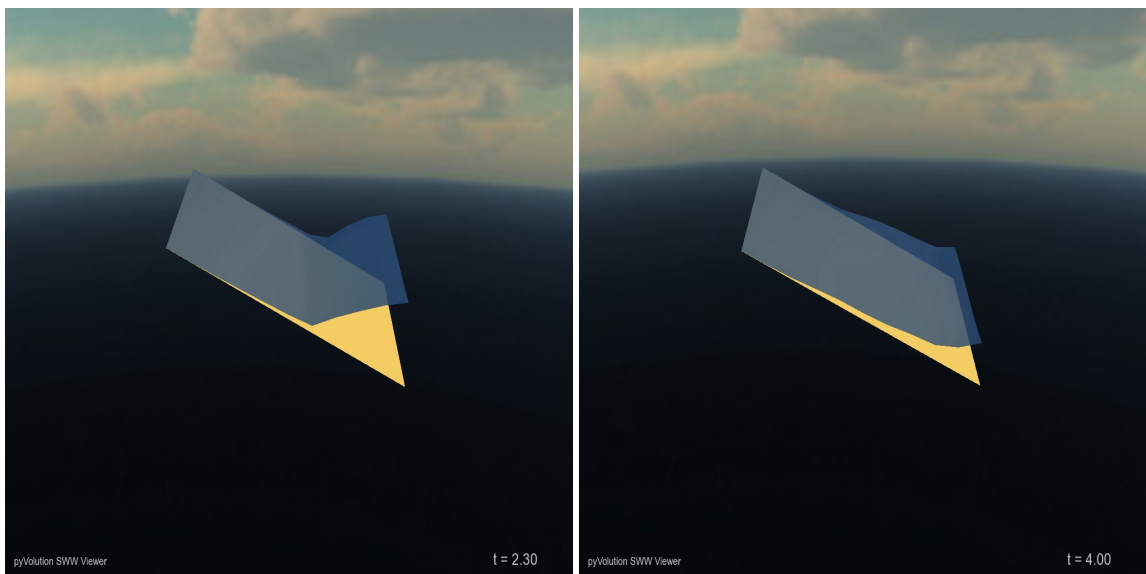


Figure 2.2: Runup example viewed with ANGUA viewer

A SLIGHTLY MORE COMPLEX EXAMPLE

The next example is about water-flow in a channel with varying boundary conditions and more complex topographies. These examples build on the concepts introduced through the ‘runup.py’ in Section 2.1. The example will be built up through three progressively more complex scripts.

3.1 Overview

As in the case of ‘runup.py’, the actions carried out by the program can be organised according to this outline:

1. Set up a triangular mesh.
2. Set certain parameters governing the mode of operation of the model – specifying, for instance, where to store the model output.
3. Set up initial conditions for various quantities such as the elevation, to be specified at each mesh point (vertex).
4. Set up the boundary conditions.
5. Carry out the evolution of the model through a series of time steps and output the results, providing a results file that can be viewed.

3.2 The Code

Here is the code for the first version of the channel flow ‘channel1.py’:

In discussing the details of this example, we follow the outline given above, discussing each major step of the code in turn.

3.3 Establishing the Mesh

In this example we use a similar simple structured triangular mesh as in ‘runup.py’ for simplicity, but this time we will use a symmetric one and also change the physical extent of the domain. The assignment:

```
points, vertices, boundary = anuga.rectangular_cross(m, n,  
                                                    len1=length, len2=width)
```

returns an $m \times n$ mesh similar to the one used in the previous example, except that now the extent in the x and y directions are given by the value of `length` and `width` respectively.

Defining `m` and `n` in terms of the extent as in this example provides a convenient way of controlling the resolution: By defining `dx` and `dy` to be the desired size of each hypotenuse in the mesh we can write the mesh generation as follows:

```
length = 10.0
width = 5.0
dx = dy = 1          # Resolution: Length of subdivisions on both axes

points, vertices, boundary = anuga.rectangular_cross(int(length/dx),
                                                    int(width/dy), len1=length, len2=width)
```

which yields a mesh of `length=10m`, `width=5m` with 1m spacings. To increase the resolution, as we will later in this example, one merely decreases the values of `dx` and `dy`.

The rest of this script is similar to the previous example on page 6.

3.4 Model Output

The following figure is a screenshot from the **ANUGA** visualisation tool `anuga_viewer` of output from this example.



Figure 3.1: Simple channel example viewed with the **ANUGA** viewer.

3.5 Changing boundary conditions on the fly

Here is the code for the second version of the channel flow ‘`channel2.py`’:

This example differs from the first version in that a constant outflow boundary condition has been defined:

```
Bo = anuga.Dirichlet_boundary([-5, 0, 0])    # Outflow
```

and that it is applied to the right hand side boundary when the water level there exceeds 0m.


```

for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=0.2, finaltime=40.0):
    domain.write_time()

    if domain.get_quantity('stage').get_values(interpolation_points=[[10, 2.5]]) > 0:
        print 'Stage > 0: Changing to outflow boundary'
        domain.set_boundary({'right': Bo})

```

The `if` statement in the timestepping loop (`evolve`) gets the quantity `stage` and obtains the interpolated value at the point (10m, 2.5m) which is on the right boundary. If the stage exceeds 0m a message is printed and the old boundary condition at tag `'right'` is replaced by the outflow boundary using the method:

```

domain.set_boundary({'right': Bo})

```

This type of dynamically varying boundary could for example be used to model the breakdown of a sluice door when water exceeds a certain level.

3.6 Output

The text output from this example looks like this:

```

...
Time = 15.4000, delta t in [0.03789902, 0.03789916], steps=6 (6)
Time = 15.6000, delta t in [0.03789896, 0.03789908], steps=6 (6)
Time = 15.8000, delta t in [0.03789891, 0.03789903], steps=6 (6)
Stage > 0: Changing to outflow boundary
Time = 16.0000, delta t in [0.02709050, 0.03789898], steps=6 (6)
Time = 16.2000, delta t in [0.03789892, 0.03789904], steps=6 (6)
...

```

3.7 Flow through more complex topographies

Here is the code for the third version of the channel flow `'channel3.py'`:

This example differs from the first two versions in that the topography contains obstacles.

This is accomplished here by defining the function `topography` as follows:

```

def topography(x,y):
    """Complex topography defined by a function of vectors x and y."""

    z = -x/10

    N = len(x)
    for i in range(N):
        # Step
        if 10 < x[i] < 12:
            z[i] += 0.4 - 0.05*y[i]

        # Constriction
        if 27 < x[i] < 29 and y[i] > 3:
            z[i] += 2

        # Pole
        if (x[i] - 34)**2 + (y[i] - 2)**2 < 0.4**2:
            z[i] += 2

    return z

```

In addition, changing the resolution to $dx = dy = 0.1$ creates a finer mesh resolving the new features better.

A screenshot of this model at time 15s is:

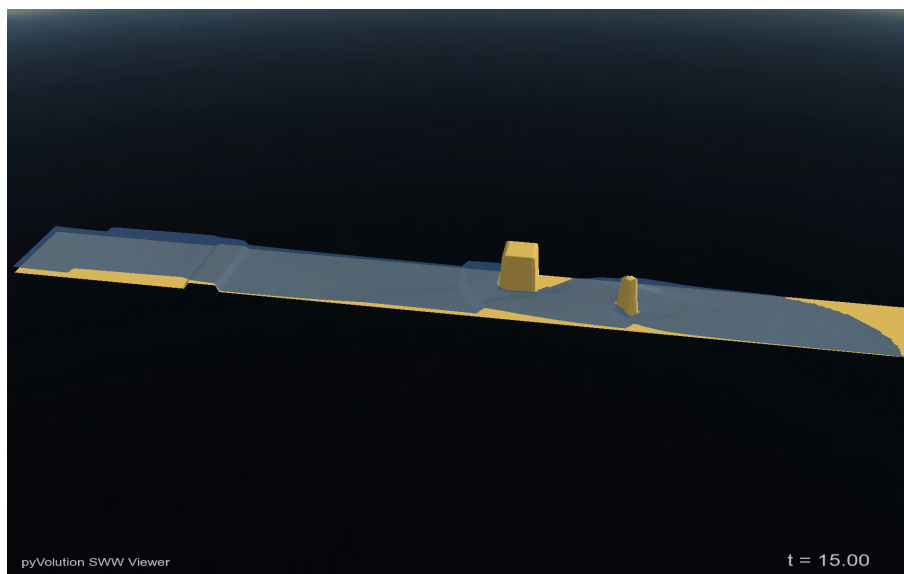


Figure 3.2: More complex flow in a channel

AN EXAMPLE WITH REAL DATA

The following discussion builds on the concepts introduced through the ‘runup.py’ example and introduces a second example, ‘runcairns.py’. This refers to a **hypothetical** scenario using real-life data, in which the domain of interest surrounds the Cairns region. Two scenarios are given; firstly, a hypothetical tsunami wave is generated by a submarine mass failure situated on the edge of the continental shelf, and secondly, a fixed wave of given amplitude and period is introduced through the boundary.

Each scenario has been designed to generate a tsunami which will inundate the Cairns region. To achieve this, suitably large parameters were chosen and were not based on any known tsunami sources or realistic amplitudes.

4.1 Overview

As in the case of ‘runup.py’, the actions carried out by the program can be organised according to this outline:

1. Set up a triangular mesh.
2. Set certain parameters governing the mode of operation of the model – specifying, for instance, where to store the model output.
3. Input various quantities describing physical measurements, such as the elevation, to be specified at each mesh point (vertex).
4. Set up the boundary conditions.
5. Carry out the evolution of the model through a series of time steps and output the results, providing a results file that can be visualised.

4.2 The Code

Here is the code for ‘runcairns.py’:

In discussing the details of this example, we follow the outline given above, discussing each major step of the code in turn.

4.3 Establishing the Mesh

One obvious way that the present example differs from ‘runup.py’ is in the use of a more complex method to create the mesh. Instead of imposing a mesh structure on a rectangular grid, the technique used for this example involves building mesh structures inside polygons specified by the user, using a mesh-generator.

The mesh-generator creates the mesh within a single polygon whose vertices are at geographical locations specified by the user. The user specifies the *resolution* – that is, the maximal area of a triangle used for triangulation – and a triangular mesh is created inside the polygon using a mesh generation engine. On any given platform, the same mesh will be returned each time the script is run.

Boundary tags are not restricted to 'left', 'bottom', 'right' and 'top', as in the case of 'runup.py'. Instead the user specifies a list of tags appropriate to the configuration being modelled.

In addition, the mesh-generator provides a way to adapt to geographic or other features in the landscape, whose presence may require an increase in resolution. This is done by allowing the user to specify a number of *interior polygons*, each with a specified resolution. It is also possible to specify one or more 'holes' – that is, areas bounded by polygons in which no triangulation is required.

In its general form, the mesh-generator takes for its input a bounding polygon and (optionally) a list of interior polygons. The user specifies resolutions, both for the bounding polygon and for each of the interior polygons. Given this data, the mesh-generator first creates a triangular mesh with varying resolution.

The function used to implement this process is `create_domain_from_regions` which creates a `Domain` object as well as a mesh file. Its arguments include the bounding polygon and its resolution, a list of boundary tags, and a list of pairs `[polygon, resolution]` specifying the interior polygons and their resolutions.

The resulting mesh is output to a *mesh file*. This term is used to describe a file of a specific format used to store the data specifying a mesh. (There are in fact two possible formats for such a file: it can either be a binary file, with extension `.msh`, or an ASCII file, with extension `.tsh`. In the present case, the binary file format `.msh` is used. See Section 15 (page 67) for more on file formats.

In practice, the details of the polygons used are read from a separate file 'project.py'. Here is a complete listing of 'project.py':

Figure 4.1 illustrates the landscape of the region for the Cairns example. Understanding the landscape is important in determining the location and resolution of interior polygons. The supporting data is found in the ASCII grid, `cairns.asc`, which has been sourced from the publically available Australian Bathymetry and Topography Grid 2005, [grid250]. The required resolution for inundation modelling will depend on the underlying topography and bathymetry; as the terrain becomes more complex, the desired resolution would decrease to the order of tens of metres.

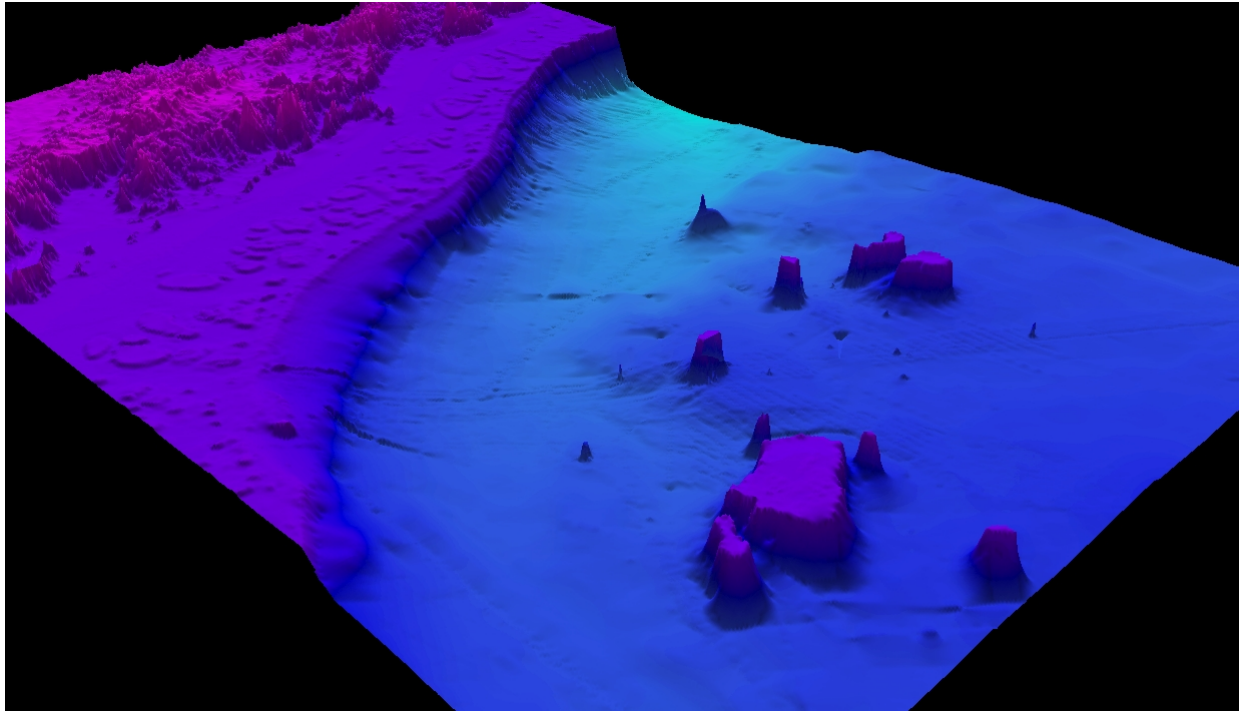


Figure 4.1: Landscape of the Cairns scenario.

The following statements are used to read in the specific polygons from `project.cairns` and assign a defined resolution to each polygon.

```
islands_res = 100000
cairns_res = 100000
shallow_res = 500000
interior_regions = [[project.poly_cairns, cairns_res],
                    [project.poly_island0, islands_res],
                    [project.poly_island1, islands_res],
                    [project.poly_island2, islands_res],
                    [project.poly_island3, islands_res],
                    [project.poly_shallow, shallow_res]]
```

Figure 4.2 illustrates the polygons used for the Cairns scenario.

ANUGA demo Cairns Tsunami Scenario

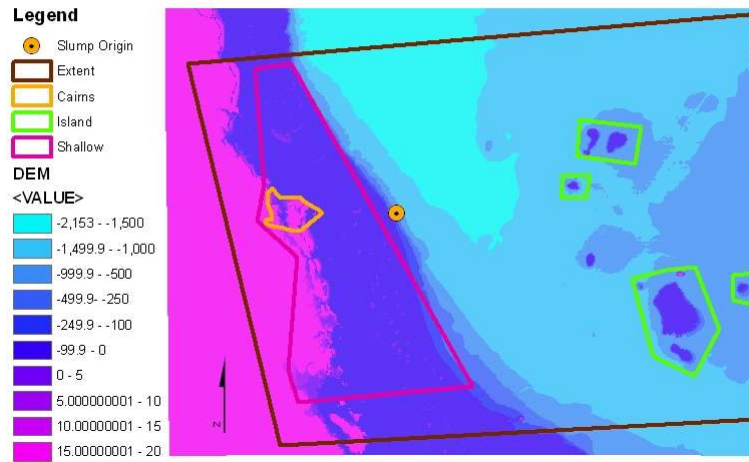


Figure 4.2: Interior and bounding polygons for the Cairns example.

The statement:

```
remainder_res = 10000000
domain = anuga.create_domain_from_regions(project.bounding_polygon,
                                          boundary_tags={'top': [0],
                                                         'ocean_east': [1],
                                                         'bottom': [2],
                                                         'onshore': [3]},
                                          maximum_triangle_area=project.default_res,
                                          mesh_filename=project.meshname,
                                          interior_regions=project.interior_regions,
                                          use_cache=True,
                                          verbose=True)
```

is then used to create the mesh, taking the bounding polygon to be the polygon `bounding_polygon` specified in `'project.py'`. The argument `boundary_tags` assigns a dictionary, whose keys are the names of the boundary tags used for the bounding polygon – `'top'`, `'ocean_east'`, `'bottom'`, and `'onshore'` – and whose values identify the indices of the segments associated with each of these tags. The polygon may be arranged either clock-wise or counter clock-wise and the indices refer to edges in the order they appear: Edge 0 connects vertex 0 and vertex 1, edge 1 connects vertex 1 and 2; and so forth. (Here, the values associated with each boundary tag are one-element lists, but they can have as many indices as there are edges) If polygons intersect, or edges coincide (or are even very close) the resolution may be undefined in some regions. Use the underlying mesh interface for such cases (see Chapter 14.2). If a segment is omitted in the tags definition an Exception is raised.

Note that every point on each polygon defining the mesh will be used as vertices in triangles. Consequently, polygons with points very close together will cause triangles with very small areas to be generated irrespective of the requested resolution. Make sure points on polygons are spaced to be no closer than the smallest resolution requested.

4.4 Initialising the Domain

Since we used `create_domain_from_regions` to create the mesh file, we do not need to create the domain explicitly, as the above function does both mesh and domain creation.

The following statements specify a basename and data directory, and sets a minimum storable height, which helps with visualisation and post-processing if one wants to remove water less than 1cm deep (for instance).

```

domain.set_name('cairns_' + project.scenario) # Name of SWW file
domain.set_datadir('.') # Store SWW output here
domain.set_minimum_storable_height(0.01) # Store only depth > 1cm

```

4.5 Initial Conditions

Quantities for 'runcairns.py' are set using similar methods to those in 'runup.py'. However, in this case, many of the values are read from the auxiliary file 'project.py' or, in the case of `elevation`, from an auxiliary points file.

4.5.1 Stage

The stage is initially set to 0.0 (i.e. Mean Sea Level) by the following statements:

```

tide = 0.0
domain.set_quantity('stage', tide)

```

It could also take the value of the highest astronomical tide.

4.5.2 Friction

We assign the friction exactly as we did for 'runup.py':

```

domain.set_quantity('friction', 0.0)

```

4.5.3 Elevation

The elevation is specified by reading data from a file with a name derived from `project.demname` with the `.pts` extension:

```

domain.set_quantity('elevation',
                    filename=project.demname + '.pts',
                    use_cache=True,
                    verbose=True,
                    alpha=0.1)

```

The `alpha` parameter controls how smooth the elevation surface should be. See section A.7, page 92.

Setting `cache=True` allows **ANUGA** to save the result in order to make subsequent runs faster.

Using `verbose=True` tells the function to write diagnostics to the screen.

4.6 Boundary Conditions

Setting boundaries follows a similar pattern to the one used for 'runup.py', except that in this case we need to associate a boundary type with each of the boundary tag names introduced when we established the mesh. In place of the four boundary types introduced for 'runup.py', we use the reflective boundary for each of the tagged segments defined by `create_domain_from_regions`:

```

Bd = anuga.Dirichlet_boundary([tide,0,0]) # Mean water level
Bs = anuga.Transmissive_stage_zero_momentum_boundary(domain) # Neutral boundary

if project.scenario == 'fixed_wave':
    # Huge 50m wave starting after 60 seconds and lasting 1 hour.
    Bw = anuga.Transmissive_n_momentum_zero_t_momentum_set_stage_boundary(
        domain=domain,
        function=lambda t: [(60<t<3660)*50, 0, 0])
    domain.set_boundary({'ocean_east': Bw,
                        'bottom': Bs,
                        'onshore': Bd,
                        'top': Bs})

if project.scenario == 'slide':
    # Boundary conditions for slide scenario
    domain.set_boundary({'ocean_east': Bd,
                        'bottom': Bd,
                        'onshore': Bd,
                        'top': Bd})

```

Note that we use different boundary conditions depending on the `scenario` defined in `'project.py'`.

It is not a requirement in **ANUGA** to have this code structure, just an example of how the script can take different actions depending on a variable.

4.7 Evolution

With the basics established, the running of the `'evolve'` step is very similar to the corresponding step in `'runup.py'`, except we have different `evolve` loops for the two scenarios.

For the slide scenario, the simulation is run for an initial 60 seconds, at which time the slide occurs. We use the function `tsunami_source` to adjust stage values. We then run the simulation until 5000 seconds with the output stored every ten seconds:


```

if project.scenario == 'slide':
    # Initial run without any event
    for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=10, finaltime=60):
        print domain.timestepping_statistics()
        print domain.boundary_statistics(tags='ocean_east')

    # Add slide to water surface
    if allclose(t, 60):
        domain.add_quantity('stage', tsunami_source)

    # Continue propagating wave
    for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=10, finaltime=5000,
                           skip_initial_step=True):
        print domain.timestepping_statistics()
        print domain.boundary_statistics(tags='ocean_east')

if project.scenario == 'fixed_wave':
    # Save every two mins leading up to wave approaching land
    for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=120, finaltime=5000):
        print domain.timestepping_statistics()
        print domain.boundary_statistics(tags='ocean_east')

    # Save every 30 secs as wave starts inundating ashore
    for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep=10, finaltime=10000,
                           skip_initial_step=True):
        print domain.timestepping_statistics()
        print domain.boundary_statistics(tags='ocean_east')

```

For the fixed wave scenario, the simulation is run to 10000 seconds, with the first half of the simulation stored at two minute intervals, and the second half of the simulation stored at ten second intervals. This functionality is especially convenient as it allows the detailed parts of the simulation to be viewed at higher time resolution.

This also demonstrates the ability of ANUGA to dynamically override values. The method `add_quantity()` works like `set_quantity()` except that it adds the new surface to what exists already. In this case it adds the initial shape of the water displacement to the water level.

4.8 Exploring the Model Output

Now that the scenario has been run, the user can view the output in a number of ways. As described earlier, the user may run `anuga_viewer` to view a three-dimensional representation of the simulation.

The user may also be interested in a maximum inundation map. This simply shows the maximum water depth over the domain and is achieved with the function `sww2dem` described in Section 15.8). ‘`ExportResults.py`’ demonstrates how this function can be used:

The script generates a maximum water depth ASCII grid at a defined resolution (here 100 m²) which can then be viewed in a GIS environment, for example. The parameters used in the function are defined in ‘`project.py`’. Figures 4.3 and 4.4 show the maximum water depth within the defined region for the slide and fixed wave scenario respectively. **Note, these inundation maps have been based on purely hypothetical scenarios and were designed explicitly for demonstration purposes only.** The user could develop a maximum absolute momentum or other expressions which can be derived from the quantities. It must be noted here that depth is more meaningful when the elevation is positive ($\text{depth} = \text{stage} - \text{elevation}$) as it describes the water height above the available elevation. When the elevation is negative, depth is measuring the water height from the sea floor. With this in mind, maximum inundation maps are typically “clipped” to the coastline. However, the data input here did not contain a coastline.

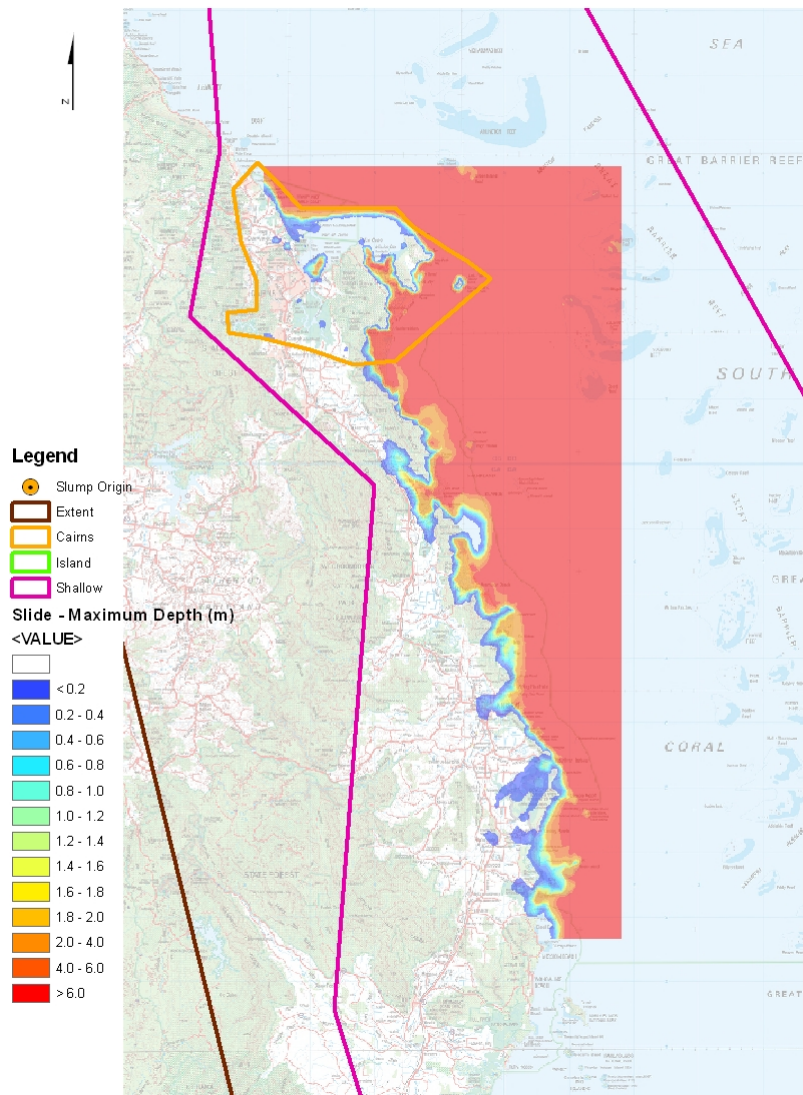


Figure 4.3: Maximum inundation map for the Cairns slide scenario. **Note, this inundation map has been based on a purely hypothetical scenario which was designed explicitly for demonstration purposes only.**

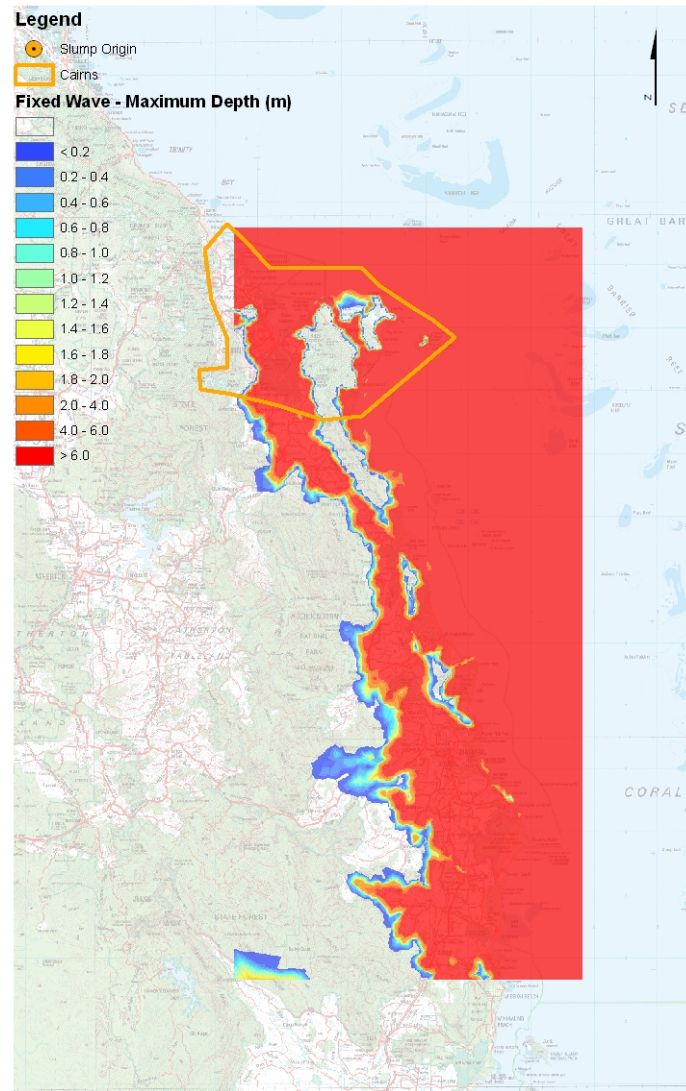


Figure 4.4: Maximum inundation map for the Cairns fixed wave scenario. **Note, this inundation map has been based on a purely hypothetical scenario which was designed explicitly for demonstration purposes only.**

The user may also be interested in interrogating the solution at a particular spatial location to understand the behaviour of the system through time. To do this, the user must first define the locations of interest. A number of locations have been identified for the Cairns scenario, as shown in Figure 4.5.

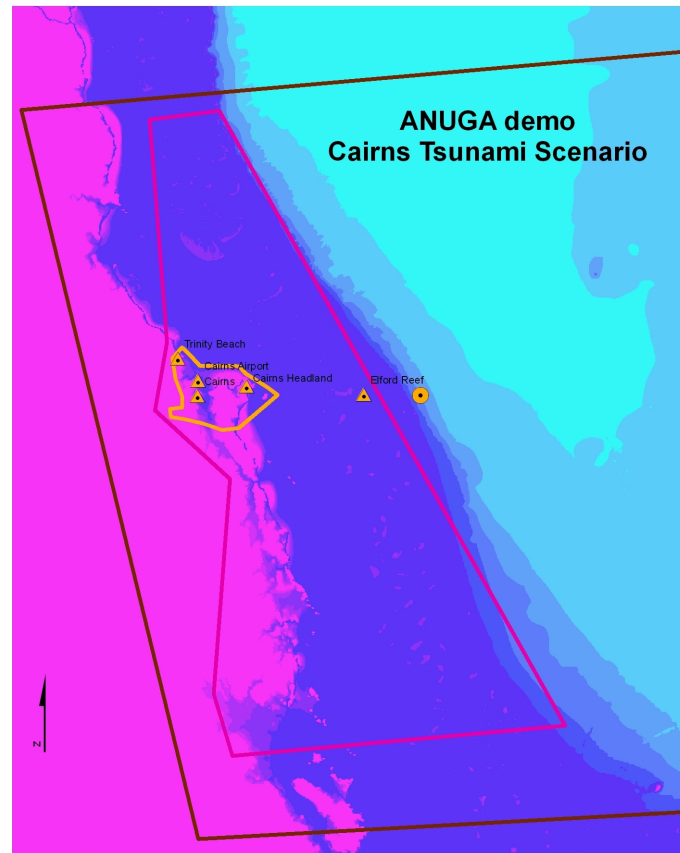


Figure 4.5: Point locations to show time series information for the Cairns scenario.

These locations must be stored in either a .csv or .txt file. The corresponding .csv file for the gauges shown in Figure 4.5 is 'gauges.csv':

Header information has been included to identify the location in terms of eastings and northings, and each gauge is given a name. The elevation column can be zero here. This information is then passed to the function `sww2csv_gauges` (shown in 'GetTimeseries.py' which generates the csv files for each point location. The CSV files can then be used in `csv2timeseries_graphs` to create the timeseries plot for each desired quantity. `csv2timeseries_graphs` relies on `pylab` to be installed which is not part of the standard `anuga` release, however it can be downloaded and installed from <http://matplotlib.sourceforge.net/>

Here, the time series for the quantities stage, depth and speed will be generated for each gauge defined in the gauge file. As described earlier, depth is more meaningful for onshore gauges, and stage is more appropriate for offshore gauges.

As an example output, Figure 4.6 shows the time series for the quantity stage for the Elford Reef location for each scenario (the elevation at this location is negative, therefore stage is the more appropriate quantity to plot). Note the large negative stage value when the slide was introduced. This is due to the double Gaussian form of the initial surface displacement of the slide. By contrast, the time series for depth is shown for the onshore location of the Cairns Airport in Figure 4.7.

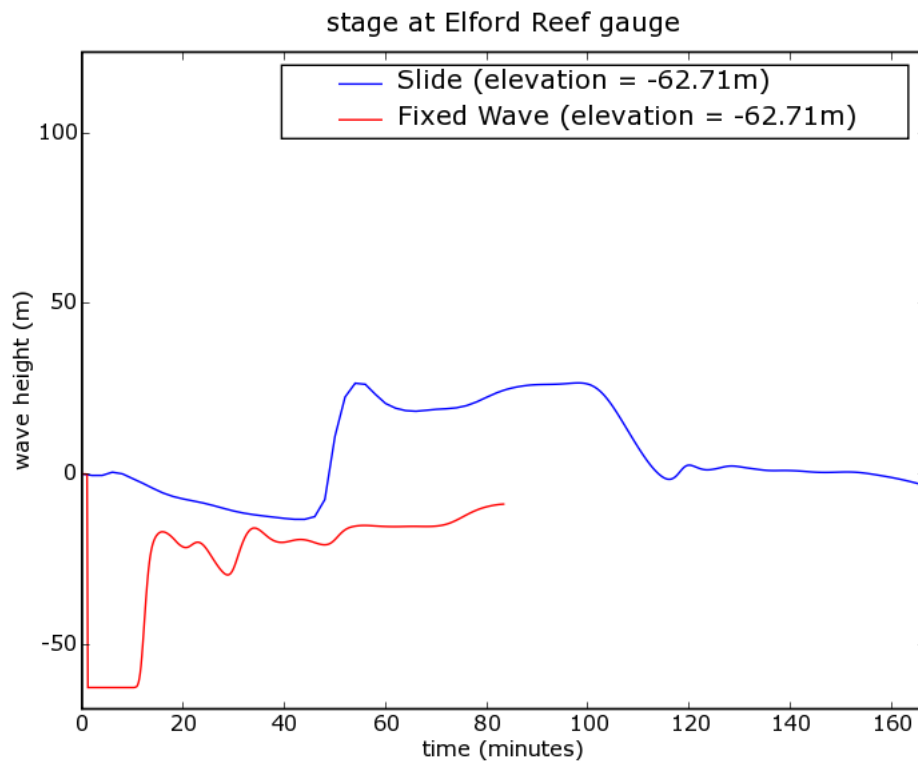


Figure 4.6: Time series information of the quantity stage for the Elford Reef location for the fixed wave and slide scenario.

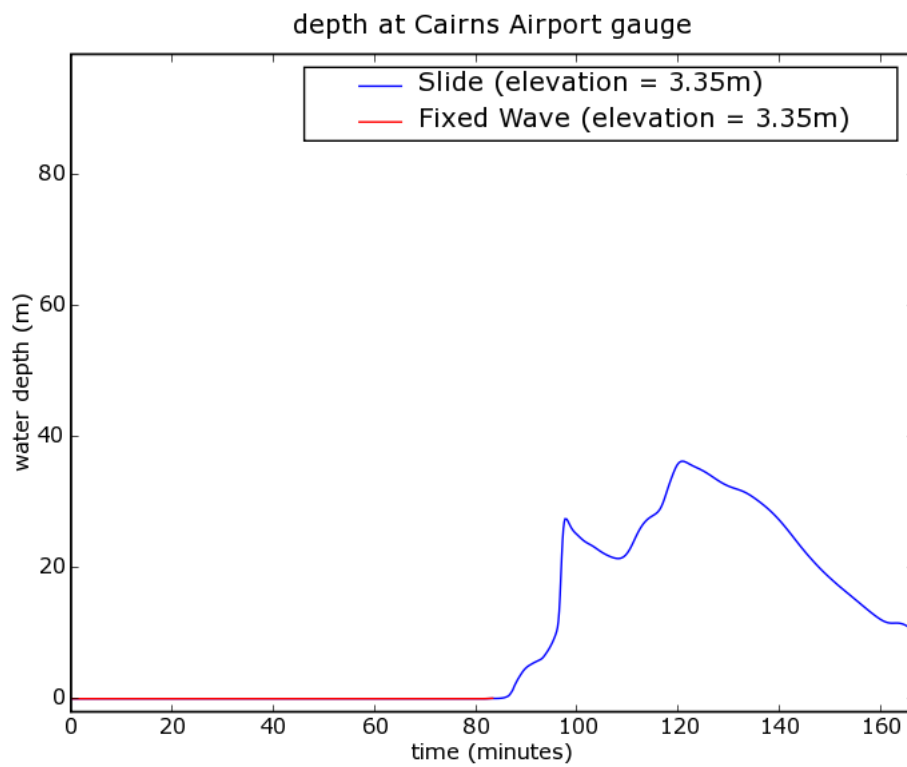


Figure 4.7: Time series information of the quantity depth for the Cairns Airport location for the slide and fixed wave scenario.

ANUGA VALIDATION TESTS

5.1 Overview

We have a large suite of validation tests (available from the `validation_tests` directory). From the individual directories, the tests can be run and a report produced, by running the `produce_results.py` script. These scripts take command line options. For instance

```
python produce_results.py -v -np 6
```

will run the tests in verbose mode (produces output) and in parallel using 6 processors (if parallel version of `anuga` has been setup).

A subset of these validation tests can be run using `run_validations.py` from the `anuga_core` directory.

The validation tests are organised into a number of directories as follows:

- **analytical_exact**: Extensive suite of tests against analytical solutions of the shallow water wave equations.
- **behaviour_only**: Tests against expected “engineering” results.
- **case_studies**: Generally long running simulations which can be tested against measured data.
- **experimental_data**: Simulations of experimental setups. Usually tested against measured data.
- **other_references**: Simulations tested against other simulations.

5.2 Analytical_exact

As an example, the code in the directory `validation_tests/analytical_exact` consider the code in the directory `dam_break_dry`. This code tests **ANUGA** against the standard analytical solution of the dam break problem. For instance Figure 5.1 shows the stage obtained at various times when running this validation test (using the `DE0` algorithm).

5.3 Behaviour_only

Many of the tests in this directory compare the **ANUGA** results against the hydrological model `HECRAS`. For instance the test `bridge_hecras` compares the stage next to a bridge modelled by `HECRAS` and **ANUGA**, which is shown in Figure 5.2.

5.4 Case_studies

These are generally very long running simulations but are typical of real world case studies. The case study `patong` considers a tsunami case study, where as `merewether` and `towradgi` look at flood models.

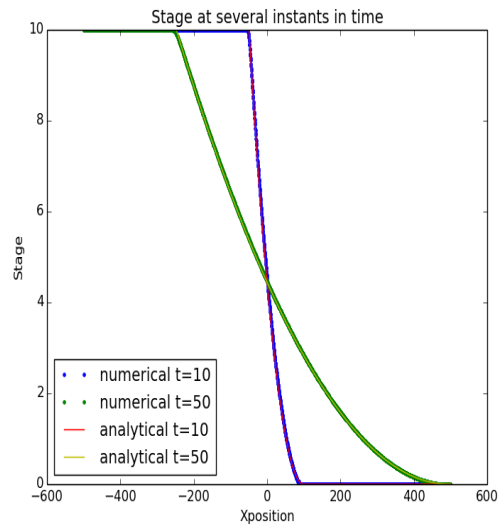


Figure 5.1: Comparison of analytical and computed stage for the dam break dry validation test

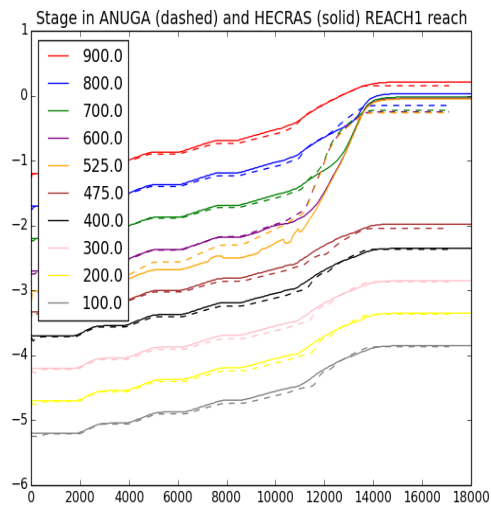


Figure 5.2: Comparison of stage near a bridge modelled by HECRAS and ANUGA

merewether is a short simulation (30mins), where as patong and especially towradgi will take many 10s of hours to run (consider running in parallel).

Figure5.3 showing comparison of observed flood height and **ANUGA** modelled flood height, near the Pioneer bridge.

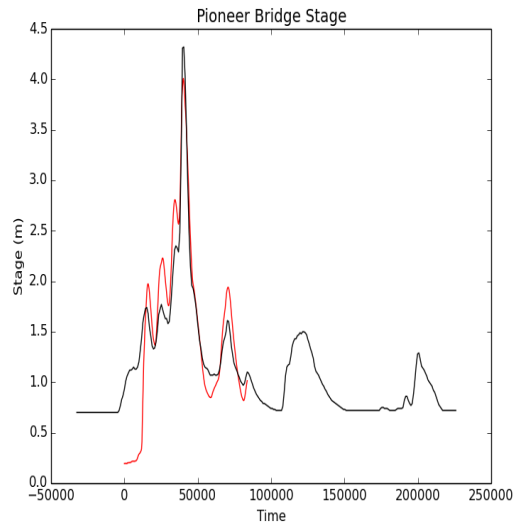


Figure 5.3: Comparison of observed and modelled stage near a bridge in the towradgi simulation

5.5 Experimental_data

This directory contains models in which we have experimental data to validation against. At present we have two studies, `dam_break_yeh_petroff` and `okushiri`.

Figure5.4 showing comparison of experimentally measured and modelled force on a column in a simulated dam break situation as modelled in directory `experimental_data/dam_break_yeh_petroff`

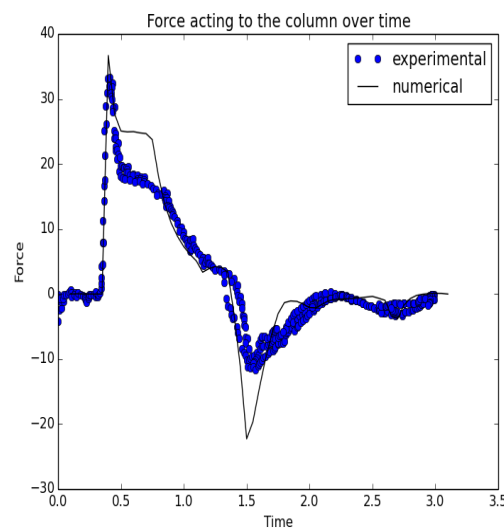


Figure 5.4: Comparison of experimentally measured and modelled force on a column in a simulated dam break situation

5.6 Other_references

Here we are collecting situations where we can compare with other published results. For instance in the directory we present comparison of a 2d **ANUGA** simulation of a circular dam break against a 1d shallow water simulation. Figure 5.5

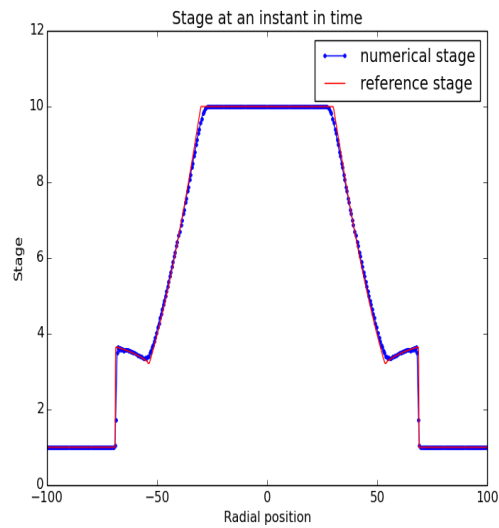


Figure 5.5: Comparison of **ANUGA** 2d simulation and a 1d shallow water simulation of a circular dam break

MESH GENERATION

Before discussing the part of the interface relating to mesh generation, we begin with a description of a simple example of a mesh and use it to describe how mesh data is stored.

Figure 6.1 represents a very simple mesh comprising just 11 points and 10 triangles.

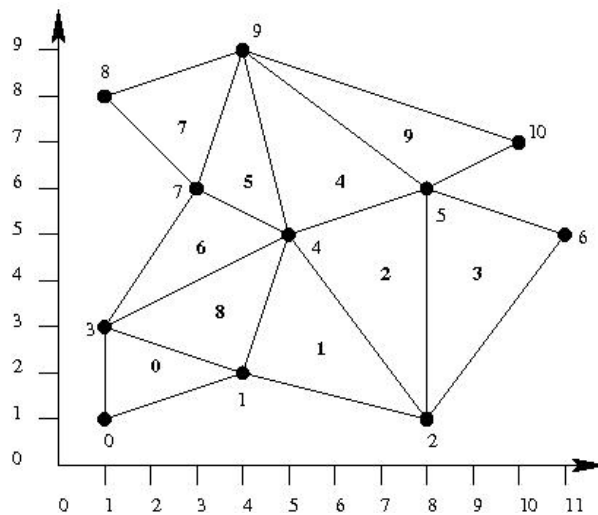


Figure 6.1: A simple mesh

The variables `points`, `triangles` and `boundary` represent the data displayed in Figure 6.1 as follows. The list `points` stores the coordinates of the points, and may be displayed schematically as in Table 6.1.

index	x	y
0	1	1
1	4	2
2	8	1
3	1	3
4	5	5
5	8	6
6	11	5
7	3	6
8	1	8
9	4	9
10	10	7

Table 6.1: Point coordinates for mesh in Figure 6.1

The list `triangles` specifies the triangles that make up the mesh. It does this by specifying, for each triangle, the indices (the numbers shown in the first column above) that correspond to the three points at the triangles

vertices, taken in an anti-clockwise order around the triangle. Thus, in the example shown in Figure 6.1, the variable `triangles` contains the entries shown in Table 6.2. The starting point is arbitrary so triangle (0, 1, 3) is considered the same as (1, 3, 0) and (3, 0, 1).

index	points		
0	0	1	3
1	1	2	4
2	2	5	4
3	2	6	5
4	4	5	9
5	4	9	7
6	3	4	7
7	7	9	8
8	1	4	3
9	5	10	9

Table 6.2: Triangles for mesh in Figure 6.1

Finally, the variable `boundary` identifies the boundary triangles and associates a tag with each.

6.1 High Level Mesh Generation Functions

create_mesh_from_regions (*bounding_polygon*, *boundary_tags*, *maximum_triangle_area=None*, *filename=None*, *interior_regions=None*, *interior_holes=None*, *hole_tags=None*, *poly_geo_reference=None*, *mesh_geo_reference=None*, *minimum_triangle_angle=28.0*, *fail_if_polygons_outside=True*, *breaklines=None*, *use_cache=False*, *verbose=True*)

Module: `pmesh.mesh_interface`

This function allows a user to initiate the automatic creation of a mesh inside a specified polygon (input `bounding_polygon`). Among the parameters that can be set are the *resolution* (maximal area for any triangle in the mesh) and the minimal angle allowable in any triangle. The user can specify a number of internal polygons within each of which the resolution of the mesh can be specified. `interior_regions` is a paired list containing the interior polygon and its resolution. Additionally, the user specifies a list of boundary tags, one for each edge of the bounding polygon.

`breaklines` lets you force a split along a boundary within the mesh. For example, a kerb or the edge of a dyke could be specified here. (new in 1.2)

`interior_holes` lets you specify polygons as empty holes in the mesh. This can be used to represent buildings, pylons and other immovable structures. These polygons do not need to be closed, but their points must be specified in a counter-clockwise order.(new in 1.2)

WARNING. Note that the dictionary structure used for the parameter `boundary_tags` is different from that used for the variable `boundary` that occurs in the specification of a mesh. In the case of `boundary`, the tags are the *values* of the dictionary, whereas in the case of `boundary_tags`, the tags are the *keys* and the *value* corresponding to a particular tag is a list of numbers identifying boundary edges labelled with that tag. Because of this, it is theoretically possible to assign the same edge to more than one tag. However, an attempt to do this will cause an error.

WARNING. Do not have polygon lines cross or be on-top of each other. This can result in regions of unspecified resolutions, and **ANUGA** will give you an error. Do not have polygon close to each other. This can result in the area between the polygons having small triangles. For more control over the mesh outline use the methods described below.

create_domain_from_regions (*bounding_polygon*, *boundary_tags*, *maximum_triangle_area=None*, *mesh_filename=None*, *interior_regions=None*, *interior_holes=None*, *poly_geo_reference=None*, *mesh_geo_reference=None*, *minimum_triangle_angle=28.0*, *fail_if_polygons_outside=True*, *use_cache=False*, *verbose=True*)

Module: `interface.py`

This higher-level function allows a user to create a domain (and associated mesh) inside a specified polygon. `bounding_polygon` is a list of points in Eastings and Northings, relative to the zone stated in `poly_geo_reference` if specified. Otherwise points are just x, y coordinates with no particular association to any location.

`boundary_tags` is a dictionary of symbolic tags. For every tag there is a list of indices referring to segments associated with that tag. If a segment is omitted it will be assigned the default tag ”.

`maximum_triangle_area` is the maximal area per triangle for the bounding polygon, excluding the interior regions.

`interior_holes` lets you specify polygons as empty holes in the mesh. This can be used to represent buildings, pylons and other immovable structures. These polygons do not need to be closed, but their points must be specified in a counter-clockwise order.(new in 1.2)

`mesh_filename` is the name of the file to contain the generated mesh data.

`interior_regions` is a list of tuples consisting of (polygon, resolution) for each region to be separately refined. Do not have polygon lines cross or be on-top of each other. Also do not have polygons close to each other.

`poly_geo_reference` is the `geo_reference` of the bounding polygon and the interior polygons. If none, assume absolute. Please pass one though, since absolute references have a zone.

`mesh_geo_reference` is the `geo_reference` of the mesh to be created. If none is given one will be automatically generated. It will use the lower left hand corner of bounding-polygon (absolute) as the x and y values for the `geo_ref`.

`minimum_triangle_angle` is the minimum angle allowed for each generated triangle. This controls the *slimness* allowed for a triangle.

`fail_if_polygons_outside` – if True (the default) an Exception is thrown if interior polygons fall outside the bounding polygon. If False, these will be ignored and execution continues.

WARNING. Note that the dictionary structure used for the parameter `boundary_tags` is different from that used for the variable `boundary` that occurs in the specification of a mesh. In the case of `boundary`, the tags are the *values* of the dictionary, whereas in the case of `boundary_tags`, the tags are the *keys* and the *value* corresponding to a particular tag is a list of numbers identifying boundary edges labelled with that tag. Because of this, it is theoretically possible to assign the same edge to more than one tag. However, an attempt to do this will cause an error.

WARNING. Do not have polygon lines cross or be on-top of each other. This can result in regions of unspecified resolutions. Do not have polygon close to each other. This can result in the area between the polygons having small triangles. For more control over the mesh outline use the methods described below.

6.2 Advanced mesh generation

For more control over the creation of the mesh outline, use the methods of the class `Mesh`.

class `Mesh` (`userSegments=None, userVertices=None, holes=None, regions=None, geo_reference=None`)

Module: `pmesh.mesh`

A class used to build a mesh outline and generate a two-dimensional triangular mesh. The mesh outline is used to describe features on the mesh, such as the mesh boundary. Many of this class’s methods are used to build a mesh outline, such as `add_vertices()` and `add_region_from_polygon()`.

`userSegments` and `userVertices` define the outline enclosing the mesh.

`holes` describes any regions inside the mesh that are not to be included in the mesh.

`geo_reference` defines the `geo_reference` to which all point information is relative. If `geo_reference` is `None` then the default `geo_reference` is used.

6.2.1 Key Methods of Class `Mesh`

<mesh>.add_hole (`x, y, geo_reference=None`)

Module: `pmesh.mesh`

This method adds a hole to the mesh outline.

x and *y* define a point on the already defined hole boundary.

If *geo_reference* is not supplied the points are assumed to be absolute.

<mesh>.add_hole_from_polygon (*polygon*, *segment_tags=None*, *geo_reference=None*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

This method is used to add a 'hole' within a region – that is, to define a interior region where the triangular mesh will not be generated – to a *Mesh* instance. The region boundary is described by the polygon passed in. Additionally, the user specifies a list of boundary tags, one for each edge of the bounding polygon.

polygon is the polygon that defines the hole to be added to the <mesh>.

segment_tags – ??

If *geo_reference* is *None* then the default *geo_reference* is used.

<mesh>.add_points_and_segments (*points*, *segments=None*, *segment_tags=None*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

This adds points and segments connecting the points to a mesh.

points is a list of points.

segments is a list of segments. Each segment is defined by the start and end of the line by its point index, e.g. use *segments = [[0, 1], [1, 2]]* to make a polyline between points 0, 1 and 2.

segment_tags may be used to optionally define a tag for each segment.

<mesh>.add_region (*x,y*, *geo_reference=None*, *tag=None*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

This method adds a region to a mesh outline.

x and *y* define a point on the already-defined region that is to be added to the mesh.

If *geo_reference* is not supplied the points data is assumed to be absolute.

tag – ??

A region instance is returned. This can be used to set the resolution of the added region.

<mesh>.add_region_from_polygon (*polygon*, *segment_tags=None*, *max_triangle_area=None*, *geo_reference=None*, *region_tag=None*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

This method adds a region to a *Mesh* instance. Regions are commonly used to describe an area with an increased density of triangles by setting *max_triangle_area*.

polygon describes the region boundary to add to the <mesh>.

segment_tags specifies a list of segment tags, one for each edge of the bounding polygon.

If *geo_reference* is not supplied the points data is assumed to be absolute.

region_tag sets the region tag.

<mesh>.add_vertices (*point_data*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

Add user vertices to a mesh.

point_data is the list of point data, and can be a list of (x,y) values, a numeric array or a *geospatial_data* instance.

<mesh>.auto_segment (*alpha=None*, *raw_boundary=True*, *remove_holes=False*, *smooth_indents=False*, *expand_pinch=False*)

Module: *pmesh.mesh*

Add segments between some of the user vertices to give the vertices an outline. The outline is an alpha shape. This method is useful since a set of user vertices need to be outlined by segments before generate_-mesh is called.

alpha determines the *smoothness* of the alpha shape.

raw_boundary, if *True* instructs the function to return the raw boundary, i.e. the regular edges of the alpha shape.

`remove_holes`, if `True` enables a filter to remove small holes (small is defined by `boundary_points_fraction`).

`smooth_indents`, if `True` removes sharp triangular indents in the boundary.

`expand_pinch`, if `True` tests for pinch-off and corrects (i.e. a boundary vertex with more than two edges).

<mesh>.export_mesh_file (*ofile*)

Module: `pmesh.mesh`

This method is used to save a mesh to a file.

ofile is the name of the mesh file to be written, including the extension. Use the extension `.msh` for the file to be in NetCDF format and `.tsh` for the file to be ASCII format.

<mesh>.generate_mesh (*maximum_triangle_area=""*, *minimum_triangle_angle=28.0*, *verbose=True*)

Module: `pmesh.mesh`

This method is used to generate the triangular mesh.

`maximum_triangle_area` sets the maximum area of any triangle in the mesh.

`minimum_triangle_angle` sets the minimum area of any triangle in the mesh.

These two parameters can be used to control the triangle density.

<mesh>.import_ungenerate_file (*ofile*, *tag=None*, *region_tag=None*)

Module: `pmesh.mesh`

This method is used to import a polygon file in the ungenerate format, which is used by arcGIS. The polygons from the file are converted to vertices and segments.

ofile is the name of the polygon file.

tag is the tag given to all the polygon's segments. If *tag* is not supplied then the segment will not effect the water flow, it will only effect the mesh generation.

region_tag is the tag given to all the polygon's segments. If it is a string the tag will be assigned to all regions. If it is a list the first value in the list will be applied to the first polygon etc.

This function can be used to import building footprints.

THE DOMAIN

class Domain (*source=None, triangles=None, boundary=None, conserved_quantities=None, other_quantities=None, tagged_elements=None, geo_reference=None, use_inscribed_circle=False, mesh_filename=None, use_cache=False, verbose=False, full_send_dict=None, ghost_rcv_dict=None, processor=0, numproc=1, number_of_full_nodes=None, number_of_full_triangles=None*)
Module: [abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain](#)

This class is used to store and manipulate data associated with a mesh and to setup the particulars for the evolution of the specific problem. The mesh is specified either by assigning the name of a mesh file to `source` or by specifying the points, triangle and boundary of the mesh.

7.1 Key Methods of Domain

<domain>.set_name (*name*)

Module: [abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain](#)

`name` is used to name the domain. The `name` is also used to identify the output SWW file. If no `name` is assigned to a domain, the assumed `name` is 'domain'.

<domain>.get_name ()

Module: [abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain](#)

Returns the `name` assigned to the domain by `set_name()`. If no `name` has been assigned, returns 'domain'.

<domain>.set_datadir (*path*)

Module: [abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain](#)

`path` specifies the path to the directory used to store SWW files.

Before this method is used to set the SWW directory path, the assumed directory path is `default_datadir` specified in `config.py`.

Since different operating systems use different formats for specifying pathnames it is necessary to specify path separators using the Python code `os.sep` rather than the operating-specific ones such as `'/'` or `'\'`. For this to work you will need to include the statement `import os` in your code, before the first use of `set_datadir()`.

For example, to set the data directory to a subdirectory `data` of the directory `project`, you could use the statements:

```
import os
domain.set_datadir('project' + os.sep + 'data')
```

<domain>.get_datadir ()

Module: [abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain](#)

Returns the path to the directory where SWW files will be stored.

If the path has not previously been set with `set_datadir()` this method will return the value `default_datadir` specified in `config.py`.

<domain>.set_minimum_allowed_height (*minimum_allowed_height*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Set the minimum depth (in metres) that will be recognised in the numerical scheme (including limiters and flux computations)

`minimum_allowed_height` is the new minimum allowed height value.

Default value is 10^{-3} metre, but by setting this to a greater value, e.g. for large scale simulations, the computation time can be significantly reduced.

<domain>.set_minimum_storable_height (*minimum_storable_height*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Sets the minimum depth that will be recognised when writing to an SWW file. This is useful for removing thin water layers that seems to be caused by friction creep.

`minimum_storable_height` is the new minimum storable height value.

<domain>.set_maximum_allowed_speed (*maximum_allowed_speed*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Set the maximum particle speed that is allowed in water shallower than `minimum_allowed_height`. This is useful for controlling speeds in very thin layers of water and at the same time allow some movement avoiding pooling of water.

`maximum_allowed_speed` sets the maximum allowed speed value.

<domain>.set_time (*time=0.0*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

`time` sets the initial time, in seconds, for the simulation. The default is 0.0.

<domain>.set_default_order (*n*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Sets the default (spatial) order to the value specified by `n`, which must be either 1 or 2. (Assigning any other value to `n` will cause an error.)

<domain>.set_store_vertices_uniquely (*flag, reduction=None*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Decide whether vertex values should be stored uniquely as computed in the model or whether they should be reduced to one value per vertex using averaging.

`flag` may be `True` (meaning allow surface to be discontinuous) or `False` (meaning smooth vertex values).

`reduction` defines the smoothing operation if `flag` is `False`. If not supplied, `reduction` is assumed to be mean.

Triangles stored in the SWW file can be discontinuous reflecting the internal representation of the finite-volume scheme (this is a feature allowing for arbitrary steepness of the water surface gradient as well as the momentum gradients). However, for visual purposes and also for use with `Field_boundary` (and `File_boundary`), it is often desirable to store triangles with values at each vertex point as the average of the potentially discontinuous numbers found at vertices of different triangles sharing the same vertex location.

Storing one way or the other is controlled in **ANUGA** through the method `<domain>.store_vertices_uniquely()`. Options are:

- `<domain>.store_vertices_uniquely(True)`: Allow discontinuities in the SWW file
- `<domain>.store_vertices_uniquely(False)`: (Default). Average values to ensure continuity in SWW file. The latter also makes for smaller SWW files.

Note that when model data in the SWW file are averaged (i.e. not stored uniquely), then there will most likely be a small discrepancy between values extracted from the SWW file and the same data stored in the model domain. This must be borne in mind when comparing data from the SWW files with that of the model internally.

<domain>.set_quantities_to_be_stored (*quantity_dictionary*)

Module: shallow_water.shallow_water_domain

Selects quantities that is to be stored in the sww files. The argument can be None, in which case nothing is stored.

Otherwise, the argument must be a dictionary where the keys are names of quantities already defined within ANUGA and the values are either 1 or 2. If the value is 1, the quantity will be stored once at the beginning of the simulation, if the value is 2 it will be stored at each timestep. The ANUGA default is equivalent to the call

```
domain.set_quantities_to_be_stored({'elevation': 1,
                                   'stage': 2,
                                   'xmomentum': 2,
                                   'ymomentum': 2})
```

<domain>.get_nodes (*absolute=False*)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Return x,y coordinates of all nodes in the domain mesh. The nodes are ordered in an $N \times 2$ array where N is the number of nodes. This is the same format they were provided in the constructor i.e. without any duplication.

absolute is a boolean which determines whether coordinates are to be made absolute by taking georeference into account. Default is *False* as many parts of **ANUGA** expect relative coordinates.

<domain>.get_vertex_coordinates (*absolute=False*)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Return vertex coordinates for all triangles as a $3 \times M \times 2$ array where the j th vertex of the i th triangle is located in row $3*i+j$ and M is the number of triangles in the mesh.

absolute is a boolean which determines whether coordinates are to be made absolute by taking georeference into account. Default is *False* as many parts of **ANUGA** expect relative coordinates.

<domain>.get_centroid_coordinates (*absolute=False*)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Return centroid coordinates for all triangles as an $M \times 2$ array.

absolute is a boolean which determines whether coordinates are to be made absolute by taking georeference into account. Default is *False* as many parts of **ANUGA** expect relative coordinates.

<domain>.get_triangles (*indices=None*)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Return an $M \times 3$ integer array where M is the number of triangles. Each row corresponds to one triangle and the three entries are indices into the mesh nodes which can be obtained using the method `get_nodes()`.

indices, if specified, is the set of triangle ids of interest.

<domain>.get_disconnected_triangles ()

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Get the domain mesh based on nodes obtained from `get_vertex_coordinates()`.

Returns an $M \times 3$ array of integers where each row corresponds to a triangle. A triangle is a triplet of indices into point coordinates obtained from `get_vertex_coordinates()` and each index appears only once.

This provides a mesh where no triangles share nodes (hence the name disconnected triangles) and different nodes may have the same coordinates.

This version of the mesh is useful for storing meshes with discontinuities at each node and is e.g. used for storing data in SWW files.

The triangles created will have the format:

```
[0, 1, 2],
[3, 4, 5],
[6, 7, 8],
...
[3*M-3 3*M-2 3*M-1]]
```

7.2 Evolution

<domain>.evolve (*yieldstep=None, finaltime=None, duration=None, skip_initial_step=False*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

This method is invoked once all the preliminaries have been completed, and causes the model to progress through successive steps in its evolution, storing results and outputting statistics whenever a user-specified period `yieldstep` is completed. Generally during this period the model will evolve through several steps internally as the method forces the water speed to be calculated on successive new cells.

`yieldstep` is the interval in seconds between yields where results are stored, statistics written and the domain is inspected or possibly modified. If omitted an internal predefined `yieldstep` is used. Internally, smaller timesteps may be taken.

`duration` is the duration of the simulation in seconds.

`finaltime` is the time in seconds where simulation should end. This is currently relative time, so it's the same as `duration`. If both `duration` and `finaltime` are given an exception is thrown.

`skip_initial_step` is a boolean flag that decides whether the first yield step is skipped or not. This is useful for example to avoid duplicate steps when multiple evolve processes are dove tailed.

The code specified by the user in the block following the evolve statement is only executed once every `yieldstep` even though **ANUGA** typically will take many more internal steps behind the scenes.

You can include `evolve` in a statement of the type:

```
for t in domain.evolve(yieldstep, finaltime):  
    <Do something with domain and t>
```

7.3 Diagnostics

<domain>.statistics ()

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Outputs statistics about the mesh within the Domain.

<domain>.timestepping_statistics (*track_speeds=False, triangle_id=None*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Returns a string of the following type for each timestep:

Time = 0.9000, delta t in [0.00598964, 0.01177388], steps=12 (12)

Here the numbers in `steps=12 (12)` indicate the number of steps taken and the number of first-order steps, respectively.

The optional keyword argument `track_speeds` will generate a histogram of speeds generated by each triangle if set to `True`. The speeds relate to the size of the timesteps used by **ANUGA** and this diagnostics may help pinpoint problem areas where excessive speeds are generated.

The optional keyword argument `triangle_id` can be used to specify a particular triangle rather than the one with the largest speed.

<domain>.boundary_statistics (*quantities=None, tags=None*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Generates output about boundary forcing at each timestep.

`quantities` names the quantities to be reported – may be `None`, a string or a list of strings.

`tags` names the tags to be reported – may be either `None`, a string or a list of strings.

When `quantities = 'stage'` and `tags = ['top', 'bottom']` will return a string like:

```
Boundary values at time 0.5000:  
  top:  
    stage in [ -0.25821218, -0.02499998]  
  bottom:  
    stage in [ -0.27098821, -0.02499974]
```

Q = <domain>.get_quantity (name, location='vertices', indices=None)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

This function returns a Quantity object Q. Access to its values should be done through Q.get_values () documented on Page 43.

name is the name of the quantity to retrieve.

location is

indices is

<domain>.set_quantities_to_be_monitored (quantity, polygon=None, time_interval=None)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Selects quantities and derived quantities for which extrema attained at internal timesteps will be collected.

quantity specifies the quantity or quantities to be monitored and must be either:

- the name of a quantity or derived quantity such as 'stage-elevation',
- a list of quantity names, or
- None.

polygon can be used to monitor only triangles inside the polygon. Otherwise all triangles will be included.

time_interval will restrict monitoring to time steps in the interval. Otherwise all timesteps will be included.

Information can be tracked in the evolve loop by printing quantity_statistics and collected data will be stored in the SWW file.

<domain>.quantity_statistics (precision='%.4f')

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain

Reports on extrema attained by selected quantities.

Returns a string of the following type for each timestep:

```
Monitored quantities at time 1.0000:
stage-elevation:
  values since time = 0.00 in [0.00000000, 0.30000000]
  minimum attained at time = 0.00000000, location = (0.16666667, 0.33333333)
  maximum attained at time = 0.00000000, location = (0.83333333, 0.16666667)
ymomentum:
  values since time = 0.00 in [0.00000000, 0.06241221]
  minimum attained at time = 0.00000000, location = (0.33333333, 0.16666667)
  maximum attained at time = 0.22472667, location = (0.83333333, 0.66666667)
xmomentum:
  values since time = 0.00 in [-0.06062178, 0.47886313]
  minimum attained at time = 0.00000000, location = (0.16666667, 0.33333333)
  maximum attained at time = 0.35103646, location = (0.83333333, 0.16666667)
```

The quantities (and derived quantities) listed here must be selected at model initialisation time using the method domain.set_quantities_to_be_monitored().

The optional keyword argument precision='%.4f' will determine the precision used for floating point values in the output. This diagnostics helps track extrema attained by the selected quantities at every internal timestep.

These values are also stored in the SWW file for post-processing.

<quantity>.get_values (interpolation_points=None, location='vertices', indices=None, use_-cache=False, verbose=False)

Module: abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity

Extract values for quantity as a numeric array.

interpolation_points is a list of (x, y) coordinates where the value is sought (using interpolation). If interpolation_points is given, values for location and indices are ignored. Assume either an absolute UTM coordinates or geospatial data object.

`location` specifies where values are to be stored. Permissible options are 'vertices', 'edges', 'centroids' or 'unique vertices'.

The returned values will have the leading dimension equal to length of the `indices` list or `N` (all values) if `indices` is `None`.

If `location` is 'centroids' the dimension of returned values will be a list or a numeric array of length `N`, `N` being the number of elements.

If `location` is 'vertices' or 'edges' the dimension of returned values will be of dimension `Nx3`.

If `location` is 'unique vertices' the average value at each vertex will be returned and the dimension of returned values will be a 1d array of length "number of vertices"

`indices` is the set of element ids that the operation applies to.

The values will be stored in elements following their internal ordering.

<quantity>.set_values (*numeric=None, quantity=None, function=None, geospatial_data=None, filename=None, attribute_name=None, alpha=None, location='vertices', polygon=None, indices=None, smooth=False, verbose=False, use_cache=False*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity`

Assign values to a quantity object.

This method works the same way as `set_quantity()` except that it doesn't take a quantity name as the first argument since it is applied directly to the quantity. Use `set_values` is used to assign values to a new quantity that has been created but which is not part of the domain's predefined quantities.

`location` is ??

`indices` is ??

The method `set_values()` is always called by `set_quantity()` behind the scenes.

<quantity>.get_integral()

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity`

Return the computed integral over the entire domain for the quantity.

<quantity>.get_maximum_value (*indices=None*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity`

Return the maximum value of a quantity (on centroids).

`indices` is the optional set of element ids that the operation applies to.

We do not seek the maximum at vertices as each vertex can have multiple values – one for each triangle sharing it.

<quantity>.get_maximum_location (*indices=None*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity`

Return the location of the maximum value of a quantity (on centroids).

`indices` is the optional set of element ids that the operation applies to.

We do not seek the maximum at vertices as each vertex can have multiple values – one for each triangle sharing it.

If there are multiple cells with the same maximum value, the first cell encountered in the triangle array is returned.

<domain>.get_wet_elements (*indices=None*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Returns the indices for elements where `h > minimum_allowed_height`

`indices` is the optional set of element ids that the operation applies to.

<domain>.get_maximum_inundation_elevation (*indices=None*)

Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

Return highest elevation where `h > 0`.

`indices` is the optional set of element ids that the operation applies to.

Example to find maximum runup elevation:

```
z = domain.get_maximum_inundation_elevation()
```

<domain>.get_maximum_inundation_location (*indices=None*)

Module: shallow_water.shallow_water_domain

Return location (x,y) of highest elevation where $h > 0$.

indices is the optional set of element ids that the operation applies to.

Example to find maximum runup location:

```
x, y = domain.get_maximum_inundation_location()
```


INITIAL CONDITIONS AND SET_QUANTITY

In standard usage of partial differential equations, initial conditions refers to the values associated to the system variables (the conserved quantities here) for `time = 0`. In setting up a scenario script as described in Sections 2.1 and 4, `set_quantity` is used to define the initial conditions of variables other than the conserved quantities, such as friction. Here, we use the terminology of initial conditions to refer to initial values for variables which need prescription to solve the shallow water wave equation. Further, it must be noted that `set_quantity()` does not necessarily have to be used in the initial condition setting; it can be used at any time throughout the simulation.

```
<domain>.set_quantity(numeric=None, quantity=None, function=None, geospatial_data=None, file-  
name=None, attribute_name=None, alpha=None, location='vertices', poly-  
gon=None, indices=None, smooth=False, verbose=False, use_cache=False)
```

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

(This method passes off to `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity.set_values()`)

This function is used to assign values to individual quantities for a domain. It is very flexible and can be used with many data types: a statement of the form `<domain>.set_quantity(name, x)` can be used to define a quantity having the name `name`, where the other argument `x` can be any of the following:

- a number, in which case all vertices in the mesh gets that for the quantity in question
- a list of numbers or a numeric array ordered the same way as the mesh vertices
- a function (e.g. see the samples introduced in Chapter 2)
- an expression composed of other quantities and numbers, arrays, lists (for example, a linear combination of quantities, such as `<domain>.set_quantity('stage', 'elevation'+x)`)
- the name of a file from which the data can be read. In this case, the optional argument `attribute_name` will select which attribute to use from the file. If left out, `set_quantity()` will pick one. This is useful in cases where there is only one attribute
- a geospatial dataset (See Section A.4). Optional argument `attribute_name` applies here as with files

Exactly one of the arguments `numeric`, `quantity`, `function`, `geospatial_data` and `filename` must be present.

`set_quantity()` will look at the type of the `numeric` and determine what action to take.

Values can also be set using the appropriate keyword arguments. If `x` is a function, for example, `domain.set_quantity(name, x)`, `domain.set_quantity(name, numeric=x)`, and `domain.set_quantity(name, function=x)` are all equivalent.

Other optional arguments are:

- `indices` which is a list of ids of triangles to which `set_quantity()` should apply its assignment of values.

- `location` determines which part of the triangles to assign to. Options are 'vertices' (the default), 'edges', 'unique vertices', and 'centroids'. If 'vertices' is used, edge and centroid values are automatically computed as the appropriate averages. This option ensures continuity of the surface. If, on the other hand, 'centroids' is used, vertex and edge values will be set to the same value effectively creating a piecewise constant surface with possible discontinuities at the edges.

ANUGA provides a number of predefined initial conditions to be used with `set_quantity()`. See for example callable object `slump_tsunami` below.

```
<domain>.add_quantity(numeric=None, quantity=None, function=None, geospatial_data=None, file-
                        name=None, attribute_name=None, alpha=None, location='vertices', poly-
                        gon=None, indices=None, smooth=False, verbose=False, use_cache=False)
```

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

(passes off to `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain.set_quantity()`)

This function is used to *add* values to individual quantities for a domain. It has the same syntax as `<domain>.set_quantity(name, x)`.

A typical use of this function is to add structures to an existing elevation model:

```
# Create digital elevation model from points file
domain.set_quantity('elevation', filename=
                    'elevation_file.pts', verbose=True)

# Add buildings from file
building_polygons, building_heights =
    anuga.load_csv_as_building_polygons(building_file)

B = []
for key in building_polygons:
    poly = building_polygons[key]
    elev = building_heights[key]
    B.append((poly, elev))

domain.add_quantity('elevation', Polygon_function(B, default=0.0))
```

```
<domain>.set_region(tag, quantity, X, location='vertices')
```

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

(see also `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.quantity.set_values`)

This function is used to assign values to individual quantities given a regional tag. It is similar to `set_quantity()`.

For example, if in the mesh-generator a regional tag of 'ditch' was used, `set_region()` can be used to set elevation of this region to -10m. `X` is the constant or function to be applied to the `quantity`, over the tagged region. `location` describes how the values will be applied. Options are 'vertices' (the default), 'edges', 'unique vertices', and 'centroids'.

This method can also be called with a list of region objects. This is useful for adding quantities in regions, and having one quantity value based on another quantity. See `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.region` for more details.

```
<callable_object> =slump_tsunami(length, depth, slope, width=None, thickness=None, ra-
                                dius=None, dphi=0.48, x0=0.0, y0=0.0, alpha=0.0, grav-
                                ity=9.8, gamma=1.85, massco=1, dragco=1, frictionco=0,
                                dx=None, kappa=3.0, kappad=1.0, zsmall=0.01, scale=None,
                                domain=None, verbose=False)
```

Module: `shallow_water.smf`

This function returns a callable object representing an initial water displacement generated by a submarine sediment failure. These failures can take the form of a submarine slump or slide. In the case of a slide, use `slide_tsunami` instead.

`length` is the length of the slide or slump.

`depth` is the water depth to the centre of the sediment mass.

`slope` is the bathymetric slope.

Other slump or slide parameters can be included if they are known.

```
<callable_object> = file_function(filename, domain=None, quantities=None, interpolation_points=None, time_thinning=1, time_limit=None, verbose=False, output_centroids=False, use_cache=False, boundary_polygon=None)
```

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.util`

Reads the time history of spatial data for specified interpolation points from a NetCDF file and returns a callable object. Values returned from the `<callable_object>` are interpolated values based on the input file using the underlying `interpolation_function`.

`filename` is the name of the input file. This would be either an SWW, TMS or STS file.

`quantities` is either the name of a single quantity to be interpolated or a list of such quantity names. In the second case, the resulting function will return a tuple of values – one for each quantity. If the NetCDF file uses names other than 'stage', 'xmomentum', and 'ymomentum' the name(s) appearing in the file must be explicitly stated using the `quantities` keyword. This is for example the case if a 'tms' file is used to specify time dependent precipitation. In this case the keyword might be called 'rainfall' both in the call to `file_function` and in the 'tms' file.

`interpolation_points` is a list of absolute coordinates or a geospatial object for points at which values are sought.

`boundary_polygon` is a list of coordinates specifying the vertices of the boundary. This must be the same polygon as used when calling `create_mesh_from_regions()`. This argument can only be used when reading boundary data from an STS format file.

`output_centroids` set to true to sample at the centre of the triangle containing the point. This may be useful for debugging. (new in 1.2)

The model time stored within the file function can be accessed using the method `<callable_object>.get_time()`

The underlying algorithm used is as follows:

Given a time series (i.e. a series of values associated with different times), whose values are either just numbers, a set of numbers defined at the vertices of a triangular mesh (such as those stored in SWW files) or a set of numbers defined at a number of points on the boundary (such as those stored in STS files), `Interpolation_function()` is used to create a callable object that interpolates a value for an arbitrary time `t` within the model limits and possibly a point `(x, y)` within a mesh region.

The actual time series at which data is available is specified by means of an array `time` of monotonically increasing times. The quantities containing the values to be interpolated are specified in an array – or dictionary of arrays (used in conjunction with the optional argument `quantity_names`) – called `quantities`. The optional arguments `vertex_coordinates` and `triangles` represent the spatial mesh associated with the quantity arrays. If omitted the function must be created using an STS file or a TMS file.

Since, in practice, values need to be computed at specified points, the syntax allows the user to specify, once and for all, a list `interpolation_points` of points at which values are required. In this case, the function may be called using the form `<callable_object>(t, id)`, where `id` is an index for the list `interpolation_points`.

```
class <callable_object> = Interpolation_function(time, quantities, quantity_names=None, vertex_coordinates=None, triangles=None, interpolation_points=None, time_thinning=1, verbose=False, gauge_neighbour_id=None)
```

Module: `fit_interpolate.interpolate`

Given a time series (i.e. a series of values associated with different times) whose values are either just numbers or a set of numbers defined at the vertices of a triangular mesh (such as those stored in SWW files), `Interpolation_function` is used to create a callable object that interpolates a value for an arbitrary time `t` within the model limits and possibly a point `(x, y)` within a mesh region.

The actual time series at which data is available is specified by means of an array `time` of monotonically increasing times. The quantities containing the values to be interpolated are specified in an array – or dictionary of arrays (used in conjunction with the optional argument `quantity_names`) – called `quantities`.

The optional arguments `vertex_coordinates` and `triangles` represent the spatial mesh associated with the quantity arrays. If omitted the function created by `Interpolation_function` will be a function of `t` only.

Since, in practice, values need to be computed at specified points, the syntax allows the user to specify, once and for all, a list `interpolation_points` of points at which values are required. In this case, the function may be called using the form `f(t, id)`, where `id` is an index for the list `interpolation_points`.

BOUNDARY CONDITIONS AND SET_BOUNDARY

ANUGA provides a large number of predefined boundary conditions, represented by objects such as `Reflective_boundary(domain)` and `Dirichlet_boundary([0.2, 0.0, 0.0])`, described in the examples in Chapter 2. Alternatively, you may prefer to "roll your own", following the method explained in Section 9.2.

These boundary objects may be used with the function `set_boundary` described below to assign boundary conditions according to the tags used to label boundary segments.

<domain>.set_boundary (*boundary_map*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

This function allows you to assign a boundary object (corresponding to a pre-defined or user-specified boundary condition) to every boundary segment that has been assigned a particular tag.

boundary_map is a dictionary of boundary objects keyed by symbolic tags.

<domain>.get_boundary_tags ()

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Returns a list of the available boundary tags.

9.1 Predefined boundary conditions

9.1.1 Reflective Boundary

class Reflective_boundary (*domain=None*)

Module: `shallow_water`

Reflective boundary returns same conserved quantities as those present in the neighbouring volume but reflected.

This class is specific to the shallow water equation as it works with the momentum quantities assumed to be the second and third conserved quantities.

9.1.2 Boundaries that set specific quantity values

class Dirichlet_boundary (*conserved_quantities=None*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.generic_boundary_conditions`

A Dirichlet boundary returns constant values for each of conserved quantities. In the example of `Dirichlet_boundary([0.2, 0.0, 0.0])`, the stage value at the boundary is 0.2 and the `xmomentum` and `ymomentum` at the boundary are set to 0.0. The list must contain a value for each conserved quantity.

class Time_boundary (*domain=None, function=None, default_boundary=None, verbose=False*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.generic_boundary_conditions`

A time-dependent boundary returns values for the conserved quantities as a function of time function (t). The user must specify the domain to get access to the model time.

Optional argument `default_boundary` can be used to specify another boundary object to be used in case model time exceeds the time available in the file used by `File_boundary`. The `default_boundary` could be a simple Dirichlet condition or even another `Time_boundary` typically using data pertaining to another time interval.

class `Field_boundary` (*filename, domain, mean_stage=0.0, time_thinning=1, time_limit=None, boundary_polygon=None, default_boundary=None, use_cache=False, verbose=False*)
Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

This method works in the same way as `File_boundary` except that it allows for the value of stage to be offset by a constant specified in the keyword argument `mean_stage`.

This functionality allows for models to be run for a range of tides using the same boundary information (from STS, SWW or TMS files). The tidal value for each run would then be specified in the keyword argument `mean_stage`. If `mean_stage = 0.0`, `Field_boundary` and `File_boundary` behave identically.

Note that if the optional argument `default_boundary` is specified its stage value will be adjusted by `mean_stage` just like the values obtained from the file.

See `File_boundary` for further details.

9.1.3 Transmissive Boundaries

class `Transmissive_boundary` (*domain=None*)
Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.generic_boundary_conditions`

A transmissive boundary returns the same conserved quantities as those present in the neighbouring volume.

The underlying domain must be specified when the boundary is instantiated.

class `Transmissive_momentum_set_stage_boundary` (*domain=None, function=None*)
Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`

This boundary returns the same momentum conserved quantities as those present in its neighbour volume but sets stage as in a `Time_boundary`. The underlying domain must be specified when boundary is instantiated.

This type of boundary is useful when stage is known at the boundary as a function of time, but momenta (or speeds) aren't.

This class is specific to the shallow water equation as it works with the momentum quantities assumed to be the second and third conserved quantities.

In some circumstances, this boundary condition may cause numerical instabilities for similar reasons as what has been observed with the simple fully transmissive boundary condition (see Page 52). This could for example be the case if a planar wave is reflected out through this boundary.

class `Transmissive_stage_zero_momentum_boundary` (*domain=None*)
Module: `shallow_water`

This boundary returns same stage conserved quantities as those present in its neighbour volume but sets momentum to zero. The underlying domain must be specified when boundary is instantiated

This type of boundary is useful when stage is known at the boundary as a function of time, but momentum should be set to zero. This is for example the case where a boundary is needed in the ocean on the two sides perpendicular to the coast to maintain the wave height of the incoming wave.

This class is specific to the shallow water equation as it works with the momentum quantities assumed to be the second and third conserved quantities.

This boundary condition should not cause the numerical instabilities seen with the transmissive momentum boundary conditions (see Page 52 and Page 52).

class `Dirichlet_discharge_boundary` (*domain=None, stage0=None, wh0=None*)
Module: `shallow_water.shallow_water_domain`
`stage0` sets the stage.

`wh0` sets momentum in the inward normal direction.

9.2 User-defined boundary conditions

All boundary classes must inherit from the generic boundary class `Boundary` and have a method called `evaluate()` which must take as inputs `self`, `vol_id` and `edge_id` where `self` refers to the object itself and `vol_id` and `edge_id` are integers referring to particular edges. The method must return a list of three floating point numbers representing values for `stage`, `xmomentum` and `ymomentum`, respectively.

The constructor of a particular boundary class may be used to specify particular values or flags to be used by the `evaluate()` method. Please refer to the source code for the existing boundary conditions for examples of how to implement boundary conditions.

OPERATORS AND STRUCTURES, EROSION AND CULVERTS

A way to effect the evolution is via fractional step operators. The idea is that at each inner timestep we can use an operator to change the centroid values of quantities such as the stage and the xmomentum and the ymomentum. T

If you are using one of the older flow algorithms then the elevation can also be changed but more care needs to be applied as the `elevation` quantity needs to remain continuous. The moral, play with `elevation` at your peril if using the old algorithms.

The newer algorithms (check that you are using discontinuous elevation with the domain member function `<domain>.get_using_discontinuous_elevation()`)

Currently predefined operators:

```
class Set_elevation_operator (domain, elevation=None, indices=None, polygon=None, center=None,  
                             radius=None, description = None, label = None, logging = False, verb-  
                             ose = False)
```

Module: `anuga.operators.set_elevation_operator`

Set the elevation in a region (careful to maintain continuity of elevation)

`domain` is the domain being evolved.

`elevation` a function of t or x, y or x, y, t written to take numpy arrays x and y . t is a scalar.

`indices` is a list of triangle indices where the function `elevation` will be applied.

`polygon` is a polygon. The function `elevation` will be applied to triangles with in the polygon.

`center` is the center of a circle where the function `elevation` will be applied. (`radius` needs to be set).

`radius` is the radius of a circle where the function `elevation` will be applied. (`center` needs to be set).

`description` is a description of this operator.

`label` is the label used when reporting on the operator.

`logging` is the boolean flag to set logging to a file.

`verbose` is the boolean flag to setup extended output from the operator.

Example:

```
op0 = anuga.Set_elevation_operator(domain, elevation = lambda t : 0.01*t)
```

would setup an operator which raises the elevation over the whole domain 1 cm per second.

While

```
P = [[x0, y0], [x1, y0], [x1, y1], [x0, y1]]
```

```
op0 = anuga.Set_elevation_operator(domain, \  
                                  elevation = lambda t : 0.01*t, polygon=P)
```

would setup an operator which raises the elevation over the polygon P 1 cm per second.

10.1 Culvert operators

A culvert is a structure that allows water to flow under a road, rail road, trail, or similar obstruction that would otherwise build up behind the embankment. But culverts are also used to drain basins, dams or lakes. **ANUGA** now has the ability to model a culvert by transferring flows from one point in the 2D domain to another. It should be noted that flow from the culvert inlet to the outlet occurs instantaneously with no lagging of the flows.

Only box culverts and pipe culverts can be modelled at present using the Boyd Method (Generalised head-discharge equations for culverts, Proceedings of the fourth national local government engineering conference pp. 161-165, Perth, August, 1987).

Usage

In **ANUGA**, a culvert can be modelled as two points (an inlet point and an outlet point) or along two lines (an inlet line and an outlet line) to account for skew.

The user needs to nominate the location of the culvert inlet and outlet, any culvert losses (i.e. inlet, outlet, bends etc) and the culvert dimensions (in metres).

The user can also model the effects of momentum jetting at the outlet of the culvert and also account for velocity head of the flow at the inlet for more realistic results.

Culvert hydraulics information can be logged by switching logging on or off.

To use the Boyd Method in **ANUGA**, the user can just copy the code below into their script. So if your model run has five pipe culverts, copy the pipe culvert routine five times into your run script and fill in the details for each of your five culverts.

```
#-----
# Box Culvert modelled along two lines
#-----
losses = {'inlet':0.5, 'outlet':1.0, 'bend':0.0, 'grate':0.0, 'pier': 0.0, 'other': 0.0}
el0 = numpy.array([[297750.2,6181379.1], [297753.5,6181380.9]])
el1 = numpy.array([[297731.8,6181416.4], [297735.1,6181418.3]])
culvert = anuga.Boyd_box_operator(domain,
    losses=losses,
    width=1.5,
    height=1.5,
    exchange_lines=[el0,el1],
    use_momentum_jet=True, #False to switch it off
    use_velocity_head=True, #False to switch it off
    manning=0.013, #culvert manning's n
    logging=True, #False to switch it off
    label='culvert_log_file',
    verbose=False)

#-----
# Pipe Culvert modelled with a single point
#-----
losses = {'inlet':0.5, 'outlet':1.0, 'bend':0.0, 'grate':0.0, 'pier': 0.0, 'other': 0.0}
ep0 = numpy.array([296653.0,6180014.9])
ep1 = numpy.array([296642.5,6180036.3])
culvert = anuga.Boyd_pipe_operator(domain,
    losses=losses,
    diameter=1.5,
    end_points=[ep0, ep1],
    use_momentum_jet=True, #False to switch it off
    use_velocity_head=True, #False to switch it off
    manning=0.013, #culvert manning's n
    logging=True, #False to switch it off
    label='culvert_log_file',
    verbose=False)
```

10.2 User developed operators

Suppose we want to add water to our domain at a steady rate. we can create a class based on the `Operator` class which has a `__call__` function to do the required update to the centroid values of the stage variable.

Here is some code to do this:

```
from anuga import Operator

class My_operator(Operator):
    """
    An operator which adds water to the domain at a given rate (m/sec)
    """

    def __init__(self,
                  domain,
                  rate=0.0,
                  description = None,
                  label = None,
                  logging = False,
                  verbose = False):
        """Initialize the user defined operator
        """

        Operator.__init__(self, domain, description, label, logging, verbose)

        self.rate = rate

    def __call__(self):
        """
        Apply rate to all triangles
        """

        timestep = self.domain.get_timestep()

        self.stage_c[:] = self.stage_c[:] + self.rate*timestep
```

And then in your script you would asosciated `My_operator` with the domain with a call

```
My_operator(domain, rate=1.0)
```


QUERYING SWW MODEL OUTPUT FILES

After a model has been run, it is often useful to extract various information from the SWW output file (see Section 15.3). This is typically more convenient than using the diagnostics described in Section 7.3 which rely on the model running – something that can be very time consuming. The SWW files are easy and quick to read and offer information about the model results such as runup heights, time histories of selected quantities, flow through cross sections and much more.

elevation = **get_maximum_inundation_elevation** (*filename*, *polygon=None*, *time_interval=None*, *verbose=False*)

Module: `shallow_water.data_manager`

Return the highest elevation where depth is positive ($h > 0$).

filename is the path to a NetCDF SWW file containing **ANUGA** model output.

polygon restricts the query to the points that lie within the polygon.

time_interval restricts the query to within the time interval.

Example to find maximum runup elevation:

```
max_runup = get_maximum_inundation_elevation(filename)
```

If no inundation is found (within the *polygon* and *time_interval*, if specified) the return value is `None`. This indicates "No Runup" or "Everything is dry".

(x, y) = **get_maximum_inundation_location** (*filename*, *polygon=None*, *time_interval=None*, *verbose=False*)

Module: `shallow_water.data_manager`

Return location (x,y) of the highest elevation where depth is positive ($h > 0$).

filename is the path to a NetCDF SWW file containing **ANUGA** model output.

polygon restricts the query to the points that lie within the polygon.

time_interval restricts the query to within the time interval.

Example to find maximum runup location:

```
max_runup_location = get_maximum_inundation_location(filename)
```

If no inundation is found (within the *polygon* and *time_interval*, if specified) the return value is `None`. This indicates "No Runup" or "Everything is dry".

sww2timeseries (*swwfiles*, *gauge_filename*, *production_dirs*, *report=None*, *reportname=None*, *plot_quantity=None*, *generate_fig=False*, *surface=None*, *time_min=None*, *time_max=None*, *output_centroids=False*, *time_thinning=1*, *time_unit=None*, *title_on=None*, *use_cache=False*, *verbose=False*)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.util`

Read a set of SWW files and plot the time series for the prescribed quantities at defined gauge locations and prescribed time range.

swwfiles is a dictionary of SWW files with keys of `label_id`.

`gauge_filename` is the path to a file containing gauge data.

(time, Q) = get_flow_through_cross_section (*filename, polyline, verbose=False*)

Module: `shallow_water.data_manager`

Obtain flow (m^3/s) perpendicular to specified cross section.

`filename` is the path to the SWW file.

`output_centroids` set to `true` to sample at the centre of the triangle containing the point. This may be useful for debugging. (new in 1.2)

`polyline` is the representation of the desired cross section – it may contain multiple sections allowing for complex shapes. Assumes absolute UTM coordinates.

Returns a tuple `time, Q` where:

`time` is all the stored times in the SWW file.

`Q` is a hydrograph of total flow across the given segments for all stored times.

The normal flow is computed for each triangle intersected by the `polyline` and added up. If multiple segments at different angles are specified the normal flows may partially cancel each other.

Example to find flow through cross section:

```
cross_section = [[x, 0], [x, width]]
time, Q = get_flow_through_cross_section(filename, cross_section)
```

PARALLEL SIMULATION

The examples from the previous chapters were run just using one processor. As you will have noticed, the simulations can take a long time to run, especially if you are using a fine mesh. Indeed as you halve the spacing of the mesh, the number of triangles goes up by a factor of 4 and the timestep halves, so generally halving the spacing of the mesh increases the run time by approximately a factor of 8.

One way to alleviate this is to run your simulation in parallel and use more processors to spread the computational cost.

ANUGA has the option of running in parallel using MPI. A description of the method used to parallelize **ANUGA** is given in section 16.4.

Such jobs are run using the command

```
mpirun -np n python runscript.py
```

where n is the total number of processors being used for the parallel run.

Essentially we can expect speedups comparable to the number of cores available. This is measured via scalability. Our current experiments have demonstrated a scalability of 70% or above when the number of processors are chosen so that the local partitioned meshes contain around 2000 triangles.

For instance, suppose we have a problem with a mesh of 500,000 triangles, and use 250 processors. Then the mesh will be partitioned into sub meshes of approximately 2000 triangles. We would expect 70% scalability, and so expect a speedup of $250 \times 0.7 = 175$.

12.1 The Code

Here is the code for 'runParallelCairns.py' which is found in the 'examples/cairns' directory:

12.2 Structure of the Code

The code is very similar to the sequential code. The same procedures are used to setup the domain, setup the initial conditions, boundary conditions and evolve.

We first import a few procedures need for the parallel code.

```
from anuga import distribute, myid, numprocs, finalize, barrier
```

`myid` returns the id of the current processor running the code.

`numprocs` returns the total number of processors involved in this parallel jobs (the n in the original `mpirun` command).

`finalize` is called at the end of a script to close down the parallel job.

`distribute` is used to partition and setup the parallel domains.

`barrier` is a command for processors to wait as all the other processor to catchup to this point.

The creation of the domain is only done on processor 0. Hence we have the structure:

```
#-----  
# Do the domain creation on processor 0  
#-----  
if myid == 0:  
    ....  
    domain = ...  
  
else:  
    domain = None
```

We only need to create the original domain on one processor, otherwise we will have multiple copies of the full domain (which will easily eat up our memory).

Once we have our codedomain setup we partition it and send the partitions to each of the other processors, via the command

```
#-----  
# Now produce parallel domain  
#-----  
domain = distribute(domain)
```

This takes the `domain` on processor 0 and distributes that domain to each of the processors, (it overwrites the full domain on processor 0). From this point of the code, there is a different domain on each processor, with each domain communicating with the other domains to ensure required transfer of information to allow flow over the combined domains.

It is important to apply the boundary conditions after the `distribute`

As the partitioned domain evolve, they will store their data to individual sww files, named as `domain_name_Pn_m.sww`, where `n` is the total number of processors being used and `m` is the specific processor id.

We have a procedure to merge these individual sww files via the command

```
domain.sww_merge()
```

And we close down the parallel job by issuing the command

```
finalize()
```


CHECKPOINTING

When running large and long running simulations, it is useful to provide a mechanism to allow the simulation to restarted if it is interrupted mid simulation. Maybe there is a power cut, or when using batch queues there may be a time restriction on the length of any one running job. Then the use of checkpointing becomes useful.

The idea is that at regular intervals the system makes a copy of the current state of the computation. Then if there is an interruption the computation can be started from the last checkpoint time and not original start time.

13.1 The Code

Here is the code for 'runCheckpoint.py':

13.2 Structure of the Code

As usual the code needs to import the required modules, and setup parameters and in this case procedures for setting up the stage and elevation.

Then we use a `try: except:` statement, where we try to open any appropriate checkpoint files, and if not successful, create and distribute a domain as usual. In the creation of the domain, we setup checkpointing just before we start the evolve loop.

```
try:
    from anuga import load_checkpoint_file

    domain = load_checkpoint_file(domain_name = domain_name,
                                checkpoint_dir = checkpoint_dir)
except:
    # create the domain as usual
```

The `load_checkpoint_file` needs to know where to look for the checkpoint files (by default the current directory) and the domain name (default "domain").

When the domain is originally created, we need to setup checkpointing via the command:

```
if useCheckpointing:
    domain.set_checkpointing(checkpoint_time = 5)
```

Here we are setting the wall time between saving of checkpoint files to 5 sec (this is just for testing). Normally we would set the checkpointing to something large, say 15 minutes for a run of multiple hours.

ANUGA PUBLIC INTERFACE

This chapter gives an overview of the features of **ANUGA** available to the user at the public interface. These are grouped under the following headings, which correspond to the outline of the examples described in Chapter 2:

- Establishing the Mesh: Section 6
- Initialising the Domain: Section 7
- Initial Conditions: Section 8
- Boundary Conditions: Section 9
- Operators: Section 10
- Evolution: Section 7.2

14.1 Documentation

The listings here are intended merely to give the reader an idea of what each feature is and how it can be used – they do not give full specifications; for these the reader may consult the programmer’s guide. The code for every function or class contains a documentation string, or ‘docstring’, that specifies the precise syntax for its use. This appears immediately after the line introducing the code, between two sets of triple quotes.

Python has a handy tool that lets you easily navigate this documentation, called `pydoc`. In Linux, it runs as a server, which serves the documentation up to your web browser:

1. Open a terminal at your `anuga` folder 2. Start the python documentation server with `pydoc -p 6767` 3. Open a browser and type in `http://localhost:6767/`

Now you have a real-time programmers’ guide for **ANUGA**, and an easy way to find the functions you are interested in. Pydoctor and other Python doc generators look nicer and have graphs, etc, but `pydoc` works straight out of the box.

14.2 Public vs Private Interface

To simplify the process of writing scripts, **ANUGA** has a public API which packages up the commonly-used functionality of **ANUGA** in the one place. To use it, simply import the `anuga` module like so:

```
import anuga
```

You can now use the public API like so. Note the `anuga.` prefix:

```
anuga.sww2dem('in.sww', 'out.asc')
```

If you wish to delve "under the hood" and modify the way **ANUGA** runs at a more advanced level, you need to specify the full location of the module like so:

```
from anuga.fit_interpolate.interpolate import Interpolation_interface
```

All modules are in the folder 'anuga' or one of its subfolders, and the location of each module is described relative to 'anuga'. Rather than using pathnames, whose syntax depends on the operating system, we use the format adopted for importing the function or class for use in Python code. For example, suppose we wish to specify that the function `create_mesh_from_regions` is in a module called `mesh_interface` in a subfolder of `anuga` called `pmesh`. In Linux or Unix syntax, the pathname of the file containing the function, relative to 'anuga', would be:

```
pmesh/mesh_interface.py
```

while in Windows syntax it would be:

```
pmesh\mesh_interface.py
```

Rather than using either of these forms, in this chapter we specify the location simply as `anuga.pmesh.mesh_interface`, in keeping with the usage in the Python statement for importing the function, namely:

```
from anuga.pmesh.mesh_interface import create_mesh_from_regions
```

The following parameters are common to many functions and classes and are omitted from the descriptions given below:

<i>use_cache</i>	Specifies whether caching is to be used for improved performance. See Section A.1 for details on the underlying caching functionality
<i>verbose</i>	If True, provides detailed terminal output to the user

14.3 Other

quantity = <domain>.create_quantity_from_expression (string)

Module: `abstract_2d_finite_volumes.domain`

Create a new quantity from other quantities in the domain using an arbitrary expression.

string is a string containing an arbitrary quantity expression.

Returns the new `Quantity` object.

Handy for creating derived quantities on-the-fly:

```
Depth = domain.create_quantity_from_expression('stage-elevation')

exp = '(xmomentum*xmomentum + ymomentum*ymomentum)**0.5'
Absolute_momentum = domain.create_quantity_from_expression(exp)
```

ANUGA FILE FORMATS

ANUGA makes use of a number of different file formats. The following table lists all these formats, which are described in more detail in the paragraphs below.

Extension	Description
.sww	NetCDF format for storing model output with mesh information $f(t, x, y)$
.sts	NetCDF format for storing model output $f(t, x, y)$ without mesh information
.tms	NetCDF format for storing time series $f(t)$
.csv/.txt	ASCII format for storing arbitrary points and associated attributes
.pts	NetCDF format for storing arbitrary points and associated attributes
.asc	ASCII format of regular DEMs as output from ArcView
.prj	Associated ArcView file giving more metadata for .asc format
.ers	ERMapper header format of regular DEMs for ArcView
.dem	NetCDF representation of regular DEM data
.tsh	ASCII format for storing meshes and associated boundary and region info
.msh	NetCDF format for storing meshes and associated boundary and region info
.nc	Native ferret NetCDF format
.geo	Houdinis ASCII geometry format (?)

The above table shows the file extensions used to identify the formats of files. However, typically, in referring to a format we capitalise the extension and omit the initial full stop – thus, we refer to 'SWW files' or 'PRJ files', not 'sww files' or 'prj files'.

15.1 Manually Created Files

ASC, PRJ Digital elevation models (gridded)
NC Model outputs for use as boundary conditions (e.g. from MOST)

15.2 Automatically Created Files

ASC, PRJ → DEM → PTS	Convert DEMs to native .pts file
NC → SWW	Convert MOST boundary files to boundary .sww
PTS + TSH → TSH with elevation	Least squares fit
TSH → SWW	Convert TSH to .sww-viewable using <code>anuga_viewer</code>
TSH + Boundary SWW → SWW	Simulation using ANUGA
Polygonal mesh outline →	TSH or MSH

15.3 SWW, STS and TMS Formats

The SWW, STS and TMS formats are all NetCDF formats and are of key importance for **ANUGA**.

An SWW file is used for storing **ANUGA** output and therefore pertains to a set of points and a set of times at which a model is evaluated. It contains, in addition to dimension information, the following variables:

- `x` and `y`: coordinates of the points, represented as numeric arrays
- `elevation`: a numeric array storing bed-elevations
- `volumes`: a list specifying the points at the vertices of each of the triangles
- `time`: a numeric array containing times for model evaluation

The contents of an SWW file may be viewed using the anuga viewer `anuga_viewer`, which creates an on-screen visualisation. See section A.2 (page 82) in Appendix A for more on `anuga_viewer`.

Alternatively, there are tools, such as `ncdump`, that allow you to convert a NetCDF file into a readable format such as the Class Definition Language (CDL). The following is an excerpt from a CDL representation of the output file 'runup.sww' generated from running the simple example 'runup.py' of Chapter 2:

The SWW format is used not only for output but also serves as input for functions such as `file_boundary` and `file_function`, described in Chapter 14.

An STS file is used for storing a set of points and associated times. It contains, in addition to dimension information, the following variables:

- `x` and `y`: coordinates of the points, represented as numeric arrays
- `permutation`: Original indices of the points as specified by the optional `ordering_file` (see the function `urs2sts()` in Section 15.8)
- `elevation`: a numeric array storing bed-elevations
- `time`: a numeric array containing times for model evaluation

The only difference between the STS format and the SWW format is the former does not contain a list specifying the points at the vertices of each of the triangles (`volumes`). Consequently information (arrays) stored within an STS file such as `elevation` can be accessed in exactly the same way as it would be extracted from an SWW file.

A TMS file is used to store time series data that is independent of position.

15.4 Mesh File Formats

A mesh file is a file that has a specific format suited to triangular meshes and their outlines. A mesh file can have one of two formats: it can be either a TSH file, which is an ASCII file, or an MSH file, which is a NetCDF file. A mesh file can be generated from the function `create_mesh_from_regions()` (see Section 6.1) and be used to initialise a domain.

A mesh file can define the outline of the mesh – the vertices and line segments that enclose the region in which the mesh is created – and the triangular mesh itself, which is specified by listing the triangles and their vertices, and the segments, which are those sides of the triangles that are associated with boundary conditions.

In addition, a mesh file may contain 'holes' and/or 'regions'. A hole represents an area where no mesh is to be created, while a region is a labelled area used for defining properties of a mesh, such as friction values. A hole or region is specified by a point and bounded by a number of segments that enclose that point.

A mesh file can also contain a georeference, which describes an offset to be applied to x and y values – e.g. to the vertices.

15.5 Formats for Storing Arbitrary Points and Attributes

A CSV/TXT/XYA file is used to store data representing arbitrary numerical attributes associated with a set of points.

The format for an CSV/TXT/XYA file is:

first line: [column names]
other lines: [x value], [y value], [attributes]

for example:

```
x, y, elevation, friction
0.6, 0.7, 4.9, 0.3
1.9, 2.8, 5.0, 0.3
2.7, 2.4, 5.2, 0.3
```

The delimiter is a comma. The first two columns are assumed to be x and y coordinates.

A PTS file is a NetCDF representation of the data held in an points CSV file. If the data is associated with a set of N points, then the data is stored using an $N \times 2$ numeric array of float variables for the points and an $N \times 1$ numeric array for each attribute.

15.6 ArcView Formats

Files of the three formats ASC, PRJ and ERS are all associated with data from ArcView.

An ASC file is an ASCII representation of DEM output from ArcView. It contains a header with the following format:

```
ncols          753
nrows          766
xllcorner      314036.58727982
yllcorner      6224951.2960092
cellsize       100
NODATA_value   -9999
```

The remainder of the file contains the elevation data for each grid point in the grid defined by the above information.

A PRJ file is an ArcView file used in conjunction with an ASC file to represent metadata for a DEM.

15.7 DEM Format

A DEM file in ANUGA is a NetCDF representation of regular DEM data.

15.8 Basic File Conversions

```
sww2dem((basename_in, basename_out=None, quantity=None, reduction=None, cellsize=10, number_of_-
decimal_places=None, NODATA_value=-9999, easting_min=None, easting_max=None, northing_-
min=None, northing_max=None, verbose=False, origin=None, datum='WGS84', format='ers',
block_size=None)
```

Module: shallow_water.data_manager

Takes data from an SWW file `basename_in` and converts it to DEM format (ASC or ERS) of a desired grid size `cellsize` in metres. The user can select how many decimal places the output data is represented with by using `number_of_decimal_places`, with the default being 3.

The *easting* and *northing* values are used if the user wishes to determine the output within a specified rectangular area. The *reduction* input refers to a function to reduce the quantities over all time step of the SWW file, e.g. maximum, or an index referring to a time-step to extract a time-slice of data.

dem2pts (*basename_in*, *basename_out*=None, *easting_min*=None, *easting_max*=None, *northing_min*=None, *northing_max*=None, *use_cache*=False, *verbose*=False)

Module: shallow_water.data_manager

Takes DEM data (a NetCDF file representation of data from a regular Digital Elevation Model) and converts it to PTS format.

urs2sts (*basename_in*, *basename_out*=None, *weights*=None, *verbose*=False, *origin*=None, *mean_stage*=0.0, *zscale*=1.0, *ordering_filename*=None)

Module: shallow_water.data_manager

Takes URS data (timeseries data in mux2 format) and converts it to STS format. The optional filename *ordering_filename* specifies the permutation of indices of points to select along with their longitudes and latitudes. This permutation will also be stored in the STS file. If absent, all points are taken and the permutation will be trivial, i.e. $0, 1, \dots, N - 1$, where N is the total number of points stored.

csv2building_polygons (*file_name*, *floor_height*=3)

Module: shallow_water.data_manager

Convert CSV files of the form:

```
easting,northing,id,floors
422664.22,870785.46,2,0
422672.48,870780.14,2,0
422668.17,870772.62,2,0
422660.35,870777.17,2,0
422664.22,870785.46,2,0
422661.30,871215.06,3,1
422667.50,871215.70,3,1
422668.30,871204.86,3,1
422662.21,871204.33,3,1
422661.30,871215.06,3,1
```

to a dictionary of polygons with *id* as key. The associated number of *floors* are converted to *m* above MSL and returned as a separate dictionary also keyed by *id*.

Optional parameter *floor_height* is the height of each building story.

These can e.g. be converted to a *Polygon_function* for use with *add_quantity* as shown on page 48.

ANUGA MATHEMATICAL BACKGROUND

16.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the mathematics underpinning **ANUGA**.

16.2 Model

The shallow water wave equations are a system of differential conservation equations which describe the flow of a thin layer of fluid over terrain. The form of the equations are:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial y} = \mathbf{S}$$

where $\mathbf{U} = [h \quad uh \quad vh]^T$ is the vector of conserved quantities; water depth h , x -momentum uh and y -momentum vh . Other quantities entering the system are bed elevation z and stage (absolute water level) w , where the relation $w = z + h$ holds true at all times. The fluxes in the x and y directions, \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{G} are given by

$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{bmatrix} uh \\ u^2h + gh^2/2 \\ uvh \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} vh \\ vuh \\ v^2h + gh^2/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the source term (which includes gravity and friction) is given by

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -gh(z_x + S_{fx}) \\ -gh(z_y + S_{fy}) \end{bmatrix}$$

where S_f is the bed friction. The friction term is modelled using Manning's resistance law

$$S_{fx} = \frac{u\eta^2\sqrt{u^2+v^2}}{h^{4/3}} \text{ and } S_{fy} = \frac{v\eta^2\sqrt{u^2+v^2}}{h^{4/3}}$$

in which η is the Manning resistance coefficient. The model does not currently include consideration of kinematic viscosity or dispersion.

As demonstrated in our papers, [ZR1999, nielsen2005] these equations and their implementation in **ANUGA** provide a reliable model of general flows associated with inundation such as dam breaks and tsunamis.

16.3 Finite Volume Method

We use a finite-volume method for solving the shallow water wave equations [ZR1999]. The study area is represented by a mesh of triangular cells as in Figure 16.1 in which the conserved quantities of water depth h , and

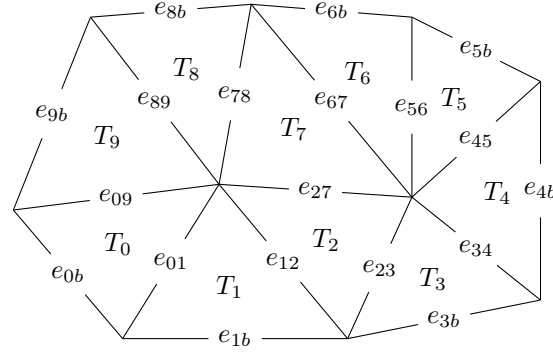


Figure 16.1: Triangular mesh used in our finite volume method. Conserved quantities h , uh and vh are associated with the centroid of each triangular cell, T_i . From the values of the conserved quantities at the centroid of a cell and its neighbouring cells, a discontinuous piecewise linear reconstruction of the conserved quantities is obtained. Fluxes are calculated across each edge e_{ij} using the reconstructed quantities.

horizontal momentum (uh, vh), in each volume are to be determined. The size of the triangles may be varied within the mesh to allow greater resolution in regions of particular interest.

The equations constituting the finite-volume method are obtained by integrating the differential conservation equations over each triangular cell of the mesh.

Introducing some notation we use i to refer to the i -th triangular cell T_i , and N_i to the set of indices j referring to cells neighbouring the i -th cell. Also let A_i be the area of the i -th triangular cell, e_{ij} the edge between the i -th and j -th cells, and l_{ij} the length of the edge e_{ij} . Then integrating

$$\int_{T_i} \frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} d\mathbf{x} + \int_{T_i} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial y} \right) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{T_i} \mathbf{S} d\mathbf{x}$$

By an application of the divergence theorem, we obtain an equation for each cell T_i which describes the rate of change of the average of the conserved quantities within each cell, in terms of the fluxes across the edges of the cells and the effect of the source terms.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{1}{A_i} \int_{T_i} \mathbf{U} d\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{A_i} \sum_{j \in N_i} \int_{e_{ij}} (\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{G}) \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \frac{1}{A_i} \int_{T_i} \mathbf{S} d\mathbf{x}$$

So the rate equations associated with average of each cell have the form

$$\frac{d\mathbf{U}_i}{dt} + \frac{1}{A_i} \sum_{j \in N_i} \mathbf{H}_{ij} l_{ij} = \mathbf{S}_i$$

where

- \mathbf{U}_i the vector of conserved quantities averaged over the i th cell, $\frac{1}{A_i} \int_{T_i} \mathbf{U} d\mathbf{x}$,
- \mathbf{S}_i is the average of the source term associated with the i th cell, $\frac{1}{A_i} \int_{T_i} \mathbf{S} d\mathbf{x}$,
- l_{ij} is the length of the edge e_{ij} , and
- $\mathbf{H}_{ij} l_{ij}$ an approximation of the outward normal flux of material across the ij th edge, $\int_{e_{ij}} (\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{G}) \cdot \mathbf{n} ds$.

Given the cell average values \mathbf{U}_k (which are essentially centroid values), the calculation of the fluxes at the edges need an approximation of the conserved values at the edges. This is called the reconstruction process. It is common to use a second order reconstruction to produce a piece-wise linear reconstruction of the conserved quantities for all $x \in T_i$ for each cell. The slope of this function is limited to avoid artificially introduced oscillations. This function is allowed to be discontinuous across the edges of the cells. The reconstructed quantities in the i -th cell is denoted $\mathbf{U}_i^j(\mathbf{x})$. The values on either side of an edge are denoted

$$\mathbf{U}_{ij}^i = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow m_{ij}} \mathbf{U}_i^j(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{U}_{ij}^j = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow m_{ij}} \mathbf{U}_j^i(\mathbf{x}).$$

The flux in the direction \mathbf{n} , is given by

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{U}) = \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{U})n_1 + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{U})n_2.$$

The numerical scheme is obtained by approximating the flux \mathbf{H} using a numerical flux function. Godunov's method (see [Toro1992]) involves calculating the numerical flux function by exactly solving the corresponding one dimensional Riemann problem normal to the edge. A much simpler approximation is the central-upwind scheme of [KurNP2001] which is given by

$$\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}^+ \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{U}_{ij}^i) - a_{ij}^- \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{U}_{ij}^j)}{a_{ij}^+ - a_{ij}^-} + \frac{a_{ij}^+ a_{ij}^-}{a_{ij}^+ - a_{ij}^-} [\mathbf{U}_{ij}^j - \mathbf{U}_{ij}^i]$$

with bounds on wave speeds given by

$$a_{ij}^+ = \max \left\{ u_{ij}^i + \sqrt{gh_{ij}^i}, u_{ij}^j + \sqrt{gh_{ij}^j}, 0 \right\}, \quad a_{ij}^- = \min \left\{ u_{ij}^i - \sqrt{gh_{ij}^i}, u_{ij}^j - \sqrt{gh_{ij}^j}, 0 \right\}.$$

An explicit Euler timestepping method with variable timestepping adapted to the observed CFL condition is used to approximate the semi-discrete equation. In particular

$$\mathbf{U}_i^{n+1} = \mathbf{U}_i^n - \frac{\Delta t}{A_i} \sum_{j \in N_i} \mathbf{H}_{ij} l_{ij} + \Delta t \mathbf{S}_i$$

For stability of the method, it is necessary that the timestep satisfy the Courant-Fredrichs-Levy (CFL) condition $\Delta t \leq \min_i \min_{j \in N_i} \left(\frac{r_i}{a_{ij}}, \frac{r_j}{a_{ij}} \right)$ where $a_{ij} = \max\{a_{ij}^+, -a_{ij}^-\}$ and r_i is the radius of the inscribed circle of the i -th cell.

16.4 Parallel Implementation

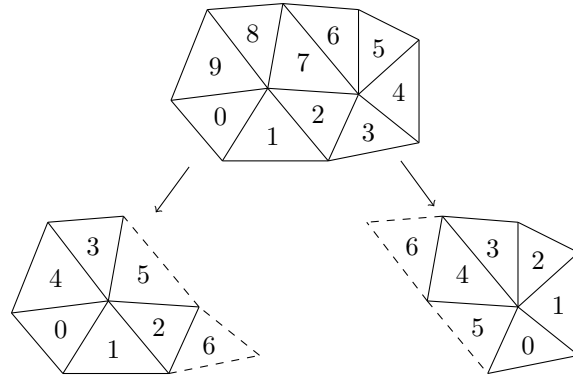


Figure 16.2: An example subpartitioning of original mesh, together with ghost triangles. The numbers show the local numbering scheme of the meshes.

Currently **ANUGA** uses a simple domain decomposition technique to parallelize the code. The first step is to subdivide the mesh into, roughly, equally sized partitions. On a rectangular mesh this may be done by a simple coordinate based dissection method, but on complicated domains a more sophisticated approach must be used. We use a **PYTHON** wrapper around the **METIS** (<http://glaros.dtc.umn.edu/gkhome/metis/metis/overview>) partitioning library. The code uses **METIS** to divide the mesh for parallel computation. **METIS** was chosen as the partitioner based on the results in the paper [KarypisK1999]. To minimize the amount of communication, it is common to add an extra layer of cells, which we call ghost cells which hold any extra information that a processor may need to complete its calculations. The ghost cell values are updated through buffered communication calls. Figure 16.2 shows a partition of a mesh into two submeshes with the extra layer of ghost cells. When partitioning the mesh we introduce new, dummy, boundary edges. These new boundary edges are tagged as standard boundary edges.

A typical timestep consists of the following computational steps:

```
compute_fluxes() # Compute H_ij across each edge
compute_forcing_terms() # Compute S_i
update_timestep() # Communication a global timestep
update_conserved_quantities()
update_ghosts() # Communicate cell values to neighbouring processors
```

The `compute_fluxes()` step is the most computationally intensive, consisting of iterating through all the cells or edges and accumulating, for each cell, the fluxes along each edge. This step itself consist of a number of calls to PYTHON routines.

There are two communications steps,

- (1) `update_timestep()` which involves a `MPI_Allreduce` to find a global timestep for the scheme based on a CFL condition,
- (2) `update_ghosts()` where at present we use the asynchronous MPI calls, where we initiate all the `MPI_Irecv` first and then the corresponding `MPI_Isend` calls are made. Finally the communication is resolved via a call to `MPI_Waitall`.

The use of these asynchronous MPI calls produced a great improvement in scalability of our code, jumping from modest results for 32 - 64 MPI processes up to 90% efficiency for larger problems with 100s to 1000s of MPI processes. There is still an opportunity to improve efficiency by overloading communication in `update_ghosts()` with computation in `compute_fluxes()` which we will investigate in future.

In Figure 16.3 we present experiments demonstrating the typical speedups for problems running from 43,200 triangles to 2,349,353 triangles. The results demonstrate super scalability for the larger problems stemming from better cache utilization for those problems based on the simple observation that the sub divided meshes can fit in the cache in those cases.

These experiments were conducted on a Fujitsu PRIMERGY cluster consisting of 36 BX920 S2 blades, each blade consisting of 2 Intel Xeon X5670 CPUs (Westmere, 6 core, 2.934 GHz) for a total of 432 cores.

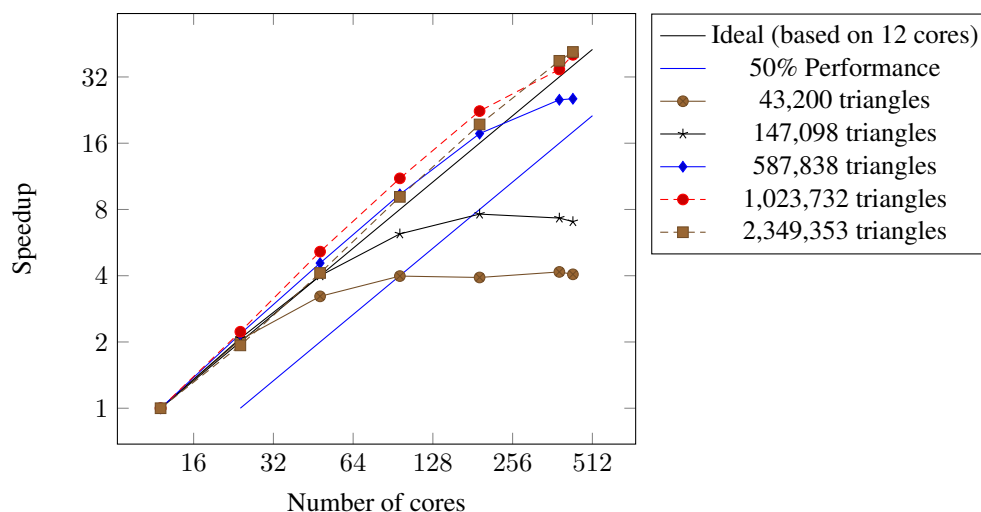


Figure 16.3: Speedups for problems ranging from 43,200 triangles to 2,349,353 triangles showing excellent speedups for the larger problems. We surmise that the super-scalability stems from better cache utilization as the larger meshes are subdivided into smaller meshes that can fit into cache.

16.5 Flux limiting

The shallow water equations are solved numerically using a finite volume method on an unstructured triangular grid. The upwind central scheme due to Kurganov and Petrova is used as an approximate Riemann solver for the computation of inviscid flux functions. This makes it possible to handle discontinuous solutions.

To alleviate the problems associated with numerical instabilities due to small water depths near a wet/dry boundary we employ a new flux limiter that ensures that unphysical fluxes are never encountered.

Let u and v be the velocity components in the x and y direction, w the absolute water level (stage) and z the bed elevation. The latter are assumed to be relative to the same height datum. The conserved quantities tracked by **ANUGA** are momentum in the x -direction (uh), momentum in the y -direction (vh) and depth ($h = w - z$).

The flux calculation requires access to the velocity vector (u, v) where each component is obtained as $u = uh/h$ and $v = vh/h$ respectively. In the presence of very small water depths, these calculations become numerically unreliable and will typically cause unphysical speeds.

We have employed a flux limiter which replaces the calculations above with the limited approximations.

$$\hat{u} = \frac{uh}{h^2 + h_0}, \hat{v} = \frac{vh}{h^2 + h_0}, \quad (16.1)$$

where h_0 is a regularisation parameter that controls the minimal magnitude of the denominator. Taking the limits we have for \hat{u}

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \hat{u} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{uh}{h^2 + h_0} = 0$$

and

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \hat{u} = \lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \frac{uh}{h^2 + h_0} = \frac{\mu}{h} = u$$

with similar results for \hat{v} .

The maximal value of \hat{u} is attained when $h + h_0/h$ is minimal or (by differentiating the denominator)

$$1 - h_0/h^2 = 0$$

or

$$h_0 = h^2$$

ANUGA has a global parameter H_0 that controls the minimal depth which is considered in the various equations. This parameter is typically set to 10^{-3} . Setting

$$h_0 = H_0^2$$

provides a reasonable balance between accuracy and stability. In fact, setting $h = H_0$ will scale the predicted speed by a factor of 0.5:

$$\left[\frac{\mu}{h + h_0/h} \right]_{h=H_0} = \left[\frac{\mu}{H_0 + H_0^2/H_0} \right] = \frac{\mu}{2H_0} = \frac{\mu}{2h} = \frac{u}{2}$$

In general, for multiples of the minimal depth NH_0 one obtains

$$\left[\frac{\mu}{h + h_0/h} \right]_{h=NH_0} = \frac{\mu}{NH_0 + H_0/N} = \frac{\mu}{h(1 + 1/N^2)} \quad (16.2)$$

which converges quadratically to the true value with the multiple N .

Although this equation can be used for any depth, we have restricted its use to depths less than $10 * H_0$ (or 1 cm) to computational resources. According to Equation 16.2 this cutoff affects the calculated velocity by less than 1 %.

16.6 Slope limiting

A multidimensional slope-limiting technique is employed to achieve second-order spatial accuracy and to prevent spurious oscillations. This is using the MinMod limiter and is documented elsewhere.

However close to the bed, the limiter must ensure that no negative depths occur. On the other hand, in deep water, the bed topography should be ignored for the purpose of the limiter.

Let w, z, h be the stage, bed elevation and depth at the centroid and let w_i, z_i, h_i be the stage, bed elevation and depth at vertex i . Define the minimal depth across all vertices as h_{\min} as

$$h_{\min} = \min_i h_i$$

Let \tilde{w}_i be the stage obtained from a gradient limiter limiting on stage only. The corresponding depth is then defined as

$$\tilde{h}_i = \tilde{w}_i - z_i$$

We would use this limiter in deep water which we will define (somewhat boldly) as

$$h_{\min} \geq \epsilon$$

Similarly, let \bar{w}_i be the stage obtained from a gradient limiter limiting on depth respecting the bed slope. The corresponding depth is defined as

$$\bar{h}_i = \bar{w}_i - z_i$$

We introduce the concept of a balanced stage w_i which is obtained as the linear combination

$$w_i = \alpha \tilde{w}_i + (1 - \alpha) \bar{w}_i$$

or

$$w_i = z_i + \alpha \tilde{h}_i + (1 - \alpha) \bar{h}_i$$

where $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

Since \tilde{w}_i is obtained in 'deep' water where the bedslope is ignored we have immediately that

$$\alpha = 1 \text{ for } h_{\min} \geq \epsilon$$

If $h_{\min} < \epsilon$ we want to use the 'shallow' limiter just enough that no negative depths occur. Formally, we will require that

$$\alpha \tilde{h}_i + (1 - \alpha) \bar{h}_i > \epsilon, \forall i$$

or

$$\alpha(\tilde{h}_i - \bar{h}_i) > \epsilon - \bar{h}_i, \forall i \quad (16.3)$$

There are two cases:

1. $\bar{h}_i \leq \tilde{h}_i$: The deep water (limited using stage) vertex is at least as far away from the bed than the shallow water (limited using depth). In this case we won't need any contribution from \bar{h}_i and can accept any α .

E.g. $\alpha = 1$ reduces Equation 16.3 to

$$\tilde{h}_i > \epsilon$$

whereas $\alpha = 0$ yields

$$\bar{h}_i > \epsilon$$

all well and good.

2. $\bar{h}_i > \tilde{h}_i$: In this case the the deep water vertex is closer to the bed than the shallow water vertex or even below the bed. In this case we need to find an α that will ensure a positive depth. Rearranging Equation 16.3 and solving for α one obtains the bound

$$\alpha < \frac{\epsilon - \bar{h}_i}{\tilde{h}_i - \bar{h}_i}, \forall i$$

Ensuring Equation 16.3 holds true for all vertices one arrives at the definition

$$\alpha = \min_i \frac{\bar{h}_i - \epsilon}{\bar{h}_i - \tilde{h}_i}$$

which will guarantee that no vertex 'cuts' through the bed. Finally, should $\bar{h}_i < \epsilon$ and therefore $\alpha < 0$, we suggest setting $\alpha = 0$ and similarly capping α at 1 just in case.

BASIC ANUGA ASSUMPTIONS

17.1 Time

Physical model time cannot be earlier than 1 Jan 1970 00:00:00. If one wished to recreate scenarios prior to that date it must be done using some relative time (e.g. 0).

The **ANUGA** domain has an attribute `starttime` which is used in cases where the simulation should be started later than the beginning of some input data such as those obtained from boundaries or forcing functions (hydrographs, file_boundary etc).

The `domain.starttime` may be adjusted in `file_boundary` in the case the input data does not itself start until a later time.

17.2 Spatial data

17.2.1 Projection

All spatial data relates to the WGS84 datum (or GDA94) and assumes a projection into UTM with false easting of 500000 and false northing of 1000000 on the southern hemisphere (0 on the northern hemisphere). All locations must consequently be specified in Cartesian coordinates (eastings, northings) or (x,y) where the unit is metres. Alternative projections can be used, but **ANUGA** does have the concept of a UTM zone that must be the same for all coordinates in the model.

17.2.2 Internal coordinates

It is important to realise that for numerical precision **ANUGA** uses coordinates that are relative to the lower left node of the rectangle containing the mesh (x_{\min} , y_{\min}). This origin is referred to internally as `xllcorner`, `yllcorner` following the ESRI ASCII grid notation. The SWW file format also includes `xllcorner`, `yllcorner` and any coordinate in the file should be adjusted by adding this origin. See Section 15.3.

Throughout the **ANUGA** interface, functions have optional boolean arguments `absolute` which controls whether spatial data received is using the internal representation (`absolute=False`) or the user coordinate set (`absolute=True`). See e.g. `get_vertex_coordinates()` on 41.

DEMs, meshes and boundary conditions can have different origins. However, the internal representation in **ANUGA** will use the origin of the mesh.

17.2.3 Polygons

When generating a mesh it is assumed that polygons do not cross. Having polygons that cross can cause bad meshes to be produced or the mesh generation itself may fail.

SUPPORTING TOOLS

This section describes a number of supporting tools, supplied with **ANUGA** , that offer a variety of types of functionality and can enhance the basic capabilities of **ANUGA** .

A.1 caching

The `cache` function is used to provide supervised caching of function results. A Python function call of the form:

```
result = func(arg1, ..., argn)
```

can be replaced by:

```
from caching import cache
result = cache(func, (arg1, ..., argn))
```

which returns the same output but reuses cached results if the function has been computed previously in the same context. `result` and the arguments can be simple types, tuples, list, dictionaries or objects, but not unhashable types such as functions or open file objects. The function `func` may be a member function of an object or a module.

This type of caching is particularly useful for computationally intensive functions with few frequently used combinations of input arguments. Note that if the inputs or output are very large caching may not save time because disc access may dominate the execution time.

If the function definition changes after a result has been cached, this will be detected by examining the functions bytecode and the function will be recomputed. However, caching will not detect changes in modules used by `func`. In this case the cache must be cleared manually.

Options are set by means of the function `set_option(key, value)`, where `key` is a key associated with a Python dictionary `options`. This dictionary stores settings such as the name of the directory used, the maximum number of cached files allowed, and so on.

The `cache` function allows the user also to specify a list of dependent files. If any of these have been changed, the function is recomputed and the results stored again.

USAGE:

```
result = cache(func, args, kwargs, dependencies, cachedir, verbose,
               compression, evaluate, test, return_filename)
```

A.2 anuga_viewer

The output generated by **ANUGA** may be viewed by means of the visualisation tool `anuga_viewer`, which takes an SWW file generated by **ANUGA** and creates a visual representation of the data. Examples may be seen in Figures 2.1 and 2.2.

A.2.1 Installing on Ubuntu

We suggest installing from source if you are using Ubuntu (Linux generally).

Install basic packages

```
sudo apt-get install build-essential libgdal-dev make git libopenscenegraph-dev
```

Download the `anuga_viewer` Code The latest version of the code is available from github. Don't use the version on sourceforge.

From your home directory, download the anuga viewer code via

```
git clone https://github.com/GeoscienceAustralia/anuga-viewer.git anuga-viewer
```

Change into the new directory `anuga-viewer`. From this directory build and install the viewer via

```
make
sudo make install
```

Finally we need to setup some environment variables.

Put the following in your `.bashrc` file (if you use the bash shell).

```
export SWOLLEN_BINDIR=~/.anuga-viewer/bin
export PATH=$PATH:$SWOLLEN_BINDIR
```

With some versions of linux you need to put this command in the file `.profile`

You should rerun your `.bashrc` file with

```
source .bashrc
```

Actually it is usually safer to fire up a new terminal to see if you have been successful in setting up the `PATH` and `SWOLLEN_BINDIR`

You can check your `PATH` with the command

```
printenv PATH
```

Check the Installation. Change into the `anuga-viewer/data` directory and run the `anuga_viewer` via the command

```
anuga_viewer cairns.sww
```

Hopefully the viewer fires up and you will see a simple flow. Use the space bar to start the visualisation.

A.2.2 Installing on Windows

A windows binary of the `anuga_viewer` is available from http://sourceforge.net/projects/anuga/files/anuga_viewer_windows/

Extract the files to a folder and create a shortcut to the `anuga_core` executable. Or set up a file association to make files with the extension `.sww` open with `anuga_viewer`. Alternatively, you can operate `anuga_viewer` from the command line if you setup the `PATH` to point to this folder.

A.2.3 Commands

The output generated by **ANUGA** may be viewed by means of the visualisation tool `anuga_viewer`, which takes an SWW file generated by **ANUGA** and creates a visual representation of the data. Examples may be seen in Figures 2.1 and 2.2. To view an SWW file with `anuga_viewer` in the Windows environment, you can simply drag the icon representing the file over an icon on the desktop for the `anuga_viewer` executable file (or a shortcut to it), or set up a file association to make files with the extension `.sww` open with `anuga_viewer`. Alternatively, you can operate `anuga_viewer` from the command line via

```
anuga_viewer <swwfile>
```

or if a georeferenced tif file (or jpg cut to the same shape as the domain) is needed

```
anuga_viewer <swwfile> <tif file>
```

Upon starting the viewer, you will see an interactive moving-picture display. You can use the keyboard and mouse to slow down, speed up or stop the display, change the viewing position or carry out a number of other simple operations. Help is also displayed when you press the `h` key.

The main keys operating the interactive screen are:

<code>h</code>	toggle on-screen help display
<code>w</code>	toggle wireframe
space bar	start/stop
up/down arrows	increase/decrease speed
left/right arrows	direction in time (<i>when running</i>)
	step through simulation (<i>when stopped</i>)
left mouse button	rotate
middle mouse button	pan
right mouse button	zoom

The following describes how to operate `anuga_viewer` from the command line:

Usage: anuga_viewer [options] swwfile ...

where:

--display <type>	MONITOR POWERWALL REALITY_CENTER HEAD_MOUNTED_DISPLAY
--rgba	Request a RGBA colour buffer visual
--stencil	Request a stencil buffer visual
--stereo	Use default stereo mode which is ANAGLYPHIC if not overridden by environmental variable
--stereo <mode>	ANAGLYPHIC QUAD_BUFFER HORIZONTAL_SPLIT VERTICAL_SPLIT LEFT_EYE RIGHT_EYE ON OFF
-alphamax <float 0-1>	Maximum transparency clamp value
-alphamin <float 0-1>	Transparency value at hmin
-cullangle <float angle 0-90>	Cull triangles steeper than this value
-help	Display this information
-hmax <float>	Height above which transparency is set to alphamax
-hmin <float>	Height below which transparency is set to zero
-lightpos <float>,<float>,<float>	x, y, z of bedslope directional light (z is up, default is overhead)
-loop	Repeated (looped) playback of .swm files
-movie <dirname>	Save numbered images to named directory and quit
-nosky	Omit background sky
-scale <float>	Vertical scale factor
-texture <file>	Image to use for bedslope topography
-tps <rate>	Timesteps per second
-version	Revision number and creation (not compile) date

A.3 utilities/polygons

class <callable> = Polygon_function (*regions, default=0.0, geo_reference=None*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Creates a callable object that returns one of a specified list of values when evaluated at a point (*x*, *y*), depending on which polygon, from a specified list of polygons, the point belongs to.

regions is a list of pairs (*P*, *v*), where each *P* is a polygon and each *v* is either a constant value or a function of coordinates *x* and *y*, specifying the return value for a point inside *P*.

default may be used to specify a value (or a function) for a point not lying inside any of the specified polygons.

When a point lies in more than one polygon, the return value is taken to be the value for whichever of these polygon appears later in the list.

geo_reference refers to the status of points that are passed into the function. Typically they will be relative to some origin.

Typical usage may take the form:

```
set_quantity('elevation',
             Polygon_function([(P1, v1), (P2, v2)],
                             default=v3,
                             geo_reference=domain.geo_reference))
```

<polygon> = read_polygon (*filename, split=''*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Reads the specified file and returns a polygon. Each line of the file must contain exactly two numbers, separated by a delimiter, which are interpreted as coordinates of one vertex of the polygon.

filename is the path to the file to read.

split sets the delimiter character between the numbers on one line of the file. If not specified, the delimiter is the ',' character.

populate_polygon (*polygon, number_of_points, seed=None, exclude=None*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Populates the interior of the specified polygon with the specified number of points, selected by means of a uniform distribution function.

polygon is the polygon to populate.

number_of_points is the (optional) number of points.

seed is the optional seed for random number generator.

exclude is a list of polygons (inside main polygon) from where points should be excluded.

<point> = point_in_polygon (*polygon, delta=1e-8*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Returns a point inside the specified polygon and close to the edge. The distance between the returned point and the nearest point of the polygon is less than $\sqrt{2}$ times the second argument *delta*, which is taken as 10^{-8} by default.

<array> = inside_polygon (*points, polygon, closed=True, verbose=False*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Get a set of points that lie inside a given polygon.

points is the list of points to test.

polygon is the polygon to test the points against.

closed specifies if points on the polygon edge are considered to be inside or outside the polygon – True means they are inside.

Returns a numeric array comprising the indices of the points in the list that lie inside the polygon. If none of the points are inside, returns `zeros((0,), 'l')` (ie, an empty numeric array).

Compare with `outside_polygon()`, page 86.

<array> = outside_polygon (*points, polygon, closed=True, verbose=False*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Get a set of points that lie outside a given polygon.

points is the list of points to test.

polygon is the polygon to test the points against.

closed specifies if points on the polygon edge are considered to be outside or inside the polygon – True means they are outside.

Returns a numeric array comprising the indices of the points in the list that lie outside the polygon. If none of the points are outside, returns `zeros((0,), '1')` (ie, an empty numeric array).

Compare with `inside_polygon()`, page 85.

<boolean> = is_inside_polygon (*point, polygon, closed=True, verbose=False*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Determines if a single point is inside a polygon.

point is the point to test.

polygon is the polygon to test *point* against.

closed is a flag that forces the function to consider a point on the polygon edge to be inside or outside – if True a point on the edge is considered inside the polygon.

Returns True if *point* is inside *polygon*.

Compare with `inside_polygon()`, page 85.

<boolean> = is_outside_polygon (*point, polygon, closed=True, verbose=False,*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Determines if a single point is outside a polygon.

point is the point to test.

polygon is the polygon to test *point* against.

closed is a flag that forces the function to consider a point on the polygon edge to be outside or inside – if True a point on the edge is considered inside the polygon.

Compare with `outside_polygon()`, page 86.

<boolean> = point_on_line (*point, line, rtol=1.0e-5, atol=1.0e-8*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Determine if a point is on a line to some tolerance. The line is considered to extend past its end-points.

point is the point to test (*[x, y]*).

line is the line to test *point* against (*[[x1,y1], [x2,y2]]*).

rtol is the relative tolerance to use when testing for coincidence.

atol is the absolute tolerance to use when testing for coincidence.

Returns True if the point is on the line, else False.

(indices, count) = separate_points_by_polygon (*points, polygon, closed=True, check_input=True, verbose=False*)

`separate_points_by_polygon` Module: `utilities.polygon`

Separate a set of points into points that are inside and outside a polygon.

points is a list of points to separate.

polygon is the polygon used to separate the points.

closed determines whether points on the polygon edge should be regarded as inside or outside the polygon. True means they are inside.

check_input specifies whether the input parameters are checked – True means check the input parameters.

The function returns a tuple (*indices, count*) where *indices* is a list of point *indices* from the input *points* list, with the indices of points inside the polygon at the left and indices of points outside the polygon listed at the right. The *count* value is the count (from the left) of the indices of the points *inside* the polygon.

<area> = polygon_area (*polygon*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Returns area of an arbitrary polygon (reference <http://mathworld.wolfram.com/PolygonArea.html>).

[*x_{min}*, *x_{max}*, *y_{min}*, *y_{max}*] = plot_polygons (*polygons_points*, *style=None*, *figname=None*, *label=None*, *verbose=False*)

Module: `utilities.polygon`

Plot a list of polygons to a file.

polygons_points is a list of polygons to plot.

style is a list of style strings to be applied to the corresponding polygon in *polygons_points*. A polygon can be closed for plotting purposes by assigning the style string 'line' to it in the appropriate place in the *style* list. The default style is 'line'.

figname is the path to the file to save the plot in. If not specified, use 'test_image.png'.

The function returns a list containing the minimum and maximum of the points in all the input polygons, i.e. [*x_{min}*, *x_{max}*, *y_{min}*, *y_{max}*].

A.4 geospatial_data

This describes a class that represents arbitrary point data in UTM coordinates along with named attribute values.

```
class Geospatial_data (data_points=None, attributes=None, geo_reference=None, default_attribute_-  
name=None, file_name=None, latitudes=None, longitudes=None, points_are_lats_-  
longs=False, max_read_lines=None, load_file_now=True, verbose=False)
```

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

This class is used to store a set of data points and associated attributes, allowing these to be manipulated by methods defined for the class.

The data points are specified either by reading them from a NetCDF or CSV file, identified through the parameter `file_name`, or by providing their *x*- and *y*-coordinates in metres, either as a sequence of 2-tuples of floats or as an $M \times 2$ numeric array of floats, where M is the number of points.

Coordinates are interpreted relative to the origin specified by the object `geo_reference`, which contains data indicating the UTM zone, easting and northing. If `geo_reference` is not specified, a default is used.

Attributes are specified through the parameter `attributes`, set either to a list or array of length M or to a dictionary whose keys are the attribute names and whose values are lists or arrays of length M . One of the attributes may be specified as the default attribute, by assigning its name to `default_attribute_name`. If no value is specified, the default attribute is taken to be the first one.

Note that the `Geospatial_data` object currently reads entire datasets into memory i.e. no memory blocking takes place. For this we refer to the `set_quantity()` method which will read PTS and CSV files into ANUGA using memory blocking allowing large files to be used.

```
<Geospatial_data>.import_points_file (file_name, delimiter=None, verbose=False)
```

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

Import a TXT, CSV or PTS points data file into a `Geospatial_data` object.

`file_name` is the path to a TXT, CSV or PTS points data file.

`delimiter` is currently unused.

```
<Geospatial_data>.export_points_file (file_name, absolute=True, as_lat_long=False, isSouth-  
Hemisphere=True)
```

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

Export a CSV or PTS points data file from a `Geospatial_data` object.

`file_name` is the path to the CSV or PTS points file to write.

`absolute` determines if the exported data is absolute or relative to the `Geospatial_data` object `geo_reference`. If `True` the exported data is absolute.

`as_lat_long` exports the points data as latitudes and longitudes if `True`.

`isSouthHemisphere` has effect only if `as_lat_long` is `True` and causes latitude/longitude values to be for the southern (`True`) or northern hemispheres (`False`).

```
points = <Geospatial_data>.get_data_points (absolute=True, geo_reference=None, as_lat_-  
long=False, isSouthHemisphere=True)
```

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

Get the coordinates for all the data points as an $N \times 2$ array.

`absolute` determines if the exported data is absolute or relative to the `Geospatial_data` object `geo_reference`. If `True` the exported data is absolute.

`geo_reference` is the `geo_reference` the points are relative to, if supplied.

`as_lat_long` exports the points data as latitudes and longitudes if `True`.

`isSouthHemisphere` has effect only if `as_lat_long` is `True` and causes latitude/longitude values to be for the southern (`True`) or northern hemispheres (`False`).

```
<Geospatial_data>.set_attributes (attributes)
```

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

Set the attributes for a `Geospatial_data` object.

`attributes` is the new value for the object's attributes. May be a dictionary or `None`.

attributes = **<Geospatial_data>.get_attributes** (*attribute_name=None*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Get a named attribute from a `Geospatial_data` object.
attribute_name is the name of the desired attribute. If `None`, return the default attribute.

<Geospatial_data>.get_all_attributes ()
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Get all attributes of a `Geospatial_data` object.
Returns `None` or the attributes dictionary (which may be empty).

<Geospatial_data>.set_default_attribute_name (*default_attribute_name*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Set the default attribute name of a `Geospatial_data` object.
default_attribute_name is the new default attribute name.

<Geospatial_data>.set_geo_reference (*geo_reference*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Set the internal `geo_reference` of a `Geospatial_data` object.
geo_reference is the new internal `geo_reference` for the object. If `None` will use the default `geo-reference`.
If the `Geospatial_data` object already has an internal `geo_reference` then the points data will be changed to use the new `geo_reference`.

<Geospatial_data>.__add__ (*other*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
The `__add__` () method is defined so it is possible to add two `Geospatial_data` objects.

geospatial = **<Geospatial_data>.clip** (*polygon, closed=True, verbose=False*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Clip a `Geospatial_data` object with a polygon.
polygon is the polygon to clip the `Geospatial_data` object with. This may be a list of points, an $N \times 2$ array or a `Geospatial_data` object.
closed determines whether points on the polygon edge are inside (`True`) or outside (`False`) the polygon.
Returns a new `Geospatial_data` object representing points inside the
Compare with `clip_outside()`, page 89. specified polygon.

geospatial = **<Geospatial_data>.clip_outside** (*polygon, closed=True, verbose=False*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Clip a `Geospatial_data` object with a polygon.
polygon is the polygon to clip the `Geospatial_data` object with. This may be a list of points, an $N \times 2$ array or a `Geospatial_data` object.
closed determines whether points on the polygon edge are inside (`True`) or outside (`False`) the polygon.
Returns a new `Geospatial_data` object representing points outside the specified polygon.
Compare with `clip()`, page 89.

(g1, g2) = **<Geospatial_data>.split** (*factor=0.5, seed_num=None, verbose=False*)
Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`
Split a `Geospatial_data` object into two objects of predetermined ratios.
factor is the ratio of the size of the first returned object to the original object. If '0.5' is supplied, the two resulting objects will be of equal size.
seed_num, if supplied, will be the random number generator seed used for the split.
Points of the two new `geospatial_data` object are selected RANDOMLY.
Returns two `geospatial_data` objects that are disjoint sets of the original.

A.5 Miscellaneous Functions

The functions here are not `Geospatial_data` object methods, but are used with them.

x = find_optimal_smoothing_parameter (*data_file*, *alpha_list=None*, *mesh_file=None*, *boundary_poly=None*, *mesh_resolution=100000*, *north_boundary=None*, *south_boundary=None*, *east_boundary=None*, *west_boundary=None*, *plot_name='all_alphas'*, *split_factor=0.1*, *seed_num=None*, *cache=False*, *verbose=False*)

Module: `geospatial_data.geospatial_data`

Calculate the minimum covariance from a set of points in a file. It does this by removing a small random sample of points from `data_file` and creating models with different alpha values from `alpha_list` and cross validates the predicted value to the previously removed point data. Returns the alpha value which has the smallest covariance.

`data_file` is the input data file and must not contain points outside the boundaries defined and is either a PTS, TXT or CSV file.

`alpha_list` is the list of alpha values to use.

`mesh_file` is the path to a mesh file to create (if supplied). If `None` a mesh file will be created (named 'temp.msh'). NOTE: if there is a `mesh_resolution` defined or any boundaries are defined, any input `mesh_file` value is ignored.

`mesh_resolution` is the maximum area size for a triangle.

`north_boundary`

`south_boundary`

`east_boundary`

`west_boundary` are the boundary values to use.

`plot_name` is the path name of the plot file to write.

`seed_num` is the random number generator seed to use.

The function returns a tuple (`min_covar`, `alpha`) where `min_covar` is the minimum normalised covariance and `alpha` is the alpha value that created it. A plot file is also written.

This is an example of function usage:

```
convariance_value, alpha = \
    find_optimal_smoothing_parameter(data_file=fileName,
                                     alpha_list=[0.0001, 0.01, 1],
                                     mesh_file=None,
                                     mesh_resolution=3,
                                     north_boundary=5,
                                     south_boundary=-5,
                                     east_boundary=5,
                                     west_boundary=-5,
                                     plot_name='all_alphas',
                                     seed_num=100000,
                                     verbose=False)
```

NOTE: The function will not work if the `data_file` extent is greater than the `boundary_poly` polygon or any of the boundaries, e.g. `north_boundary`, etc.

A.6 Graphical Mesh Generator GUI

The program `graphical_mesh_generator.py` in the `pmesh` module allows the user to set up the mesh of the problem interactively. It can be used to build the outline of a mesh or to visualise a mesh automatically generated.

Graphical Mesh Generator will let the user select various modes. The current allowable modes are *vertex*, *segment*, *hole* or *region*. The mode describes what sort of object is added or selected in response to mouse clicks. When changing modes any prior selected objects become deselected.

In general the left mouse button will add an object and the right mouse button will select an object. A selected object can be deleted by pressing the middle mouse button (scroll bar).

A.7 class Alpha_Shape

Alpha shapes are used to generate close-fitting boundaries around sets of points. The alpha shape algorithm produces a shape that approximates to the 'shape formed by the points' – or the shape that would be seen by viewing the points from a coarse enough resolution. For the simplest types of point sets, the alpha shape reduces to the more precise notion of the convex hull. However, for many sets of points the convex hull does not provide a close fit and the alpha shape usually fits more closely to the original point set, offering a better approximation to the shape being sought.

In **ANUGA**, an alpha shape is used to generate a polygonal boundary around a set of points before mesh generation. The algorithm uses a parameter α that can be adjusted to make the resultant shape resemble the shape suggested by intuition more closely. An alpha shape can serve as an initial boundary approximation that the user can adjust as needed.

The following paragraphs describe the class used to model an alpha shape and some of the important methods and attributes associated with instances of this class.

class Alpha_Shape (*points, alpha=None*)

Module: alpha_shape

Instantiate an instance of the Alpha_Shape class.

points is an $N \times 2$ list of points ($[[x1, y1], [x2, y2] \dots]$).

alpha is the 'fitting' parameter.

alpha_shape_via_files (*point_file, boundary_file, alpha=None*)

Module: alpha_shape

This function reads points from the specified point file *point_file*, computes the associated alpha shape (either using the specified value for *alpha* or, if no value is specified, automatically setting it to an optimal value) and outputs the boundary to a file named *boundary_file*. This output file lists the coordinates (*x*, *y*) of each point in the boundary, using one line per point.

<Alpha_shape>.set_boundary_type (*raw_boundary=True, remove_holes=False, smooth_indents=False, expand_pinch=False, boundary_points_fraction=0.2*)

Module: alpha_shape

This function sets internal state that controls how the Alpha_shape boundary is presented or exported.

raw_boundary sets the type to *raw* if *True*, i.e. the regular edges of the alpha shape.

remove_holes, if *True* removes small holes ('small' is defined by *boundary_points_fraction*).

smooth_indents, if *True* removes sharp triangular indents in the boundary.

expand_pinch, if *True* tests for pinch-off and corrects – preventing a boundary vertex from having more than two edges.

boundary = <Alpha_shape>.get_boundary()

Module: alpha_shape

Returns a list of tuples representing the boundary of the alpha shape. Each tuple represents a segment in the boundary by providing the indices of its two endpoints.

See *set_boundary_type()*, page 92.

<Alpha_shape>.write_boundary (*file_name*)

Module: alpha_shape

Writes the list of 2-tuples returned by *get_boundary()* to the file *file_name*, using one line per tuple.

See *set_boundary_type()*, page 92.

See *get_boundary()*, page 92.

A.8 Numerical Tools

The following table describes some useful numerical functions that may be found in the module `utilities.numerical_tools`:

<code>angle(v1, v2=None)</code>	Angle between two-dimensional vectors <code>v1</code> and <code>v2</code> , or between <code>v1</code> and the <i>x</i> -axis if <code>v2</code> is <code>None</code> . Value is in range 0 to 2π .
<code>normal_vector(v)</code>	Normal vector to <code>v</code> .
<code>mean(x)</code>	Mean value of a vector <code>x</code> .
<code>cov(x, y=None)</code>	Covariance of vectors <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> . If <code>y</code> is <code>None</code> , returns <code>cov(x, x)</code> .
<code>err(x, y=0, n=2, relative=True)</code>	Relative error of $\ x-y\ $ to $\ y\ $ (2-norm if <code>n=2</code> or Max norm if <code>n=None</code>). If denominator evaluates to zero or if <code>y</code> is omitted or if <code>relative=False</code> , absolute error is returned.
<code>norm(x)</code>	2-norm of <code>x</code> .
<code>corr(x, y=None)</code>	Correlation of <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> . If <code>y</code> is <code>None</code> returns autocorrelation of <code>x</code> .
<code>ensure_numeric(A, typecode=None)</code>	Returns a numeric array for any sequence <code>A</code> . If <code>A</code> is already a numeric array it will be returned unaltered. Otherwise, an attempt is made to convert it to a numeric array. (Needed because <code>array(A)</code> can cause memory overflow.)
<code>histogram(a, bins, relative=False)</code>	Standard histogram. If <code>relative</code> is <code>True</code> , values will be normalised against the total and thus represent frequencies rather than counts.
<code>create_bins(data, number_of_bins=None)</code>	Safely create bins for use with histogram. If <code>data</code> contains only one point or is constant, one bin will be created. If <code>number_of_bins</code> is omitted, 10 bins will be created.

GLOSSARY

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Page</i>
ANUGA	Name of software (joint development between ANU and GA)	i
bathymetry	offshore elevation	
conserved quantity	conserved (stage, x and y momentum)	
Digital Elevation Model (DEM)	DEMs are digital files consisting of points of elevations, sampled systematically at equally spaced intervals.	
Dirichlet boundary	A boundary condition imposed on a differential equation that specifies the values the solution is to take on the boundary of the domain.	8
edge	A triangular cell within the computational mesh can be depicted as a set of vertices joined by lines (the edges).	
elevation	refers to bathymetry and topography	
evolution	integration of the shallow water wave equations over time	
finite volume method	The method evaluates the terms in the shallow water wave equation as fluxes at the surfaces of each finite volume. Because the flux entering a given volume is identical to that leaving the adjacent volume, these methods are conservative. Another advantage of the finite volume method is that it is easily formulated to allow for unstructured meshes. The method is used in many computational fluid dynamics packages.	
forcing term	A part of the right hand side S in the Shallow water equation. Typical terms are bed pressure, bed friction, wind stress, atmospheric pressure, rain etc.	
flux	the amount of flow through the volume per unit time	
grid	Evenly spaced mesh	
latitude	The angular distance on a mericlear north and south of the equator, expressed in degrees and minutes.	
longitude	The angular distance east or west, between the meridian of a particular place on Earth and that of the Prime Meridian (located in Greenwich, England) expressed in degrees or time.	
Manning friction coefficient		
mesh	Triangulation of domain	
mesh file	A TSH or MSH file	18
NetCDF		
node	A point at which edges meet	
northing	A rectangular (x,y) coordinate measurement of distance north from a north-south reference line, usually a meridian used as the axis of origin within a map zone or projection. Northing is a UTM (Universal Transverse Mercator) coordinate.	
points file	A PTS or CSV file	

polygon	A sequence of points in the plane. ANUGA represents a polygon either as a list consisting of Python tuples or lists of length 2 or as an $N \times 2$ numeric array, where N is the number of points. The unit square, for example, would be represented either as <code>[[0,0], [1,0], [1,1], [0,1]]</code> or as <code>array([0,0], [1,0], [1,1], [0,1])</code> . NOTE: For details refer to the module <code>utilities/polygon.py</code> .	
resolution	The maximal area of a triangular cell in a mesh	
reflective boundary	Models a solid wall. Returns same conserved quantities as those present in the neighbouring volume but reflected. Specific to the shallow water equation as it works with the momentum quantities assumed to be the second and third conserved quantities.	8
stage		
anuga_viewer	visualisation tool used with ANUGA	82
time boundary	Returns values for the conserved quantities as a function of time. The user must specify the domain to get access to the model time.	8
topography	onshore elevation	
transmissive boundary		8
vertex	A point at which edges meet.	
xmomentum	conserved quantity (note, two-dimensional SWW equations say only x and y and NOT z)	
ymomentum	conserved quantity	

INDEX

- (g1, g2) = <Geospatial_data>.split() (Geospatial_data method), 89
- (indices, count) = separate_points_by_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 86
- (time, Q) = get_flow_through_cross_section() (in module), 60
- (x, y) = get_maximum_inundation_location() (in module), 59
- <area> = polygon_area() (in module utilities.polygon), 87
- <array> = inside_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 85
- <array> = outside_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 86
- <boolean> = is_inside_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 86
- <boolean> = is_outside_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 86
- <boolean> = point_on_line() (in module utilities.polygon), 86
- <callable> = Polygon_function (class in utilities.polygon), 85
- <point> = point_in_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 85
- <polygon> = read_polygon() (in module utilities.polygon), 85
- [x_{min} , x_{max} , y_{min} , y_{max}] = plot_polygons() (in module utilities.polygon), 87
- ANUGA**, i
- ANUGA**, 95
- <Alpha_shape>.set_boundary_type() (Alpha_Shape method), 92
- <Alpha_shape>.write_boundary() (Alpha_Shape method), 92
- <Geospatial_data>.__add__() (Geospatial_data method), 89
- <Geospatial_data>.export_points_file() (Geospatial_data method), 88
- <Geospatial_data>.get_all_attributes() (Geospatial_data method), 89
- <Geospatial_data>.import_points_file() (Geospatial_data method), 88
- <Geospatial_data>.set_attributes() (Geospatial_data method), 88
- <Geospatial_data>.set_default_attribute_name() (Geospatial_data method), 89
- <Geospatial_data>.set_geo_reference() (Geospatial_data method), 89
- <callable_object> = Interpolation_function (class in), 49
- <callable_object> = file_function() (in module), 49
- <callable_object> = slump_tsunami() (in module), 48
- <domain>.add_quantity() (method), 48
- <domain>.boundary_statistics() (method), 42
- <domain>.evolve() (method), 42
- <domain>.get_boundary_tags() (*callable_object*; = Interpolation_function method), 51
- <domain>.get_centroid_coordinates() (method), 41
- <domain>.get_datadir() (method), 39
- <domain>.get_disconnected_triangles() (method), 41
- <domain>.get_maximum_inundation_elevation() (method), 44
- <domain>.get_maximum_inundation_location() (method), 45
- <domain>.get_name() (method), 39
- <domain>.get_nodes() (method), 41
- <domain>.get_triangles() (method), 41
- <domain>.get_vertex_coordinates() (method), 41
- <domain>.get_wet_elements() (method), 44
- <domain>.quantity_statistics() (method), 43
- <domain>.set_boundary() (*callable_object*; = Interpolation_function method), 51
- <domain>.set_datadir() (method), 39
- <domain>.set_default_order() (method), 40
- <domain>.set_maximum_allowed_speed() (method), 40
- <domain>.set_minimum_allowed_height() (method), 40

`<domain>.set_minimum_storable_height()` (method), 40
`<domain>.set_name()` (method), 39
`<domain>.set_quantities_to_be_monitored()` (method), 43
`<domain>.set_quantities_to_be_stored()` (method), 41
`<domain>.set_quantity()` (method), 47
`<domain>.set_region()` (method), 48
`<domain>.set_store_vertices_uniquely()` (method), 40
`<domain>.set_time()` (method), 40
`<domain>.statistics()` (method), 42
`<domain>.timestepping_statistics()` (method), 42
`<mesh>.add_hole()` (Mesh method), 35
`<mesh>.add_hole_from_polygon()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.add_points_and_segments()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.add_region()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.add_region_from_polygon()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.add_vertices()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.auto_segment()` (Mesh method), 36
`<mesh>.export_mesh_file()` (Mesh method), 37
`<mesh>.generate_mesh()` (Mesh method), 37
`<mesh>.import_ungenerate_file()` (Mesh method), 37
`<quantity>.get_integral()` (method), 44
`<quantity>.get_maximum_location()` (method), 44
`<quantity>.get_maximum_value()` (method), 44
`<quantity>.get_values()` (method), 43
`<quantity>.set_values()` (method), 44

Alpha_Shape (class in), 92
`alpha_shape_via_files()` (in module), 92
ANUGA
 credits, *ii*
 licence, *ii*
anuga_viewer, 96
`attributes = <Geospatial_data>.get_attributes()` (Geospatial_data method), 89

bathymetry, 95
`boundary = <Alpha_shape>.get_boundary()` (Alpha_Shape method), 92
boundary conditions, 8, 21, 51
conserved quantity, 95
`create_domain_from_regions()` (in module), 34
`create_mesh_from_regions()` (in module), 34
`csv2building_polygons()` (in module), 70
culverts, 55
`dem2pts()` (in module), 70
Digital Elevation Model (DEM), 95
Dirichlet boundary, 95
`Dirichlet_boundary` (class in), 51
`Dirichlet_discharge_boundary` (class in), 52
Documentation, 65
Domain (class in), 39
domain, establishing, 6

edge, 95
elevation, 95
`elevation = get_maximum_inundation_elevation()` (in module), 59
erosion, 55
evolution, 9, 42, 95

Field_boundary (class in), 52
finite volume method, 95
flux, 95
forcing term, 95

`geospatial = <Geospatial_data>.clip()` (Geospatial_data method), 89
`geospatial = <Geospatial_data>.clip_outside()` (Geospatial_data method), 89
Geospatial_data (class in), 88
grid, 95

Initial Conditions, 47
Initialising the Domain, 39

latitude, 95
longitude, 95

Manning friction coefficient, 95
Mesh
 generation, 33
Mesh (class in), 35
mesh, 95
mesh file, 18, 95
mesh, establishing, 13, 17

NetCDF, 95
node, 95
northing, 95

operators, 55

`points = <Geospatial_data>.get_data_points()` (Geospatial_data method), 88
points file, 95
polygon, 96
`populate_polygon()` (in module utilities.polygon), 85

public vs private interface, 65

`Q = <domain>.get_quantity() (method)`, 43
`quantity = <domain>.create_-
quantity_from_expression() (method)`, 66

reflective boundary, 96

`Reflective_boundary (class in)`, 51

resolution, 96

`separate_points_by_polygon`, 86

`Set_elevation_operator (class in)`, 55

`set_quantity`, 47

stage, i, 96

structures, 55

`sww2dem() (in module)`, 69

`sww2timeseries() (in module)`, 59

time boundary, 96

`Time_boundary (class in)`, 51

topography, 96

transmissive boundary, 96

`Transmissive_boundary (class in)`, 52

`Transmissive_momentum_set_stage_-
boundary (class in)`, 52

`Transmissive_stage_zero_momentum_-
boundary (class in)`, 52

`urs2sts() (in module)`, 70

`utilities.polygon (module)`, 85

`utilities.polygon (standard module)`, **85**

vertex, 96

`X = find_optimal_smoothing_-
parameter() (method)`, 90

xmomentum, 96

ymomentum, 96

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