

EARLY ONLINE RELEASE

This is a PDF of a manuscript that has been peer-reviewed and accepted for publication. As the article has not yet been formatted, copy edited or proofread, the final published version may be different from the early online release.

This pre-publication manuscript may be downloaded, distributed and used under the provisions of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY 4.0) license. It may be cited using the DOI below.

The DOI for this manuscript is DOI:10.2151/jmsj.2022-039 J-STAGE Advance published date: June 21st, 2022 The final manuscript after publication will replace the preliminary version at the above DOI once it is available.

1	Spatial Structure and Formation Mechanism of Local
2	Winds "Suzuka-oroshi" at the Foothills of Suzuka
3	Mountains, Japan
4	
5	Shunsuke YAMADA
6	Graduate School of Life and Environmental Sciences,
7	University of Tsukuba, Japan
8	and
9	Hiroyuki KUSAKA ¹
10	Center for Computational Sciences,
11	University of Tsukuba, Japan
12	
13	June 16, 2021
14	
15	
16	
17 18 19 20 21	1) Corresponding author: Hiroyuki Kusaka, Center for Computational Sciences, University of Tsukuba Email: kusaka@ccs.tsukuba.ac.jp Tel: +81-29-853-6481

22

Abstract

23	We examined the essential features and formation mechanism of the strong local
24	"Suzuka-oroshi" winds, which are located leeward of the Suzuka Mountains in Japan.
25	This area features a favorable topography for downslope windstorms. Climatological
26	analysis revealed that Suzuka-oroshi mainly occurred after an extratropical cyclone with
27	a cold front and passed the Sea of Japan (55% of all occurrences). Additionally, inversion
28	layers (1-5 km level) were observed in 74% of cases. Climatological analysis using
29	spatially dense observational data showed that the strongest winds tended to blow in the
30	northern part of the plain on the leeward side. Numerical simulations for one case by the
31	Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model with 1 km grid increment supported
32	this finding. Simulation results with and without the Suzuka Mountains demonstrated that
33	the strong Suzuka-oroshi in the northern part of the plain comprised downslope
34	windstorms with transition of flow regime (internal Froude number was less than 1.0 at
35	the windward of mountains and larger than 1.0 above the leeward slope). Additionally,
36	differences in height of the mountains between the north and south parts results in the
37	greater wind speed in the northern parts compared to the southern parts.

38

Keywords: Suzuka-oroshi, local wind, downslope windstorm, local hydraulic theory,
 mountain wave

41 **1 Introduction**

Downslope windstorms are strong local winds that blow on the leeward slopes and foothills of mountains, formed by the acceleration of air as they cross the mountains. These winds occur in many places worldwide, including Foehn in the Alps (Gohm and Mayr 2004; Zangl et al. 2004; Armi and Mayr 2007), Bora on the Adriatic coast (Yoshino, 1976; Smith 1985, 1987; Gohm and Mayr 2005), Chinook in the Rocky Mountains (Glenn 1961; Lilly and Zipser 1972), and Antarctic Peninsula foehns (Orr et al., 2008; Elvidge et al., 2016, 2020; Turton et al., 2018).

Theories to explain the occurrence of downslope windstorms were proposed in the 49 1980s and can be broadly summarized into two or three main theories (Durran 1990; 50 Jackson et al 2003, Lin 2007). First is the local hydraulic theory (e.g., Smith 1985; Durran 51 1986) that extends classical shallow water theory (Houghton and Kasahara 1968; Arakawa 52 1968, 1969) to the atmosphere with stratification. In this theory, flow in the lower layers of 53 the well-mixed region such as wave-breaking region behaves locally as a shooting 54 (supercritical) flow. Specifically, flows approaching the mountains are divided by the well-55 mixed region above the mountains and accelerate below this region. Second is the resonant 56 amplification theory that was proposed in a series of studies performed by Peltier and Clark 57 (Peltier and Clark 1979, 1983; Clark and Peltier, 1984). They described that the severe 58 downslope windstorms occur due to nonlinear resonance between upward and downward 59 mountain waves reflected at the critical layer. The third is the vertical energy transport theory 60

that is linear theory (Klemp and Lilly 1975). Durran and Klemp (1987) examined the critical
level height for stage of severe downslope windstorms state, the results of which supported
Smith's theory. Currently, it is considered that Peltier-Clark's and Smith's theories explain
flows at the earlier and mature stages of severe downslope windstorm development,
respectively (Lin 2007).

Downslope windstorms easily occur in straight mountain ranges and in terrains where the leeward slope is steeper than the windward slope (Raymond 1972; Lilly and Klemp 1979; Pitts and Lyons 1989; Miller and Durran 1991; Saito and Ikawa 1991). Furthermore, downslope windstorms easily occur over mountains with saddles because hydraulic jumps are less likely to occur leeward of saddles and strong wind regions extend farther leeward (Raymond 1972; Lilly and Klemp 1979; Pitts and Lyons 1989; Miller and Durran 1991; Saito 1993; Gohm et al. 2008; Elvidge and Renfew 2016).

The conditions favored by downslope windstorms are affected by the terrain shape and atmospheric condition. The mountain Froude number *Fr* (or its inverse, the non-dimensional mountain height) is often used as an indicator of the occurrence of downslope windstorms and/or mountain-wave breaking. Lin and Wang (1996) investigated the relationship between *Fr* and the behavior of airflows over mountains using a two-dimensional idealized model (Eq. (1)).

79

$$Fr = U/NH \tag{1}$$

80 Here, *U* is the wind speed of the approaching flow, *N* is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency, and *H*

is the mountain height. Lin and Wang (1996) found that downslope windstorms occur when 81 Fr is approximately 0.6–1.2, and other studies showed similar results (Gabersek and Durran 82 83 2004). The presence of a temperature inversion layer and critical layer facilitates the formation of downslope windstorms (Klemp and Durran 1987; Smith and Skyllingstad 2011). 84 The role of the inversion layer in downslope windstorm occurrences can be approximately 85 divided into the following two categories. In the presence of an inversion layer at a lower 86 level, airflow over the mountains easily transitions from subcritical flow to supercritical flow, 87 facilitating the occurrence of downslope windstorms. The presence of an inversion layer at 88 the upper level also makes it easier to induce mountain-wave breaking just below this layer 89 90 because of the reflection and resonance of mountain waves, in turn making it easier for downslope windstorms to blow under the well mixed region. 91

Downslope windstorms are common in Japan because of the complex and undulating 92 topographies of the country's islands, which are unique to each region. Japan's well-known 93 downslope windstorms include the "Yamaji-kaze" (Saito and Ikawa 1991; Saito 1993, 1994), 94 "Hiroto-kaze" (Fudeyasu et al. 2008), "Karakkaze" (Yoshino 1975, 1986; Kusaka et al. 2011; 95 Nishi and Kusaka 2019a, b), "Inami-kaze" (Koyanagi and Kusaka 2020), "Jintsu-oroshi" 96 (Kusaka et al. 2021), "Zao-oroshi" (Sawada et al. 2012), "Chokai-oroshi" (Asano and Kusaka 97 2022), and "Suzuka-oroshi" (Owada, 1990; Komatsu and Tachibana, 2016). The "Kiyokawa-98 dashi" is thought to be gap winds but exhibits characteristics of downslope windstorms 99 (Yoshino 1986; Ishii et al. 2007; Sasaki et al. 2005, 2010). Japan's local winds, including 100

downslope windstorms, have been summarized by Yoshino (1986) and Kusaka and
 Fudeyasu (2017).

103 A strong westerly wind known as "Suzuka-oroshi" blows in the eastern plains at the base of the Suzuka Mountains (Yoshino 1975). The Suzuka Mountains are in the Mie and 104 Shiga prefectures and are north-south oriented (Fig. 1). These mountains are divided into 105 three parts: the northern part comprises a series of mountains that are approximately 1,000 106 m in height, mountains in the central part are approximately 500 m, and those in the southern 107 part are approximately 800 m in height. The Suzuka Pass, a major transportation hub with 108 highways, is in the central part of the Suzuka Mountains. The Suzuka Mountains are highly 109 110 asymmetric range; the eastern slopes are steeper than the western slopes. Therefore, the terrain of the Suzuka Mountains can make them prone to downslope windstorms. 111

Owada (1990) clarified the climatological characteristics of Suzuka-oroshi using 112 Automated Meteorological Data Acquisition System (AMeDAS) data for the area to the south 113 (i.e., leeward) of the Suzuka Mountains. He identified the Suzuka-oroshi as winds with 114 surface wind speeds of at least 8 m s-1 and found that Suzuka-oroshi was more likely to 115 116 blow during the winter and spring, during the daytime, under a typical pressure pattern in the winter (that is a pressure pattern with the Siberian High to the west of Japan, a low to 117 the east of Japan) (Fig. 2a, b). Analysis of the distribution of wind-shaped trees (wind-118 deformed tree) showed that Suzuka-oroshi tend to blow in the central and southern part of 119 the plain where is located at the leeward the Suzuka Mountains. Komatsu and Tachibana 120

(2016) also reported that Suzuka-oroshi blow in the southern part of the plain, using the
 AMeDAS surface wind data. Although Suzuka-oroshi have been studied, four open
 questions remain at least.

The first question concerns the spatial distribution of Suzuka-oroshi. According to the principal of the local elementary school and fire department officer living in the areas shown in Fig. 1, the Suzuka-oroshi blow in the leeward area of the northern part of the Suzuka Mountains. These local residents' perceptions are not consistent with the results of the previous studies (Owada 1990; Komatsu and Tachibana 2016).

The second question concerns the favorable synoptic weather pattern during Suzuka-129 oroshi events. Owada (1990) analyzed the synoptic weather pattern when the surface wind 130 speed was 8 m s-1 or higher (Fig. 2a, b). However, according to our interviews, the local 131 people recognize Suzuka-oroshi as strong enough to cause large branches of trees to sway, 132power lines to roar, and people to feel threatened. This is equivalent to a wind speed of 11 133m s-1 by the Beaufort Scale: "The large branches of the trees sway, making it difficult to hold 134 an umbrella. Power lines squeal " (strong breeze, wind speed 10.8-13.8 m s-1 at 10 m 135 above ground). Therefore, Owada (1990) may not have captured the typical pressure 136 pattern that occurs when Suzuka-oroshi blows. 137

The third and fourth questions concern the favorable mesoscale atmospheric conditions for Suzuka-oroshi and their formation mechanisms. The relationship between Suzuka-oroshi, the inversion layer, and *Fr* remains unclear. Regarding the mechanism of Suzuka-oroshi,

Komatsu and Tachibana (2016) launched six sondes at the same time and used AMeDAS surface wind data and made a hypothesis that Suzuka-oroshi was downslope-windstorms with hydraulic jumps and gap-winds. They observed the downslope winds but were not able to observe the gap winds. Therefore, it remains unclear whether Suzuka-oroshi is the downslope windstorms or the gap-winds.

Based on previous studies, the current study was performed to determine where the Suzuka-oroshi winds blow strongly, the favorable atmospheric conditions for the formation of Suzuka-oroshi, and the major formation mechanism of the Suzuka-oroshi, either downslope-windstorms or gap-winds.

150

151 **2 Data and Method**

152 2.1 Climatological analysis

We identified Suzuka-oroshi as the wind direction of south-southwest to north-northwest 153and a wind speed of 11 m s⁻¹ or higher on the east side of the Suzuka Mountains, defined 154 as the time when the wind was blowing on the leeward side of the Suzuka Mountains. In 155 addition, we considered any continuous period during which Suzuka-oroshi was blowing as 156a Suzuka-oroshi case. When the interruption time was less than 3 h, the interruption time 157 was ignored, and the data collected before and after the interruption were combined into 158one case. The lower limit of wind speed for Suzuka-oroshi was set to match the reported 159 feelings of local residents, as local winds are recognized and named by the people living in 160

the area. Therefore, we first interviewed the local residents, which revealed that strong wind causing the power lines to roar and inducing fear in people are named as Suzuka-oroshi. This feeling is expressed using the Beaufort Scale: strong breeze, wind speed 10.8–13.8 m s⁻¹ at 10 m above ground. Therefore, we set 11 m s⁻¹ as the lower limit of the wind speed of Suzuka-oroshi. In addition, to compare our results with those of previous studies, a Weak-Suzuka-oroshi was extracted under a wind speed of 8 m s⁻¹ and analyzed using the same approach as used for Suzuka-oroshi with more than 11 m s⁻¹ wind speed.

However, because the installation heights of the anemometers differed at each observation point, the wind speed observed at each location was converted to the wind speed at 10 m above ground level using the following power-law formula (Eq. (2)):

171
$$U_{10} = U_z (10/Z)^{\alpha}$$
(2)

Here, U_{10} is the wind speed at 10 m above ground, U_z is the observed wind speed, z is 172the observed height, and α is a parameter representing the surface roughness and 173atmospheric stability in the surface layer. The α was set to 0.25, which is used for winds over 174 forests, urban areas without tall buildings, and residential areas (Wind Engineering 175 176Research Institute, 1984). Unless otherwise noted, the surface wind speed was defined as the wind speed at 10 m above ground level. The surface observation data are summarized 177 in Fig. 1 and Table 1. In addition to data from the Japan Meteorological Agency's AMeDAS, 178 we used the Ministry of the Environment's data (Atmospheric Environmental Regional 179Observation System) and the data observed at highways. The data period was from January 180

1, 2012, to December 31, 2016, with data intervals of 10 minutes for AMeDAS and 181 Atmospheric Environmental Regional Observation System and 5 minutes for highways. 182We first investigated the spatial distribution of Suzuka-oroshi and then surveyed a 183 typical weather pattern when Suzuka-oroshi was blowing. Seasonal and time-dependent 184 characteristics of Suzuka-oroshi were also investigated. Third, we examined the location at 185 which the Suzuka-oroshi occurred. Finally, we investigated the presence or absence of an 186 inversion layer using radiosonde observation data at Wajima, the location of which is shown 187 in Fig. 1. At Wajima observatory, Sonde observations are performed at 0900 and 2100 Japan 188 Standard Time (JST). We defined an inversion layer as any layer in which the temperature 189 190 increases as the altitude rises at 1-5 km level in the sonde data. The wind speed approaching the mountains was calculated using the westerly wind component at the 950 191 hPa level over the windward mountains shown in Fig. 1 as blue square just before or just 192after the onset of Suzuka-oroshi. As the wind component, we used mesoscale analysis data 193 with horizontal resolutions of 5 km and time resolutions of 3 hours, provided by Japan 194 Meteorological Agency (JMA). 195

196

197 2.2 Numerical simulations

To further investigate the effects of the Suzuka Mountains on Suzuka-oroshi events, we conducted numerical simulations using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, covering a case that occurred on March 5–6, 2014, which was named as the CTRL. We also simulated a case in which the Suzuka Mountains were excluded from the topographic data, named as case NoMt. Fig. 3 shows the simulation domain and topographic settings of the two simulation cases. The domain consists of 398 × 648 grid points with a horizontal grid spacing of 1.0 km. The domains have 50 vertical sigma levels, and the model top is 100 hPa. The initial and boundary conditions were obtained from mesoscale analysis data. The model configurations are summarized in Table 2.

207

208 3 Results

209 3.1 Climatological analysis

210 Fig. 2 shows typical weather patterns when the Suzuka-oroshi was blowing. Suzukaoroshi tended to occur when an extratropical cyclone with a cold front passed over the Sea 211 of Japan (Fig. 2c). This was the primary weather pattern in 27 cases (55% of cases) (Table 212 3). The second typical weather pattern is an extratropical cyclone type but is located offshore 213 of Kanto and Sanriku (Fig. 2a), which comprised seven cases (16% of cases). Other types 214 of weather patterns included the typhoon type (Fig. 2e). In contrast, the primary weather 215 pattern of the Weak-Suzuka-oroshi is an extratropical cyclone located offshore of Kanto and 216 Sanriku (Fig. 2a). This type accounts for 147 cases (36% of cases). 217

Fig. 4 shows the seasonal and time-dependent characteristics of the Suzuka-oroshi. As shown in Fig. 4a, the frequency of Suzuka-oroshi was highest in spring (March to April) and lowest in summer (June to August), although the sample size may not be large enough. In Japan, extratropical cyclones and associated cold fronts often pass through these areas in
spring. The frequency of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi supports the tendency in Owada (1990) (Fig.
4b). Suzuka-oroshi tended to occur in the late afternoon, but this time dependency was
weaker than that of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi (Fig. 4c, d).

We then examined the location at which Suzuka-oroshi tended to blow. The results of the climatological survey (Fig. 5a, b) showed that in the northern part of the plain, Suzukaoroshi blows most frequently around Komono, which is inland at the foothills of the Suzuka Mountains. It rarely blows near the northern part of the plain along the coast. In the southern and central parts, it blows anywhere. In addition, the wind direction was mostly northwest at most locations during Suzuka-oroshi events. On the other hand, Weak-Suzuka-oroshi occurs anywhere on the plain (Fig. 5c, d).

We also compared the wind speeds on the windward and leeward sides of the Suzuka Mountains during Suzuka-oroshi events; the results are shown in Fig. 6. The mean wind speed was approximately 5 m s⁻¹ higher at Tsu on the leeward side of the mountains than at Higashiomi on the windward side. Thus, the wind speed may increase after passing over the mountains. In contrast, in the case of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi, the difference in wind speed between the windward and leeward mountains was small. These results suggest that the presence of the mountains is responsible for the strong winds of Suzuka-oroshi.

However, this does not reveal whether Suzuka-oroshi is a downslope wind. Therefore,
 we investigated whether the environmental field during the Suzuka-oroshi event was

favorable for generating downslope windstorms.

Table 4 shows that an inversion layer at 1-5 km level was present in 31 Suzuka-oroshi 242 cases (74% of cases). This result is consistent with the tendency of weather patterns in 243 which Suzuka-oroshi often occurs when an extratropical cyclone with a cold front passes 244 over the Sea of Japan. The wind speed approaching the mountains ranged from 6 to 12 m 245 s⁻¹ in 23 cases (55% of cases). On the other hand, there were nine cases (21% of cases) in 246 which there was no inversion layer at 1-5 km. We calculated Fr in these four cases, using 247the wind speed data, Brunt-Väisälä frequency N, and the mountain height H that was set to 248 1000 m. Fr values were 0.8–1.4, which is favorable for the downslope windstorms. Thus, 249 most Suzuka-oroshi cases occurred under favorable atmospheric conditions for downslope 250 251windstorms.

252

253 **3.2** Numerical simulations

The simulation case was a strong wind event on March 5, 2014, which is a typical case during a cyclone with a cold front was passing over the Sea of Japan (Fig. 7). There was no inversion layer but a slightly strong stable layer around 1.5–2.0 km at the windward side during the events. The inflow wind speed was within 6–12 m s⁻¹.

First, we confirmed the reproducibility of the temporal variations in the wind direction and speed obtained from the CTRL simulation. We included the results of the comparison at Tsu and Komono, where strong winds were observed. Fig. 8 shows that the wind speed suddenly increased around 1600JST on March 5, 2014, at which time the 10-min average wind speed exceeded 11 m s⁻¹. The time series of the observed wind direction shows that the wind direction varied before the strong winds blew; however, after the strong winds began blowing, the wind direction remained stable in the northwest. This time-series variation is characteristic of downslope windstorms. Comparison of the simulated results with the observations showed that the WRF model could reproduce the characteristics of the observed time series of surface winds.

Second, we examined the reproducibility of the spatial distribution of surface winds obtained from the CTRL simulation. The observations indicate that northwesterly strong winds blew in the southern and central parts of the plains and northern foothills area (Fig. 9a). There were weaker wind areas in the northern part of the plain near the coast than surroundings.

The numerical simulation results showed that overall, the simulated wind speed was slightly higher than the observed speed (Fig. 9b). However, strong wind areas in the central and southern parts of the plains and northern area near the foothills were well-represented. The WRF model also reproduced the spatial characteristics of the winds observed at the time the strong winds began to blow. Comparison results at other times are shown in Appendix A.

After confirming that the WRF model reproduced the actual wind conditions, we investigated the vertical structure of Suzuka-oroshi using the simulation results. Fig. 10

shows the temporal variation in the vertical cross-section of the potential temperature across 281 the northern part of the mountains. At 1300 JST, a relatively strong stable layer flowed into 282the area at around 1.5-2 km altitude on the windward side (Fig. 10b). Simultaneously, a 283relatively weak wind region formed over the leeward slope of the Suzuka Mountains, and 284the isotherms decreased. From 1400 to 1500 JST, the amplitude of the mountain waves 285increased, creating flows that split the previously formed weak wind region up and down 286 (Fig. 10c, d). The wind speed windward far from the mountains and on the leeward slopes 287 gradually increased from 1500 to 1600 JST (Fig. 10d, e). Based on the vertical cross-section 288 at the time when the surface wind speed was the highest, the isentropes were largely drawn 289down along the leeward slope, and the wind speed in this direction increased by 290 approximately 5 m s⁻¹ compared to that in the windward direction (Fig. 10e). At 1300-1600 291 JST, it seems that the flow undergoes a transition from subcritical on the windward side to 292supercritical flow on the lee slope. Indeed, internal Froude number $(Fi = U/\sqrt{g^*h})$ was less 293than 1.0 (approximately 0.5-0.8) at the windward and larger than 1.0 (approximately 1.6-2.9) 294 above the leeward slope from 1300 to 1600 JST. Here, U and h are wind speed and depth 295 of the duct (or inversion layer height), respectively. g^* is reduced gravity constant, 296considering the potential temperature difference between the two layers $(g^* = \frac{\Delta\theta}{\theta}g)$. In the 297leeward region of the mountains, the airflow jumps slightly on the ground level, and the ridge 298 is located near the coast. A weak wind area near the ground level was generated in response 299 to this ridge of mountain waves. In addition, there was a relatively weaker wind region with 300

a large wave amplitude above the strong wind layer. These results reflect the general
 characteristics of downslope windstorms. After that, as the inflow wind speed increased, the
 overall surface wind speed increased until 0000 JST on March 6, 2014, and then gradually
 decreased.

On the other hand, the vertical cross-sections of the central and southern regions showed that the isentropes were not largely drawn down along the leeward slope of the mountains (Fig. 11). As a result, the isotherms below 1 km altitude are not so dense over the leeward slope and plain. It is considered that the wind speed between the north and south parts differed because of differences in height of the mountains.

Fig. 12 shows the distribution of deviations in the surface wind speed simulated from the CTRL case minus the results of the NoMt case. The presence of the Suzuka Mountains strengthened the surface wind speeds by approximately 4–6 m s⁻¹ leeward of the mountains. Fig. 10 and Fig. 12 show that the Suzuka-oroshi were downslope winds caused by the topographic effect of the Suzuka Mountains.

315

316 4 Discussion

We found that the Suzuka-oroshi blow not only in the southern part of the plain on the leeward side of the Suzuka Mountains, but also in the northern and central parts. This finding is consistent with anecdotal observations from local residents. The reasons for the difference in the strong-wind areas found in this study compared to those of previous studies may be

as follows: Owada (1990) did not survey the northern part of the plain leeward of the Suzuka 321 Mountains. Additionally, Komatsu and Tachibana (2016) did not survey winds in the northern 322 part of the plain near the mountain foothills. In the central part of the plain, they did not 323 consider differences in the above-ground level of the AMeDAS anemometers at different 324 observation stations. The AMeDAS anemometers installed in the central part are 325 approximately 10 m lower than those installed in the southern part. This difference in height 326 leads to underestimation of the wind speeds by 3 m s⁻¹ in the central part of the plain, which 327 may have prevented detection of strong winds in the central part of the plain by Komatsu 328 and Tachibana (2016). 329

The results of climatological analysis indicated that the atmospheric conditions were suitable for generating downslope winds in many Suzuka-oroshi events. When an inversion layer is present, downslope winds tend to occur, as described in Section 1. Note that the inversion layer is supportive factor. If *Fr* is 0.6–1.2, the downslope windstorms tend to occur even when an inversion layer is not present. (Lin and Wang 1996).

The results of the numerical simulation also revealed a slightly strong stable layer between 1.5–2.0 km levels in the windward and mountain ranges. Additionally, there were large-amplitude of mountain waves and weaker wind layer above the leeward slope of the Suzuka Mountains than surroundings; airflow below this weak wind region resulted in strong winds. Note that this weak wind region was not a typical mountain-wave breaking region above the mountain slope and did not develop a clear hydraulic jump. Such atmospheric 341 conditions cannot lead to formation of gusty, very strong downslope windstorms such as the chinook and Yamaji-kaze but can cause strong winds due to the transition of the flow regime, 342 as shown by Durran (1990). Indeed, Suzuka-oroshi winds are stronger than the winds in 343 windward areas but are not similar to chinook. The simulation results from the CTRL and 344 NoMt cases supported the mountain effects on the strong winds and that the Suzuka-oroshi 345 exhibits characteristics of downslope windstorms. The pre-existing or self-induced critical 346 layer was not observed at the upper level (see figure in Appendix B). Thus, the Suzuka-347 oroshi of this case does not support the resonant amplification theory. 348 We simulated Suzuka-oroshi in only one case and discussed the mechanism. To 349 improve the robustness of our results, additional cases should be evaluated. Particularly, 350 the mechanism of Suzuka-oroshi with a clear inversion layer was not investigated in the 351 simulations but will be examined in our further research. 352 353 Conclusions 354 5

The Suzuka-oroshi blow in the southern parts of the plain on the leeward side of the Suzuka Mountains as well as in the northern part. The winds are strongest and more frequent near the foot of the mountain range in the northern part. These results differed from those of previous studies.

Suzuka-oroshi mainly occurs just after an extratropical cyclone with a cold front passing
 through the Sea of Japan (55% of cases). Furthermore, an inversion layer at 1-5 km was

found in 74% of cases. Considering that Suzuka-oroshi tended to blow immediately after the
 passages of cold fronts, this inversion layer may be a frontal inversion layer. The Suzuka oroshi also blow at night.

Numerical simulations with the high-resolution Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model supported this finding. Simulation results with and without the Suzuka Mountains demonstrated that the strong Suzuka-oroshi in the northern part of the plain comprised downslope windstorms with transition of flow regime. Additionally, differences in height of the mountains between the north and south parts results in the greater wind speed in the northern parts compared to the southern parts.

We determined the location, timing, and reasons for Suzuka-oroshi blowing. These results improve the understanding of local winds in Japan and may contribute to the safe operation and management of highways in this region.

373

374 Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Environment Research and Technology Development Fund JPMEERF20192005 of the Environmental Restoration and Conservation Agency of Japan. This research was supported by the Multidisciplinary Cooperative Research Program of the Center for Computational Sciences, University of Tsukuba.

379 Appendix A

380 Distribution of surface winds leeward of the Suzuka Mountains. Results from observations

on March 5, 2014, at (a) 1200 JST, (c) 1400 JST, (e) 1600 JST. Results from CTRL simulation

382 on March 5, 2014, at (b) 1200 JST, (d) 1400 JST, (f) 1600 JST.



383 Appendix B

³⁸⁴ Vertical cross section of wind speed to 10 km altitude from CTRL simulation across the ³⁸⁵ northern Suzuka Mountains (line A in Fig. 3) at 1600 JST on March 5, 2014 (CTRL ³⁸⁶ simulation). Shade and contour indicate horizontal wind speed (m/s) and potential ³⁸⁷ temperature (K), respectively.



388

389 Data Availability Statements

390 The datasets generated in this study will be available from the corresponding author upon

reasonable request for the next five years.

392 **References**

- Arakawa, S., 1968: A proposed mechanism of fall winds and Dashikaze. *Pap. Meteor. Geophys* 19, 69-99.
- Arakawa, S., 1969: Climatological and dynamic studies on the local strong winds, mainly in
- Hokkaido, Japan. *Geophys. Mag.* 34 359-425.
- Armi, L., and G. J. Mayr, 2007: Stratified flow across an Alpine crest with a pass: Shallow and deep flows. *Quart. J. Roy. Met. Soc.*, 133, 459-477.
- 399 Asano, Y., and H. Kusaka, 2022: Numerical simulation study of the effects of foehn winds
- 400 on white head incidences in Yamagata Prefecture, Japan. *Meteorological Applications*. (in
- 401 press)
- 402 Durran, D. R., 1986: Mountain waves. *Mesoscale meteorology and forecasting*. American
- 403 Meteorological Society, Boston, MA, 472-492.
- 404 Durran, D. R., and J. B. Klemp, 1987: Another look at downslope winds. Part II: Nonlinear
- amplification beneath wave-overturning layers. *Journal of Atmospheric Sciences* 44(22)
 3402-3412.
- 407 Durran, D. R., 1990: Mountain waves and downslope winds. *Atmospheric processes over*
- 408 *complex terrain.* American Meteorological Society, Boston, MA, 23(45), 59-81.
- Elvidge, A. D., and I. A. Renfrew, 2016: The causes of foehn warming in the lee of mountains.
- 410 Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc., 97(3), 455–466.
- Elvidge, A.D., I. A. Renfrew, J. C. King, A. Orr, and T. A. Lachlan-Cope, 2016: Foehn warming

412	distributions in non-linear and linear flow regimes: A focus on the Antarctic Peninsula.
413	Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 142(695), 618–631.
414	Elvidge, A.D., P. K. Munneke, J. C. King, I. A. Renfrew, and E. Gilbert, 2020: Atmospheric
415	drivers of melt on Larsen C ice shelf: surface energy budget regimes and the impact of
416	foehn. Journal of Geophysical Research. Atmospheres, 125(17), e2020JD032463.
417	Fudeyasu, H., T. Kuwagata, Y. Ohashi, S. I. Suzuki, Y. Kiyohara, and Y. Hozumi, 2008:
418	Numerical study of the local downslope wind "Hirodo-Kaze" in Japan. Mon. Wea. Rev.
419	136(1), 27-40.
420	Gaberšek, S., and D. R. Durran, 2004: Gap flows through idealized topography. Part $ { m II}$:
421	Effects of rotation and surface friction. J. Atmos. Sci., 63, 2720-2739.
422	Glenn, C. L., 1961: The Chinook, Wetherwise, 14,174 -182.
423	Gohm, A., and G. J. Mayr, 2004: Hydraulic aspects of fohn winds in an Alpine valley. Quart.
424	<i>J. Roy. Met. Soc</i> ., 130, 449-480.
425	Gohm, A., and G. J. Mayr, 2005: Numerical and observational case-study of a deep Adriatic
426	bora. Q <i>uart. J. Roy. Met. Soc</i> ., 131, 1363-1392.
427	Gohm, A., G. Mayr, A. Fix, and A. Giez, 2008: On the onset of bora and the formation of
428	rotors and jumps near a mountain gap. Quart. J. Roy. Met. Soc., 134, 21-46.
429	Houghton, D. D., and A. Kasahara, 1968: Nonlinear shallow fluid flow over an isolated ridge.
430	Communications on Pure and Applied Mathematics, 21(1), 1-23.
431	Ishii, S., K. Sasaki, K. Mizutani, T. Aoki, T. Itabe, H. Kanno, D. Matsushima, W. Sha, A. T.
	22

432	Noda, M. Sawada, M. Ujiie, Y. Matsuura, and T. Iwasaki, 2007: Temporal evolution and
433	spatial structure of the local easterly wind" Kiyokawa-dashi" in Japan PART I: Coherent
434	Doppler lidar observations. Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan. II 85 797-813.
435	Klemp, J. B., and D. R. Lilly, 1975: The dynamics of wave-induced downslope winds. Journal
436	of Atmospheric Sciences 32(2) 320-339.
437	Klemp, J. B., and D. R. Durran, 1987: Numerical modeling of Bora winds. Meteorol. Atmos.
438	Phys., 36, 215-227.
439	Komatsu, K. K., and Y. Tachibana, 2016: Two types of strong local wind captured by
440	simultaneous multiple-site radiosonde soundings across a mountain range. Mon. Wea.
441	<i>Rev.</i> , 144, 3915-3936.
442	Koyanagi, T., and H. Kusaka, 2020: A climatological study of the strongest local winds of
443	Japan "Inami-kaze". <i>Int. J. Climatol</i> ., 40(2), 1007-1021.
444	Kusaka, H., Y. Miya, and R. Ikeda, 2011: Effects of solar radiation amount and synoptic-
445	scale wind on the local wind "Karakkaze" over the Kanto Plain in Japan. J. Meteor Soc.
446	Japan, 89(4), 327-340.
447	Kusaka, H., and H. Fudeyasu, 2017: Review of downslope windstorms in Japan. Wind 286
448	& <i>Structures</i> , 24(6), 637–656.
449	Kusaka, H., A. Nishi, A. Kakinuma, Q. Doan, T Onodera, S. Endo,2021: Japan's south foehn
450	on the Toyama Plain: Dynamical or thermodynamical mechanisms ?. Int. J. Climatol. DOI:

10.1002/joc.7133

- 452 Nishi, A., and H. Kusaka, 2019a: A Climatological Study of the Local "Karakkaze" Wind, with
- 453 a Focus on Temperature Change. SOLA, 15, 149-153.
- Nishi, A., and H. Kusaka, 2019b: The "Karakkaze" Local Wind as a Convexity Wind: A Case
- 455 Study Using Dual-Sonde Observations and a Numerical Simulation. SOLA, 15, 160-165.
- Lilly, D. K., and E. J. Zipser, 1972: The front range windstorm of 11 January 1972. *Weatherwise*, 25, 56-63.
- Lilly, D. K., and J. B. Klemp, 1979: The effects of terrain shape on nonlinear hydrostatic
- 459 mountain waves. J. Fluid Mech., 95, 241–261.
- Lin, Y. L., and T. A. Wang 1996: Flow regimes and transient dynamics of two-dimensional stratified flow over an isolated mountain ridge. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 53(1), 139-158.
- Lin, Y. L., 2007: Mesoscale dynamics. Vol. 630. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- 463 Miller, P. P. and D. R. Durran, 1991: On the sensitivity of downslope windstorms to the
- asymmetry of the mountain profiles. *J. Atmos. Sci.* 48, 1457–1473.
- 465 Orr, A., G. J. Marshall, J. C. Hunt, J. Sommeria, C. G. Wang, N. P. Van Lipzig, D. Cresswell,
- and J. C. King, 2008: Characteristics of summer airflow over the Antarctic Peninsula in
- response to recent strengthening of westerly circumpolar winds. Journal of the
- 468 *Atmospheric Sciences*, 65(4), 1396–1413.
- 469 Owada, M., 1990: A climatorogical study of local winds (oroshi) in central Japan. *Doctoral*
- 470 Thes. Inst. Geosci., Univ. Tsukuba, 98.
- 471 Pitts, R. O., and T. J. Lyons, 1989: Airflow over a two-dimensional escarpment. 1:

- 472 Observations. *Quart. J. Roy. Met. Soc.*, 115, 965-981.
- 473 Raymond, D., 1972: Calculation of airflow over an arbitrary ridge including diabatic heating
- 474 and cooling. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 29, 837-843.
- Saito, K., and M. Ikawa, 1991: A numerical study of the local downslope wind" Yamaji-kaze"
- in Japan. *Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan*. 69(1) 31-56.
- 477 Saito K., 1993: A Numerical Study of the Local Downslope Wind "Yamaji-kaze" in Japan. J.
- 478 *Meteor Soc. Japan,* **71(2)**, **247-272**.
- Saito, K., 1994 "A Numerical Study of the Local Downslope Wind"Yamaji -kaze" in Japan
- 480 Part 3: Numerical Simulation of the 27 September 1991 Windstorm with a Non-hydrostatic
- 481 Multi-nested Model", *J. Meteor Soc. Japan*, 72(2), pp.301-329.
- 482 Sasaki, K., H. Kanno, D. Matsushima, W. Sha, T. Iwasaki, S. Ishii, K. Mizutani, M. Moriyama,
- 483 K. Fukubori, M. Murai, and K. Yokoyama, 2005: An Observational Study of the Local
- 484 Easterly Strong Wind "Kiyokawa-dashi" in the Shonai Plains, Yamagata. Journal of
- 485 *Agricultural Meteorology* 60(5) 725-728.
- 486 Sasaki, K., M. Sawada, S. Ishii, H. Kanno, K. Mizutani, T. Aoki, T. Itabe, D. Matsushima, W.
- 487 Sha, A. T. Noda, M. Ujiie, Y. Matsuura, and T. Iwasaki, 2010: The temporal evolution and
- 488 spatial structure of the local easterly wind "Kiyokawa-dashi" in Japan. Part II: Numerical
- 489 simulations, *J. Meteorol. Soc. Japan*, 88(2), 161-181.
- 490 Sawada, M., T. Iwasaki, W. Sha, T. Yamazaki, H. Iwai, S. Ishii, K. Mizutani, and T. Itabe,
- 491 Transient downslope winds under the influence of stationary lee waves from the Zao

- 492 mountain range. Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan. 90(1) 79-100.
- 493 Smith, R. B., 1985: On severe downslope winds. J. Atmos. Sci., 42, 2597-2603.
- 494 Smith, R. B., 1987: Aerial observations of the Yugoslavian bora. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 44, 269-297.
- 495 Smith, C. M., and E. D. Skyllingstad, 2011: Effects of inversion height and surface heat flux
- 496 on downslope windstorms. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 139(12), 3750-3764.
- 497 Wind Engineering Institute, Co., Ltd., 1984: This is all you need to know about building wind
- 498 *Kajima Institute Publishing Co., Ltd.*, 22pp. (in Japanese).
- 499 Yoshino, M. M., 1975: Climate in a Small Area. *University of Tokyo Press*, Japan, 549pp.
- 500 Yoshino, M. M., 1986: Climate in a small area. *New Ed*. Chijin Shokan, 298 pp. (in Japanese).
- 501 Zängl, G., A. Gohm, and G. Geier, 2004: South foehn in the Wipp Valley Innsbruck region:
- 502 Numerical simulations on the 24 October 1999 case (MAP-IOP 10). *Meteor. Atmos. Phys.*,
- 503 **86, 213-243**.

504		List of Figures
505		
506	Fig. 1.	Topography around the Suzuka Mountains and observation points for data used.
507	Fig. 2.	Typical weather pattern when the Suzuka-oroshi blows. (a) Kanto-Sanriku offshore
508		extratropical cyclone type. (b) Hokkaido-Okhotsk extratropical cyclone type. (c)
509		Extratropical cyclone through Sea of Japan type. (d) High-pressure system
510		approaching type. (e) Typhoon type.
511	Fig. 3.	Topography used in the numerical simulations. (a) Control experiment (Case CTRL).
512		(b) Experiment without Suzuka Mountains (Case NoMt).
513	Fig. 4.	Frequency of Suzuka-oroshi events by month and time from 2012 to 2016. (a)
514		Monthly frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, (b) Monthly frequency of Weak-Suzuka-
515		oroshi, (c) Hourly frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, and (d) Hourly frequency of Weak-
516		Suzuka-oroshi.
517	Fig. 5.	Map of the frequency of Suzuka-oroshi events and wind rose at each location. (a)
518		frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, (b) frequency of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi, (c) wind rose
519		of Suzuka-oroshi, and (d) wind rose of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi.
520	Fig. 6.	Distribution of kernel density estimation of wind speeds at the same time in Tsu and
521		Higashiomi during the Suzuka-oroshi events. A darker color indicates a denser
522		sample. (a) Suzuka-oroshi and (b) Weak-Suzuka-oroshi.
523	Fig. 7.	Surface weather chart on March 5, 2014. (a) 0900JST. (b) 2100JST.

524	Fig. 8.	Time series	s graphs	of surface	wind on	March 5–6	, 2014. (a	a) Tsu ((b)	Komono.
							, , ,		` '	

- Fig. 9. Distribution of surface winds leeward of the Suzuka Mountains. (a) Results from observations at 1700 on March 5, 2014, JST. (b) Results from CTRL simulation at 1700 on March 5, 2014, JST.
- Fig. 10. Vertical cross section of isentropes from CTRL simulation across the northern
 Suzuka Mountains (line A in Fig. 3) on March 5, 2014 (CTRL simulation). (a) 1200
 JST. (b) 1300 JST. (c) 1400 JST. (d) 1500 JST. (e) 1600 JST.
- . Vertical cross section of isentropes from CTRL simulation across the southern Suzuka
 Mountains (line B in Fig. 3) on March 5, 2014. (a) 1200JST. (b) 1300JST. (c)
 1400JST. (d) 1500JST. (e) 1600JST.
- Fig. 12. Impacts of mountains on the surface wind speed (cases CTRL NoMt) at 1700 on
- 535 March 5, 2014, JST.

536	List of Tables
537	
538	able 1. Surface observation data.
539	able 2. Model configuration.
540	able 3. Breakdown of typical weather patterns during Suzuka-oroshi events.
541	able 4. Presence of inversion layer and wind speed approaching the mountains during
542	Suzuka-oroshi events.



Fig. 1. Topography around the Suzuka Mountains and observation points for data used. Black solid circles are AMeDAS, white solid squares are Atmospheric Environmental Regional Observation System and black solid triangles are observation points on the highways. Red square indicates the location of the local elementary school and fire department officer. Blue square indicates the location of the data used as the wind speed approaching the mountains.





Fig. 2. Typical weather pattern when the Suzuka-oroshi blows. (a) Kanto-Sanriku offshore
extratropical cyclone type. (b) Hokkaido-Okhotsk extratropical cyclone type. (c) Extratropical
cyclone through Sea of Japan type. (d) High-pressure system approaching type. (e)
Typhoon type.



553 Fig. 3. Topography used in the numerical simulations. (a) Control experiment (Case CTRL).

(b) Experiment without Suzuka Mountains (Case NoMt).



Fig. 4. Frequency of Suzuka-oroshi events by month and time from 2012 to 2016. (a)
Monthly frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, (b) Monthly frequency of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi, (c)
Hourly frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, and (d) Hourly frequency of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi. The
time in the figure means Japan standard time (JST).



Fig. 5. Map of the frequency of Suzuka-oroshi events and wind rose at each location. (a) frequency of Suzuka-oroshi, (b) frequency of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi, (c) wind rose of Suzukaoroshi, and (d) wind rose of Weak-Suzuka-oroshi. In (a) and (b), points shown by white circles indicate locations where Suzuka-oroshi events have never been observed. In (c) and (d), the longer the length of the fan, the more winds of that wind direction.



Fig. 6. Distribution of kernel density estimation of wind speeds at the same time in Tsu and

⁵⁶⁵ Higashiomi during the Suzuka-oroshi events. A darker color indicates a denser sample. (a)

566 Suzuka-oroshi and (b) Weak-Suzuka-oroshi.



567 Fig. 7. Surface weather chart on March 5, 2014. (a) 0900JST. (b) 2100JST.



Fig. 8. Time series graphs of surface wind on March 5–6, 2014 JST. (a) Tsu (b) Komono. Upper and lower panels indicate wind speed and wind direction, respectively. Gray circle and line indicate results from observations. Black circles and line indicate results from the CTRL simulation.



Fig. 9. Distribution of surface winds leeward of the Suzuka Mountains. (a) Results from
observations at 1700 on March 5, 2014, JST. (b) Results from CTRL simulation at 1700 on
March 5, 2014, JST.



Fig. 10. Vertical cross section of isentropes from CTRL simulation across the northern
Suzuka Mountains (line A in Fig. 3) on March 5, 2014 (CTRL simulation). (a) 1200 JST. (b)
1300 JST. (c) 1400 JST. (d) 1500 JST. (e) 1600 JST. Shade and contour indicate horizontal
wind speed (m/s) and potential temperature (K), respectively.



579 Fig. 11. Vertical cross section of sentropes from CTRL simulation across the southern 580 Suzuka Mountains (line B in Fig. 3) on March 5, 2014. (a) 1200JST. (b) 1300JST. (c) 581 1400JST. (d) 1500JST. (e) 1600JST. Shade and contour indicate horizontal wind speed 582 (m/s) and potential temperature (K), respectively.



Fig. 12. Impacts of mountains on the surface wind speed (cases CTRL - NoMt) at 1700 on
March 5, 2014, JST. Shade and contour indicate wind speed and elevation with 200m
contour interval.

Table 1. Surface observation data.

	Number of points	Period	Time interval
•AMeDAS	5	2012/1/1–	10 min
□Atmospheric Environmental Regional	15	2016/12/31	
Observation System			
▲Observation point on the highways	4		

589 Table 2. Model configuration.

Model	WRF model, version 3.9.1
Grid spacing	1.0 km
Number of grid points	398 × 648 grid points
Number of vertical layers	50 vertical sigma levels
Boundary layer scheme	Yonsei University (YSU) PBL scheme
Simulation period (JST)	2014/03/05/ 0300–2014/03/07 0300
Initial/boundary condition	JMA-mesoscale analysis
Land use and terrain height	GSI digital national land information

Table 3. Breakdown of typical weather patterns during Suzuka-oroshi events.

	Number of Suzuka-oroshi events
"Kanto-Sanriku extratropical cyclone type"	7
(Fig. 2a)	i i
"Hokkaido-Okhotsk extratropical cyclone type"	2
(Fig. 2b)	۷۲
"Extratropical cyclone through Sea of Japan type"	27
(Fig. 2c)	Ζι
"High-pressure approaching type"	2
(Fig. 2)	۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲. ۲
"Typhoon type"	6
(Fig. 2e)	0
Other	1
	·

Table 4. Presence of inversion layer and wind speed approaching the mountains during

596 Suzuka-oroshi events.

		Presence of the inversion layer			
		Presence	Absence	Missing data	
Wind speed	0—6	13	0	0	
the mountains	6–12	16	5	2	
(m s ⁻¹)	>12	2	4	0	