High Resolution Observations of the Near-Surface Wind Field over an Isolated Mountain and in a Steep River Canyon B.W. Butler^{1,4}, N.S. Wagenbrenner^{1,2}, J.M. Forthofer¹, B.K. Lamb², K.S. Shannon¹, D. Finn³, R. M. Eckman³, K. Clawson³, L. Bradshaw¹, P. Sopko¹, S. Beard³, D.

8 Jimenez¹, C. Wold¹, M., Vosburgh¹

9 [1]US Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station, Missoula Fire Sciences

10 Laboratory, 5775 Hwy 10 Missoula, MT 59808

- 11 [2]Washington State University, Laboratory for Atmospheric Research
- 12 Pullman, WA 99164-2910
- 13 [3]NOAA Air Resources Laboratory, Field Research Division 1750 Foote Dr.
- 14 Idaho Falls, ID 83402
- 15 [4]Corresponding Author t:406-329-4801, c:406-239-3665, f:406-329-4825,
- 16 e:bwbutler@fs.fed.us
- 17

18 Abstract

A number of numerical wind flow models have been developed for simulating wind 19 20 flow at relatively fine spatial resolutions (e.g., ~100 m); however, there are very 21 limited observational data available for evaluating these high resolution models. This 22 study presents high-resolution surface wind datasets collected from an isolated 23 mountain and a steep river canyon. The wind data are presented in terms of four 24 flow regimes: upslope, afternoon, downslope, and a synoptically-driven regime. 25 There were notable differences in the data collected from the two terrain types. For 26 example, wind speeds on the isolated mountain increased with distance upslope 27 during upslope flow, but generally decreased with distance upslope at the river 28 canyon site during upslope flow. In a downslope flow, wind speed did not have a 29 consistent trend with position on the isolated mountain, but generally increased with 30 distance upslope at the river canyon site. The highest measured speeds occurred during the passage of frontal systems on the isolated mountain. Mountaintop winds 31 32 were often twice as high as wind speeds measured on the surrounding plain. The 33 highest speeds measured in the river canyon occurred during late morning hours and 34 were from easterly downcanyon flows, presumably associated with surface pressure 35 gradients induced by formation of a regional thermal trough to the west and high 36 pressure to the east. Under periods of weak synoptic forcing, surface winds tended to be decoupled from large-scale flows, and under periods of strong synoptic forcing, 37 38 variability in surface winds was sufficiently large due to terrain-induced mechanical effects (speed-up over ridges and decreased speeds on leeward sides of terrain 39 40 obstacles) that a large-scale mean flow would not be representative of surface winds

41 at most locations on or within the terrain feature. These findings suggest that

- 42 traditional operational weather model (i.e., with numerical grid resolutions of around 4
- 43 km or larger) wind predictions are not likely to be good predictors of local near-

- surface winds at sub-grid scales in complex terrain. Measurement data can be found at: http://www.firemodels.org/index.php/windninja-introduction/windninja-publications.

47 **1** Introduction

48 Predictions of terrain-driven winds are important in regions with complex topography 49 for a number of issues, including wildland fire behavior and spread (Sharples et al., 2012; Simpson et al., 2013), transport and dispersion of pollutants (Jiménez et al., 50 2006; Grell et al., 2000), simulation of convection-driven processes (Banta. 1984: 51 Langhans et al., 2013), wind resource assessment for applications such as wind 52 turbine siting (Chrust et al., 2013; Palma et al., 2008), wind forecasting (Forthofer et 53 54 al, in press), and climate change impacts (Daly et al., 2010). Numerous efforts have 55 focused on improving boundary-layer flow predictions from numerical weather prediction (NWP) models by either reducing the horizontal grid size in order to 56 57 resolve the effects of finer-scale topographical features on atmospheric flow 58 (Lundquist et al., 2010; Zhong and Fast, 2003) or adding new parameterizations to 59 account for unresolved terrain features (Jiménez and Dudhia, 2012). 60 Because NWP simulations are computationally demanding and suffer from

Because NWP simulations are computationally demanding and suffer from
inherent limitations of terrain-following coordinate systems in steep terrain (Lundquist
et al., 2010), a number of high resolution diagnostic wind models have also been
developed to downscale wind predictions from NWP models in order to meet the
needs of the aforementioned applications (e.g., Beaucage et al., 2012). However,
there are limited observational data available to evaluate and improve such high
resolution models.

Fine-scale (i.e., $\sim 1-4^{-1}00$ m) variations in topography and vegetation substantially 67 68 alter the near-surface flow field through mechanical effects, such as flow separation 69 around obstacles, enhanced turbulence from increased surface roughness and 70 speed-up over ridges, and through thermally-driven flows induced by local differential 71 surface heating in steep terrain (Defant, 1949, Banta, 1984; Banta and Cotton, 1982; Whiteman, 2000, Zardi and Whiteman, 2013, Chrust, et al., 2013Defant, 1949, 72 Banta, 1984; Banta and Cotton, 1982; Whiteman, 2000, Zardi and Whiteman, 2013, 73 74 Chrust, et al., 2013). These local scale flow effects are critical for surface wind-75 sensitive processes, such as wildland fire behavior, where the near-surface wind is 76 often the driving meteorological variable for fire rate of spread and intensity (Rothermel, 1972; Sharples et al., 2012). In order to capture these terrain-induced 77 78 effects, wind modeling in complex terrain requires that surface characteristics, 79 including terrain, vegetation, and their interactions with the atmosphere, be resolved 80 at a high spatial resolution.

81 Although diagnostic wind models do not typically employ sophisticated boundary 82 layer schemes in their flow solutions, they often incorporate parameterized 83 algorithms for specific boundary layer effects, such as thermally-driven winds (e.g., 84 diurnal slope flows) and non-neutral atmospheric stability (Forthofer et al., 2009; Scire et al., 2000). Evaluation of such schemes has been limited by the types of 85 86 terrain features and range of meteorological conditions represented in available observational datasets. For example, the evaluations performed by Forthofer et al. 87 (In Review2014) were limited by available surface wind data in complex terrain. 88

The two most widely used datasets for evaluation of high resolution wind
predictions were collected on topographically-simple, low elevation hills investigated
for wind energy applications <u>such as the site for the Askervein Hill study</u> (Berg et al.,
2011; Taylor and Teunissen, 1987). Wind energy research has focused on relatively

93 simple terrain because winds in complicated terrain are more difficult to reliably

94 | forecast and have higher turbulence that reduces the life of the turbines.

95 These studies of idealized field sites have produced useful data for investigating the effects of simple terrain obstructions on average atmospheric flow and identifying 96 specific deficiencies in numerical flow solutions; however, such sites are not 97 representative of the wide range of regions where terrain-induced winds occur. As a 98 99 result, these data do not provide sufficient test data for evaluating spatial 100 representation of modeled flows for commonly occurring types of terrain features, 101 such as isolated terrain obstacles with complex geometries, dissected montane 102 environments, and steep river canyons.

103 Other types of observational studies, such as those designed to investigate boundary layer evolution or convection-driven processes, have focused on 104 characterizing the vertical distribution of wind, temperature, and moisture, but do not 105 106 typically characterize the spatial variability in the near-surface wind field. Examples 107 of the types of flow phenomenon that are of interest for high resolution model evaluations include 1) local surface layer flow decoupling from larger-scale 108 109 atmospheric flow, 2) diurnal slope flows; 3) mountain-valley flows; 4) mountain-plain 110 flows; and 4) the interactions of these effects at multiple spatial and temporal scales.

This paper describes a research program in which wind data were collected at 111 very high spatial resolution under a range of meteorological conditions for two 112 different types of complex terrain features. These datasets enhance the archive of 113 observational data available to evaluate high resolution models. All of the data from 114 the field program are available at: https://collab.firelab.org/software/projects/wind-115 116 obs/repository. Here we provide an overview of the data, with particular emphasis on 117 the spatial characteristics of the surface wind measurements, and describe some unique flow features at each site. The data collected during this field campaign are 118 119 used in a companion paper (Wagenbrenner et al., in review) to evaluate near-surface 120 wind predictions from several different NWP models and downscaling methods.

121 2 Site Descriptions

122 2.1 Big Southern Butte (BSB)

123 BSB is a volcanic dome cinder cone approximately 4 km wide that rises 800 m 124 above the Upper Snake River Plain (USRP) in southeastern Idaho (43.395958, -1-125 1 13.02257) (Fig. 1). The dominant vegetation on the USRP and BSB is grass and 126 sagebrush (generally < 1 m tall), although a few north-facing slopes on the butte have some isolated stands of 3-1-10 m tall timberconifers. Average slopes range 127 128 from 30 to 40% with nearly vertical cliffs in some locations. The USRP is essentially 129 flat terrain surrounding BSB and extends more than 120 km to the north, east, south. and southwest (Fig. 2). The USRP is bordered by tall mountain ranges to the 130 northwest and southeast. There are three prominent drainages (Big Lost River, Little 131 132 Lost River, and Birch Creek) that flow southeast onto the USRP nominally 20 to 80 kmto the north of BSB (Fig. 2). These mountain-valley features contribute to 133 134 thermally-driven diurnal flows and formation of convergence zones on the USRP. 135 Nighttime down-drainage-valley flows on the USRP are from the northeast and 136 daytime up-drainage flows are from the southwest.

Typical summertime winds on the Snake River Plain are primarily thermally driven with strong upvalley winds during the day and relatively weaker downvalley winds at night. The regional nocturnal northeasterly drainage flows usually subside by late morning, and winds begin to rotate clockwise to southwesterly flow, then speeds increase sharply by mid-to-late afternoon. The strongest southwesterly wind events in the summer are associated with the passage of frontal systems.

143 Additionally, this region experiences occasional passage of very strong frontal 144 systems which bring westerly winds that become channeled into southwesterly flow 145 up the Lower Snake River Plain (LSRP) toward BSB (e.g. Andretta, 2002). This 146 same westerly synoptic flow passes over the mountains to the north of BSB and 147 surface winds become channeled into northerly flow down the Big Lost, Little Lost, 148 and Birch Creek drainages and onto the USRP. This northerly flow approaches BSB 149 from the USRP, eventually converging with the southwesterly flow somewhere in the vicinity of BSB in what is referred to as the Snake River Plain Convergent Zone 150 151 (SPCZ) (Andretta, 2002; Andretta and Hazen, 1998). When an SPCZ forms, its location shifts up or down the SRP depending on the strength of the low-level winds 152 153 over the USRP versus the LSRP (Andretta, 2002). SPCZ events most commonly 154 occur during the winter and spring, but occasionally form during other time periods as 155 well. Although formation of the SPCZ is not a frequent phenomenon during summer 156 conditions, we did observe a few flow events that may have been associated with the 157 SPCZ during our field campaign. Because the strong frontal systems which lead to formation of the SPCZ result in complicated near-surface flows on and around BSB, 158 159 we investigate the observed flow events possibly associated with SPCZ-like conditions in detail in Section 5.1.2. 160

161 2.2 Salmon River Canyon (SRC)

162 The field site was a 5 km long stretch of Salmon river canyon located 163 approximately 20 km east (upstream) fromof Riggins, ID (45.401667, -1-116.22667) (Fig. 34) and spanning in elevation from the canyon bottom (550 m) to the ridgetops 164 165 (1600 m). The river canyon follows a nearly straight east-west path within this extent. Prevailing winds in this region are from the west. The predominant vegetation is 166 167 grass (generally < 0.5 m tall), with some timber in the higher elevations on the north 168 aspects. Our instrumentation was deployed away from forested areas, so as to avoid 169 effects of the forest canopy on the wind flow. There were prominent side drainages 170 entering SRC on the east and west end of our study area (Fig. 34).

171 **3 Instrumentation**

172 Each field site was instrumented with a network of surface wind sensors deployed over a several month period (hereafter referred to as the monitoring period) and 173 174 supplemented with short term deployment of sonic anemometers and ground-based 175 vertical profiling instruments. Spatially dense arrays of more than 50 cup-and-vane anemometers (S-WCA-M003, Onset Computer Corporation) measured wind speeds 176 and directions at 3.3 m above ground level (AGL) to characterize surface flow 177 178 patterns over and within the terrain features. Wind speed and direction data were 179 measured at 1 Hz and 30-second average wind speeds, peak gusts, and average directions were recorded. The cup and vane has a measurement range of 0 to 44 m 180 s⁻¹, accuracy of +- 0.5 m s⁻¹ and +- 5 degrees with resolution of 0.19 m s⁻¹ and 1.4 181 182 degrees. Specific sensor locations are listed in supplementary Appendix A.

183 -These surface measurements were complemented by sonic anemometers 184 (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific, Inc.; SATI/3Vx, Applied Technologies, Inc.) and vertical 185 profiling instruments (MFAS, Scintech) at select locations and times (Table 1; Fig. 1; Fig. 4 3, Supplementary appendix B) in order to provide measures of turbulence, 186 187 friction velocity, and sensible heat flux in near surface flows as well as to characterize 188 flows aloft. The Campbell Scientific CSAT3 sonic anemometers have a measurement rate of 1 to 60 hz, with resolution of 1 mm s⁻¹, 0.5 mm s⁻¹ and 15 mm s⁻¹ 189 ¹ for uy uz and c respectively, with a direction resolution of 0.06 degrees rms. The 190 SATI/3Vx has measurement range of 0 to 20 m s⁻¹, with resolution of 10 mm s⁻¹ and 191 192 0.1 degrees. The Scintech MFAS samples velocities from 0 to 50 m s⁻¹ up to 1000 m agl over 1 to 60 min averaging intervals, with horizontal wind speed uncertainty of 0.3 193 m s⁻¹ and vertical wind speed accuracy of 0.1 m s⁻¹ and directional uncertainty less 194 195 than 1.5 degrees. 196 Radiosonde (iMet-1⁻¹. International Met Systems) launches were conducted to 197 characterize large-scale flows aloft for select time periods at each site. The Imet⁻¹ 198 system has a maximum range of 250 km to altitude of 30 km and measures air 199 pressure, temperature, and humidity. Wind speed is calculated from onboard GPS 200 measurements. Accuracy is 0.5 hPa in pressure, 0.2°C in temperature, and 5% in 201 RH. Wind speed is accurate to within 1 m s⁻¹ and is updated at 1 Hz. Altitude is 202 accurate to within 15 m. 203 Weather stations (WXT520, Vaisala) measured relative humidity, air temperature, 204 wind speed and direction, solar radiation, and precipitation 2 m AGL at two locations 205 (Table 2; Fig 13). The Vaisala WXT520 measures air temperature to 60°C with +-0.3°C accuracy and 0.1°C resolution, Wind speed is measured from 0 to 60 m s⁻¹ 206 207 with 0.25 s response time and +-3% accuracy in speed and 0.1 degree accuracy in 208 direction. 209 The sampling layouts were designed to obtain measures of the upwind approach 210 flows as well as perturbations to the approach flow associated with the terrain 211 features. For each site, the extent of the sensor array covered an area that spanned 212 one to several mesoscale weather forecast grids of typical routine forecast resolution 213 (4 to 12 km) and the spatial density of the surface sensors was fine enough to 214 resolve flow patterns at the sub-grid scale (Fig. 1 and 3). Two field sites were 215 selected to represent an isolated terrain obstacle and a steep, non-forested river 216 canyon. These sites provided a range of wind conditions representative of generally 217 dry, inland, montane locations during summertime periods. 218 An array of 53 surface sensors was deployed on BSB between 15 June 2010 to 9 219 September 2010 (Fig. 1). Sensors were deployed along two transects running 220 southwest to northeast. A number of randomly located sensors were added along 221 and outside the two transects to increase the spatial coverage on and around the 222 butte. A sodar profiler was deployed 2 km southwest of the butte from 1 July to 18 223 July, 2010 and immediately northeast of the butte from 31 August to 1 September, 224 2010 (Fig. 1; Table 1). A tower of sonic anemometers was deployed 2 km southwest of the butte from 14 July to 18 July, 2010 (Fig. 1; Table 1). Three RadioSonde 225

<u>Radiosonde</u> launches were conducted at BSB from 31 August to 2 September, 2010
 (Table 2).

An array of 27 surface sensors was deployed in three cross-river transects at SRC from 14 July to 13 September, 2011 (Fig <u>3</u>4). Sodars and sonic anemometers

were operated from 16 July to 18 July and 29 August to 31 August, 2011 (Table 1). 230 231 Sodars were located in the valley bottom on the north side of the river and at the 232 ridgetop on the north side of the river near the east end of the field site (Fig. 34). Sonics were operated on north and south ridgetops near the west end of the study 233 234 area and at two locations in the valley bottom on the north side of the river (Fig. 1). 235 Two weather stations monitored air temperature, relative humidity, precipitation, solar 236 radiation, wind speed, and wind direction; one was located on the southern ridgetop 237 at the east end of the field site and the other was located in the valley bottom on the 238 north side of the river (Fig. 34). Six RadioSonde launches were conducted on 18 239 August, 2011 (Table 2).

240 Additionally, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Field 241 Research Division (NOAA-FRD) operates a permanent mesonet system that consists 242 of 35 towers spread across the USRP and encompassing the BSB study area 243 (http://www.noaa.inel.gov/projects/INLMet/INLMet.htm). The mesonet towers 244 measure wind speed, wind direction, air temperature, relative humidity, and solar 245 radiation. NOAA-FRD operates a permanent wind profiling system (915 MHz radar profiler) and radio acoustic sounding system (RASS) at a location approximately 10 246 247 km northeast of BSB at GRI (Fig 2.). NOAA-FRD also operated a mobile Radian 248 Model 600PA SoDAR approximately 5 km south of BSB and an Atmospheric 249 Systems Corp. (ASC) Model 4000 mini SoDAR 15 km south of BSB 15 July to 18 250 July, 2010 and 31 August to 2 September, 2010.

251 4 Analysis Methods and Terminology

252 The data analyses presented here focus on the surface wind measurements and 253 terrain influences on the surface flow characteristics determined from these 254 measurements. Limited data from vertical profiling instruments are provided to facilitate discussion of the surface observations. It is beyond the scope of this paper 255 to present a comprehensive analysis of all of the data collected during these field 256 campaigns; however, Aall data (surface observations, sodar, radar, radiosonde, 257 weather station, and sonic anemometer data) are available in public archives as 258 259 described in section 5.3.

260 **4.1** Partitioning surface data into flow regimes

The surface wind data are partitioned into four distinct wind regimes in order to facilitate the analysis of typical diurnal flows in the absence of strong synoptic forcing and high wind events during periods of strong synoptic forcing. The four wind regimes are:

(1) a downslope regime, which included downslope and downvalley flows, forced
 by nighttime surface cooling under weak synoptic forcing

- (2) an upslope regime, which included upslope and upvalley flows, forced by
 daytime surface heating under weak synoptic forcing
- (3) an afternoon regime, during which local flows were influenced by larger scale
 flows, either through convective mixing (at BSB) or through formation of upvalley
- 271 drainage winds (at SRC) under weak synoptic forcing

(4) a synoptically forced regime, during which the normal diurnal cycle was
disrupted by strong larger scale flows typically correlated with gradient level winds
due to mechanically-induced turbulent mixing in the boundary layer.

The first three are analogous to the wind regimes described in Banta and Cotton (1982) and are referred to collectively in this paper as the diurnal wind regime. The diurnal wind regime persisted during periods of weak synoptic forcing. The fourth regime was included here as the field sites investigated in this study frequently experienced periods of intense large-scale synoptic forcing which generated high surface wind speeds and sufficient mechanical mixing to overcome the diurnal flow regime.

282 The following procedure was used to partition the surface data into these flow 283 regimes. First, periods during which the wind speed exceeded a threshold wind 284 speed at a surface sensor chosen to be representative of the large-scale flow at each 285 site were partitioned into a fourth, synoptically forced, regime (4). Threshold wind speeds were selected for each site based on visual inspection of the wind speed time 286 series data for the chosen sensors. Thresholds were selected to be speeds that 287 288 were just above the typical daily peak speed for the chosen sensors. In other words, 289 the threshold speed was only exceeded when synoptic forcing disrupted the typical 290 diurnal wind regime at a given site. Speeds below the threshold are indicative of 291 periods of weak synoptic forcing, during which the diurnal wind regime prevails.

292 Sensors R2 and NM1 were chosen to be the representative sensors at BSB and 293 SRC, respectively. R2 was located on the USRP approximately 5 km southwest of 294 the butte. NM1 was located on the north side of the SRC at 1530 m ASL, roughly 295 three-quarters of the distance from the canyon bottom to the ridgetop. These 296 sensors were chosen because they appeared to be the least influenced by the terrain and most representative of the gradient level winds. Threshold velocities of 6 and 5 297 m s-1⁻¹ were chosen for BSB and SRC, respectively (Fig 43). 83% and 80% of the 298 data fell below these threshold speeds at BSB and SRC, respectively. Speeds below 299 these thresholds fall within the range of diurnal wind flows reported in the literature 300 301 (Horst and Doran, 1986) and visual inspection of the vector maps further confirmed 302 this choice of threshold wind speeds, as all four regimes were clearly identified by the 303 surface flow patterns at each site.

After filtering out the synoptically driven periods, the remaining data were then partitioned into regimes (1)–(3) based on visual inspection of the hourly vector maps. Periods which exhibited clearly defined downslope flow were partitioned into regime (1). Periods which exhibited clearly defined upslope flow were partitioned into regime (2). And afternoon periods during which the upslope regime was disturbed were partitioned into regime (3). Transition periods from one regime to another were also identified based on visual inspection of the hourly vector maps.

We used INL Mesonet data at the summit of BSB (Fig. 1, 'SUM') as well as
 archived North American Mesoscal Model (NAM) forecasts as indicators of upper level flows for comparison with our surface measurements. References in the text to
 upper-level or gradient-level winds refer to flows observed in these data sources.

316 4.2 Data Averaging

317 Surface wind observations were averaged over a 10 minute-min period at the top 318 of each hour to represent an average speed valid at the top of each hour. This 319 averaging scheme was chosen to be representative of wind speeds from NWP forecasts. Although NWP output is valid at a particular instant in time, there is some 320 inherent averaging in these 'instantaneous' predictions. The averaging associated 321 322 with a given prediction depends on the time-step and grid spacing used in the NWP 323 model, but is typically on the order of minutes. The 10-min_minute averages are 324 referred to in the text as 'hourly' data.

325 Hourly vector maps were used to visualize the spatial patterns of the wind fields for classifying flow regimes. The vector maps were produced by partitioning the 326 327 hourly data into one of two categories: (1) strong synoptic forcing or (2) weak synoptic forcing (i.e., diurnal winds dominate), and then averaging the hourly data 328 329 (for each sensor) within each category over the entire monitoring period. The result 330 is an hourly average wind vector at each sensor location for each flow category. For example, a vector map for 1300 under weak synoptic forcing would be produced by 331 332 filtering out the periods of strong synoptic forcing and then averaging all hourly flow 333 data for the 1300 hour at each sensor over the entire monitoring period. Partitioning 334 of data into weak vs. strong synoptic forcing was described in Section 4.1.

All data analysis and visualization was performed in R (R Core Team, 2013). Vector maps were produced using the ggmap library (Kahle and Wickam, 2013) and diurnal wind contour plots were produced using the metvurst library (Salabim, 2013).

338

339 **5 Results and Discussion**

340 Results for BSB are presented in section 5.1. Results for SRC are presented in section 5.2. Average flows for the diurnal wind regimes are presented for each site 341 342 and then the disturbance to the diurnal wind regime by synoptic-scale forcing is 343 described. Transitions within the diurnal wind regime (e.g., upslope to afternoon 344 regime) occurred at roughly the same time of day throughout the monitoring periods, 345 with no discernible differences between average hourly vector maps for the first and 346 second half of the monitoring period. Thus, results for diurnal winds are reported as averages for the entire monitoring period. This is reasonable since monitoring 347 periods were during summertime conditions at both sites. All times are reported as 348 349 local daylight time.

350

351 **5.1 BSB**

352 5.1.1 Diurnal Winds: Upslope, Afternoon, and Downslope Regimes

Diurnal slope winds are driven by solar-induced horizontal temperature gradients
 between the ground surface and the air. Whiteman (2000) provides a thorough
 discussion of diurnal mountain winds. The diurnal wind regime for an isolated
 mountain is typically characterized by upslope winds during the day due to local solar
 heating of the surface and downslope winds at night due to local surface cooling. An
 afternoon, or coupled, regime often develops when gradient level winds become

mixed in with the growing surface layer. There is a transition phase between each
 phase of the diurnal cycle as the temperature structure of the atmosphere responds
 and adjusts to the changing incident solar radiation at the surface. The daily cycle
 can be disturbed by interference from larger-scale winds.

Sunrise ranged from 0600 to 0700 during the monitoring period. Upslope winds formed between 0800 and 0900 and the upslope regime was fully established by 1000 and persisted until around 1200. Upslope winds peaked around 1100. This regime was characterized by thermally-driven upslope winds on all sides of the butte flowing up from the surrounding SRP (Fig <u>5a4</u>). <u>Vertical profiles measured at GRI</u> <u>indicated fairly well-mixed up-valley flow by 1100 LT, with a slightly positive w-</u> <u>component to the flow up to 50 m AGL (Fig. 6b).</u>

370 The timing of onset and occurrence of peak winds in the upslope regime was 371 consistent with Banta and Cotton (1982) and Geerts et al. (2008), who reported 372 peaks in upslope flow before local solar noon (LSN) for relatively small mountains. 373 Others have reported later peaks in upslope flow after LSN for larger mountain ranges (McNider and Pielke, 1981; Reiter and Tang, 1984). Geerts et al. (2008) 374 375 discussed this discrepancy in the reported timing of upslope flows for different 376 mountain ranges and described the development of upslope winds as scaling with the size of the mountain. BSB is a relatively small isolated mountain (by Geerts et al. 377 378 (2008) terminology; horizontal scale of ~5 km and vertical scale of ~800 m above the 379 surrounding SRP, and so establishment of the upslope regime prior to LSN fits with 380 this scaling theory. Upslope flows persisted about two hours longer than those at the 381 South Park site in Colorado reported by Banta and Cotton (1982). This difference 382 could be attributed to the upwind terrain, as westerly flows from the Rocky Mountains 383 at the South Park Site were likely more turbulent than the southwesterly flows 384 approaching BSB from the SRP, and perhaps were able to more quickly entrain the 385 developing convective boundary layer (CBL) at South Park.

386 Wind speeds in the upslope regime ranged from 1.8 to 7.3 m s- 4^{-1} , with an average of 3.1 m s-1⁻¹ (Table 3). There were a few ridgetop sensors which appeared 387 388 to be decoupled from the diurnal flow regime on the butte (discussed in detail at the 389 end of this section); if these sensors are removed, the wind speeds ranged from 1.8 to 4.5 m s- 1^{-1} , with an average of 3.0 m s- 1^{-1} . These are higher speeds than those 390 reported by Geerts et al. (2008), but similar to the range reported by Banta and 391 392 Cotton (1982). Differences in the reported range of speeds between this study and 393 Geerts et al. (2008) could be attributed to differences in the actual quantities 394 reported. Geerts et al. (2008) used an averaging scheme to calculate a mean 395 anabatic wind that is a function of the circumference of the polygon obtained by 396 connecting the midpoints between observation stations around the mountain. Also, 397 their wind measurements were made at 10 m AGL, while ours were made at 3.3 m 398 AGL. Upslope wind speeds were typically higher further up the slopes than lower on 399 the butte (Fig. 75a; Fig 68). Ridgetop sensors also appeared to be less coupled with 400 the diurnal flow regime on the butte and more correlated with the large-scale flows; 401 this is confirmed by contour plots of wind direction over time (Fig. 86) and is 402 discussed in further detail at the end of this section.

403 Upslope winds transitioned to the afternoon regime between 1200 and 1300.
404 This transition is most notable by an increase in wind speeds on the southwest side
405 of the butte and a shift in the wind directions on the northeast side of the butte (Fig.

406 5b4). This regime included local flows that generally correlated with the gradient
407 level winds above the ridgetops due to convective mixing in the deep afternoon
408 boundary layer. Convective mixing was fully established by 1400 and persisted until
409 around 2000. Wind speeds peaked around 1500 and were fairly consistent through
410 1900. Vertical profiles confirmed well-mixed southwesterly flow with little vertical
411 motion during afternoon flow conditions at GRI (Fig. 6c).

412 The onset of the afternoon regime was slightly later in the day than that reported 413 by Banta and Cotton (1982) which could be due to less turbulent approach flow at 414 BSB as discussed above. During the afternoon regime, the prevailing southwesterly 415 flow was routed around the northwest and southeast sides of the butte (e.g., sensors 416 R9 and R13). Wind speeds were highest on the ridgetops and southwest slopes and 417 lowest on the northeast slopes (Fig. 5b4). There was some apparent recirculation on the northeast side of the butte as well as in some of the side drainages (Fig. <u>5b4</u>). 418 419 Wind speeds in the afternoon regime ranged from 2.3 m s- 1^{-1} to 8.1 m s- 1^{-1} with an 420 average of 4.1 m s- 1^{-1} .

421 Sunset ranged from 2030 to 2130 during the monitoring period. The afternoon 422 regime began to decay and transition into downslope winds between 2100 and 2200. 423 The downslope regime was fully established by 2300 and persisted until around 424 0800. Peak downslope winds occurred around 0000. The timing of onset and 425 occurrence of peak winds in the downslope regime agreed with observations 426 reported in Banta and Cotton (1982). Downslope flows are clearly shown in the 427 hourly vector plots, with flows going from the top of the butte down all side drainages 428 around the butte and flowing out onto the SRP (Fig. 5c4). Vertical profiles measured at GRI showed downvalley flow at heights up to 100 m AGL on the SRP by 0000 LT 429 (Fig. 6a). Wind speeds in the downslope regime ranged from 1.3 to 12.0 m s -1^{-1} , 430 431 with an average of 3.7 m s^{-1⁻¹}. If the decoupled ridgetop sensors are removed, the range was 1.3 to 7.5 m s^{-1⁻¹}, with an average of 3.4 m s^{-1⁻¹} (Table 3). This range is 432 similar to that reported in Banta and Cotton (1982) and slightly larger than that 433 434 reported in Horst and Doran (1986). Others have proposed an acceleration of flow 435 with downslope distance due to thickening of the katabatic layer from entrainment of 436 ambient air into the slope flow and increased buoyancy deficit with downslope 437 distance (Horst and Doran, 1986); however, we did not observe a consistent trend in 438 wind speed with location on the slope (low vs. high) during the downslope regime 439 (Fig. 75b).

440 Diurnal winds dominated the local flows on and around the butte under periods of 441 weak synoptic forcing. During these periods, flow on and around BSB was 442 decoupled from the large-scale atmospheric flows, except for high elevation ridgetop 443 sensors (R26, R35, TSW7) and one exposed mid--elevation ridge sensor (R15). This 444 decoupling is evident from the vector maps (Fig. 54) and is also confirmed by the contour plots which show that these ridgetop locations do not experience the strong 445 446 diurnal shifts in wind direction that other locations on and around the butte 447 experience (Fig. 86, 97).

This ridgetop decoupling likely occurred because these locations were high enough in the atmosphere to protrude out of the nocturnal boundary layer (NBL) and the morning-time developing shallow CBL. Thus, the ridgetop winds were coupled with the large-scale flows during all periods of the day. During nighttime hours the ridgetop locations would experience residual layer winds and would only be coupled 453 with the rest of the flow on and around the butte once the residual layer was 454 entrained by the growing shallow CBL and the convective mixing regime was fully 455 established. This proposed structure is confirmed supported by the vector plots, which show that ridgetop winds did not change much from one regime to the next 456 457 and only correlated with winds at other nearby locations on the butte during the 458 convective mixing regime (Fig. 54). The vertical profile measured at GRI at 0000 LT 459 shows downvalley flow up to about 100 m AGL and up-valley flow above this height (Fig. 6a): this further supports the idea that ridgetop locations (e.g., heights up to 800 460 m AGL on the SRP) could have been exposed to residual layer winds during 461 462 nighttime flows, and thus more correlated with gradient-level winds than surface flows at other locations on the butte. 463

464 5.1.2 Synoptic Disturbance of Diurnal Winds

465 Under periods of strong synoptic forcing, such as the passage of a cold front, the diurnal wind regime was disrupted and a synoptically-forced regime persisted. Two 466 types of flow events occurred within the synoptically-forced regime, one with 467 468 southwesterly flow and one with northeasterly flow (Fig. 810). The diurnal slope 469 flows on BSB were completely overtaken by the larger scale flows in this regime (Fig 470 810 vs. Fig. 54). During these events, daytime winds were consistently from the 471 southwest, but in a few cases, during nighttime and early morning hours, winds were 472 from the northeast (Fig. 108). Fig 6d shows the vertical profile of winds measured at 473 GRI during a synoptically-forced southwesterly flow event.

474 The southwest flows are referred to as 'synoptically driven upvalley' flows and the 475 northeasterly flows are referred to as 'synoptically driven downvalley' flows. Synoptically driven upvalley flows were generally associated with the passage of cold 476 477 fronts from the west/southwest. Evolution of the synoptically driven downvalley flows 478 is more complex and some potential mechanisms are described below. Wind speeds 479 during the synoptically driven upvalley flows ranged from 2.9 to 20.3 m s-1⁻¹, with an 480 average of 7.1 m s^{-1^{-1}}; the downvalley flow speeds ranged from 0.1 to 24.4 m s^{-1^{-1}}, 481 with an average of 6.0 m s -1^{-1} . The synoptically driven downvalley (northeasterly) 482 flows occurred less frequently than the synoptically driven upvalley (southwesterly) 483 flow events; however, 4 distinct nighttime northeasterly flow events were observed 484 during the monitoring period.

485 There are at least three potential mechanisms which may have contributed to the synoptically driven downvally events that we observed. One mechanism is related to 486 487 the SPCZ described in section 2.1. Mechanical channeling of the gradient level 488 winds by the surrounding terrain to the north and strong southwesterly flows on the 489 SRP can create an SPCZ-like convergence zone with strong upvalley winds to the 490 south of the zone and strong downvalley winds to the north of the zone. Winds at 491 BSB could be southwesterly or northeasterly depending on which side of the 492 convergence zone it was on. A second mechanism is based on observations from 493 the NOAA mesonet suggesting that during summer months SPCZ-like events occur 494 in association with the passage of fronts or thunderstorm activity in the mountains to 495 the north. The former will often generate strong outflows through the northern valleys 496 onto the SRP, and the latter will sometimes generate outflow gust fronts. A third 497 possibility is that surface pressure gradients, in some cases, may have contributed to 498 the northeasterly flows. Two of the observed synoptically driven down valley flow 499 events occurred during periods where there was a strong northeast to southwest

surface pressure gradient which could have facilitated the flow; however, the other
two observed synoptically driven downvalley events did not occur during periods of
favorable surface pressure gradients, so although surface pressure may be an
influence, it was not the sole cause of these strong downvalley flow events. It is
possible that any <u>combination</u> of these three mechanisms may have contributed to
the observed downvalley flows on BSB.

506 It is interesting that during periods of synoptically driven downvalley flows wind 507 speeds were generally higher on the southwest (leeward) side of BSB than on the 508 northeast (windward) side. Perhaps this is because the maximum in the synoptically 509 driven downvalley flow occurred at some higher elevation and was not well-mixed 510 with near-surface winds due to nighttime temperature stratification in the NBL. This 511 stratified flow could have become mixed into the surface flow at the ridgetops and 512 pulled down the southwest side of BSB. The northeasterly flow also would have been enhanced by the nighttime downslope flow on the southwest side of BSB, thus 513 514 producing stronger winds on this side as compared to the northeast (windward side), 515 where the downslope flow would be in opposition (southwesterly) to the northeasterly 516 flow.

517

518 **5.2 SRC**

519 5.2.1 Diurnal Winds: Upslope, Afternoon, and Downslope Regimes

520 The diurnal wind regime for a canyon or valley is similar to that of the isolated
521 mountain, with upslope/upvalley winds during the day due to local solar heating of
522 the surface and downslope/downvalley winds at night due to local surface cooling.
523 However, the afternoon, or coupled, regime often does not develop in deep or narrow
524 canyons due to strong atmospheric decoupling of the canyon flows from the upper
525 level winds (Banta and Cotton, 1982).

526

527 Sunrise ranged from 0500 to 0630 during the monitoring period at SRC. Upslope 528 winds formed around 0900 and were fully established by 1000, peaked around 1200 529 and persisted until around 1500. The upslope regime was characterized by thermally-driven upslope winds on both sides of the canyon as well as up smaller 530 side drainage slopes (Fig. 11a9). The one notable exception was sensor NM2, which 531 532 experienced easterly or southeasterly flow during most periods of the day (Fig. 119). 533 We believe this sensor was perhaps located in a local recirculation zone formed in the small side drainage; this is discussed at the end of this section. Wind speeds in 534 the upslope regime ranged from 0.75 to 4.0 m s- 1^{-1} , with an average of 2.4 m s- 1^{-1} 535 (Table 3). Vertical profiles measured at ST2 indicated a transition from down-valley 536 to up-valley flow beginning near the surface and propagating upward to 100 m AGL 537 538 by 0930-LT (Fig. 12c).

Wind speeds tended to be highest at the upper elevation sensors around the
onset of the upslope regime at 0900 (Fig. 13a0). As the upslope regime developed,
wind speeds peaked around 1100 and were highest at the mid elevation sensors
(Fig. 103) and this trend continued through 1300. The NW and SE transects do not
follow these trends. The NW transect had consistently lower speeds at the mid

elevation sensor during all periods of the upslope regime. This could be because 544 545 NW3 was located slightly off-of the ridge on a northwest aspect and perhaps 546 decoupled from the flow along the rest of the NW transect. The SE transect had 547 consistently higher speeds at the mid elevation sensor (SE4). The higher speeds at SE4 could be because this sensor was located on a ridge exposed to a prominent 548 549 side drainage (Lake Creek) just to the east of theour study area (Fig. 43). Flows out 550 of this Lake Creek drainage could have influenced this sensor more than others 551 along the SE transect due to its location on the ridge and steep terrain to the 552 southeast (Fig. 31).

553 We did not observe afternoon convective mixing at SRC as we did at BSB. This 554 is consistent with Banta and Cotton (1982) who noted that a true convective mixing 555 regime is not well documented in narrow mountain canyons, likely due to the strong 556 channeling effect exerted by the canyon on the flow. The afternoon regime at SRC 557 was characterized by a change from upslope to upvalley winds around 1500. This 558 afternoon upvalley regime was fully established by 1600 and persisted through 1900. 559 The most notable change between the upslope regime and the afternoon regime was 560 the shift in wind direction from up the canyon walls (northerly or southerly flow) to 561 upriver (westerly flow), especially for the lower elevation sensors. Daytime gradient level winds were typically from the west (upriver winds), so it could be difficult to 562 563 determine if this afternoon shift in wind direction was driven by convective mixing of 564 gradient level winds down into the canyon or the formation of thermally-driven upvalley flow within the canyon. The fact that this change in wind direction was most 565 566 notable in the lower elevation sensors (Fig. 119) points to a thermally-driven 567 mechanism. Wind speeds were fairly consistent throughout this time period and ranged from 0.92 to 4.2 m s -1^{-1} , with an average of 2.5 m s -1^{-1} (Table 3). Wind 568 speeds were the lowest near the canyon bottom except for the SE and NW transects. 569 which had the lowest speeds at high and mid elevation sensors (Fig. 14SE3 and 570 571 NW3). Both of these sensors were located slightly off of the main ridge. It is 572 interesting that the lowest sensors responded most noticeably to the shift from upslope to upvalley flow with a change in wind direction, but that the highest speeds 573 574 were still observed at the upper elevation sensors.

575 Sunset ranged from 1900 to 2030 during the monitoring period. Upvalley flow 576 began to weaken and transition to downslope flow between 2000 and 2100. The 577 downslope regime was fully established by 2200 and persisted until around 0700. 578 Vertical profiles of wind speeds measured at ST2 indicated a transition to downvalley flow at by 2000-LT (Fig. 12a). Peak wind speeds in the downslope regime occurred 579 580 around 2200. Wind speeds in the downslope flow regime ranged from 0.33 to 4.1 m $s-4^{-1}$, with an average of 1.2 m $s-4^{-1}$ (Table 3). Wind speeds tended to increase with 581 upslope distance (Fig. 143d-f), with the exception of the SE transect, likely due to the 582 583 location of SE3 and SE4 as discussed above. This trend was consistent throughout 584 the duration of the downslope regime.

585 Diurnal trends were further inspected for the NM transect because it was not 586 located near any prominent side drainages and likely exhibited the simplest flow 587 characteristics. Contour plots show a strong diurnal signal for all sensors in this 588 transect (Fig. 152), indicating that diurnal flows are a major flow feature in the SRC. 589 Winds were from the east/southeast in the early morning and from the 590 west/northwest in the afternoon and the highest speeds occurred at the upper 591 elevation sensors during early morning hours. One exception was the NM2 sensor, 592 which rarely experienced winds from the west/northwest and did not experience a 593 morning time peak in wind speed. This sensor was located slightly off of a mid-slope 594 ridge on a slope with a northwest aspect. We suspect that this location was possibly a zone of recirculation. The lowest sensor, NM4, also did not experience a morning 595 596 peak in wind speed and rarely experienced winds from the northeast. The highest 597 speeds occurred during periods of synoptic disturbance, which we believe had more 598 of an effect at upper elevations in the SRC than lower ones near the river bottom. 599 This is discussed further in the next section.

600

601 5.2.2 Synoptic Disturbance of Diurnal Winds

602 Two types of synoptic disturbances to the diurnal wind regime in the SRC were 603 observed (Fig. 163). One is associated with the passage of frontal systems from the west, which brings strong westerly gradient winds. The other appears to be 604 605 associated with the presence of an east-west pressure gradient that generates strong 606 morning-time easterly flow. During the passage of frontal systems, westerly winds are channeled up the river canyon and most sensors in SRC (with the exception of 607 608 those located in side drainages) experienced westerly flow. These events tended to 609 occur during mid-afternoon hours. Wind speeds during this type of synoptic disturbance ranged from 2.1 to 5.7 m s- 1^{-1} , with an average of 3.8 m s- 1^{-1} . 610

611 The highest observed wind speeds in the SRC were from the east during morning 612 hours (Fig. 12, 13). Wind speeds during these pressure-driven downvalley events ranged from 0.84 to 9.1 m s-1⁻¹, with an average of 3.1 m s-1⁻¹. Fig 12b shows a 613 vertical profile of wind speeds measured at ST2 during one of these events. The 614 profile data indicates strong easterly flow with a negative w-component up to 280 m 615 AGL (Fig. 12b). These events occurred roughly every few days and appeared to be 616 induced by a surface pressure gradient formed when a thermal trough existed on the 617 Columbia Plateau to the northwest of SRC and high pressure existed to the east of 618 619 SRC (Fig. 174). An east-west surface pressure gradient existed on days when 620 enhanced downvalley flow was observed. On days when the downvalley flow feature 621 was not observed, there was no east-west surface pressure gradient. The highest 622 wind speeds during this type of flow event were observed at the upper elevations of 623 the SRC (Fig. 185). The east-west surface pressure gradient coupled with the typical 624 nighttime/early morning katabatic flow in the canyon resulted in very strong 625 downvalley winds in the SRC. This pressure-enhanced katabatic surface flow tended to be decoupled from the larger-scale gradient flow (which is typically from the west) 626 627 during these pressure-driven events.

628 5.3 Archived Data

All data are archived <u>and available to the public</u>. <u>Surface observations for each</u>
<u>site are available as SQLite databases</u>. Data from sodars, radar profilers, sonic
<u>anemometers</u>, weather stations, and radiosondes are available in their raw formats.
Access to these <u>databases-data</u> along with tools to query, process, and visualize, the
data is described at <u>https://collab.firelab.org/software/projects/wind-obs/repository</u>.
Descriptions of the NOAA mesonet data and contact information regarding mesonet
data are found at <u>http://www.noaa.inel.gov/projects/INLMet/INLMet.htm.</u>

637 6 Conclusions

We have presented an analysis of two high-resolution surface wind datasets, one
collected from a tall isolated mountain, and the other from a steep river canyon. The
wind data were analyzed and presented in terms of four flow regimes: upslope,
afternoon, downslope, and a synoptically-driven regime. These datasets constitute a
unique inventory of surface wind measurements at very high spatial resolution under
dry summertime conditions. Public access to the archived datasets has been
described.

645 Surface winds on and around BSB were completely decoupled from large-scale 646 flows during upslope and downslope flow regimes, except for the highest elevation 647 ridgetop sensors. These ridgetop locations at BSB tended to correlate better with 648 gradient-level winds than with the local diurnal surface flows. Surface winds in SRC 649 were decoupled from large-scale flows except during periods of strong synoptic 650 forcing that enhanced either upriver or downriver flows.

Wind speeds increased with distance upslope during the upslope regime at BSB, but generally decreased with distance upslope at SRC. Wind speed did not have a simple, consistent trend with position on the slope during the downslope regime at BSB, but generally increased with distance upslope at SRC. We did not observe a convective mixing regime at SRC under periods of weak synoptic forcing, only a transition from upslope to thermally-driven upriver flow.

657 The highest speeds measured at BSB occurred during the passage of frontal 658 systems which generated strong southwesterly flows and during infrequent strong 659 northwesterly flows presumably generated through SPCZ-like dynamics, thunderstorm outflows, or surface pressure gradients. Ridgetop winds were often 660 661 twice as high as surface wind speeds measured on the surrounding SRP. The highest speeds measured at SRC occurred during late morning hours and were from 662 663 easterly flows presumably produced by surface pressure gradients induced by formation of a thermal trough over the Columbia Plateau to the NW and high 664 pressure to the east. The highest wind speeds during these pressure-driven easterly 665 666 flow events were measured at the mid to high elevation sensors.

667 These results have important implications for modeling near-surface winds in 668 complex terrain. The fact that surface winds at both sites tended to be decoupled 669 from large-scale flows under periods of weak synoptic forcing suggests that 670 traditional operational weather model winds (i.e., with numerical grid resolutions of 671 around 4 km or larger) are not likely to be good predictors of local winds in sub-grid scale complex terrain. Under periods of strong synoptic forcing, variability in surface 672 winds was sufficiently large due to terrain-induced mechanical effects (speed-up over 673 674 ridges and decreased speeds on leeward sides of terrain obstacles), that a mean 675 wind for a 4 km grid cell encompassing these terrain features would not be 676 representative of actual surface winds at most locations on or within the terrain 677 feature. The findings from this work along with the additional archived data and 678 available mesonet data at BSB should provide guidance for future development and evaluation of high-resolution wind models and integrated parameterizations, such as 679 for simulating diurnal slope flows and non-neutral atmospheric stability effects. 680

681

682 Acknowledgements

683 The Department of Interior Bureau of Land Management Idaho Falls, ID field 684 office facilitated the field campaign and Barry Sorenson provided critical advice on 685 local conditions, access roads, and weather as well as permission to store equipment 686 onsite during the deployment at Big Southern Butte. Thanks to Nicole Van Dyk, Olga Martyusheva, Jack Kautz, Peter Robichaud, and Ben Kopyscianski of the Rocky 687 Mountain Research Station for help with the field installation and maintenance at the 688 Salmon River site. Funding was provided by the Joint Fire Science Program, the US 689 690 Forest Service, Washington State University, and the National Oceanic and 691 Atmospheric Administration Field Research Division.

693 References

- Andretta, T.A., 2002. Climatology of the Snake River Plain convergence zone.
 National Weather Digest. 26, 37–51.
- Andretta, T.Z., Hazen, D.S., 1998. Doppler radar analysis of a Snake River Plain
 convergence event. Weather and Forecasting. 13, 482–491.
- Banta, R.M., 1984. Daytime boundary-layer evolution over mountainous terrain. Part
 1: observations of the dry circulations. Mon. Wea. Rev. 112, 340–356.
- Banta, R.M., Cotton, R., 1982. An analysis of the structure of local wind systems in a
 broad mountain basin. J. Appl. Meteorol. 20, 1255–1266.
- Beaucage, P., Brower, M.C., Tensen, J., 2012. Evaluation of four numerical wind flow
 models for wind resource mapping. Wind Energy.
- Berg, J., Mann, J., Bechmann, A., Courtney, M.S., Jørgensen, H.E., 2011. The
 Bolund Experiment, Part I: Flow over a steep, three-dimensional hill. BoundaryLayer Meteorol. 141, 219–243.
- Chrust, M.F., Whiteman, C.D., Hoch, S.W., 2013. Observations of thermally driven
 wind jets at the exit of Weber Canyon, Utah. J. Appl. Meteorol. Climatol. 52,
 1187–1200.
- Daly, C., Conklin, D.R., Unsworth, M.H., 2010. Local atmospheric decoupling in
 complex topography alters climate change impacts. Int. J. Climatol. 30, 1857–
 1864.
- Defant, F. 1949. "Zur Theorie der Hangwinde, nebst Bermekungen sur Theorie der
 Berg- und Talwinde." Archiv fuer Meteorologie Geophysik und Bioklimatologie
 Ser. A.(1): 421-450.
- Forthofer, J., Shannon, K., Butler, B., 2009. Simulating diurnally driven slope winds
 with WindNinja. Eighth Symposium on Fire and Forest Meteorology. Oct 13-1⁻¹5.
 Kalispell, MT.
- Forthofer, J.M., Butler, B.W, Wagenbrenner, N.S., (in press). A comparison of two
 approaches for simulating fine-scale winds in support of wildland fire
 management: Part 1 model formulation and comparison against measurements.
- 722 Int. J. Wildland Fire.
- Geerts, B., Miao, Q., Demko, J.C., 2008. Pressure perturbations and upslope flow
 over a heated, isolated mountain. Mon. Wea. Rev. 136: 4272–4288.
- Grell, G.A., Emeis, S., Stockwell, W.R., Schoenemeyer, T., Forkel, R., Michalakes,
 J., Knoche, R., Seidl, W. 2000. Application of a multiscale, coupled
 MM5/chemistry model to the complex terrain of the VOTALP valley campaign.
 Atmos. Environ. 34, 1435–1453.
- Horst, T.W., Doran, J.C., 1986. Nocturnal drainage flow on simple slopes. Boundary Layer Meteorol. 34: 263–286.
- Jiménez, P., Jorba, O., Parra, R. Baldasano, J.M., 2006. Evaluation of MM5-
- 732 EMICAT2000-CMAQ performance and sensitivity in complex terrain: high-
- resolution application to the northeastern Iberian peninsula. Atmos. Environ. 40,5056–5072.

- Jiménez, P., Dudhia, J., 2012. Improving the representation of resolved and
 unresolved topographic effects on surface wind in the WRF model. J. Appl.
- 737 Meteorol. Climatol. 51, 300–316.
- Kahle, D., Wickham, H., 2013. ggmap: A package for spatial visualization with
 Google Maps and OpenStreetMap. R package version 2.3. http://CRAN.Rproject.org/package=ggmap.
- Langhans, W., Juerg, S., Fuhrer, O., Bieri, S., Schär, C., 2013. Long-term
 simulations of thermally driven flows and orographic convection at convectionparameterizing and cloud-resolving resolutions. J. Appl. Meteor. Climatol. 52,
 1490–1510.
- Lundquist, K.A., Chow, F.K., Lundquist, J.K., 2010. An immersed boundary method
 for the Weather Research and Forecasting Model. Mon. Wea. Rev. 138:796–817.
- McNider, R.T., Pielke, R.A., 1981. Dirunal boundary-layer development over sloping
 terrain. J. Atmos. Sci. 38: 2198–2212.
- Palma, J.M.L.M., Castro, F.A., Ribeiro, L.F., Rodrigues, A.H., Pinto, A.P., 2008.
 Linear and nonlinear models in wind resource assessment and wind turbine
 micro-siting in complex terrain. J. Wind Engineer. Indust. Aerodynam. 96, 2308–
 2326.
- R Core Team, 2013. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL http://www.R project.org/.
- Reiter, E.R., Tang, M., 1984. Plateau effects on diurnal circulation patterns. Mon.
 Wea. Rev. 112: 638–651.
- Rothermel, R.C., 1972. A mathematical model for predicting fire spread in wildland
 fuels: Ogden, UT, p. 40.
- Salabim, T., 2013. Metvurst: meteorological visualization utilities using R for science
 and teaching. URL https://github.com/tim-salabim/metvurst.
- Scire, J.S., Robe, F.R., Fernau, M.E., Yamartino, R.J., 2000. A user's guide for the
 CALMET meteorological model. Earth Tech, Inc.: Concord, MA.
- Sharples, J.J., McRae, R.H.D., Wilkes, S.R., 2012. Wind-terrain effects on the
 propagation of wildfires in rugged terrain: fire channeling. Intern. J. Wild. Fire. 21,
 282–296.
- Simpson, C.C., Sharles, J.J., Evans, J.P., McCabe, M.F., 2013. Large eddy
 simulation of atypical wildland fire spread on leeward slopes. Intern. J. Wild. Fire.
 22, 599–614.
- Taylor, PA, Teunissen, HW (1987.) The Askervein Hill Project: Overview and background data. Boundary-Layer Meteorology 39, 15-39.
- Wagenbrenner, N.S., Lamb., B.K., Forthofer, J.M., Shannon, K.S., Butler, B.W., In
 review. Effect of model horizontal grid resolution on near-surface wind predictions
 in complex terrain: evaluations with high-resolution field observations from an
 isolated mountain and a steep river canyon. To be submitted to J. Appl. Meteorol.
 Climatol.

777	Whiteman, C.D. 2000. Mountain Meteorology: Fundamentals and Applications.
778	Oxford University Press. New York.
779	Zardi, D, Whiteman, CD (2013) Diurnal Mountain Wind Systems. In 'Mountain
780	Weather Research and Forecasting.' (Eds FK Chow, SFJ De Wekker, BJ
781	Snyder.) pp. 35 ⁻¹ 19. Springer Netherlands. Chap 2
782 783 784	Zhong, S., Fast, J., 2003. An evaluation of MM5, RAMS, and Meso-Eta models at subkilometer resolution using VTMX field campaign data in the Salt Lake valley. Monthly Weather Review. 131, 1301–1322.

ID	Site ¹	Sensor	Model	Time Period	Averaging Period
WSU1	BSB	Sodar	Scintech	14 Jul–15 Jul 2010	30-min
		Sonic	ATI	14 Jul–18 Jul 2010	10 Hz
WSU2	BSB	Sodar	Scintech	15 Jul–19 Jul 2010	30-min
				31 Aug–1 Sep 2010	30-min
ST1	SRC	Weather station	Viasala, WXT	16 Aug–12 Sep 2011	15-min
		Sonic	CSAT3	18 Aug–19 Aug 2011	10 Hz
ST2	SRC	Sodar	Scintech	16 Aug–18 Aug 2011	30-min
				29 Aug–31 Aug 2011	30-min
		Sonic	ATI	16 Aug–18 Aug 2011	10 Hz
ST3	SRC	Weather station	Viasala, WXT	17 Aug–12 Sep 2011	15-min
ST4	SRC	Sonic	ATI	16 Aug 19–Aug 2011	10 Hz

786 Table 1. Sonic anemometer and vertical profiling sensor details.

¹BSB = Big Southern Butte; SRC = Salmon River Canyon.

Site ¹ Dat		Date	Time of launch	
	BSB	August 31 2010	16:57	
		September 1 2010	16:59	
		September 2 2010	10:35	
	SRC	July 18 2011	11:28	
			13:56	
			15:50	
			18:14	
			20:00	
			21:32	

789 <u>Table 2. Radiosonde launches at BSB and SRC. Times are LT.</u>

¹ BSB = Big Southern Butte; SRC = Salmon River Canyon. 790 791

Table 3. Measured wind speeds (m s⁻¹⁻¹) during upslope, downslope, and convective mixing regimes at Big Southern Butte (BSB) and Salmon River Canyon (SRC). Decoupled ridgetop locations (sensors R26, R35, TSW7, and R15) were omitted

794

from BSB averages; speeds in parentheses include ridgetop sensors. Times are

local.

Site	Wind Speed	Upslope (1100 <mark>-LT</mark>)	Afternoon (1600 <mark>-L</mark> ∓)	Downslope (0000-LT)
BSB	Min (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	1.8	2.3	1.3
	Max (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	4.5 (7.3)	8.1	7.5 (12.0)
	Mean (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	3.0 (3.1)	4.1	3.4 (3.7)
SRC	Min (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	0.75	0.92	0.33
	Max (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	4.0	4.2	4.1
	Mean (m s ^{-1<u>-1</u>)}	2.4	2.5	1.2

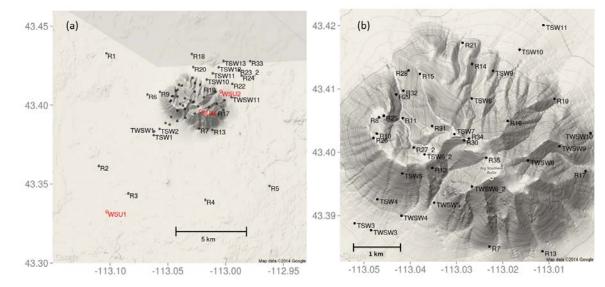


Fig. 1. Sensor layout at Big Southern Butte (a) zoomed out to show entire study area and (b) zoomed in to show sensor detail on the butte. Black circles indicate surface sensors. Red diamonds indicate sonic anemometers and vertical profiling sensors.

798

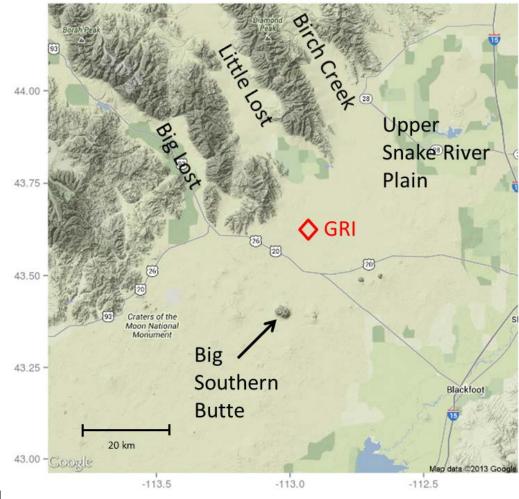
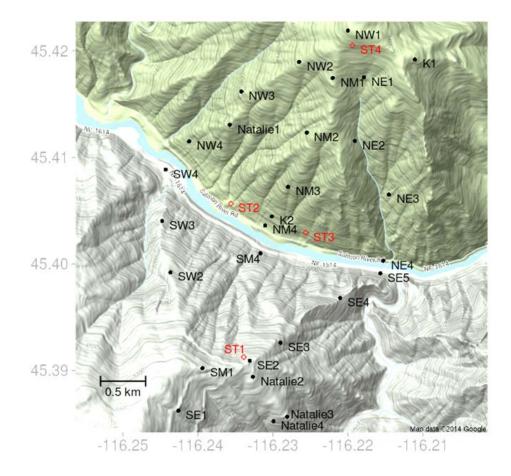


Fig. 2. Snake River Plain and prominent drainages surrounding the BSB Big
 Southern Butte study site. Red diamond indicates the GRI mesonet station.

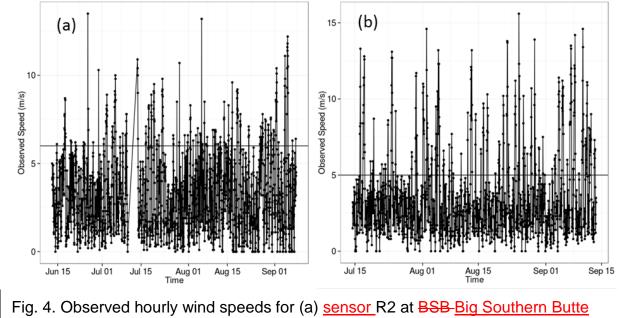


810 Fig. 3. Sensor layout at the Salmon River Canyon. Black circles indicate surface

811 | sensors. Red diamonds indicate sonic anemometers, weather stations, and vertical

812 profiling sensors.

813



817 818 and (b) NM1 at SRCthe Salmon River Canyon study site. The horizontal line

indicates the threshold speed chosen to partition synoptically driven events from

diurnal events.

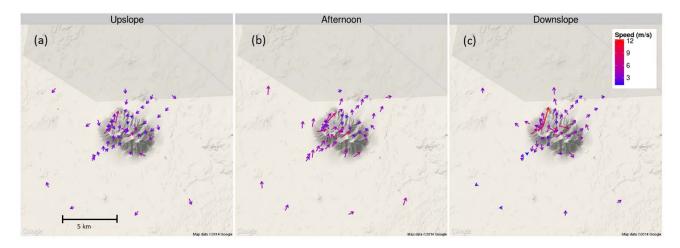


Fig. 5. Average flow during (a) upslope (1100 LT), (b) afternoon (1600 LT), and (c)
downslope (0000 LT) flow regimes at BSB-Big Southern Butte during periods of weak
synoptic flow between June-September 2010. Vectors represent the average hourly
flow at a given sensor. Vectors are centered on sensor locations. Periods of strong
synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging.

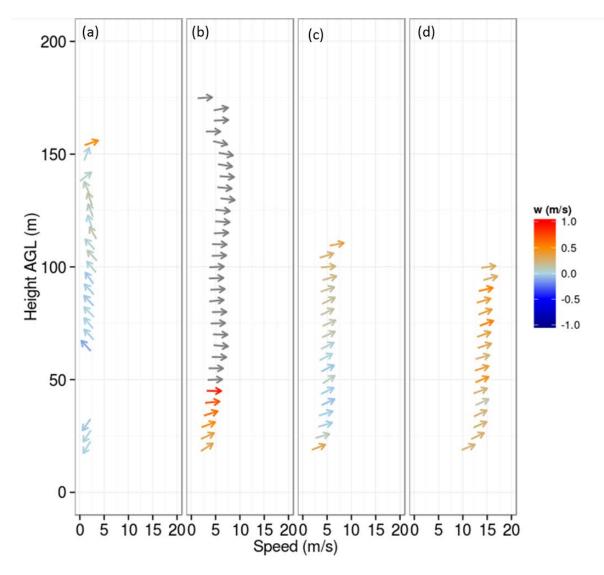




Fig. 6. Vertical profiles measured at GRI duirng (a) downslope (14 July 2010 0000

830 LT), (b) upslope (15 July 2010 1100 LT), (c) afternoon (15 July 2010 1600 LT), and

831 (d) synoptically-forced (17 July 2010 15:00) flow regimes.

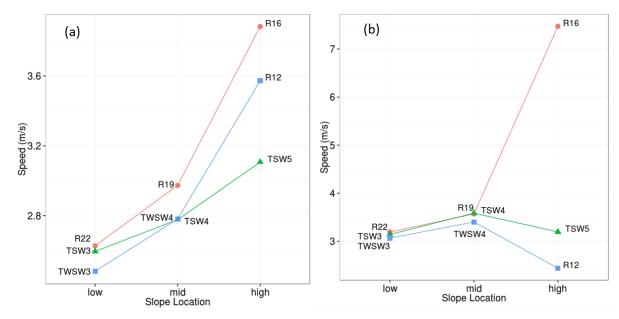
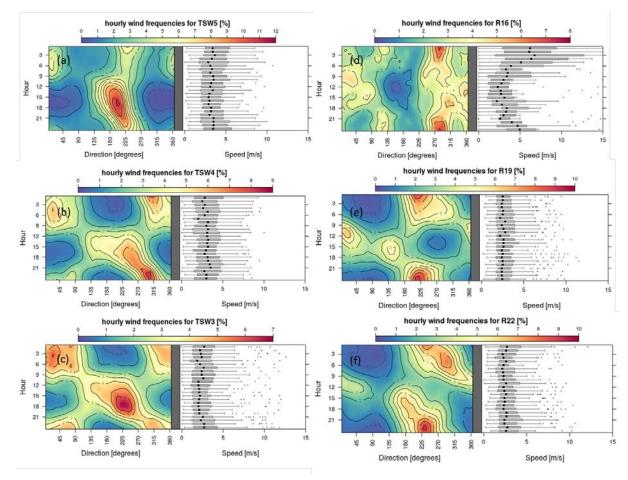
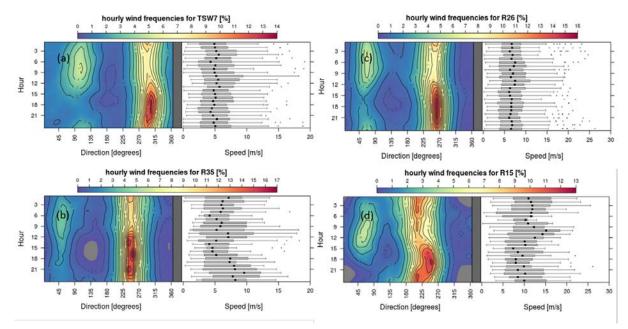


Fig. 7. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and high)
along three transects during the (a) upslope (1100 LT) and (b) downslope (0000 LT)
flow regimes at BSBBig Southern Butte.



838

Fig. 8. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for a transect on the southwest slope of Big Southern Butte (a-c) and a transect on the northeast slope of Big Southern Butte (d-f). Panels are ordered from higher elevation sensors (a,d) to lower elevation sensors (c,f). Periods of synoptic forcing were removed from this data.



846 Fig. 9. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for

- four ridgetop locations at Big Southern Butte. Periods of strong synoptic forcing were removed from this data.
- 849

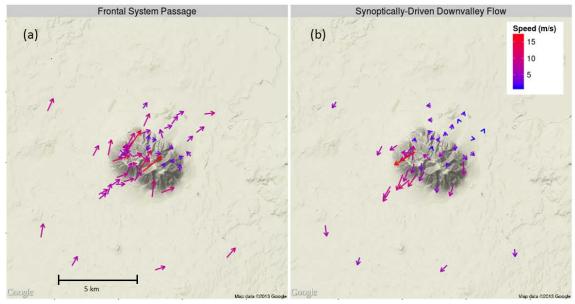


Fig. 10. Characteristic synoptically-driven regime events during (a) the passage of a
frontal system (1800 LT) and (b) during synoptically-enhanced downvalley flow on
the Snake River Plain (2300 LT) at <u>BSB-Big Southern Butte</u> during June-September
2010. Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a given sensor. Periods of weak
synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging. Lower strip is zoomed out to show
entire study area.

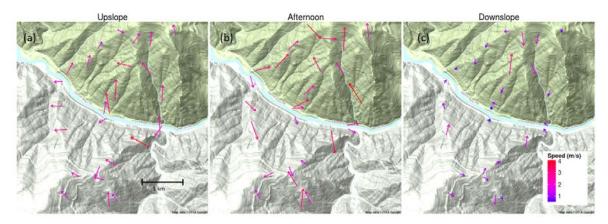
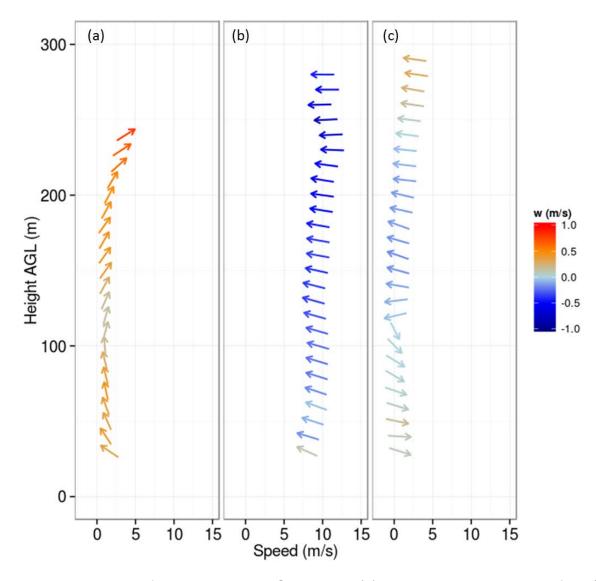


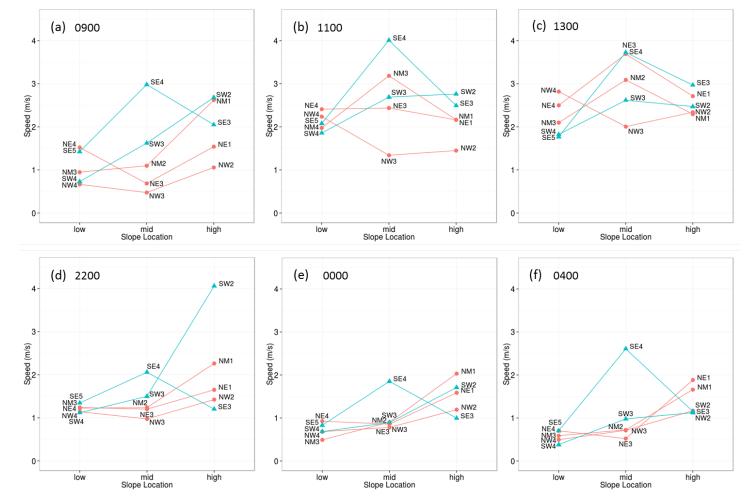
Fig. 11. Average flows during (a) upslope (1100 LT), (b) afternoon (1600 LT), and (c)
downslope (0000 LT) regimes at SRC-the Salmon River Canyon site during periods
of weak synoptic flow between July-September 2011. Vectors represent the average
hourly flow at a given sensor. Periods of strong synoptic forcing were removed prior
to averaging.

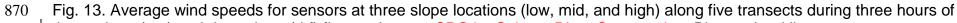


865

Fig. 12. Vertical profiles measured at ST2 during (a) transition to down-valley flow (16 August 2011 2000 LT), (b) synoptically-driven down-valley flow (17 August 2011

1030 LT), and (c) transition to up-valley flow (18 August 2011 0930 LT).





871 the upslope (a-c) and downslope (d-f) flow regimes at <u>SRCthe Salmon River Canyon site</u>. Blue and red lines are transects on 872 the south and north side of the river, respectively.

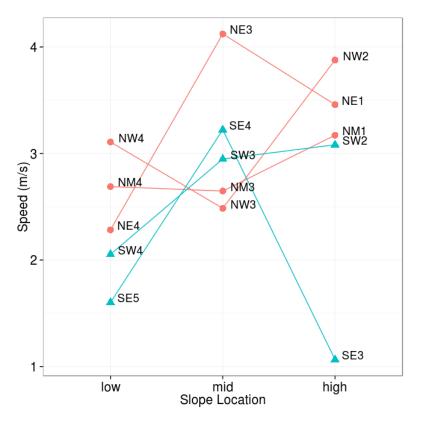


Fig. 14. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and high) along five transects during the afternoon flow regime (1700) at <u>SRCthe Salmon River</u> <u>Canyon site</u>. Blue and red lines are transects on the south and north side of the river, respectively.

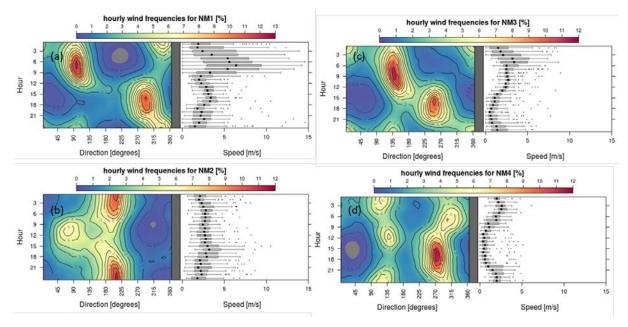


Fig. 15. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for the NM transect at <u>SRCthe Salmon River Canyon site</u>. NM1 (a) is near the ridgetop. NM4 (d) is near the canyon bottom. All data were used.

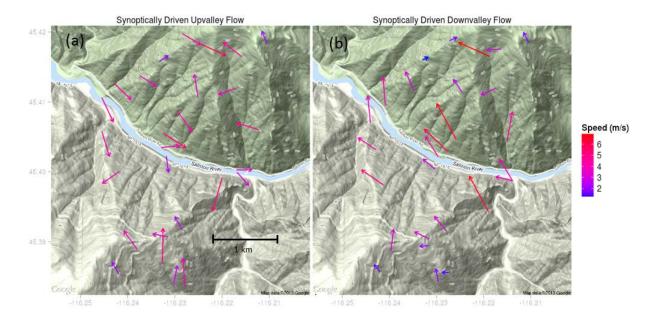


Fig. 16. Characteristic (a) synoptically driven upvalley flow (1500 LT) and (b) downvalley flow (1100 LT) at SRC-the Salmon River Canyon site during July-September 2011. Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a given sensor. Periods of weak synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging.

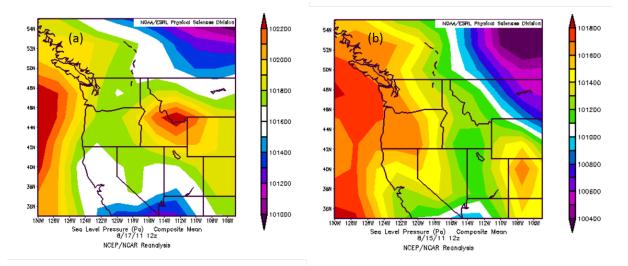


Fig. 17. Synoptic-scale surface pressure conditions conducive to (a) enhanced easterly flow and (b) typical diurnal flow scenarios at <u>SRC-the Salmon River Canyon site</u>. North American Regional Reanalysis data courtesy of National Center for Environmental Prediction.

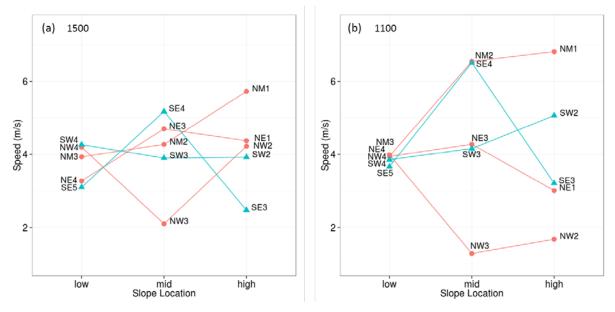


Fig. 18. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and high) along five transects during the (a) synoptically driven upvalley and (b) synoptically driven downvalley flow regimes at <u>SRCthe Salmon River Canyon site</u>. Blue and red lines are transects on the south and north side of the river, respectively.