

1 **High Resolution Observations of the Near-Surface Wind**
2 **Field over an Isolated Mountain**
3 **and**
4 **in a Steep River Canyon**

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17
18 **Abstract**

19 A number of numerical wind flow models have been developed for simulating wind
20 flow at relatively fine spatial resolutions (e.g., ~100 m); however, there are very lim-
21 ited 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 dur-
27 ing upslope flow, but generally decreased with distance upslope at the river canyon
28 site during upslope flow. In a downslope flow, wind speed did not have a consistent
29 trend with position on the isolated mountain, but generally increased with distance
30 upslope at the river canyon site. The highest measured speeds occurred during the
31 passage of frontal systems on the isolated mountain. Mountaintop winds were often
32 twice as high as wind speeds measured on the surrounding plain. The highest
33 speeds measured in the river canyon occurred during late morning hours and were
34 from easterly downcanyon flows, presumably associated with surface pressure gra-
35 dients induced by formation of a regional thermal trough to the west and high pres-
36 sure to the east. Under periods of weak synoptic forcing, surface winds tended to be
37 decoupled from large-scale flows, and under periods of strong synoptic forcing, vari-
38 ability in surface winds was sufficiently large due to terrain-induced mechanical ef-
39 fects (speed-up over ridges and decreased speeds on leeward sides of terrain obsta-
40 cles) that a large-scale mean flow would not be representative of surface winds at
41 most locations on or within the terrain feature. These findings suggest that traditional
42 operational weather model (i.e., with numerical grid resolutions of around 4 km or
43 larger) wind predictions are not likely to be good predictors of local near-surface

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

46

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.,
50 2012; Simpson et al., 2013), transport and dispersion of pollutants (Jiménez et al.,
51 2006; Grell et al., 2000), simulation of convection-driven processes (Banta, 1984;
52 Langhans et al., 2013), wind [resource assessment for applications such as wind](#) tur-
53 bine siting (Chrust et al., 2013; Palma et al., 2008), [wind forecasting \(Forthofer et al,](#)
54 [in press\)](#), and climate change impacts (Daly et al., 2010). Numerous efforts have
55 focused on improving boundary-layer flow predictions from numerical weather predic-
56 tion (NWP) models by either reducing the horizontal grid size in order to resolve the
57 effects of finer-scale topographical features on atmospheric flow (Lundquist et al.,
58 2010; Zhong and Fast, 2003) or adding new parameterizations to account for unre-
59 solved terrain features (Jiménez and Dudhia, 2012). Because NWP simulations are
60 computationally demanding and suffer from inherent limitations of terrain-following
61 coordinate systems in steep terrain (Lundquist et al., 2010), a number of high resolu-
62 tion diagnostic wind models have also been developed to downscale wind predictions
63 from NWP models in order to meet the needs of the aforementioned applications
64 (e.g., Beaucage et al., 2012). However, there are limited observational data availa-
65 ble to evaluate and improve such high resolution models. This paper describes a
66 research program in which wind data were collected at very high spatial resolution
67 under a range of meteorological conditions for two different types of complex terrain
68 features. The datasets collected enhance the archive of observational data available
69 to evaluate high resolution models. All of the data from the field program are availa-
70 ble at: <http://www.firemodels.org/index.php/windninja-introduction/windninja->
71 [publications](#).

72 Fine-scale (i.e., ~1-100 m) variations in topography and vegetation substantially
73 alter the near-surface flow field through mechanical effects, such as flow separation
74 around obstacles, enhanced turbulence from increased surface roughness and
75 speed-up over ridges, and through thermally-driven flows induced by local differential
76 surface heating in steep terrain (~~Defant, 1949, Banta, 1984; Banta and Cotton, 1982;~~
77 ~~Whiteman, 2000, Zardi and Whiteman, 2013, Chrust, et al., 2013~~~~Defant, 1949, Ban-~~
78 ~~ta, 1984; Banta and Cotton, 1982; Whiteman, 2000, Zardi and Whiteman, 2013,~~
79 ~~Chrust, et al., 2013~~). These local scale flow effects are critical for surface wind-
80 sensitive processes, such as wildland fire behavior, where the near-surface wind is
81 often the driving meteorological variable for fire rate of spread and intensity (Rother-
82 mel, 1972; Sharples et al., 2012). In order to capture these terrain-induced effects,
83 wind modeling in complex terrain requires that surface characteristics, including ter-
84 rain, vegetation, and their interactions with the atmosphere, be resolved at a high
85 spatial resolution.

86 Although diagnostic wind models do not typically employ sophisticated boundary
87 layer schemes in their flow solutions, they often incorporate parameterized algo-
88 rithms for specific boundary layer effects, such as thermally-driven winds (e.g., diur-
89 nal slope flows) and non-neutral atmospheric stability (Forthofer et al., 2009; Scire et
90 al., 2000). Evaluation of such schemes has been limited by the types of terrain fea-

91 tures and range of meteorological conditions represented in available observational
92 datasets. For example, the evaluations performed by Forthofer et al. (In Review)
93 were limited by available surface wind data in complex terrain. The two most widely
94 used datasets for evaluation of high resolution wind predictions were collected on
95 topographically-simple, low elevation hills investigated for wind energy applications
96 | [such as the site for the Askervein Hill study](#) (Berg et al., 2011; Taylor and Teunissen,
97 1987). Wind energy research has focused on relatively simple terrain because winds
98 in complicated terrain are more difficult to reliably forecast and have higher turbu-
99 lence that reduces the life of the turbines. These studies of idealized field sites have
100 produced useful data for investigating the effects of simple terrain obstructions on
101 average atmospheric flow and identifying specific deficiencies in numerical flow solu-
102 tions; however, such sites are not representative of the wide range of regions where
103 terrain-induced winds occur. As a result, these data do not provide sufficient test da-
104 ta for evaluating spatial representation of modeled flows for commonly occurring
105 types of terrain features, such as isolated terrain obstacles with complex geometries,
106 dissected montane environments, and steep river canyons. Other types of observa-
107 tional studies, such as those designed to investigate boundary layer evolution or
108 convection-driven processes, have focused on characterizing the vertical distribution
109 of wind, temperature, and moisture, but do not typically characterize the spatial vari-
110 ability in the near-surface wind field. Examples of the types of flow phenomenon that
111 are of interest for high resolution model evaluations include 1) local surface layer flow
112 decoupling from larger-scale atmospheric flow, 2) diurnal slope flows; 3) mountain-
113 valley flows; 4) mountain-plain flows; and 4) the interactions of these effects at multi-
114 ple spatial and temporal scales.

115 This study consisted of a field campaign focused on the collection of high resolu-
116 tion wind data from two different types of terrain features. Here we provide an over-
117 view of the data, with particular emphasis on the spatial characteristics of the surface
118 wind measurements, and describe some unique flow features at each site.

119 The following presents: 1) a description of two study sites exhibiting different
120 types of complex terrain features; 2) methods followed to collect detailed high resolu-
121 tion wind data over a range of meteorological conditions at each site; 3) an overview
122 of the local meteorology and predominant flow field at each site; 4) unique surface
123 flow features measured at each site; and 5) a description of how to access to the da-
124 taset. The data collected during this field campaign are used in a companion paper
125 (Wagenbrenner et al., in Preparation) to evaluate several different NWP models and
126 downscaling methods.

127 **2 Site Descriptions**

128 **2.1 Big Southern Butte (BSB)**

129 BSB is a volcanic dome cinder cone approximately 4 km wide that rises 800 m above
130 the Upper Snake River Plain (USRP) in southeastern Idaho (43.395958, -113.02257)
131 (Fig. 1). The dominant vegetation on the USRP and BSB is grass and sagebrush
132 (generally < 1 m tall), although a few north-facing slopes on the butte have some
133 isolated stands of 3-10 m tall timber. Average slopes range from 30 to 40% with
134 nearly vertical cliffs in some locations. The USRP is essentially flat terrain
135 surrounding BSB and extends more than 120 km to the north, east, south, and
136 southwest (Fig. 2). The USRP is bordered by tall mountain ranges to the northwest

137 and southeast. There are three prominent drainages (Big Lost River, Little Lost
138 River, and Birch Creek) that flow southeast onto the USRP to the north of BSB (Fig.
139 2). These mountain-valley features contribute to thermally-driven diurnal flows and
140 formation of convergence zones on the USRP. Nighttime down-drainage flows on
141 the USRP are from the northeast and daytime up-drainage flows are from the
142 southwest.

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

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

167 **2.2 Salmon River Canyon (SRC)**

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

177 **3 Instrumentation**

178 Each field site was instrumented with a network of surface wind sensors deployed
179 over a several month period (hereafter referred to as the monitoring period) and
180 supplemented with short term deployment of sonic anemometers and ground-based
181 vertical profiling instruments. Spatially dense arrays of more than 50 cup-and-vane
182 anemometers (S-WCA-M003, Onset Computer Corporation) measured wind speeds

183 and directions at 3.3 m above ground level (AGL) to characterize surface flow
184 patterns over and within the terrain features. Wind speed and direction data were
185 measured at 1 Hz and 30-second average wind speeds, peak gusts, and average
186 directions were recorded. The cup and vane has a measurement range of 0 to 44
187 m/s, accuracy of +/- 0.5 m/s and +/- 5 degrees with resolution of 0.19 m/s and 1.4
188 degrees. These surface measurements were complemented by sonic anemometers
189 (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific, Inc.; SATI/3Vx, Applied Technologies, Inc.) and vertical
190 profiling instruments (MFAS, Scintech) at select locations and times (Table 1; Fig. 1)
191 in order to provide measures of turbulence, friction velocity, and sensible heat flux in
192 near surface flows as well as to characterize flows aloft. The Campbell Scientific
193 CSAT3 sonic anemometers have a measurement rate of 1 to 60 hz, with resolution of
194 1mm/s, 0.5 mm/s and 15mm/s for uy uz and c respectively, with a direction resolution
195 of 0.06 degrees rms. The SATI/3Vx has measurement range of 0 to 20 m/s, with
196 resolution of 10 mm/s and 0.1 degrees. The Scintech MFAS samples velocities from
197 0 to 50 m/s up to 1000 m agl over 1 to 60 min averaging intervals, with horizontal
198 wind speed uncertainty of 0.3 m/s and vertical wind speed accuracy of 0.1 m/s and
199 directional uncertainty less than 1.5 degrees. Radiosonde (iMet-1, International Met
200 Systems) launches were conducted to characterize large-scale flows aloft for select
201 time periods at each site. The Imet-1 system has a maximum range of 250 km to
202 altitude of 30 km and measures air pressure, temperature, and humidity. Wind
203 speed is calculated from onboard GPS measurements. Accuracy is 0.5 hPa in
204 pressure, 0.2 C in temperature, and 5% in RH. Wind speed is accurate to within 1
205 m/s and is updated at 1 Hz. Altitude is accurate to within 15 m. Weather stations
206 (WXT520, Vaisala) measured relative humidity, air temperature, wind speed and
207 direction, solar radiation, and precipitation 2 m AGL at two locations (Table 2; Fig 1).
208 The Vaisala WXT520 measures air temperature to 60C with +/-0.3 C accuracy and
209 0.1C resolution, Wind speed is measured from 0 to 60 m/s with 0.25 s response time
210 and +/-3% accuracy in speed and 0.1 degree accuracy in direction.

211 The sampling layouts were designed to obtain measures of the upwind approach
212 flows as well as perturbations to the approach flow associated with the terrain
213 features. For each site, the extent of the sensor array covered an area that spanned
214 one to several mesoscale weather forecast grids of typical routine forecast resolution
215 (4 to 12 km) and the spatial density of the surface sensors was fine enough to
216 resolve flow patterns at the sub-grid scale (Fig. 1). Two field sites were selected to
217 represent an isolated terrain obstacle and a steep, non-forested river canyon. These
218 sites provided a range of wind conditions representative of generally dry, inland,
219 montane locations during summertime periods.

220 An array of 53 surface sensors was deployed on BSB between 15 June 2010 to 9
221 September 2010 (Fig. 1). Sensors were deployed along two transects running
222 southwest to northeast. A number of randomly located sensors were added along
223 and outside the two transects to increase the spatial coverage on and around the
224 butte. A sodar profiler was deployed 2 km southwest of the butte from 1 July to 18
225 July, 2010 and immediately northeast of the butte from 31 August to 1 September,
226 2010 (Fig. 1; Table 1). A tower of sonic anemometers was deployed 2 km southwest
227 of the butte from 14 July to 18 July, 2010 (Fig. 1; Table 1). Three RadioSonde
228 launches were conducted at BSB from 31 August to 2 September, 2010 (Table 2).

229 An array of 27 surface sensors was deployed in three cross-river transects at
230 SRC from 14 July to 13 September, 2011 (Fig 1). Sodars and sonic anemometers

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

241 Additionally, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Field
242 Research Division (NOAA-FRD) operates a permanent mesonet system that consists
243 of 35 towers spread across the USRP and encompassing the BSB study area
244 (<http://www.noaa.inel.gov/capabilities/mesonet/mesonet.htm>;
245 <http://niwc.noaa.inel.gov/>). The mesonet towers measure wind speed, wind direction,
246 air temperature, relative humidity, and solar radiation. NOAA-FRD operates a
247 permanent wind profiling system (915 MHz radar profiler) and radio acoustic
248 sounding system (RASS) at a location approximately 10 km northeast of BSB.
249 NOAA-FRD also operated a mobile Radian Model 600PA SoDAR approximately 5
250 km south of BSB and an Atmospheric Systems Corp. (ASC) Model 4000 mini SoDAR
251 15 km south of BSB 15 July to 18 July, 2010 and 31 August to 2 September, 2010.

252 **4 Analysis Methods and Terminology**

253 The data analyses presented here focus on the surface wind measurements and
254 terrain influences on the surface flow characteristics determined from these
255 measurements. All data are available in public archives as described in section 5.3.

256 **4.1 Partitioning surface data into flow regimes**

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

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

263 (2) an upslope regime, which included upslope and upvalley flows, forced by
264 daytime surface heating under weak synoptic forcing

265 (3) an afternoon regime, during which local flows were influenced by larger scale
266 flows, either through convective mixing (at BSB) or through formation of upvalley
267 drainage winds (at SRC) under weak synoptic forcing

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

271 The first three are analogous to the wind regimes described in Banta and Cotton
272 (1982) and are referred to collectively in this paper as the diurnal wind regime. The
273 diurnal wind regime persisted during periods of weak synoptic forcing. The fourth
274 regime was included here as the field sites investigated in this study frequently

275 experienced periods of intense large-scale synoptic forcing which generated high
276 surface wind speeds and sufficient mechanical mixing to overcome the diurnal flow
277 regime.

278 The following procedure was used to partition the surface data into these flow
279 regimes. First, periods during which the wind speed exceeded a threshold wind
280 speed at a surface sensor chosen to be representative of the large-scale flow at each
281 site were partitioned into regime (4). Threshold wind speeds were selected for each
282 site based on visual inspection of the wind speed time series data for the chosen
283 sensors. Thresholds were selected to be speeds that were just above the typical
284 daily peak speed for the chosen sensors. In other words, the threshold speed was
285 only exceeded when synoptic forcing disrupted the typical diurnal wind regime at a
286 given site. Speeds below the threshold are indicative of periods of weak synoptic
287 forcing, during which the diurnal wind regime prevails. Sensors R2 and NM1 were
288 chosen to be the representative sensors at BSB and SRC, respectively. R2 was
289 located on the USRP approximately 5 km southwest of the butte. NM1 was located
290 on the north side of the SRC at 1530 m ASL, roughly three-quarters of the distance
291 from the canyon bottom to the ridgetop. These sensors were chosen because they
292 appeared to be the least influenced by the terrain and most representative of the
293 gradient level winds. Threshold velocities of 6 and 5 m s⁻¹ were chosen for BSB and
294 SRC, respectively (Fig 3). Speeds below these thresholds fall within the range of
295 diurnal wind flows reported in the literature (Horst and Doran, 1986) and visual
296 inspection of the vector maps further confirmed this choice of threshold wind speeds,
297 as all four regimes were clearly identified by the surface flow patterns at each site.

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

305

306 **4.2 Data Averaging**

307 Surface wind observations were averaged over a 10-min period at the top of each
308 hour to represent an average speed valid at the top of each hour. This averaging
309 scheme was chosen to be representative of wind speeds from NWP forecasts.
310 Although NWP output is valid at a particular instant in time, there is some inherent
311 averaging in these ‘instantaneous’ predictions. The averaging associated with a
312 given prediction depends on the time-step and grid spacing used in the NWP model,
313 but is typically on the order of minutes. The 10-min averages are referred to in the
314 text as ‘hourly’ data.

315 Hourly vector maps were used to visualize the spatial patterns of the wind fields
316 for classifying flow regimes. The vector maps were produced by partitioning the
317 hourly data into one of two categories: (1) strong synoptic forcing or (2) weak
318 synoptic forcing (i.e., diurnal winds dominate), and then averaging the hourly data
319 (for each sensor) within each category over the entire monitoring period. The result
320 is an hourly average wind vector at each sensor location for each flow category. For

321 example, a vector map for 1300 under weak synoptic forcing would be produced by
322 filtering out the periods of strong synoptic forcing and then averaging all hourly flow
323 data for the 1300 hour at each sensor over the entire monitoring period. Partitioning
324 of data into weak vs. strong synoptic forcing was described in Section 4.1.

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

328

329 **5 Results and Discussion**

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

340

341 **5.1 BSB**

342 **5.1.1 Diurnal Winds: Upslope, Afternoon, and Downslope Regimes**

343 Sunrise ranged from 0600 to 0700 during the monitoring period. Upslope winds
344 formed between 0800 and 0900 and the upslope regime was fully established by
345 1000 and persisted until around 1200. Upslope winds peaked around 1100. This
346 regime was characterized by thermally-driven upslope winds on all sides of the butte
347 flowing up from the surrounding SRP (Fig 4). The timing of onset and occurrence of
348 peak winds in the upslope regime was consistent with Banta and Cotton (1982) and
349 Geerts et al. (2008), who reported peaks in upslope flow before local solar noon
350 (LSN) for relatively small mountains. Others have reported later peaks in upslope
351 flow after LSN for larger mountain ranges (McNider and Pielke, 1981; Reiter and
352 Tang, 1984). Geerts et al. (2008) discussed this discrepancy in the reported timing
353 of upslope flows for different mountain ranges and described the development of
354 upslope winds as scaling with the size of the mountain. BSB is a relatively small iso-
355 lated mountain (by Geerts et al. (2008) terminology; horizontal scale of ~5 km and
356 vertical scale of ~800 m above the surrounding SRP), and so establishment of the
357 upslope regime prior to LSN fits with this scaling theory. Upslope flows persisted
358 about two hours longer than those at the South Park site in Colorado reported by
359 Banta and Cotton (1982). This difference could be attributed to the upwind terrain,
360 as westerly flows from the Rocky Mountains at the South Park Site were likely more
361 turbulent than the southwesterly flows approaching BSB from the SRP, and perhaps
362 were able to more quickly entrain the developing convective boundary layer (CBL) at
363 South Park.

364 Wind speeds in the upslope regime ranged from 1.8 to 7.3 m s⁻¹, with an average
365 of 3.1 m s⁻¹ (Table 3). There were a few ridgetop sensors which appeared to be de-
366 coupled from the diurnal flow regime on the butte (discussed in detail at the end of
367 this section); if these sensors are removed, the wind speeds ranged from 1.8 to 4.5
368 m s⁻¹, with an average of 3.0 m s⁻¹. These are higher speeds than those reported
369 by Geerts et al. (2008), but similar to the range reported by Banta and Cotton (1982).
370 Differences in the reported range of speeds between this study and Geerts et al.
371 (2008) could be attributed to differences in the actual quantities reported. Geerts et
372 al. (2008) used an averaging scheme to calculate a mean anabatic wind that is a
373 function of the circumference of the polygon obtained by connecting the midpoints
374 between observation stations around the mountain. Also, their wind measurements
375 were made at 10 m AGL, while ours were made at 3.3 m AGL. Upslope wind speeds
376 were typically higher further up the slopes than lower on the butte (Fig. 5a; Fig 6).
377 Ridgetop sensors also appeared to be less coupled with the diurnal flow regime on
378 the butte and more correlated with the large-scale flows; this is confirmed by contour
379 plots of wind direction over time (Fig. 6) and is discussed in further detail at the end
380 of this section.

381 Upslope winds transitioned to the afternoon regime between 1200 and 1300.
382 This transition is most notable by an increase in wind speeds on the southwest side
383 of the butte and a shift in the wind directions on the northeast side of the butte (Fig.
384 4). This regime included local flows that generally correlated with the gradient level
385 winds above the ridgetops due to convective mixing in the deep afternoon boundary
386 layer. Convective mixing was fully established by 1400 and persisted until around
387 2000. Wind speeds peaked around 1500 and were fairly consistent through 1900.
388 The onset of the afternoon regime was slightly later in the day than that reported by
389 Banta and Cotton (1982) which could be due to less turbulent approach flow at BSB
390 as discussed above. During the afternoon regime, the prevailing southwesterly flow
391 was routed around the northwest and southeast sides of the butte (e.g., sensors R9
392 and R13). Wind speeds were highest on the ridgetops and southwest slopes and
393 lowest on the northeast slopes (Fig. 4). There was some apparent recirculation on
394 the northeast side of the butte as well as in some of the side drainages (Fig. 4).
395 Wind speeds in the afternoon regime ranged from 2.3 m s⁻¹ to 8.1 m s⁻¹ with an av-
396 erage of 4.1 m s⁻¹.

397 Sunset ranged from 2030 to 2130 during the monitoring period. The afternoon
398 regime began to decay and transition into downslope winds between 2100 and 2200.
399 The downslope regime was fully established by 2300 and persisted until around
400 0800. Peak downslope winds occurred around 0000. The timing of onset and occur-
401 rence of peak winds in the downslope regime agreed with observations reported in
402 Banta and Cotton (1982). Downslope flows are clearly shown in the hourly vector
403 plots, with flows going from the top of the butte down all side drainages around the
404 butte and flowing out onto the SRP (Fig. 4). Wind speeds in the downslope regime
405 ranged from 1.3 to 12.0 m s⁻¹, with an average of 3.7 m s⁻¹. If the decoupled ridge-
406 top sensors are removed, the range was 1.3 to 7.5 m s⁻¹, with an average of 3.4 m s⁻¹
407 (Table 3). This range is similar to that reported in Banta and Cotton (1982) and
408 slightly larger than that reported in Horst and Doran (1986). Others have proposed
409 an acceleration of flow with downslope distance due to thickening of the katabatic
410 layer from entrainment of ambient air into the slope flow and increased buoyancy def-
411 icit with downslope distance (Horst and Doran, 1986); however, we did not observe a

412 consistent trend in wind speed with location on the slope (low vs. high) during the
413 downslope regime (Fig. 5b).

414 Diurnal winds dominated the local flows on and around the butte under periods of
415 weak synoptic forcing. During these periods, flow on and around BSB was decou-
416 pled from the large-scale atmospheric flows, except for high elevation ridgetop sen-
417 sors (R26, R35, TSW7) and one exposed mid- elevation ridge sensor (R15). This
418 decoupling is evident from the vector maps (Fig. 4) and is also confirmed by the con-
419 tour plots which show that these ridgetop locations do not experience the strong di-
420 urnal shifts in wind direction that other locations on and around the butte experience
421 (Fig. 6, 7). This ridgetop decoupling likely occurred because these locations were
422 high enough in the atmosphere to protrude out of the nocturnal boundary layer (NBL)
423 and the morning-time developing shallow CBL. Thus, the ridgetop winds were cou-
424 pled with the large-scale flows during all periods of the day. During nighttime hours
425 the ridgetop locations would experience residual layer winds and would only be cou-
426 pled with the rest of the flow on and around the butte once the residual layer was en-
427 trained by the growing shallow CBL and the convective mixing regime was fully es-
428 tablished. This proposed structure is confirmed by the vector plots, which show that
429 ridgetop winds did not change much from one regime to the next and only correlated
430 with winds at other nearby locations on the butte during the convective mixing regime
431 (Fig. 4).

432 5.1.2 Synoptic Disturbance of Diurnal Winds

433 Under periods of strong synoptic forcing, such as the passage of a cold front, the di-
434 urnal wind regime was disrupted and a synoptically-forced regime persisted. Two
435 types of flow events occurred within the synoptically-forced regime, one with south-
436 westerly flow and one with northeasterly flow (Fig. 8). The diurnal slope flows on
437 BSB were completely overtaken by the larger scale flows in this regime (Fig 8 vs. Fig.
438 4). During these events, daytime winds were consistently from the southwest, but in
439 a few cases, during nighttime and early morning hours, winds were from the north-
440 east (Fig. 8).

441 The southwest flows are referred to as ‘synoptically driven upvalley’ flows and the
442 northeasterly flows are referred to as ‘synoptically driven downvalley’ flows. Synopti-
443 cally driven upvalley flows were generally associated with the passage of cold fronts
444 from the west/southwest. Evolution of the synoptically driven downvalley flows is
445 more complex and some potential mechanisms are described below. Wind speeds
446 during the synoptically driven upvalley flows ranged from 2.9 to 20.3 m s⁻¹, with an
447 average of 7.1 m s⁻¹; the downvalley flow speeds ranged from 0.1 to 24.4 m s⁻¹, with
448 an average of 6.0 m s⁻¹. The synoptically driven downvalley (northeasterly) flows
449 occurred less frequently than the synoptically driven upvalley (southwesterly) flow
450 events; however, 4 distinct nighttime northeasterly flow events were observed during
451 the monitoring period.

452 There are at least three potential mechanisms which may have contributed to the
453 synoptically driven downvalley events that we observed. One mechanism is related to
454 the SPCZ described in section 2.1. Mechanical channeling of the gradient level
455 winds by the surrounding terrain to the north and strong southwesterly flows on the
456 SRP can create an SPCZ-like convergence zone with strong upvalley winds to the
457 south of the zone and strong downvalley winds to the north of the zone. Winds at
458 BSB could be southwesterly or northeasterly depending on which side of the conver-

459 gence zone it was on. A second mechanism is based on observations from the NO-
460 AA mesonet suggesting that during summer months SPCZ-like events occur in asso-
461 ciation with the passage of fronts or thunderstorm activity in the mountains to the
462 north. The former will often generate strong outflows through the northern valleys
463 onto the SRP, and the latter will sometimes generate outflow gust fronts. A third
464 possibility is that surface pressure gradients, in some cases, may have contributed to
465 the northeasterly flows. Two of the observed synoptically driven down valley flow
466 events occurred during periods where there was a strong northeast to southwest sur-
467 face pressure gradient which could have facilitated the flow; however, the other two
468 observed synoptically driven downvalley events did not occur during periods of fa-
469 vorable surface pressure gradients, so although surface pressure may be an influ-
470 ence, it was not the sole cause of these strong downvalley flow events. It is possible
471 that any of these three mechanisms may have contributed to the observed downval-
472 ley flows on BSB.

473 It is interesting that during periods of synoptically driven downvalley flows wind
474 speeds were generally higher on the southwest (leeward) side of BSB than on the
475 northeast (windward) side. Perhaps this is because the maximum in the synoptically
476 driven downvalley flow occurred at some higher elevation and was not well-mixed
477 with near-surface winds due to nighttime temperature stratification in the NBL. This
478 stratified flow could have become mixed into the surface flow at the ridgetops and
479 pulled down the southwest side of BSB. The northeasterly flow also would have
480 been enhanced by the nighttime downslope flow on the southwest side of BSB, thus
481 producing stronger winds on this side as compared to the northeast (windward side),
482 where the downslope flow would be in opposition (southwesterly) to the northeasterly
483 flow.

484

485 **5.2 SRC**

486 **5.2.1 Diurnal Winds: Upslope, Afternoon, and Downslope Regimes**

487 Sunrise ranged from 0500 to 0630 during the monitoring period at SRC. Upslope
488 winds formed around 0900 and were fully established by 1000, peaked around 1200
489 and persisted until around 1500. The upslope regime was characterized by thermal-
490 ly-driven upslope winds on both sides of the canyon as well as up smaller side drain-
491 age slopes (Fig. 9). The one notable exception was sensor NM2, which experienced
492 easterly or southeasterly flow during most periods of the day (Fig. 9). We believe this
493 sensor was perhaps located in a local recirculation zone formed in the small side
494 drainage; this is discussed at the end of this section. Wind speeds in the upslope
495 regime ranged from 0.75 to 4.0 m s⁻¹, with an average of 2.4 m s⁻¹ (Table 3).

496 Wind speeds tended to be highest at the upper elevation sensors around the on-
497 set of the upslope regime at 0900 (Fig. 10). As the upslope regime developed, wind
498 speeds peaked around 1100 and were highest at the mid elevation sensors (Fig. 10)
499 and this trend continued through 1300. The NW and SE transects do not follow
500 these trends. The NW transect had consistently lower speeds at the mid elevation
501 sensor during all periods of the upslope regime. This could be because NW3 was
502 located slightly off of the ridge on a northwest aspect and perhaps decoupled from
503 the flow along the rest of the NW transect. The SE transect had consistently higher

504 speeds at the mid elevation sensor (SE4). The higher speeds at SE4 could be be-
505 cause this sensor was located on a ridge exposed to a prominent side drainage
506 (Lake Creek) just to the east of our study area (Fig. 1). Flows out of this Lake Creek
507 drainage could have influenced this sensor more than others along the SE transect
508 due to its location on the ridge and steep terrain to the southeast (Fig. 1).

509 We did not observe afternoon convective mixing at SRC as we did at BSB. This
510 is consistent with Banta and Cotton (1982) who noted that a true convective mixing
511 regime is not well documented in narrow mountain canyons, likely due to the strong
512 channeling effect exerted by the canyon on the flow. The afternoon regime at SRC
513 was characterized by a change from upslope to upvalley winds around 1500. This
514 afternoon upvalley regime was fully established by 1600 and persisted through 1900.
515 The most notable change between the upslope regime and the afternoon regime was
516 the shift in wind direction from up the canyon walls (northerly or southerly flow) to
517 upriver (westerly flow), especially for the lower elevation sensors. Daytime gradient
518 level winds were typically from the west (upriver winds), so it could be difficult to de-
519 termine if this afternoon shift in wind direction was driven by convective mixing of
520 gradient level winds down into the canyon or the formation of thermally-driven upval-
521 ley flow within the canyon. The fact that this change in wind direction was most no-
522 table in the lower elevation sensors (Fig. 9) points to a thermally-driven mechanism.
523 Wind speeds were fairly consistent throughout this time period and ranged from 0.92
524 to 4.2 m s⁻¹, with an average of 2.5 m s⁻¹ (Table 3). Wind speeds were the lowest
525 near the canyon bottom except for the SE and NW transects, which had the lowest
526 speeds at high and mid elevation sensors (SE3 and NW3). Both of these sensors
527 were located slightly off of the main ridge. It is interesting that the lowest sensors
528 responded most noticeably to the shift from upslope to upvalley flow with a change in
529 wind direction, but that the highest speeds were still observed at the upper elevation
530 sensors.

531 Sunset ranged from 1900 to 2030 during the monitoring period. Upvalley flow
532 began to weaken and transition to downslope flow between 2000 and 2100. The
533 downslope regime was fully established by 2200 and persisted until around 0700.
534 Peak wind speeds in the downslope regime occurred around 2200. Wind speeds in
535 the downslope flow regime ranged from 0.33 to 4.1 m s⁻¹, with an average of 1.2 m
536 s⁻¹ (Table 3). Wind speeds tended to increase with upslope distance (Fig. 11), with
537 the exception of the SE transect, likely due to the location of SE3 and SE4 as dis-
538 cussed above. This trend was consistent throughout the duration of the downslope
539 regime.

540 Diurnal trends were further inspected for the NM transect because it was not lo-
541 cated near any prominent side drainages and likely exhibited the simplest flow char-
542 acteristics. Contour plots show a strong diurnal signal for all sensors in this transect
543 (Fig. 12), indicating that diurnal flows are a major flow feature in the SRC. Winds
544 were from the east/southeast in the early morning and from the west/northwest in the
545 afternoon and the highest speeds occurred at the upper elevation sensors during
546 early morning hours. One exception was the NM2 sensor, which rarely experienced
547 winds from the west/northwest and did not experience a morning time peak in wind
548 speed. This sensor was located slightly off of a mid-slope ridge on a slope with a
549 northwest aspect. We suspect that this location was possibly a zone of recirculation.
550 The lowest sensor, NM4, also did not experience a morning peak in wind speed and
551 rarely experienced winds from the northeast. The highest speeds occurred during

552 periods of synoptic disturbance, which we believe had more of an effect at upper ele-
553 levations in the SRC than lower ones near the river bottom. This is discussed further
554 in the next section.

555

556 5.2.2 Synoptic Disturbance of Diurnal Winds

557 Two types of synoptic disturbances to the diurnal wind regime in the SRC were ob-
558 served (Fig. 13). One is associated with the passage of frontal systems from the
559 west, which brings strong westerly gradient winds. The other appears to be associ-
560 ated with the presence of an east-west pressure gradient that generates strong
561 morning-time easterly flow. During the passage of frontal systems, westerly winds
562 are channeled up the river canyon and most sensors in SRC (with the exception of
563 those located in side drainages) experienced westerly flow. These events tended to
564 occur during mid-afternoon hours. Wind speeds during this type of synoptic disturb-
565 ance ranged from 2.1 to 5.7 m s⁻¹, with an average of 3.8 m s⁻¹.

566 The highest observed wind speeds in the SRC were from the east during morning
567 hours (Fig. 12, 13). Wind speeds during these pressure-driven downvalley events
568 ranged from 0.84 to 9.1 m s⁻¹, with an average of 3.1 m s⁻¹. These events occurred
569 roughly every few days and appeared to be induced by a surface pressure gradient
570 formed when a thermal trough existed on the Columbia Plateau to the northwest of
571 SRC and high pressure existed to the east of SRC (Fig. 14). An east-west surface
572 pressure gradient existed on days when enhanced downvalley flow was observed.
573 On days when the downvalley flow feature was not observed, there was no east-west
574 surface pressure gradient. The highest wind speeds during this type of flow event
575 were observed at the upper elevations of the SRC (Fig. 15). The east-west surface
576 pressure gradient coupled with the typical nighttime/early morning katabatic flow in
577 the canyon resulted in very strong downvalley winds in the SRC. This pressure-
578 enhanced katabatic surface flow tended to be decoupled from the larger-scale gradi-
579 ent flow (which is typically from the west) during these pressure-driven events.

580 5.3 Archived Data

581 All data are archived as downloadable SQLite databases. Access to these
582 databases along with tools to query, process, and visualize, the data is described at
583 <http://www.firemodels.org/index.php/windninja-introduction/windninja-publications>.
584 Descriptions of the NOAA mesonet data and contact information regarding mesonet
585 data are found at <http://www.noaa.inel.gov/capabilities/mesonet/mesonet.htm> and
586 <http://niwc.noaa.inel.gov/> and <http://niwc.noaa.inel.gov/>.

587 (6)

588

589 6 Conclusions

590 We have presented an analysis of two high-resolution surface wind datasets, one
591 collected from a tall isolated mountain, and the other from a steep river canyon. The
592 wind data were analyzed and presented in terms of four flow regimes: upslope, after-
593 noon, downslope, and a synoptically-driven regime. These datasets constitute a
594 unique inventory of surface wind measurements at very high spatial resolution under

595 dry summertime conditions. Public access to the archived datasets has been de-
596 scribed.

597 Surface winds on and around BSB were completely decoupled from large-scale
598 flows during upslope and downslope flow regimes, except for the highest elevation
599 ridgetop sensors. These ridgetop locations at BSB tended to correlate better with
600 gradient-level winds than with the local diurnal surface flows. Surface winds in SRC
601 were decoupled from large-scale flows except during periods of strong synoptic forc-
602 ing that enhanced either upriver or downriver flows.

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

609 The highest speeds measured at BSB occurred during the passage of frontal sys-
610 tems which generated strong southwesterly flows and during infrequent strong
611 northwesterly flows presumably generated through SPCZ-like dynamics, thunder-
612 storm outflows, or surface pressure gradients. Ridgetop winds were often twice as
613 high as surface wind speeds measured on the surrounding SRP. The highest
614 speeds measured at SRC occurred during late morning hours and were from easterly
615 flows presumably produced by surface pressure gradients induced by formation of a
616 thermal trough over the Columbia Plateau to the NW and high pressure to the east.
617 The highest wind speeds during these pressure-driven easterly flow events were
618 measured at the mid to high elevation sensors.

619 These results have important implications for modeling near-surface winds in
620 complex terrain. The fact that surface winds at both sites tended to be decoupled
621 from large-scale flows under periods of weak synoptic forcing suggests that tradition-
622 al operational weather model winds (i.e., with numerical grid resolutions of around 4
623 km or larger) are not likely to be good predictors of local winds in sub-grid scale
624 complex terrain. Under periods of strong synoptic forcing, variability in surface winds
625 was sufficiently large due to terrain-induced mechanical effects (speed-up over
626 ridges and decreased speeds on leeward sides of terrain obstacles), that a mean
627 wind for a 4 km grid cell encompassing these terrain features would not be repre-
628 sentative of actual surface winds at most locations on or within the terrain feature.
629 The findings from this work along with the additional archived data and available
630 mesonet data at BSB should provide guidance for future development and evaluation
631 of high-resolution wind models and integrated parameterizations, such as for simulat-
632 ing diurnal slope flows and non-neutral atmospheric stability effects.

633

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644

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734 | subkilometer resolution using VTMX field campaign data in the Salt Lake valley.
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736 |

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

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
NOAA1	BSB	Sodar	Radian 600PA	14 Jul–19 Jul 2010	30-min
		Radar	Radian 3000	LAP-14 Jul–19 Jul 2010	30-min
NOAA2	BSB	Sodar	ASC 4000	14 Jul–19 Jul 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

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

739

740 Table 2. Radiosonde launches at BSB and SRC. Times are LT.

<u>Site¹</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Time of launch</u>
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

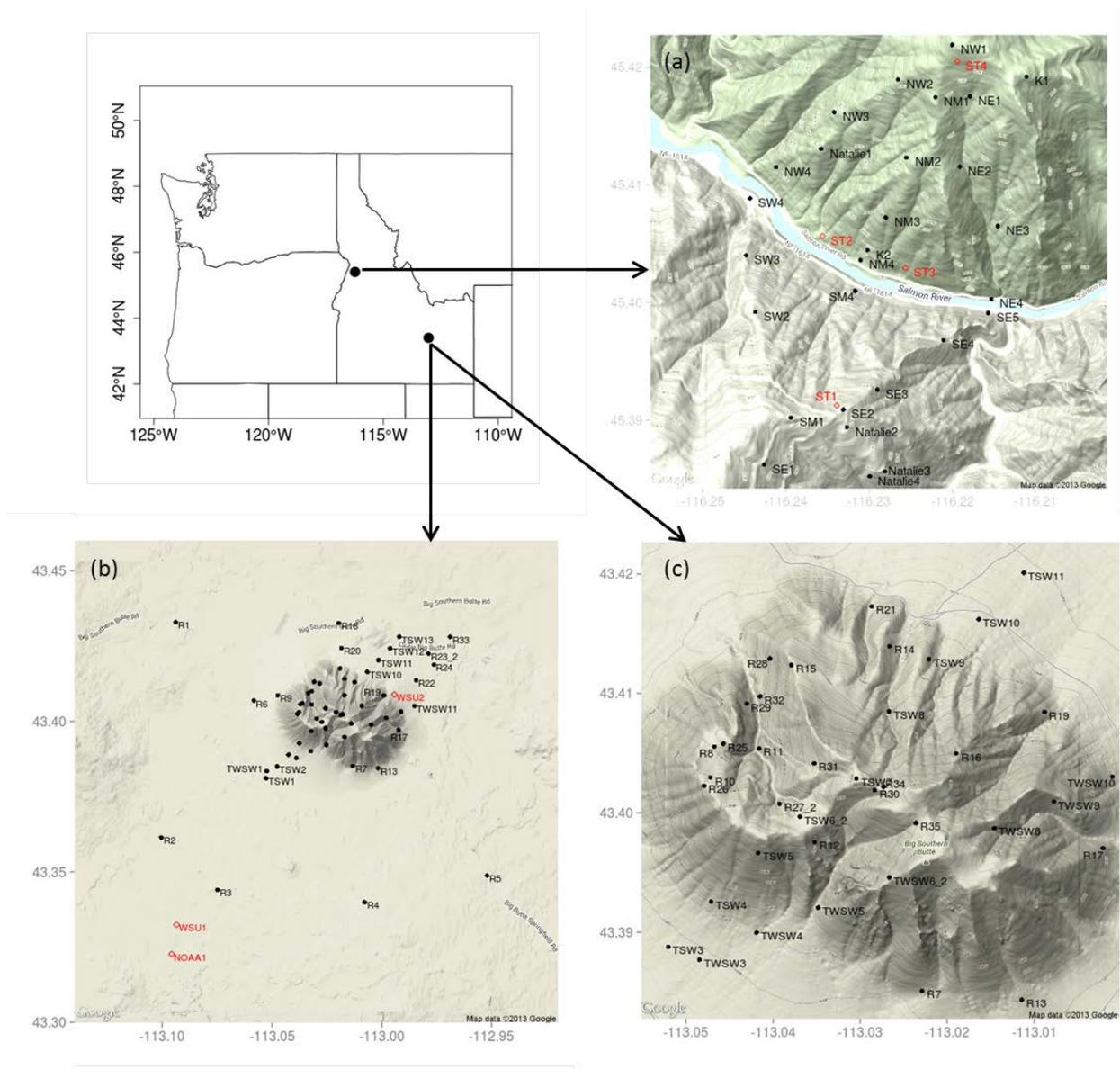
741 ¹ BSB = Big Southern Butte; SRC = Salmon River Canyon.

742

743 Table 3. Measured wind speeds (m s^{-1}) during upslope, downslope, and convective
 744 mixing regimes at Big Southern Butte (BSB) and Salmon River Canyon (SRC).
 745 Decoupled ridgetop locations (sensors R26, R35, TSW7, and R15) were omitted
 746 from BSB averages; speeds in parentheses include ridgetop sensors.

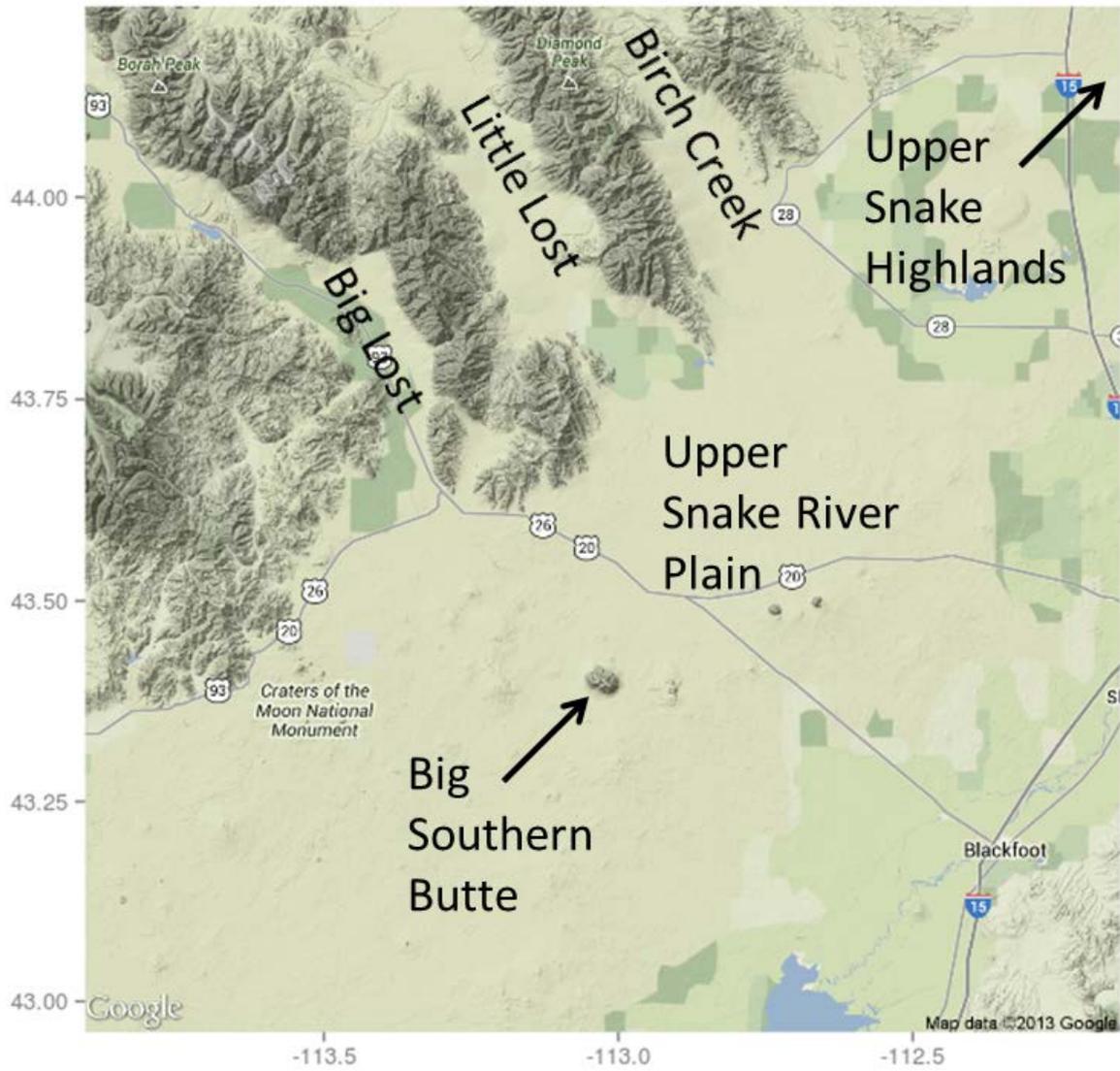
Site	Wind Speed	Upslope (1100 LT)	Afternoon (1600 LT)	Downslope (0000 LT)
BSB	Min (m s^{-1})	1.8	2.3	1.3
	Max (m s^{-1})	4.5 (7.3)	8.1	7.5 (12.0)
	Mean (m s^{-1})	3.0 (3.1)	4.1	3.4 (3.7)
SRC	Min (m s^{-1})	0.75	0.92	0.33
	Max (m s^{-1})	4.0	4.2	4.1
	Mean (m s^{-1})	2.4	2.5	1.2

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Fig. 1. Site overview and sensor layouts at the Salmon River Canyon (a) and Big Southern Butte (b, c). Black circles indicate surface sensors. Red diamonds indicate sonic anemometers and vertical profiling sensors.

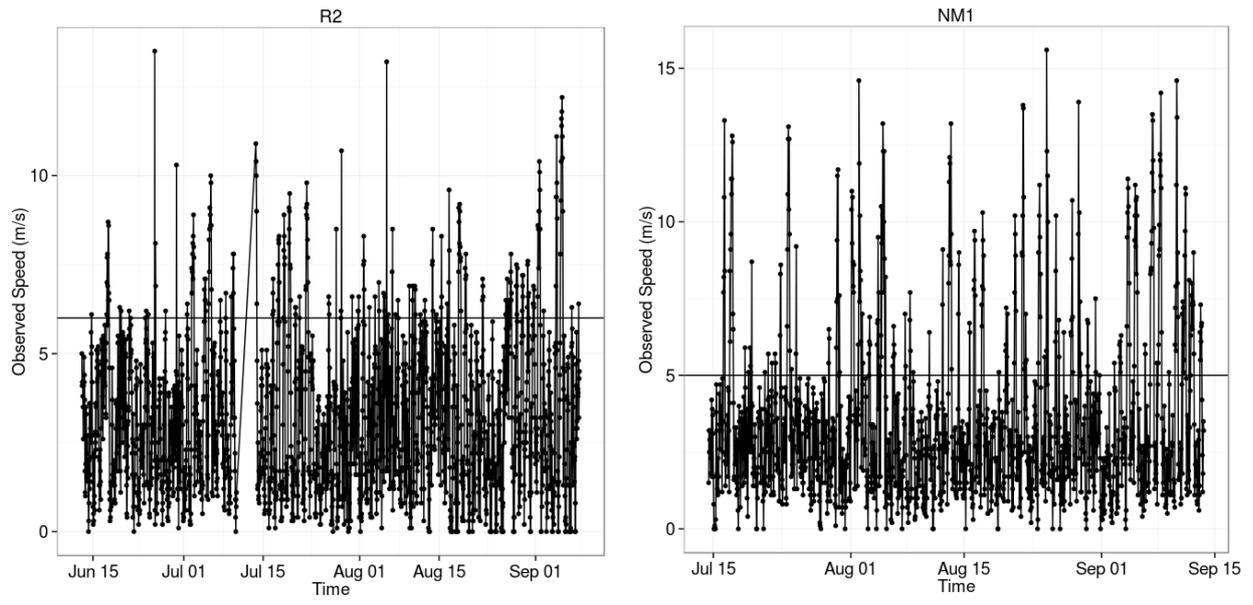


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755 Fig. 2. Snake River Plain and prominent drainages surrounding the BSB study site.

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757



758

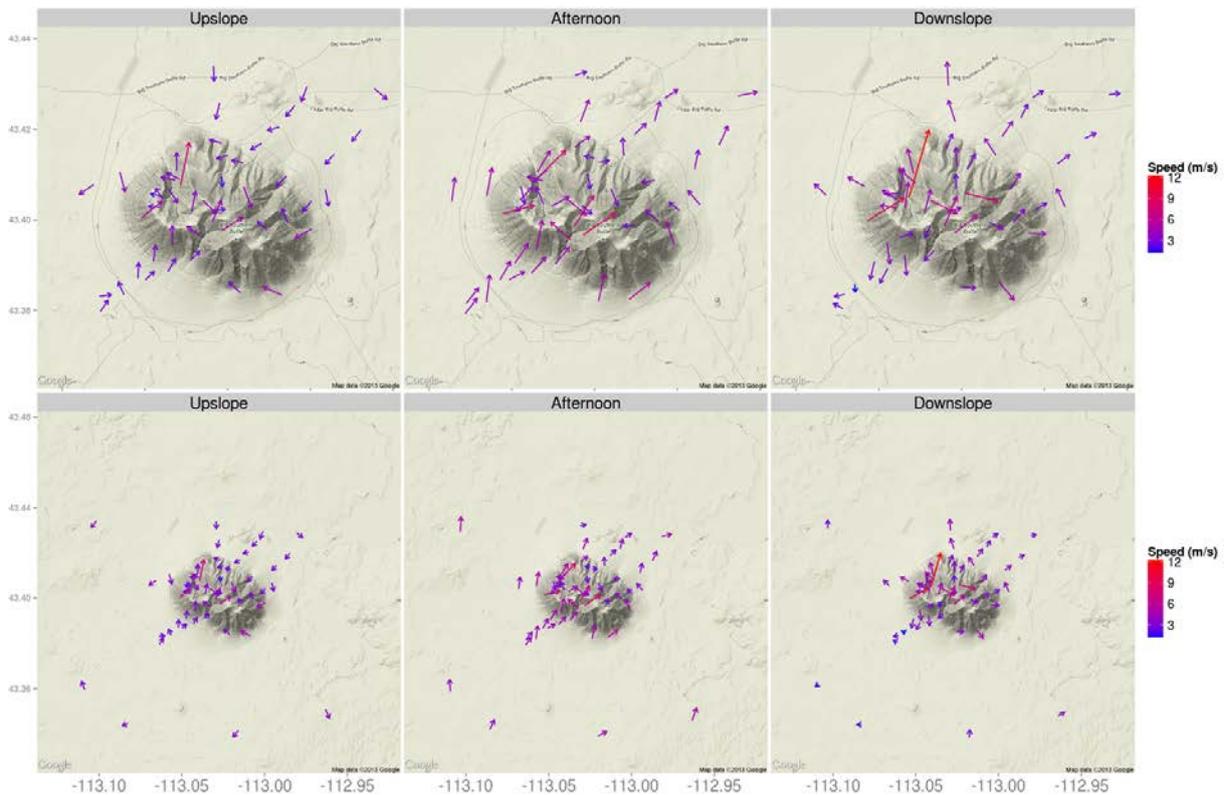
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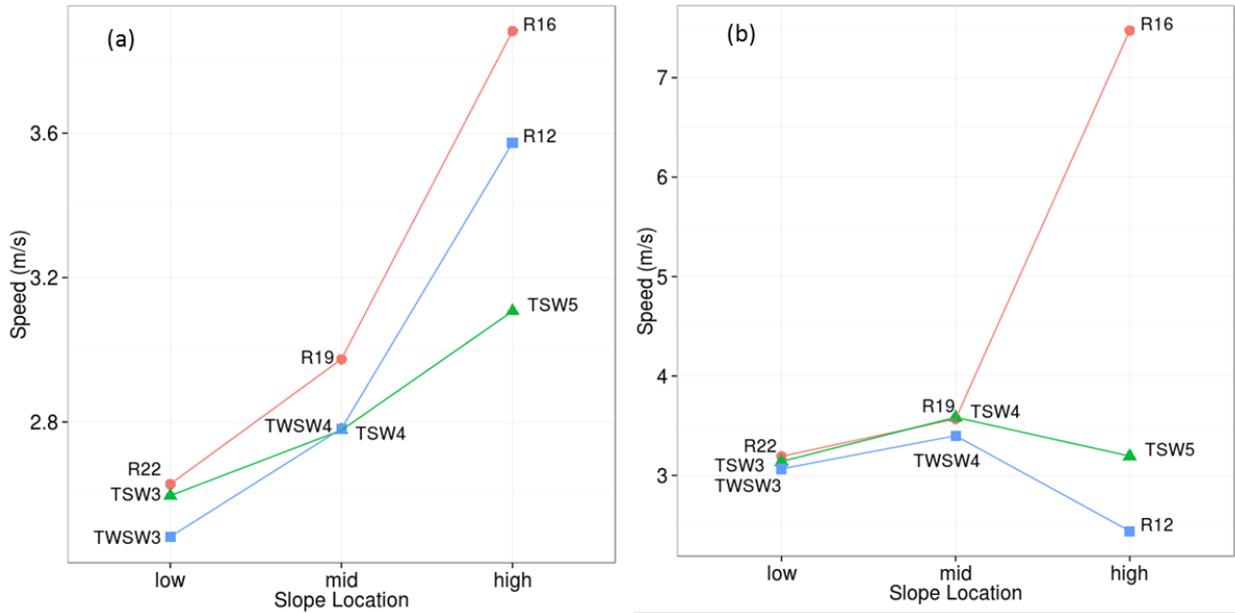
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Fig. 3. Observed hourly wind speeds for R2 at BSB and NM1 at SRC. The horizontal line indicates the threshold speed chosen to partition synoptically driven events from diurnal events.



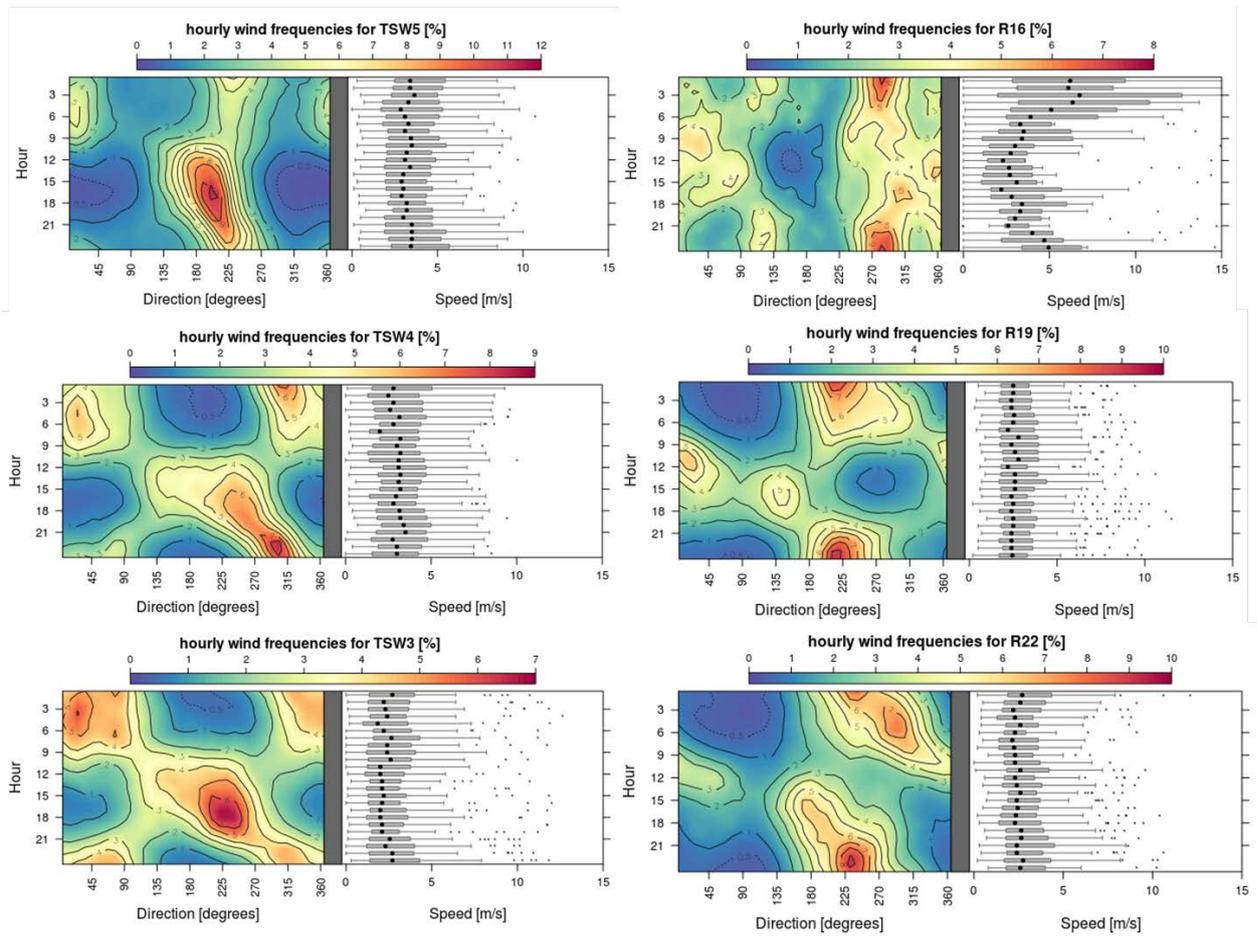
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Fig. 4. Upslope (1100 LT) (left images), afternoon (1600 LT) (center images), and downslope (0000 LT) (right images) flow regimes at BSB during periods of weak synoptic flow between June-September 2010. Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a given sensor. Vectors are centered on sensor locations. Periods of strong synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging. Upper strip is zoomed in on the butte. Lower strip is zoomed out to show entire study area.



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Fig. 5. 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 BSB.



776

777 Fig. 6. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for

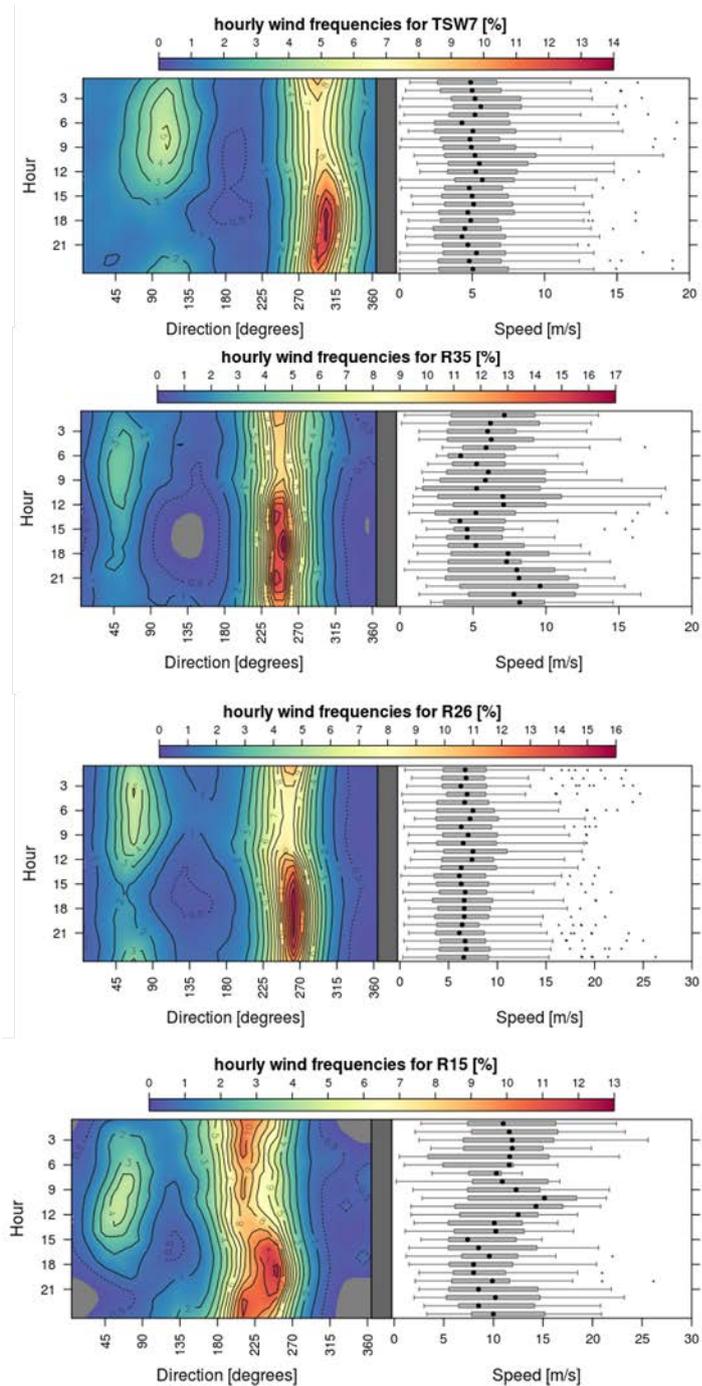
778 a transect on the southwest slope of Big Southern Butte (left panels) and a transect

779 on the northeast slope of Big Southern Butte (right panels). Panels are ordered from

780 higher elevation sensors (top panels) to lower elevation sensors (bottom panels).

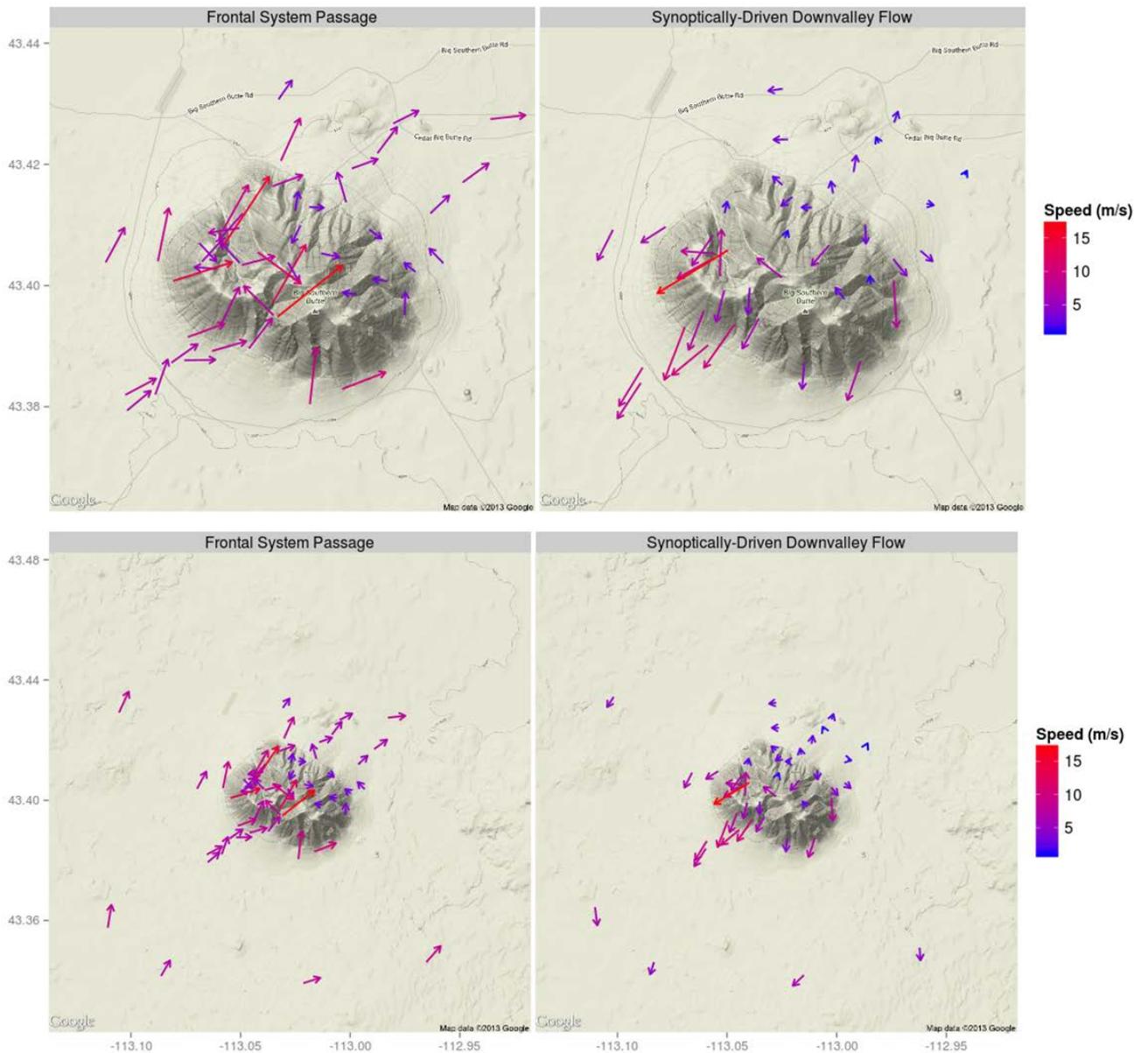
781 Periods of synoptic forcing were removed from this data.

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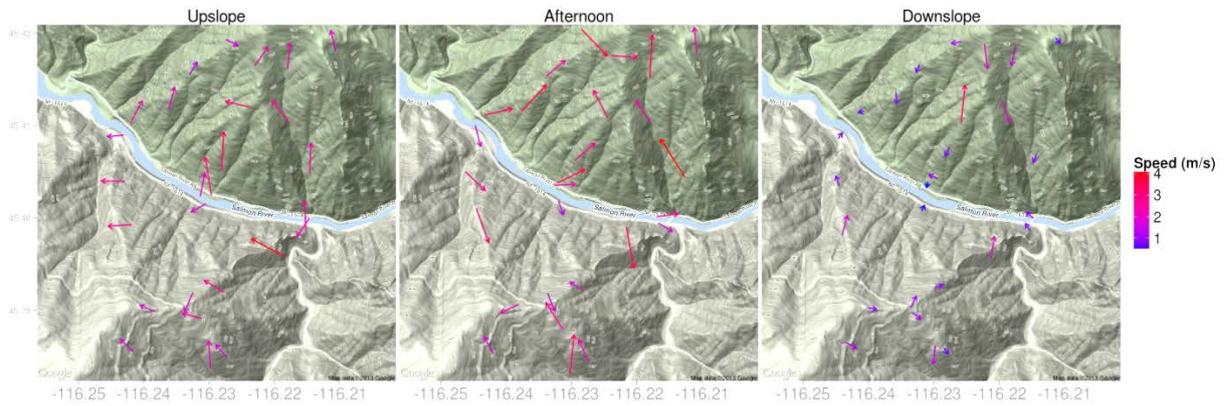
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Fig. 7. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for four ridgetop locations at Big Southern Butte. Periods of strong synoptic forcing were removed from this data.



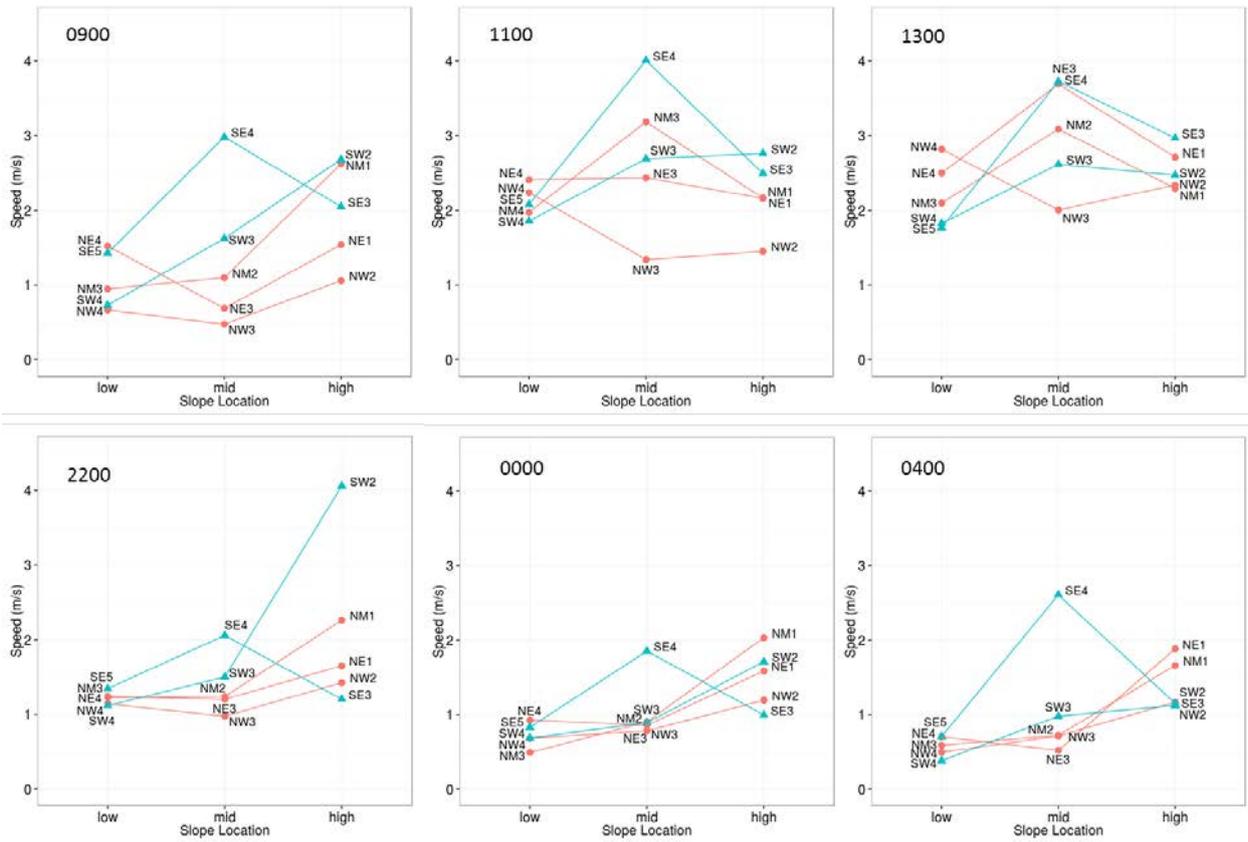
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789 Fig. 8. Characteristic synoptically-driven regime events during the passage of a
 790 frontal system (1800 LT) (left images) and during synoptically-enhanced downvalley
 791 flow on the Snake River Plain (2300 LT) (right images) at BSB during June-
 792 September 2010. Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a given sensor.
 793 Periods of weak synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging. Lower strip is
 794 zoomed out to show entire study area.
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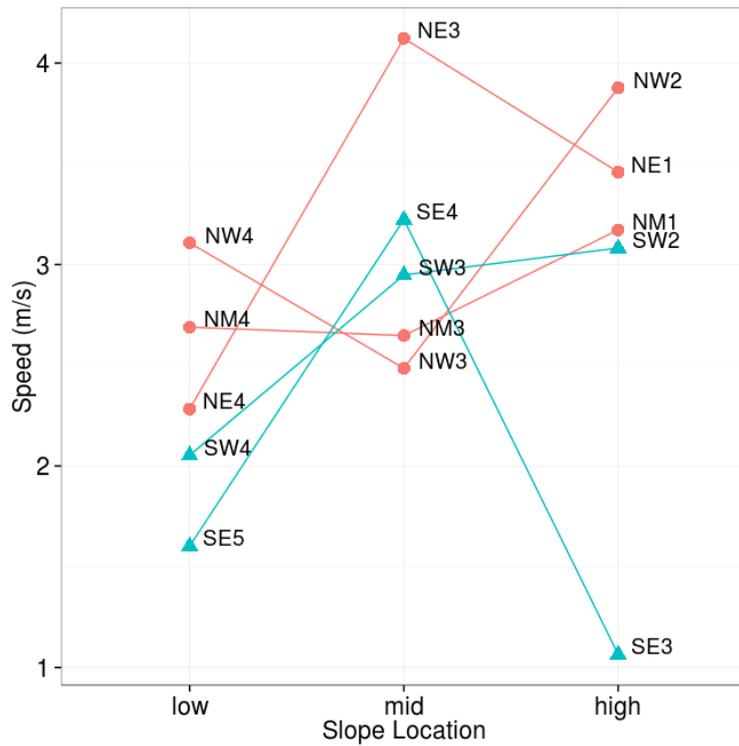
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797 Fig. 9. Upslope (left image) (1100 LT), afternoon (middle image) (1600 LT), and
 798 downslope (right image) (0000 LT) regimes at SRC during periods of weak synoptic
 799 flow between July-September 2011. Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a
 800 given sensor. Periods of strong synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging.
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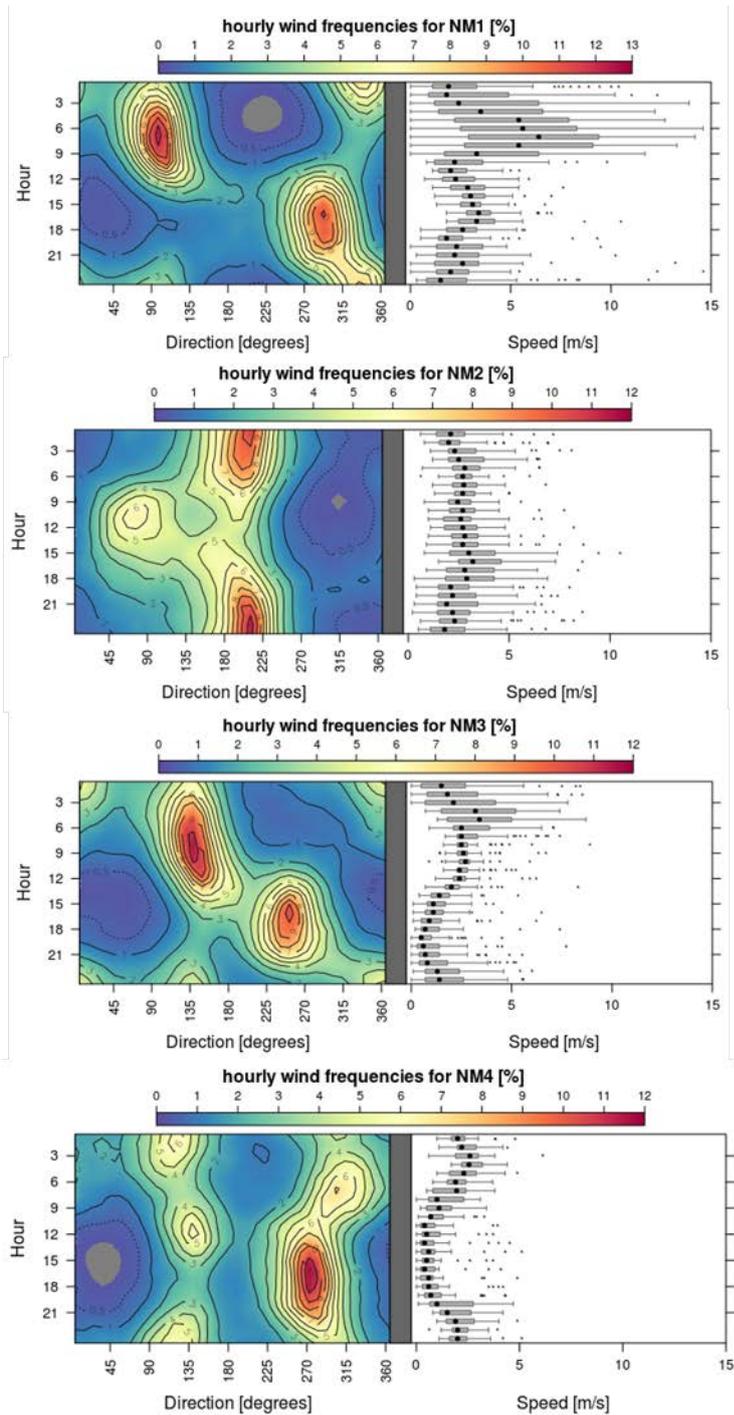
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803 Fig. 10. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and
 804 high) along five transects during three hours of the upslope (top panels) and
 805 downslope (bottom panels) flow regimes at SRC. Blue and red lines are transects on
 806 the south and north side of the river, respectively.
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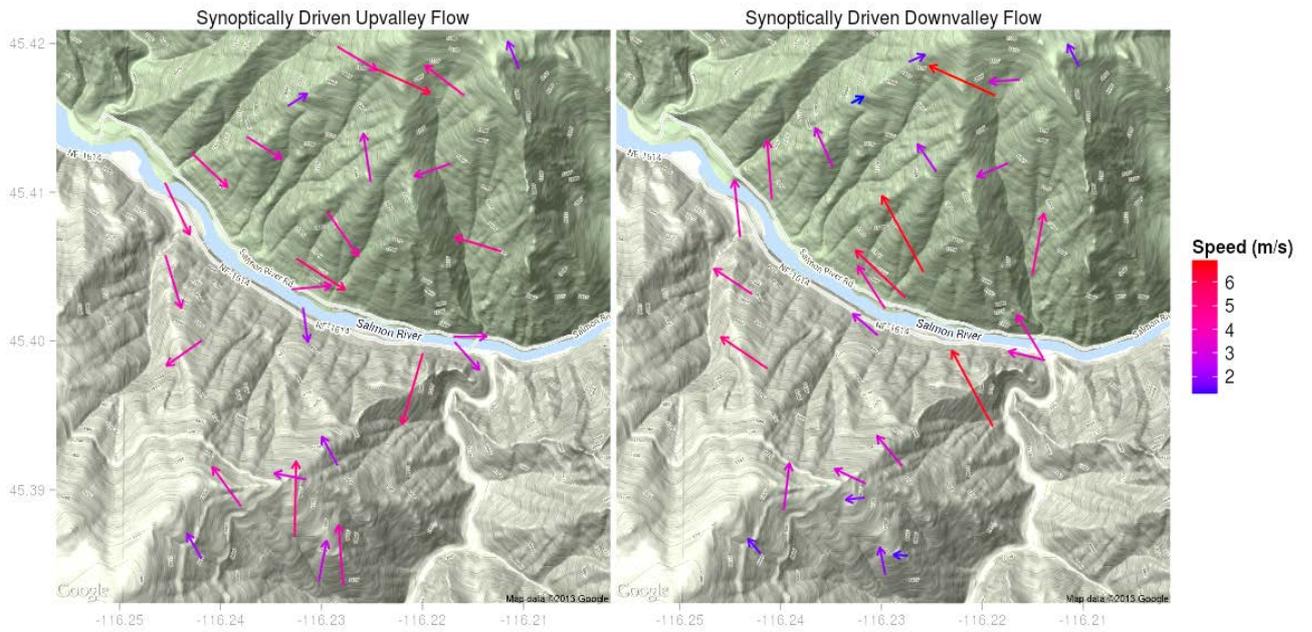
809 Fig. 11. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and
 810 high) along five transects during the afternoon flow regime (1700) at SRC. Blue and
 811 red lines are transects on the south and north side of the river, respectively.
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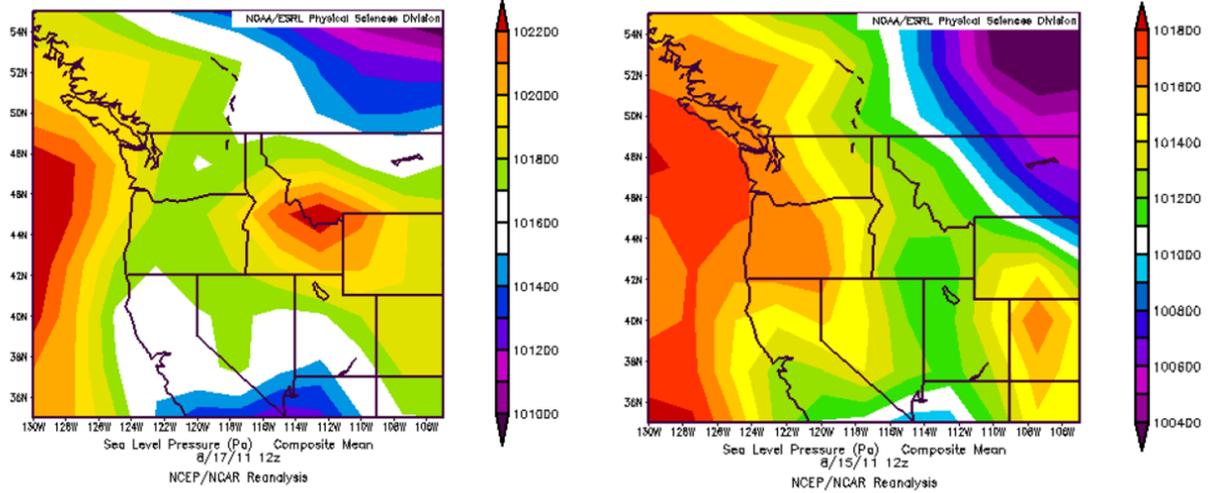
814 Fig. 12. Contour plots of hourly wind frequencies and corresponding wind speeds for
 815 the NM transect at SRC. NM1 is near the ridgetop. NM4 is near the canyon bottom.
 816 All data were used.

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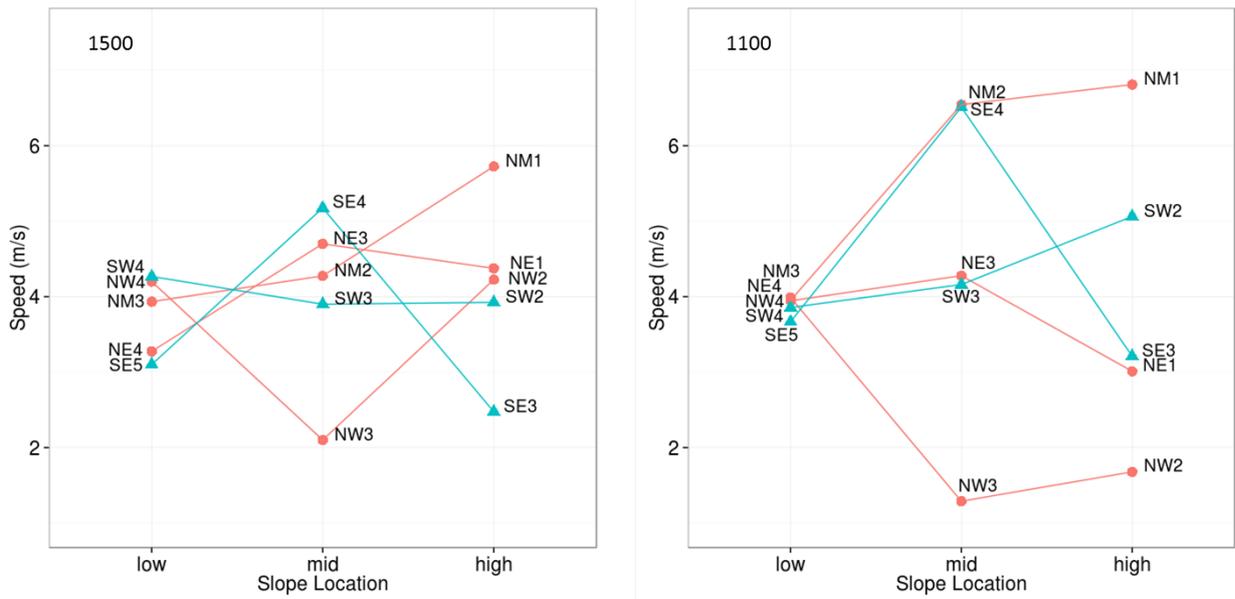
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819 | Fig. 13. Characteristic synoptically driven upvalley flow (1500 LT) (left image) and
 820 | downvalley flow (1100 LT) (right image) at SRC during July-September 2011.
 821 | Vectors represent the average hourly flow at a given sensor. Periods of weak
 822 | synoptic forcing were removed prior to averaging.
 823



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825 Fig. 14. Synoptic-scale surface pressure conditions conducive to enhanced easterly
 826 flow (left) and typical diurnal flow scenarios (right) at SRC (North American Regional
 827 Reanalysis data courtesy of National Center for Environmental Prediction).
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830 Fig. 15. Average wind speeds for sensors at three slope locations (low, mid, and
 831 high) along five transects during the synoptically driven upvalley (left) and
 832 synoptically driven downvalley (right) flow regimes at SRC. Blue and red lines are
 833 transects on the south and north side of the river, respectively.

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