

Tomaszewski et al. Responses to Reviewers
August 2020

All reviewer comments appear in regular text below, while authors' responses appear in **purple text**. Line numbers referenced in the authors' responses refer to the revised document.

Response to Anonymous Referee #1

General comments:

This case study, apparently the first evaluation of how a parameterized wind farm affects the speed of a simulated gust front, is a useful addition to the literature. The figures and text are polished and generally free of mistakes. This is the start of a good paper, but it will benefit from substantial improvements to the scientific approach, analysis, and interpretation. The focus of my review is on major comments and substantive minor comments. A comprehensive list of technical corrections does not seem useful at this stage because much of the text is likely to change between this and future versions.

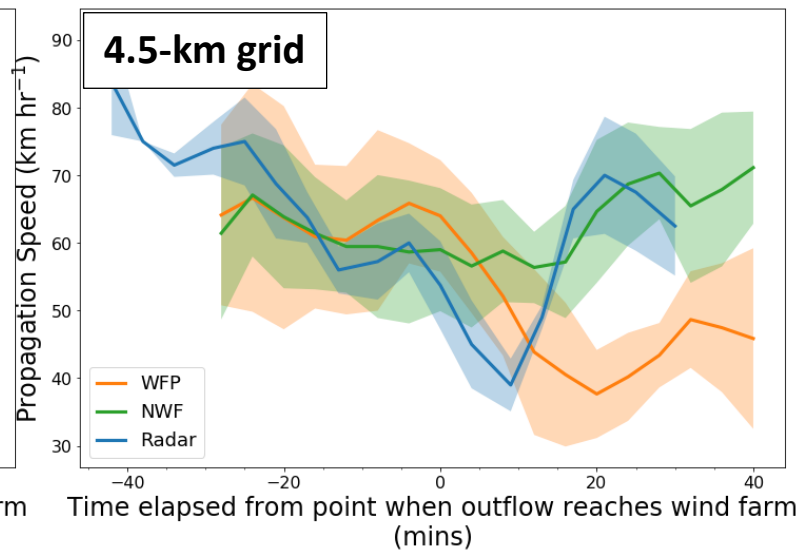
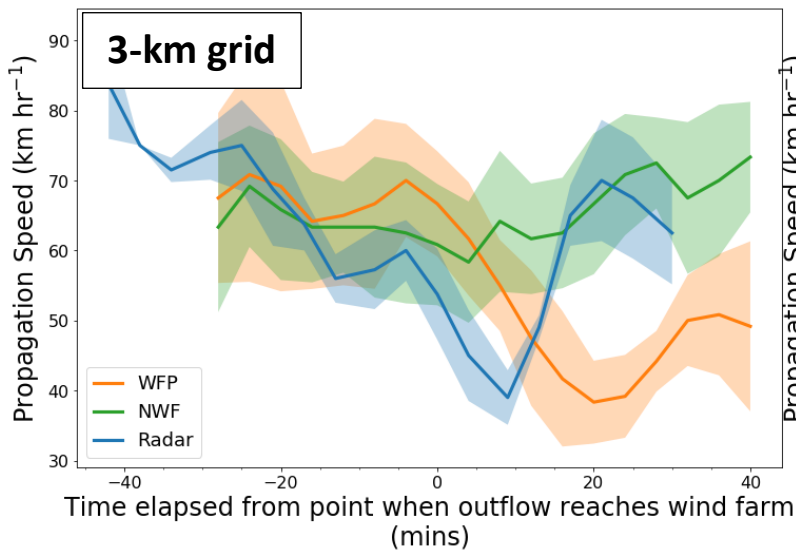
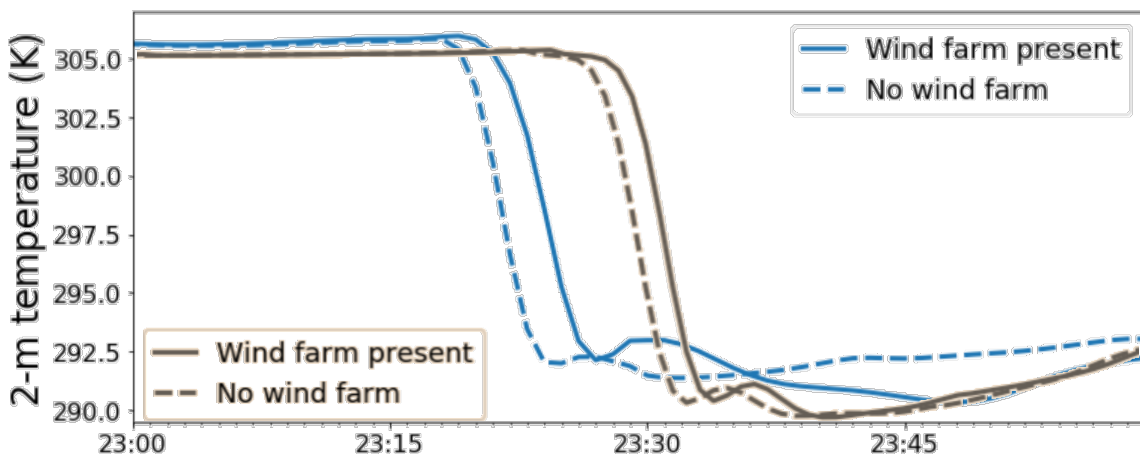
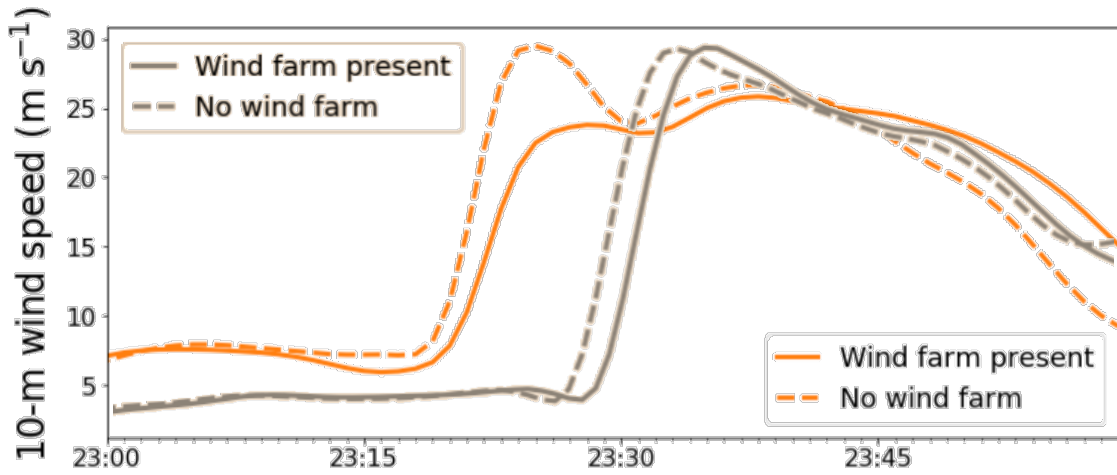
Thank you for your thoughtful review and helpful comments.

Specific comments:

1. One of my foremost concerns appears in the manuscript as a seemingly minor comment: "Such delays in the WFP outflow evolution could be artifacts of the 3-km model resolution" (lines 232-233). The same thought occurred to me, and it seems like a fundamental issue. A large fraction of the analysis in the manuscript is about the speeds of the simulated outflow with and without the wind farm's influence, and comparisons to observations. If the simulated speed's sensitivity to the computational grid is first order, then doesn't this call into question many of the manuscript's conclusions? At a minimum, other grid intervals should be tested to characterize this sensitivity. If the sensitivity is high, then the study needs to be redone based on simulations at a resolution for which results converge.

Thank you for your thoughtful question. We have considered the effect of horizontal grid resolution at length. In one of our previous papers, we compared 1-km, 3-km and 9-km horizontal grid spacing simulations of wind plant wakes (Tomaszewski and Lundquist, 2020, *Geoscientific Model Development*), and generally found that use of a 3-km horizontal grid tended to result in similar wake impacts as use of a finer 1-km horizontal grid. Larger deviations tended to occur when coarser resolution (on the order of 9-km grid) was used. While we do not have the computational resources to run this case at 1-km horizontal grid resolution, we can coarsen the resolution, and so we have re-run this scenario at 4.5-km grid resolution. The subtle difference (see figures below) between the 3-km (colored) and the 4.5-km (grey) suggests that the delay in the WFP outflow evolution is due to initial and boundary conditions rather than the computational grid, which we have also added to the text in line 242:

“Such delays in the WFP outflow evolution could be artifacts of the 3-km grid resolution or more likely the initial and boundary conditions”



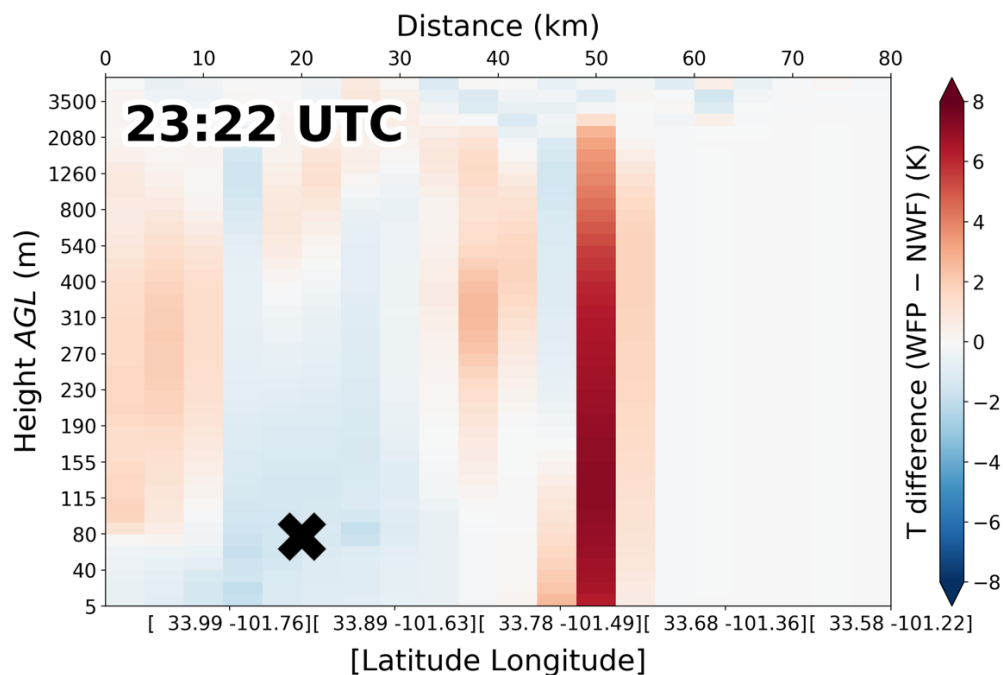
2. In the abstract, the stated goal of the manuscript is to “address the extent to which wind farms can modify thunderstorm outflow boundaries” (line 5). The actual analysis of results in the main body of the text is more modest than this statement suggests. The outflow’s speed and some near-ground conditions are evaluated, but not its kinematic nor thermodynamic structures in the vertical. These also could exhibit important modifications, and the 4-D fields from the model, configured to provide high resolution in the lowest levels of the troposphere, should provide the opportunity to evaluate vertical structure.

We have modified the abstract to more accurately reflect the goals of the manuscript in line 5:

“We use the Weather Research and Forecasting model and its Wind Farm Parameterization to address the extent to which wind farms can modify the near-surface environment of thunderstorm outflow boundaries.”

Because vertical structure is interesting, we also included the below figure (new Fig. 6) to give insight on the structures in the vertical impacted by the wind farm, with additional text in lines 197-198:

“A vertical cross-section of the temperature difference between the simulations taken at 23:22 (dashed line in Fig. 5b) shows that the wind farm (black X) impacts the outflow from the surface to ~2 km (Fig. 6).”



Vertical cross-section of the temperature difference between the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulations immediately following outflow boundary passage over the wind farm, corresponding to the dashed line in (Fig. 5b). Note the y-axis ticks are not spaced linearly due to the increasingly coarse vertical grid spacing at higher model levels.

3. The terms “propagate,” “propagation,” “propagating,” etc. are used throughout the manuscript. However, I think the authors do not intend to refer to propagation velocity, but rather to velocity of the gust front relative to the ground. Velocity relative to the ground is the vector sum of two velocities: 1) velocity of the gust front’s propagation through the air and 2) velocity of the air relative to the ground.

We have replaced all occurrences of “propagate” with more appropriate words, e.g., replaced “propagation speed” with “ground-relative velocity” in lines 3, 11, 216, 221, 244; replaced “outflow propagation speed” with “outflow speed” in lines 7, 217, 222, 229, 282, 288; replaced “propagation speed” with “speed” in lines 86, 195, 217, 230.

4. References to “resolution” in the manuscript should be corrected to “grid spacing,” “grid interval,” “model cell size,” or something similar (there are many possible terms). It is an important distinction. The information that can actually be resolved with reasonable numerical accuracy is at a scale larger (coarser) than the grid interval. Specifically, the WRF Model’s effective resolution is approximately 7x the grid interval (Skamarock, MWR, 2004). This means simulations on a grid with $dx = 3$ km have an effective resolution of approximately 21 km.

We agree with the distinction and have replaced all occurrences of “resolution” with “grid spacing” or similar, or ensured that comments about “resolution” specify “grid resolution” to distinguish them from effective model resolution.

5. Lines 113-114 (“provides the initial visual of the outflow”): “Visual” is an adjective, not a noun. Also, I’m not sure what “initial visual” means. Is this just the initial (first) figure you are presenting in the manuscript?

Thank you for catching our typo. We have replaced “visual” with “visualization” and clarified that the radar provides this study with an initial view of the outflow in line 114:

“...provides the initial visualization for this study of the outflow.”

6. Line 119 (“observation period of 5 minutes”): Does this mean that data were reported as a 5-minute average of samples taken every #? minutes or #? seconds? Is the reporting time centered on the 5-min period?

We provided more information on the observations in line 120:

“Sampling intervals vary from 3 to 60 s depending on the sensor, and data are reported as 5-minute averages centered on the 5-minute period.”

7. Line 121 (“located 5 km southwest of the wind farm”): The farm looks big. Is this distance of 5 km from the center of the farm, the southwestern edge, or to some other point?

We have clarified on line 122:

“The Abernathy surface station is located 5 km southwest of the southwest corner of the wind farm.”

8. Line 157 (“top-down view”): Consider a different adjective. This is an odd use of “top-down.”

“Top-down view” has been replaced with “plan view” in line 158.

9. Lines 161-162 (“However, the outflow event in the simulation occurs too early”): The issue of timing deserves several sentences of additional explanation. Does the simulated moist convection occur too early overall, or does the timing seem about right except that the outflow is produced too early? Does the simulated outflow move too quickly at first?

We have clarified the text in line 163 to read:

“However, the simulated moist convection and subsequent outflow boundary occurs too early.”

10. Line 167 (“from the corresponding point”): Do you interpolate or choose the closest point?

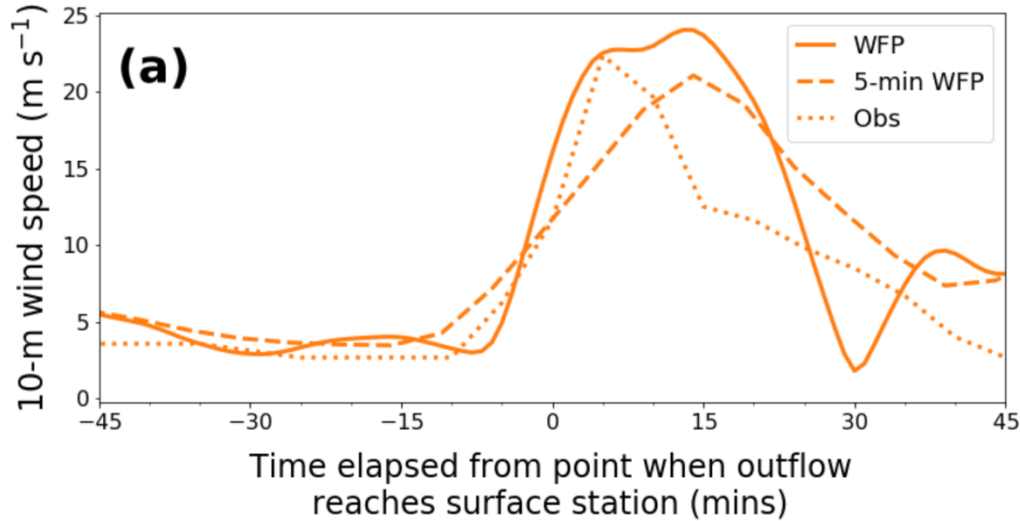
We have clarified in line 167 that we use the closest point:

“we plot a time series from the nearby Abernathy West Texas Mesonet surface station against that from the corresponding closest point in the model domain (grey triangle in Fig. 5).”

11. Lines 172-173 (“possibly an artifact of the 5-min sampling in the observations as opposed to the 1-min sampling in the simulation”): Can you determine whether this is an artifact by averaging the model output in the same way the observations are averaged?

Plots averaging the model output over 5-min periods to match the observations reveal a similar delay in wind speed decrease, confirming the averaging is the likely reason for the differences in the time series in Fig. 4a. We updated the text in lines 174-175 to read:

“...likely an artifact of the 5-min sampling in the observations as opposed to the 1-min sampling in the simulation, verified by plotting a 5-minute average of the simulation results (dashed line in Fig. 4a).”



12. Lines 175-176 (“These model biases could be due to inaccuracies in the soil moisture that stem from differences in precipitation that occurred earlier in the day”): This is an interesting point. Can you check by running another simulation with higher soil moisture?

Unfortunately, we have only extremely limited remaining computational resources, so a new soil moisture simulation is not possible. But it is a great suggestion, so we incorporate this idea in the conclusions for a subsequent investigation in line 295:

“This case study could motivate a larger-scale climatology of additional outflow-wind-farm interaction events, including different environments with variable soil moistures or other meteorological properties.”

13. Lines 183-184 (“Regions of cooler temperatures (blue) indicate that the temperature in the WFP simulation is cooler than in the NWF simulation, suggesting faster movement of the outflow bringing cooler temperatures”): It might also be useful to show a plot of the difference in 10-m wind depicted as vectors.

We have chosen to display the difference in the 10-m wind vectors in Fig. 5 as two sets of wind barbs, one from each simulation, but we’ve added a statement to the text specifically acknowledging this component of the figure in lines 186-188:

“Indeed, the dark wind barbs in Fig. 5 representing winds from the WFP simulation indicate stronger winds present (by 5-10 kts) in cooler (blue) regions than in the NWF simulation (light wind barbs).”

14. Lines 185-186 (“Early in the outflow event, only subtle differences exist between the simulations upwind from the wind farm”): Do these differences surprise you? What do you think is causing them? Although it is true that the upwind differences are smaller than the largest differences on figs 5b,c where the gust front is most affected by the wind farm, the upwind differences are roughly the same as in many other parts of the domain in fig 5c. It would be helpful to reduce or completely eliminate the differences in simulations before the gust front nears the wind farm. Have you considered running the first part of the WFP simulation without the wind farm, writing a restart file at the output time just before the gust front reaches the farm, turning on WFP, then resuming the simulation by initializing with the restart file? I’m not sure if that is possible, but you might check.

Differences in the wind farm and no wind farm simulations due to the presence of the wind farm parameterization are an ongoing area of research. These upwind differences may arise from the generation of gravity wave (e.g., Smith, 2009; Allaerts and Meyers, 2018, 2019). We have taken the reviewer’s suggestion and tried using a non-WFP restart file to initialize a WFP simulation as the reviewer suggested, but because some of the required output fields for the WFP simulation (i.e. POWER) are not included in the non-WFP restart files, this is not possible.

We have included a comment in the text about the upwind differences possibly being due to gravity waves, and included the references given above in lines 190-191:

“Early in the outflow event, only subtle differences exist between the simulations upwind from the wind farm (Fig. 5a), likely arising from the generation of gravity waves (Smith, 2009; Allaerts and Meyers, 2018, 2019).”

15. Lines 191-192 (“The wind farm also appears to act as a barrier around which the outflow channels and accelerates, most notably immediately following passage over the wind farm”): Can you provide figures that support this interpretation? Can such channeling even be resolved at $dx = 3$ km? That equates to resolving features with a characteristic length scale of 21 km or so, which seems too coarse to depict channeling. (Please see the major comment about grid resolution.)

The reviewer raises a good point that fine channeling will not be fully resolved. We should not have used the word “channeling”, as we intend to suggest that the cooler regions emerging on either side of the wind farm in Fig. 5 are effects of the outflow boundary being redirected around the wind farm. We do understand the concern with this wording and have updated the text in line 196-197 to reflect our hypothesis better:

“The cooler regions of faster moving air emerging on both sides of the wind farm during outflow passage suggests flow is being redirected around the wind farm (Fig. 5b).”

16. Line 199 (“suggesting the modified outflow in the wind farm case recovers after the initial disruption by the wind farm”): I am having trouble following this interpretation. The analysis of the data is not Lagrangian, it does not follow the gust front as it moves away from the wind farm and, presumably, is less influenced by it. Rather, the time series is at a point that does not move relative to the farm. That’s why I don’t know what to make of the term “recovery.” Do you mean that changes in the moist convection and outflow with time at the observing station cause time series to appear more as they were before the gust front arrived?

We agree that this message needs clarification and have amended this sentence in lines 204-206:

“A secondary pulse of increased wind speeds occurs in both simulation cases and reaches similar magnitudes, suggesting the modified outflow in the wind farm case does not experience notable changes after the initial disruption by the wind farm (Fig. 7a).”

17. Lines 210-212 (“wind speeds, the longer delay for the mixing ratio response indicates that the wind farm-modified outflow impacts absolute moisture more, suggesting that the change in moisture due to the outflow lags the change in temperature.”): Maybe I am misreading, but isn’t this a circular argument? Here is my interpretation: greater delay indicates greater impact, which suggests greater delay (i.e., lag). Also, I don’t follow how you calculate what is a greater or lesser impact. The units of temperature and humidity are not the same. It’s like trying to evaluate whether a flower is more colorful than a sprinter is fast. Would it clarify your point if you normalize changes in temperature and humidity by calculating standard deviations from sufficiently long temporal means? What is the physical explanation for why a greater lag can be interpreted to indicate a greater impact?

We agree that comparing the extent of impact on temperature and humidity doesn’t make sense and is not of much value to the purpose of this study. We have removed discussion comparing the impacts between these variables.

18. Lines 214-216 (“We measure the observed outflow propagation speed by tracking the reflectivity fine-line along a transect and recording its distance traveled every data update”): In the radar data, is the fine line at a consistent altitude at all times of your calculations? If not, then if the gust front is not vertical all the way to the top of the outflow (or at least to the highest altitude represented in the radar scans), wouldn’t slope influence your calculations of location at fixed times and therefore your calculations of speed?

Thank you for this helpful comment about the effective altitude of the radar measurements. We have reassessed the radar location and the geometry of the relevant measurements. The radar is southwest (220°) of the portion of the outflow boundary of interest, which is moving nearly to the southeast at a heading of (120°) (Fig. 1). We are relieved to note that the feature therefore maintains an approximately constant distance to the radar even as the feature moves. Therefore, the feature maintains a similar height during the brief period of interest. We

have added the following text to the manuscript to point out this important consideration in lines 218-221:

“As the radar is southwest (220°) of the portion of the outflow boundary of interest, which is moving nearly to the southeast at a heading of (120°) (Fig. 1), we note that the feature therefore maintains an approximately constant distance to the radar and thus height above ground even as the feature moves, thus not impacting our calculations of ground-relative outflow speed.”

19. Lines 218-219 (“Both simulation and radar outflow are measured against a 5x5 km grid”): What does this mean?

We used the 5x5 km grid shown in Fig. 8 as a visual guideline to aid in tracking. We updated Fig. 8’s caption to say:

“...The schematic in (b) shows the process for calculating the simulation outflow speed, where the line through the domain shows the transect along which speed was measured, with the largest gradients in 10-m wind speed providing the position of the boundary to track, and the underlying 5-km-by-5-km grid providing a visual guideline to aid in tracking.”

20. Lines 220-221 (“Three separate measurement examinations are conducted for each case”): That’s an effective technique. Please explain this more. Three different people? The same person three different times? Something else?

We agree that clarification is needed here. We have added to the text in lines 226-230:

“Three separate measurements are conducted for each case (i.e., radar, WFP simulation, and NWF simulation) to account for human error. Each examination is conducted three times the same way by the same person over the same transect to generate multiple estimates of outflow speed. Conducting this qualitative measurement is a dynamic process, and once a point on the 4 m/s/km transect was chosen, the measurement tracker tried to follow that same point, even if the transect intersected the 4 m/s/km contour in multiple places. The averages of each case are plotted in Fig 8a...”

21. Caption to figure 7 (“with the gradients in 10-m wind speed providing the position of the boundary to track”): Do you place the boundary where the gradient is highest? At the leading edge of the greatest change in the gradient? Somewhere else?

We placed the boundary where the gradient is largest, which we clarified in Fig. 8’s caption:

“...with the largest gradients in 10-m wind speed providing the position of the boundary to track.”

Response to Anonymous Referee #2

General comment:

This manuscript investigates the impact of an onshore wind farm on the outflow boundary of a thunderstorm - a topic that has not been investigated so far. Hence, this manuscript is relevant and adds new knowledge to the wind energy community. Generally, the paper is well written and structured and the figures are well made!

Thank you for your thoughtful review and helpful comments.

The only point that is unclear to the reviewer is the way they obtained the uncertainties (standard C1 WESD Interactive comment Printer-friendly version Discussion paper deviations) shown in Fig. 7. Therefore, I ask the authors to add more information about this procedure (see specific comments, for more details).

Specific comments: P11L220-221: “Three separate measurements examinations are conducted for each case. . .”; could you be a bit more precise, as it is quite crucial to understand Fig. 7a). I don’t understand how you actually obtained three different results: Did you conduct the measurements at three different points? Secondly, what did you do in case the transect intersected several times with the chosen threshold of 4 (m/s)/km?

We agree that clarification is needed here. We have added to the text in lines 226-230:

“Three separate measurements are conducted for each case (i.e., radar, WFP simulation, and NWF simulation) to account for human error. Each examination is conducted three times the same way by the same person over the same transect to generate multiple estimates of outflow speed. Conducting this qualitative measurement is a dynamic process, and once a point on the 4 m/s/km transect was chosen, the measurement tracker tried to follow that same point, even if the transect intersected the 4 m/s/km contour in multiple places. The averages of each case are plotted in Fig 8a....”

Observations and Simulations of a Wind Farm Modifying a Thunderstorm Outflow Boundary

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Abstract. On June 18, 2019, National Weather Service (NWS) radar reflectivity data indicated the presence of thunderstorm-generated outflow propagating east-southeast near Lubbock, Texas. A section of the outflow boundary encountered a wind farm, and then experienced a notable reduction in [propagating-speed](#)[ground-relative velocity](#), suggesting that interactions with the wind farm impacted the outflow boundary progression. We use the Weather Research and Forecasting model and its Wind Farm Parameterization to address the extent to which wind farms can modify [the near-surface environment of](#) thunderstorm outflow boundaries. We conduct two simulations of the June 2019 outflow event, one containing the wind farm and one without. We specifically investigate the outflow [propagation](#)-speed of the section of the boundary that encounters the wind farm and the associated impacts to near-surface wind speed, moisture, temperature, and changes to precipitation features as the storm and associated outflow pass over the wind farm domain. The NWS radar and nearby West Texas Mesonet surface stations provide observations for validation of the simulations. The presence of the wind farm in the simulation clearly slows the progress of the outflow boundary by over 20 km hr^{-1} , similar to what was observed. Simulated perturbations of surface wind speed, temperature, and moisture associated with outflow passage were delayed by up to 6 minutes when the wind farm was present in the simulation compared to the simulation without the wind farm. However, impacts to precipitation were localized and transient, with no change to total accumulation across the domain.

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1 Introduction

Wind energy deployment is growing rapidly to provide a near-zero emissions source of electricity that can meet increasing energy demands. The International Energy Agency (IEA) predicts wind energy will reach 14% of global capacity ($\sim 1,700 \text{ GW}$)

by 2040 (IEA, 2018). Wind turbines generate electricity by using momentum from the wind to turn their blades and generator, causing a downwind wake characterized by an increase in turbulence and reduction in wind speed (Lissaman, 1979). Groups of turbines will then generate an aggregate wind farm wake, which has been observed to extend over 50 km downwind of a wind farm, particularly during stable conditions when little atmospheric turbulence is present to erode the wake (Christiansen and Hasager, 2005; Platis et al., 2018).

Wind farm wakes have been observed to impact their ambient environment, particularly at night via turbine-induced mixing of the nocturnal inversion. Baidya Roy and Traiteur (2010) first used in-situ observations within a wind farm to identify that a net downward transport of warm air at night causes a statistically significant increase in surface temperature in stably stratified boundary layers. Further in-situ measurements of lidar profiles and surface fluxes from the Crop Wind Energy Experiment (CWEX) over an Iowa utility-scale wind farm indicate that turbines modify the flow fields and surface heat flux above and below the rotor layer, causing average transient surface temperature increases between 0 to 0.5 K overnight, reaching 1.5 K in some cases (Rajewski et al., 2013, 2014, 2016). Another field campaign by Smith et al. (2013) in a large wind farm in the United States Midwest identify a strong surface warming (1 to 1.5 K) in the wake of the wind farm at night, with no substantial warming or cooling signals during the daytime. Armstrong et al. (2016) find that operational wind turbines raised nighttime air temperature by 0.18 K and absolute humidity by 0.03 g m^{-3} at a peatland wind farm in Scotland. Satellite-derived analyses also report surface warming (up to 1 K) within wind farms and also up to 5 km downwind (Zhou et al., 2012; Xia et al., 2016). In-situ airborne measurements of offshore wind farms also find temperature increases of 0.5 K and water vapor decreases of 0.5 g kg^{-1} in the rotor layer downwind during stably stratified conditions (Platis et al., 2018; Siedersleben et al., 2018a). Measurements from two 120-m tall towers in Iowa detect differences in the timing of nocturnal transitions due to the presence of a wind farm, where a single turbine wake decoupled turbulent connection between the surface and above the wind turbine, accelerating the onset of near-surface stabilization by a few hours and lengthening the transition period by up to an hour (Rajewski et al., 2020).

Due to sparse data from operational wind farms, modeling studies are often used to examine local and regional impacts of existing and hypothetical wind farms. Baidya Roy (2004) conducted the first study within a coupled land-atmosphere mesoscale model, representing wind turbines as sinks of momentum and sources of turbulence to demonstrate that the simulated wind farm slows hub-height winds and generates turbulent eddies that enhance vertical mixing, leading to a warming and drying of the surface air. Wind turbines can also be represented numerically in mesoscale simulations by exaggerating surface roughness to represent the local reduction of wind speed of wind farm wakes (Keith et al., 2004; Frandsen et al., 2009; Barrie and Kirk-Davidoff, 2010; Fitch, 2015). This enhanced surface roughness approach was later shown to produce erroneous predictions, including the wrong sign of surface temperature change through the diurnal cycle (Fitch et al., 2013). Recent mesoscale modeling studies have used the turbine power and thrust curves to define the elevated momentum sink and turbulence generation of a simulated wind turbine (Fitch et al., 2012). The turbine power and thrust curves give the manufacturer-specified relationship between hub-height inflow wind speed, power generation, and force exerted onto the ambient air by a specific wind turbine. These specifications can better predict meteorological impacts of wind turbines from hub height to the surface and form the

basis for multiple wind farm parameterizations in mesoscale numerical weather prediction models, including the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) (Fitch et al., 2012; Fitch, 2016).

60 The open-source WFP of the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model collectively represents wind turbines in each model grid cell as a momentum sink and a turbulence source within the vertical levels intersecting the turbine rotor disk (Fitch et al., 2012; Fitch, 2016). The virtual wind turbines convert kinetic energy from the wind into power, which is reported as an aggregate sum in each model grid cell. The default setting of the WFP dictates that the turbine-induced turbulence generation is derived from the difference between the power and thrust coefficients, and this option must remain enabled to produce the
65 vertical mixing necessary to attain the expected nocturnal surface warming (Tomaszewski and Lundquist, 2020). Users can adjust the specifications of the parameterized turbine, including its rotor diameter, hub height, thrust coefficients, and power curve, as well as its latitude and longitude location. WFP simulations have been validated with power production data (Lee and Lundquist, 2017a) and airborne measurements of winds (Siedersleben et al., 2018b), temperature and moisture (Siedersleben et al., 2018a), and turbulence (Siedersleben et al., 2020) and have reproduced the observed localized, nighttime, near-surface
70 warming produced by wind turbines mixing warmer air from the nocturnal inversion down to the surface (Fitch et al., 2013; Cervarich et al., 2013; Lee and Lundquist, 2017b; Xia et al., 2017, 2019). To our knowledge, the WRF WFP has not yet been applied to explore interactions between wind farms and transient phenomena like thunderstorm outflow boundaries.

A thunderstorm gust front, or outflow boundary, marks the advancing surface boundary of the outflow of an evaporatively cooled downdraft from a thunderstorm (e.g., Goff, 1976; Droegemeier and Wilhelmson, 1987). Outflow boundary passage is
75 often associated with a significant change in surface meteorological conditions, including a sharp decrease in temperature, a pronounced wind direction shift, and damaging straight-line winds fueled by a strong horizontal pressure gradient across the outflow boundary line (Wakimoto, 1982). The propagation of outflow into a thermodynamically favorable ambient environment can initiate convection far from the source thunderstorm (Carbone et al., 1990), and the strong low-level wind shear associated with propagating outflows has caused several aircraft accidents (Zrnich and Lee, 1983) that would otherwise be unlikely in a
80 typical wind farm wake environment (Tomaszewski et al., 2018). Outflow boundary ~~propagation~~motion is thus of interest in short-range severe weather and aviation forecasting and nowcasting.

Doppler radar observations can provide kinematic information of the full depth of thunderstorm outflow (e.g., Wakimoto, 1982; Klinge et al., 1987; Mueller and Carbone, 1987; Quan et al., 2014), with an outflow boundary's presence and ~~propagation~~
~~speed~~ground-relative velocity often identified via a "fine line" in radar reflectivity. On June 18, 2019, around 0100 UTC, Na-
85 tional Weather Service radar reflectivity indicated the presence of thunderstorm-generated outflow propagating east-southeast north of Lubbock, Texas. A section of the outflow boundary that encountered a wind farm experienced a notable reduction in ~~propagating~~-speed, qualitatively suggesting that the wind farm impacted the outflow boundary progression.

Here, we use a numerical weather prediction mesoscale model capable of simulating outflow boundary ~~propagation~~movement to explore its interaction with a parameterized wind farm during the aforementioned June 2019 event. Numerical models have
90 previously been utilized to gain insight into the life cycle and dynamics of thunderstorm outflow (e.g., Droegemeier and Wilhelmson, 1987), and more recently in the Weather Research and Forecasting model by Duda and Gallus (2013) and Nugraha and Trilaksono (2018) with success. The inclusion of a Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) in WRF (e.g., Fitch et al., 2012;

Fitch, 2016) to capture wind farm-near environment interactions makes this model a favorable tool for such a study considering the impacts wind farms may have on outflow boundaries and their resulting changes in temperature, wind, and precipitation.

95 We hypothesize that wind farms can modify transient and mesoscale features like thunderstorm outflow boundaries. Section 2 describes the case study and the model setup. Section 3 presents the modifications to the outflow ~~propagation~~-progression by the wind farm and the impacts to surface temperature, winds, moisture, and precipitation. Section 4 summarizes our results confirming the WRF WFP and radar data capture the wind farm modifying the outflow.

2 Methodology

100 2.1 Case Description

The June 18-19, 2019 outflow event near Lubbock, Texas is highlighted in this study as the first known and archived case of an outflow boundary passing over and being modified by a wind farm, which was brought to our attention on social media by Jessie McDonald (@jmeso212). The event began with a cluster of thunderstorms propagating eastward over eastern New Mexico and the western Texas panhandle. These storms formed an organized mesoscale convective system (MCS) around 2300 UTC on
105 June 18 at the New Mexico/Texas border and shifted to move southeastward. An outflow boundary originated from this MCS, visible as a fine line on NEXRAD WSR-88D displays beginning at approximately 2340 UTC (Fig. 1a). This outflow boundary advanced southeastward ahead of the MCS, eventually reaching the Hale wind farm at 0050 UTC on June 19. The wind farm can be detected on the radar display (Fig. 1a) as a cluster of speckled points of high reflectivity, indicative of the hard-target echos of radar beams reflecting off of spinning turbines, known as wind turbine clutter (Isom et al., 2009). A defined notch
110 appeared within the outflow boundary immediately following passage over the wind farm, suggesting a significant reduction in ~~propagating speed~~-ground-relative velocity where the outflow encountered and interacted with the wind farm (Fig. 1b,c).

2.2 Observations Available

The National Weather Service NEXRAD WSR-88D radar in Lubbock, Texas (KLBB), (Klazura and Imy, 1993) provides the initial ~~visual~~-visualization for this study of the outflow propagating and interacting with the wind farm during the June
115 2019 event. Level II radar data (e.g., base reflectivity, base velocity) are provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Centers for Environmental Information (NOAA National Weather Service, 1991) at 4-minute temporal resolution and quantify the speed and position of the outflow boundary throughout the event.

Surface observations are available through the West Texas Mesonet, a statewide observation network consisting of 40 automated surface meteorological stations that measure up to 15 meteorological parameters over an observation period of 5 minutes
120 (Schroeder et al., 2005). Sampling intervals vary from 3 to 60 s depending on the sensor, and data are reported as 5-minute averages centered on the 5-minute period. A 5-minute observation reporting time has been previously proven sufficient in resolving other density current passages (Toms et al., 2017). The Abernathy surface station is located 5 km southwest of the southwest corner of the wind farm in our study (grey diamond in Fig. 3) and provides 5-minute resolution validation data of

1.5-m temperature, 10-m wind speed and direction, and 1.5-m humidity, among other variables, for the precursor outflow state
125 prior to wind farm interaction for our simulations. We explored accessing meteorological information from the Hale wind farm
and others in the vicinity, but those data are proprietary and not available.

2.3 Simulations Conducted

We conduct the simulation comprising our study with version 3.8.1 of the Advanced Research WRF (ARW) model (Skamarock
and Klemp, 2008; Powers et al., 2017). We define a simulation with three nested domains with horizontal ~~resolutions-grid~~
130 ~~spacings~~ of 27, 9, and 3 km, respectively, where the innermost, 3-km domain is centered over the wind farm and outflow event
location (Fig. 2a). Our previous investigation (Tomaszewski and Lundquist, 2020) of the sensitivity of the WRF WFP to spatial
resolution suggests that 3-km horizontal ~~resolution-grid spacing~~ is adequate for resolving the wind farm effects. Also based
on the results of that study, which argue that the WFP requires fine vertical resolution near the surface, we set the vertical
~~resolution-grid spacing~~ to be ~ 10 m in the lowest 200 m (Fig. 2b), stretching vertically thereafter, for a total of 58 vertical
135 levels between the surface and 170 hPa. The model time step is 30 s on the outer domain, refined by a factor of 3 for each nest.
Turbine-induced turbulence is parameterized via a source of turbulent kinetic energy (TKE). The 0.7° ERA-Interim (ECMWF,
2009; Dee et al., 2011) data set provides initial and boundary conditions for the simulations, and topographic data are provided
at 30-s resolution (nominally 0.8 km at this latitude). Physics options include the Dudhia short-wave radiation (Dudhia, 1989)
with a 30-s time step, the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model long-wave radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997), a surface layer
140 scheme that accommodates strong changes in atmospheric stability (Jimenez et al., 2012), the second-order Mellor-Yamada-
Nakanishi-Niino planetary boundary layer scheme (Nakanishi and Niino, 2006) *without* TKE advection, land surface physics
with the Noah Land Surface Model (Ek et al., 2003), the single-moment six-class microphysics scheme (Hong and Lim, 2006),
and the explicit Kain–Fritsch cumulus parameterization (Kain, 2004) on domains with horizontal ~~resolutions-grid spacings~~
coarser than 3 km. We simulate the 6-hour window around the time when the outflow passed over the wind farm (June 18 2200
145 UTC to June 19 0400 UTC). We begin spinup 10 hours prior, at 1200 UTC on June 18.

The U.S. Geological Survey Turbine Database (Hoen et al., 2020) provides the latitude-longitude model input locations
of the wind turbines at the Hale wind farm (Fig. 2c,d). We use power and thrust curves from the 1.5-MW Pennsylvania
State University generic turbine (Schmitz, 2012), based on the General Electric SLE turbine (80-m hub height and 77-m
rotor diameter). This turbine model closely matches the 2-MW Vestas turbines actually installed at the Hale wind farm, and
150 Siedersleben et al. (2018b) show little sensitivity to the exact turbine power curve. We assess the impact the wind farm has on
the model solution of the outflow by comparing a simulation without the WFP to a simulation with the WFP, as in Fitch et al.
(2012); Lee and Lundquist (2017a); Lundquist et al. (2018), and Redfern et al. (2019). We specifically investigate differences
in the near-surface wind speed, temperature, moisture, and precipitation solutions between simulations with and without the
wind farm as the storm and associated outflow pass over the wind farm domain.

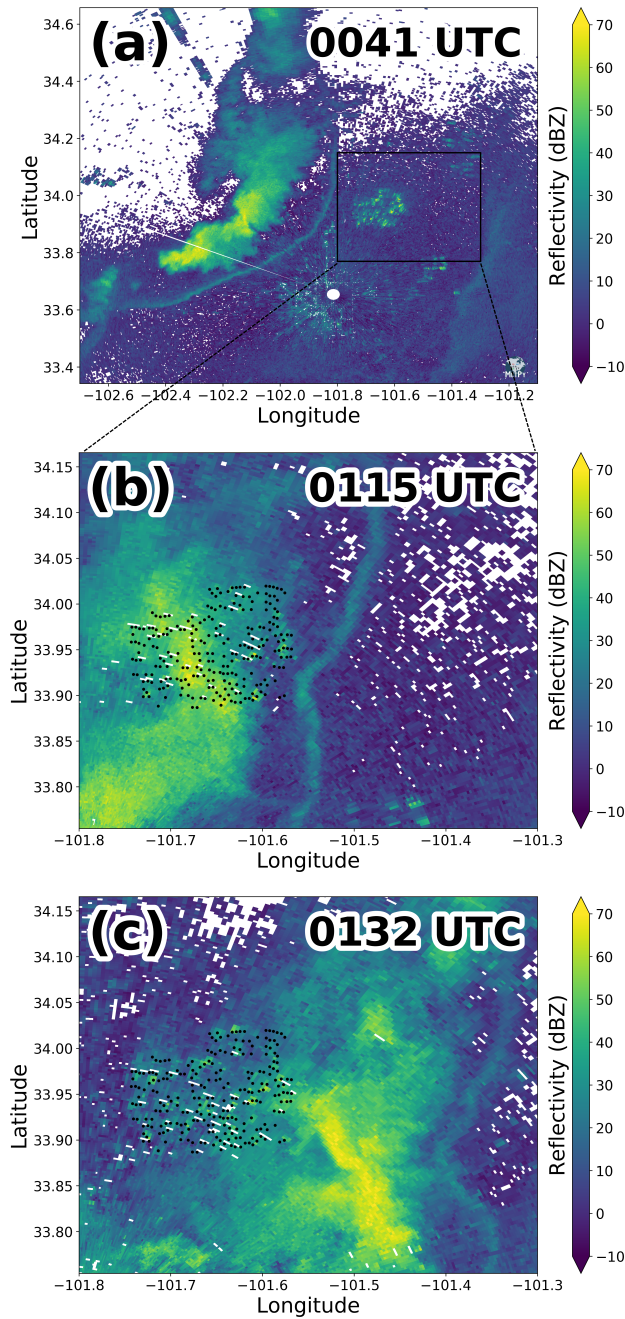


Figure 1. NEXRAD WSR-88D radar reflectivity from the Lubbock radar site (KLBB) (a) prior to the outflow boundary arriving at the wind farm, (b) immediately following outflow boundary passage over the wind farm, and (c) several minutes after passage. Panels (b) and (c) are zoomed in closer to better view the shape of the boundary, and that subset is denoted in panel (a) by the black box.

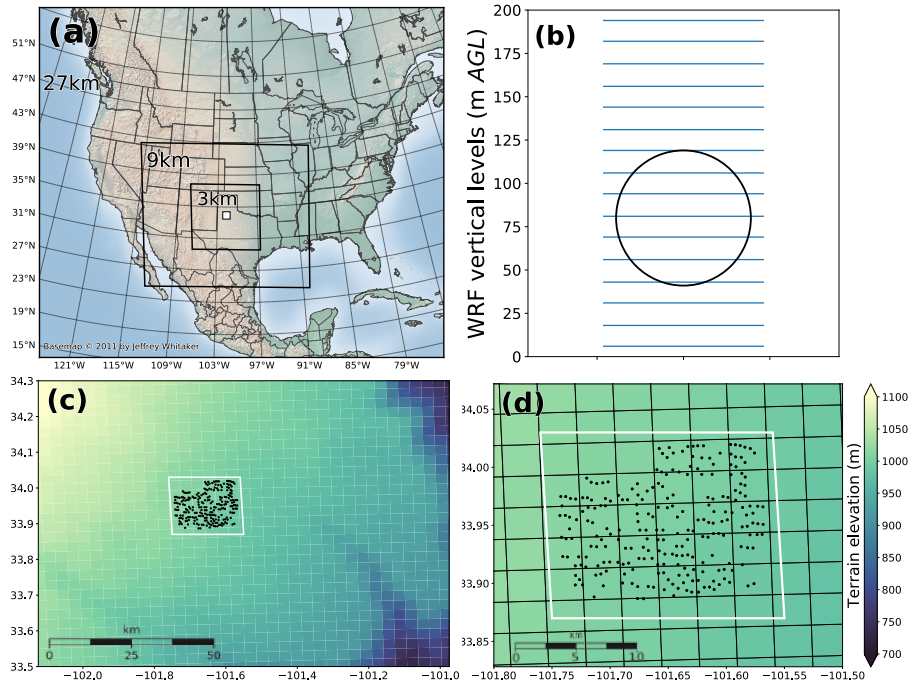


Figure 2. Maps representing (a) the nested domains for the simulations, with the Hale wind farm denoted by the white square, (b) the model vertical levels intersecting the simulated turbine rotor (black circle), (c) the topography around the Hale wind farm, and (d) the wind turbine layout over the same terrain contour as in (c). The white polygon in panels (c) and (d) denotes the approximate outline of the Hale wind farm. Geography data are provided by Matplotlib’s (Hunter, 2007) Basemap © 2011 by Jeffrey Whitaker.

155 3 Results

3.1 Performance of WRF Against Observations

The WRF simulation with the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) produces reasonable solutions of the thunderstorm outflow event on June 18-19, 2019. Three consecutive top-down-plan views of 2-m temperature within a section of the domain illustrate the outflow progression (Fig. 3). By 22:36 UTC on June 18, a cold pool had developed from the thunderstorm downdraft, forming the outflow (Fig. 3a). This outflow propagated southeast toward the wind farm, eventually passing over it by 23:22 UTC (Fig. 3b), and spreading further southeast by the end of the UTC day (Fig. 3c). The spatial coverage and shape of the outflow reasonably match the shape of the outflow boundary visible on radar (Fig. 1). However, the outflow event in the simulation simulated moist convection and subsequent outflow boundary occurs too early. The simulated outflow passes over the wind farm location by 23:22 UTC on June 18, whereas the radar indicates this passage occurs around 0115 UTC on June 19, about 2 hours later (Fig. 1b). This discrepancy could be caused by the boundary conditions or other model configuration choices, though as previously mentioned, the structures of the simulated and observed cold pools are similar and therefore the simulation suits the needs of the study.

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To better understand WRF's skill in simulating the intensity of the outflow event, we plot a time series from the nearby Abernathy West Texas Mesonet surface station against that from the corresponding [closest](#) point in the model domain (grey triangle in Fig. 3). Model results are shifted ahead 2 hours to allow for direct comparison between the simulation and observations during the outflow passage, as done in the Arthur et al. (2020) investigation of a frontal passage. The WRF simulation (solid lines in Fig. 4) predicts similar 10-m wind speeds as observed (dotted lines) before the passage in addition to an accurate magnitude of wind speed increase associated with the outflow arrival. The simulated winds remain elevated near $\sim 23 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for 15 minutes before decreasing close to the prefrontal state, whereas the surface station observations decrease almost immediately (Fig. 4a), possibly an artifact of the 5-min sampling in the observations as opposed to the 1-min sampling in the simulation. [verified by plotting a 5-minute average of the simulation results \(dashed line in Fig. 4a\)](#). The simulation displays biases in the 2-m temperature and moisture precursor states (Fig. 4b,c). WRF initially has a 2.5 K warm bias, a $\sim 35\%$ relative humidity (RH) dry bias, and $\sim 3 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ dry bias against the observations. These model biases could be due to inaccuracies in the soil moisture that stem from differences in precipitation that occurred earlier in the day. The magnitude of the 2-m temperature decrease (Fig. 4b) and moisture increases (Fig. 4c) due to the outflow arrival in WRF seem adequate, albeit slightly more intense than in the observations.

3.2 Differences in Outflow Passage Between Wind Farm and No Wind Farm Simulations

Having validated WRF's ability to adequately capture the outflow event, we next compare the two WRF simulations to assess the impact a parameterized wind farm has on the simulated outflow. Three instantaneous map views show the difference in 2-m temperature between the simulations, with the no wind farm (NWF) case subtracted from the wind farm parameterization (WFP) case (Fig. 5). Regions of cooler temperatures (blue) indicate that the temperature in the WFP simulation is cooler than in the NWF simulation, suggesting faster movement of the outflow bringing cooler temperatures. [Indeed, the dark wind barbs in Fig. 5 representing winds from the WFP simulation indicate stronger winds present \(by 5-10 kts\) in cooler \(blue\) regions than in the NWF simulation \(light wind barbs\)](#). Conversely, red regions indicate warmer temperatures in the wind-farm-containing simulation, indicating the outflow is moving slower in this simulation than in the NWF simulation. Early in the outflow event, only subtle differences exist between the simulations upwind from the wind farm (Fig. 5a), [likely arising from the generation of gravity waves \(Smith, 2009; Allaerts and Meyers, 2018, 2019\)](#). These differences increase in magnitude after the outflow passes over the wind farm. A compact region of warmer temperatures (up to 8 K) in the wind farm simulation emerges following outflow passage over the wind farm, indicating that interaction with the wind farm has caused that section of the advancing outflow to slow its ~~propagation~~ speed (Fig. 5b). This region of slowed outflow expands in spatial area as the outflow progresses southeastward (Fig. 5c). A similar speed reduction is visible in the bent outflow shape of the radar observations (Fig. 1b,c). The [cooler regions emerging on both sides of the wind during outflow passages suggests flow is being redirected around the wind farm also appears to act as a barrier around which the outflow channels and accelerates, most notably immediately following passage over the wind farm](#) (Fig. 5b). [A vertical cross-section of the temperature difference between the simulations taken at 23:22 \(dashed line in Fig. 5b\) shows that the wind farm \(black X\) impacts the outflow from the surface to \$\sim 2 \text{ km}\$ \(Fig. 6\)](#).

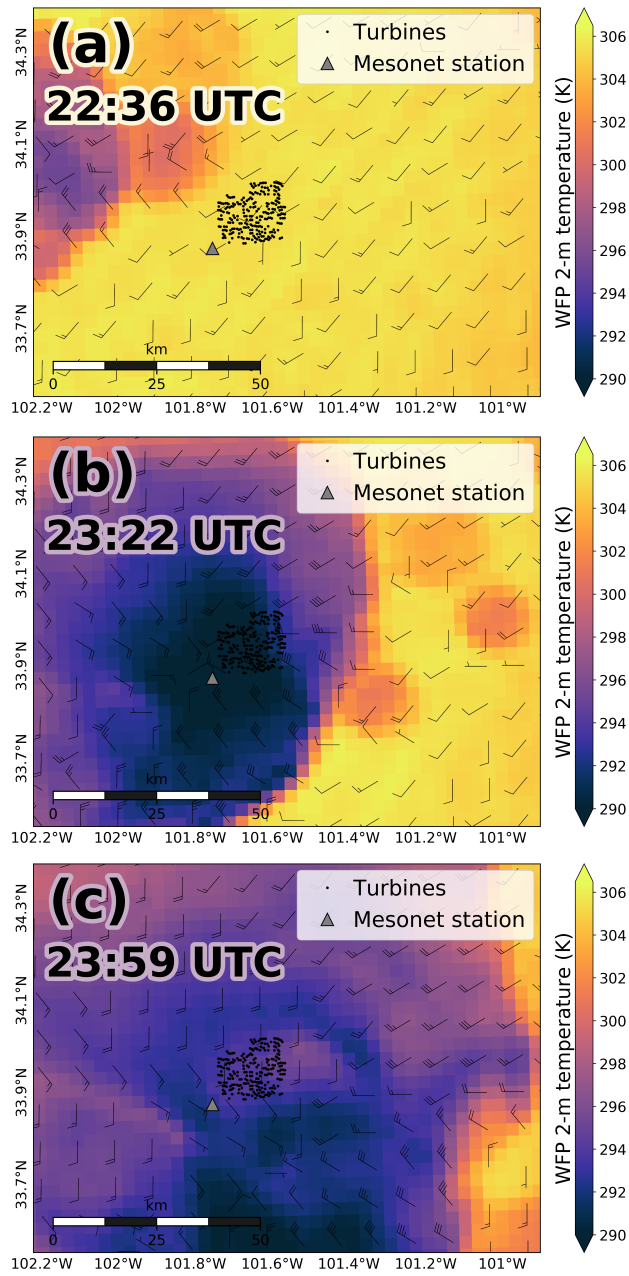


Figure 3. Snapshots of simulated 2-m temperatures from the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation (a) prior to the outflow boundary arriving at the wind farm, (b) immediately following outflow boundary passage over the wind farm, and (c) several minutes after passage. Wind bars are shown in kts.

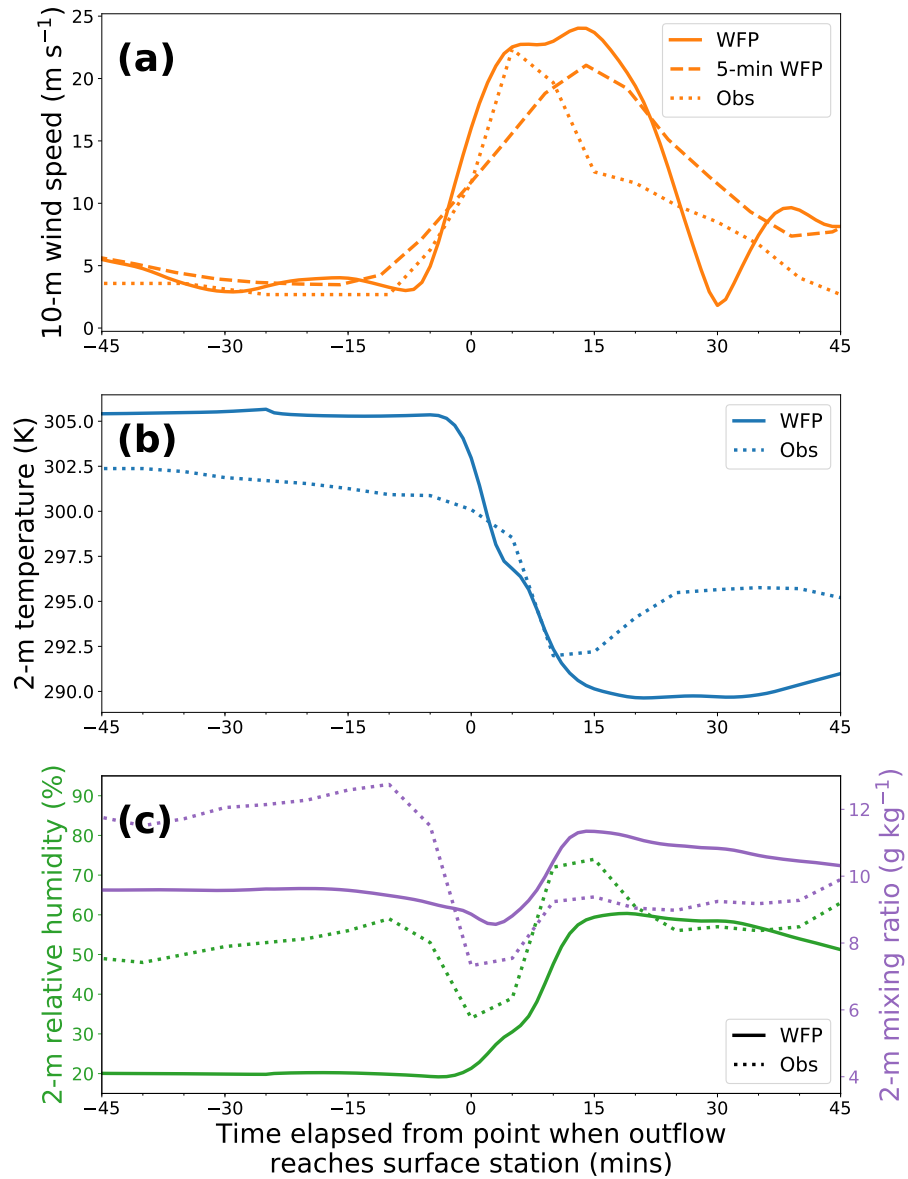


Figure 4. Time series comparing the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation solutions against Mesonet surface station observations of (a) 10-m wind speed, (b) 2-m temperature, and (c) 2-m relative humidity and mixing ratio.

We next sample a point from both the WFP and NWF simulations downwind of the wind farm location (white diamond in Fig. 5) to assess how differences between the simulations evolve at that point following outflow passage (Fig. 7). Close agreement exists between the simulations across all variables plotted preceding arrival of the outflow. Upon the arrival of the outflow, the 10-m wind speed increases first in the NWF simulation (dashed line), reaching a maximum of $\sim 30 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The WFP simulation (solid line) begins its outflow-induced increase a few minutes after the NWF simulation and attains a smaller initial wind speed maximum of $\sim 25 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. A secondary pulse of increased wind speeds occurs in both simulation cases and reaches similar magnitudes, suggesting the modified outflow in the wind farm case ~~recovers~~ does not experience notable changes after the initial disruption by the wind farm (Fig. 7a).

The temporal evolution of the 2-m temperature is similar to that of the wind speed. The WFP and NWF simulations produce the same initial temperature until the WFP simulation diverges from the NWF simulation due to the wind-farm-modified outflow approaching ~ 3 minutes later. The associated outflow cooling is of similar magnitudes ($\sim 12.5 \text{ K}$) between the simulations, but the WFP simulation reaches its minimum temperature ~ 4 minutes after the NWF simulation (Fig. 7b).

Differences in the 2-m relative humidity between the simulations evolve similarly as those in the 2-m temperature. Both simulations maintain a value near $\sim 20\%$ until the passing outflow causes an increase up to 50%, with the increase occurring for the WFP simulation 4-5 minutes after the NWF (green lines in Fig 7c). The absolute moisture quantity (2-m mixing ratio, purple lines) ~~experiences a greater lag in outflow-induced increase compared to the other variables. The WFP simulation reaches its peak in moisture (10.5 g kg^{-1}) ~ 6 minutes after the NWF does. Compared to the 2- or 3-minute delay in WFP outflow response in the temperature and wind speeds, the longer delay for the mixing ratio response indicates that the wind-farm-modified outflow impacts absolute moisture more, suggesting that the change in moisture due to the outflow lags the change in temperature.~~

We corroborate the proxies for outflow ~~propagation speed~~ ground-relative velocity in the time series of meteorological variables (Fig. 5) by directly quantifying the speed of the simulated and observed outflow boundaries (Fig. 8a). We measure the observed outflow ~~propagation~~ speed by tracking the reflectivity fine line along a transect and recording its distance traveled every data update (typically 4 minutes). As the radar is southwest (220°) of the portion of the outflow boundary of interest, which is moving nearly to the southeast at a heading of (120°) (Fig. 1), we note that the feature therefore maintains an approximately constant distance to the radar and thus height above ground even as the feature moves, thus not impacting our calculations of ground-relative outflow speed.

Without a fine line present in the simulations to denote the outflow boundary, we choose to track the simulated outflow using the spatial gradient in wind speed, specifically the $\frac{4 \text{ m s}^{-1}}{\text{km}}$ contour (e.g., Fig. 8b). The simulations are examined at 4-minute intervals to match the temporal resolution of the radar data. Both simulation and radar outflow are measured against a 5-km-by-5-km grid to estimate distance traveled (see Fig. 8b). The transect along which we measure distance traveled is oriented to track through the wind farm and the region of maximum outflow distortion by the wind farm. Three separate ~~measurement examinations~~ measurements are conducted for each case (i.e., radar, WFP simulation, and NWF simulation) to account for human error. Each examination is conducted three times the same way by the same person over the same transect to generate multiple estimates of outflow speed. Conducting this qualitative measurement is a dynamic process, and once a point on the

$\frac{4 \text{ m s}^{-1}}{\text{km}}$ transect was chosen, the measurement tracker tried to follow that same point, even if the transect intersected the $\frac{4 \text{ m s}^{-1}}{\text{km}}$ contour in multiple places. The averages of each case are plotted in Fig. 8a, around which ± 1 standard deviation forms the shaded cloud and serves as our error bounds. As in Fig. 4 and Arthur et al. (2020), the simulation results are shifted forward 2
240 hours to align with the radar results. A running average with an 8-minute window was applied to all three time series to smooth the results for viewing.

As suggested in Fig. 5 and Fig. 7, ~~propagation~~ speeds of both simulation cases and the radar data begin at similar ~~speeds~~
values near 80 km hr^{-1} (Fig. 8a). The simulated and observed outflows decelerate slightly as they propagate away from the source thunderstorm. When the radar outflow (blue line) encounters the wind farm, its speed reduces from 60 km hr^{-1} to
245 nearly 40 km hr^{-1} . The radar outflow recovers within 10 minutes back to $>60 \text{ km hr}^{-1}$ before being obscured by precipitation. Similarly, the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation (orange line) fluctuates around 70 km hr^{-1} until encountering the wind farm, when it then drops in speed to about 40 km hr^{-1} . The WFP simulation experiences a larger reduction in speed than observed but reaches its speed minimum ~ 8 minutes later than the observations. Additionally, the WFP simulation recovers its speed twice as slowly as the observed outflow. Such delays in the WFP outflow evolution could be artifacts of the 3-km model
250 ~~resolution~~grid spacing or more likely the initial and boundary conditions. The no wind farm (NWF) simulation (green line), lacking wind farm interference, maintains a ~~propagating-speed~~ground-relative velocity between 60 and 75 km hr^{-1} throughout the period of interest.

3.3 Simulated Impacts of Modified Outflow Boundary to Precipitation

Subtle but significant impacts of wind-farm-modified outflow to meteorological variables like wind speed, temperature, and
255 moisture outlined in Sec. 3.2 prompt the question of the extent to which a wind-farm-modified outflow boundary can impact precipitation location and quantity. We address this question by integrating the total precipitation over a 100-km radius around the wind farm and comparing these quantities for the WFP (green line) and NWF (black dashed line) simulations every minute (Fig. 9a) and accumulated in time (Fig. 9b) over 3 hours. While the 1-minute precipitation totals across the region differ slightly between the simulations, the total accumulated precipitation remains unchanged despite the altered outflow in the WFP case.
260 We conclude that the introduction of roughness elements may change the distribution of the precipitation by a maximum of ~ 1 cm across the domain at a single moment in time (Fig. 9a), but the overall precipitation accumulation is unaffected (Fig. 9b). Furthermore, a histogram detailing the number of 3-km grid cells that do experience a change in precipitation at a 1-minute moment in time over 3 hours due to the presence of the wind farm reveals that no single grid cell experiences a delta greater than ± 7 mm, and over 93.4% of grid cells experience 0 change in precipitation (Fig 10). Changes to precipitation due to the
265 wind farm are thus both transient and localized.

3.4 Power Production at the Simulated Wind Farm

Given that wind farms can modify outflow and their associated meteorology, we next explore the effects an incoming outflow can have on a wind farm and its power production. Time series of the simulated 80-m wind speeds from all turbine-containing grid cells in the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation indicate that several grid cells exceed the wind turbine's cut-out

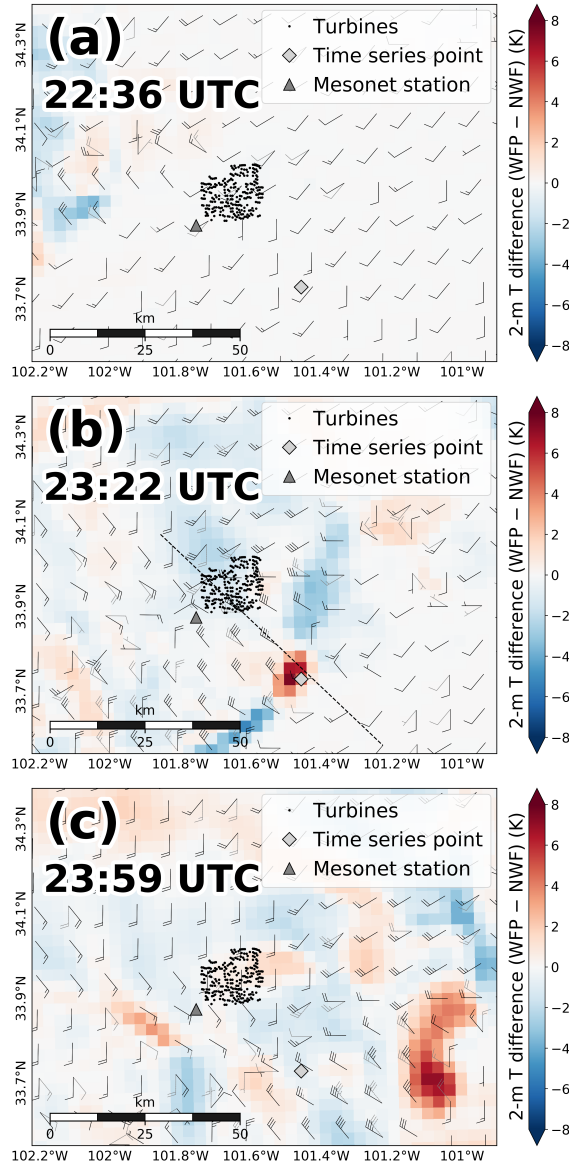


Figure 5. Snapshots of differences in 2-m temperature between the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulations (a) prior to the outflow boundary arriving at the wind farm, (b) immediately following outflow boundary passage over the wind farm, and (c) several minutes after passage. Wind bars are shown in kts, with the darker (lighter) bars representing the WFP (NWF) winds. [The dashed line in panel \(b\) indicates the location of the vertical cross-section in Fig. 6.](#)

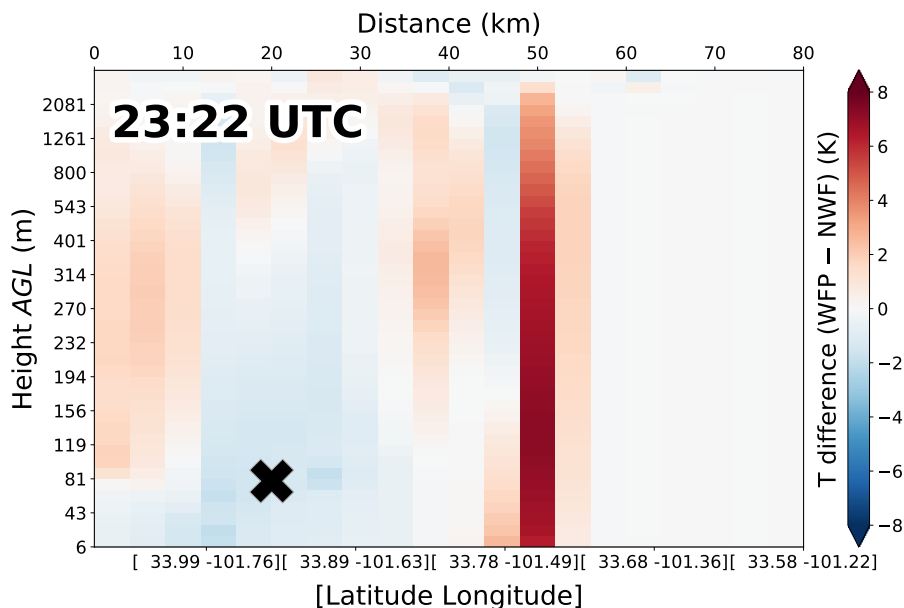


Figure 6. Vertical cross-section of the temperature difference between the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulations immediately following outflow boundary passage over the wind farm, corresponding to the dashed line in (Fig. 5b). Note the y-axis ticks are not spaced linearly due to the increasingly coarse vertical grid spacing at higher model levels.

270 speed (25 m s^{-1} , black dashed line in Fig. 11a), most notably at 23:10 and 23:35 UTC. Winds in excess of this cut-out speed force the turbines to brake their blades to prevent structural damage, halting power generation. The corresponding time series of power from turbine-containing grid cells and the total integrated farm power (Fig. 11b) reflect this reduction in power during those times when the cut-out wind speed is reached. Power data from the Hale wind farm are proprietary and unavailable for validation, though simulation data suggest outflow winds are high enough to cause wind turbines to cut out and reduce total
275 farm power generation (Fig. 11).

4 Discussion and Conclusions

Increasing deployment of wind energy necessitates obtaining further knowledge on the environmental impacts of wind farms to ensure their long-term sustainability and suitability. A lower-atmospheric phenomenon not yet explored in relation to interacting with wind energy is thunderstorm outflow. Herein, we assess the impact a wind farm can have on outflow **propagation**
280 movement via observations and simulations.

We first observed wind farm impacts to outflow in NEXRAD WSR-88D radar reflectivity. On June 18, 2019, a section of an advancing outflow boundary visible on radar encountered the Hale wind farm near Lubbock, Texas and decelerated in response. We ran two Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) simulations to capture this event: one with a Wind Farm Parameterization

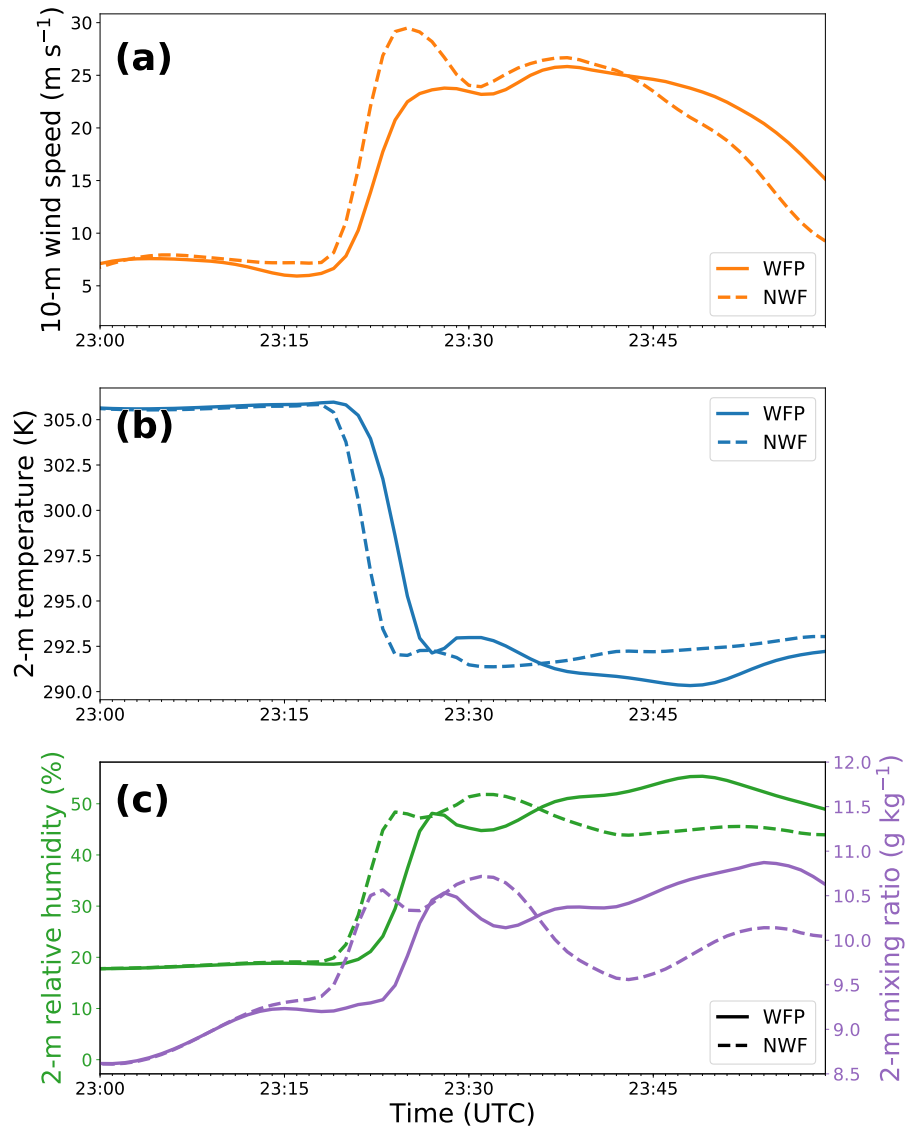


Figure 7. Time series comparing the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulation solutions of (a) 10-m wind speed, (b) 2-m temperature, and (c) 2-m relative humidity and mixing ratio.

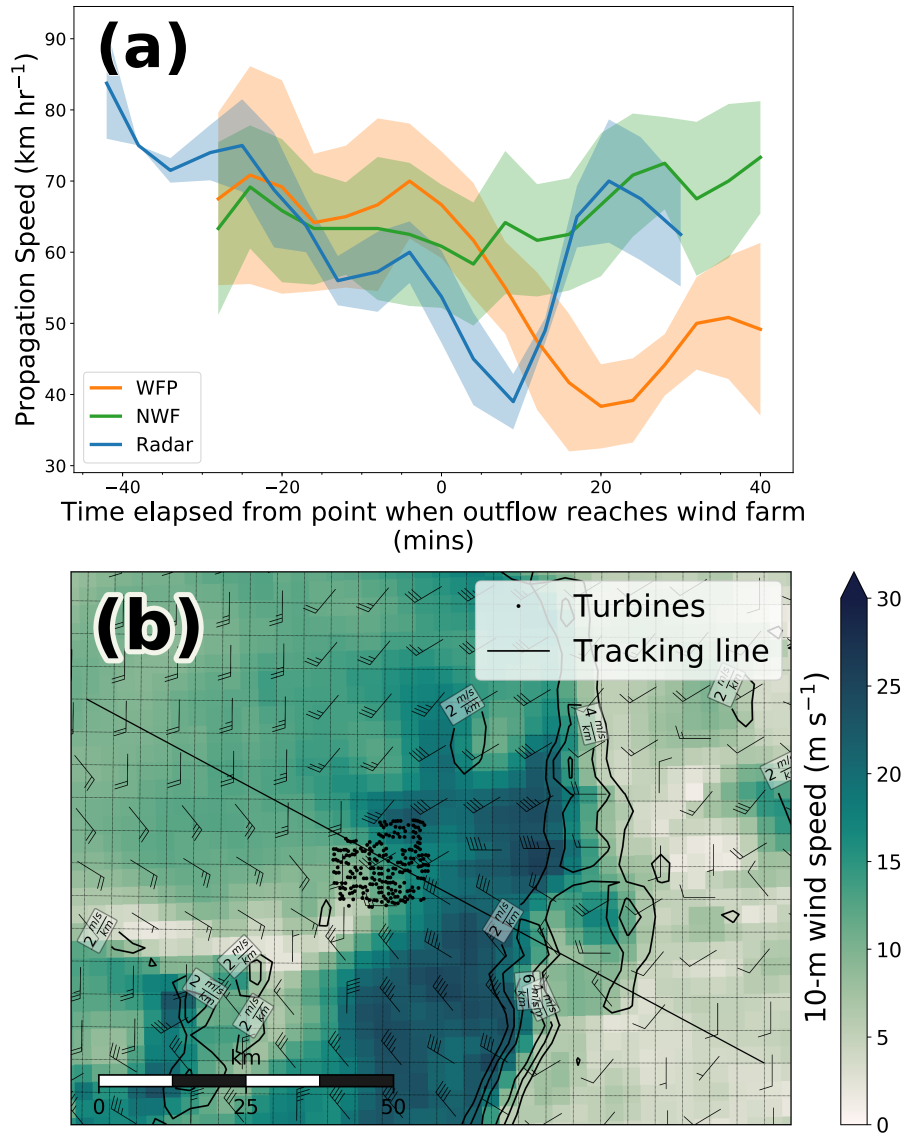


Figure 8. Plot (a) comparing the [propagation speed](#) [ground-relative velocity](#) of the outflow in time between the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation, no wind farm (NWF) simulation, and radar observations. The schematic in (b) shows the process for calculating the simulation outflow speed, where the line through the domain shows the transect along which speed was measured, with the [largest](#) gradients in 10-m wind speed providing the position of the boundary to track, [and the underlying 5-km-by-5-km grid providing a visual guideline to aid in tracking](#).

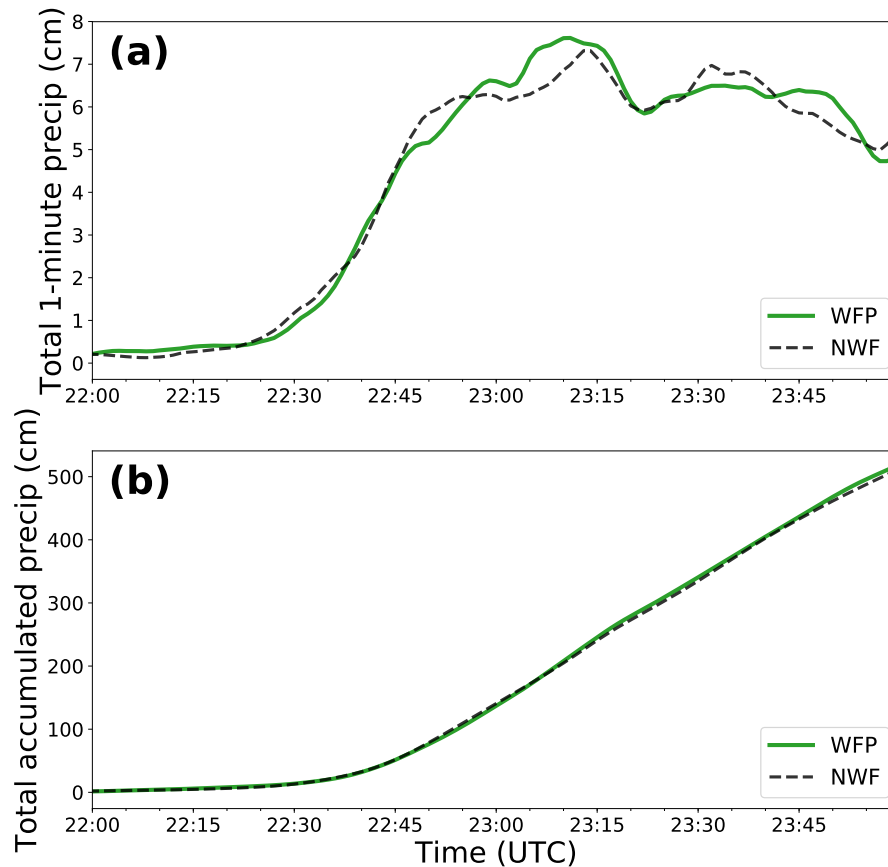


Figure 9. Time series comparing the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulation solutions of (a) total 1-minute precipitation and (b) total accumulated precipitation, with both quantities integrated spatially within a 100-km radius around the Hale wind farm.

(WFP) enabled and another with no wind farm present (NWF). Using observations from a West Texas Mesonet surface station, we verified that the simulations were producing reasonable solutions of the outflow event and could be used to quantify the extent a wind farm can modify propagating outflow.

Just as with the radar reflectivity, spatial differences between the WFP and NWF simulations exhibited a similar pattern, indicating the wind farm slowed the progress of the outflow boundary (Fig. 1, Fig. 5). Time series of simulated surface wind speed, temperature, and moisture revealed that perturbations associated with outflow passage were delayed by up to 6 minutes when the wind farm was present in the simulation (Fig 7.) Approximations of outflow propagation-speed in the radar and simulation data confirmed that both the radar-observed and WFP simulation outflows experienced speed reductions of over 20 km hr⁻¹ after encountering the wind farm, whereas the NWF simulation maintained near constant speed throughout the period (Fig. 8). Impacts to precipitation were minimal, with no change to total accumulation across the domain (Fig 9). Localized

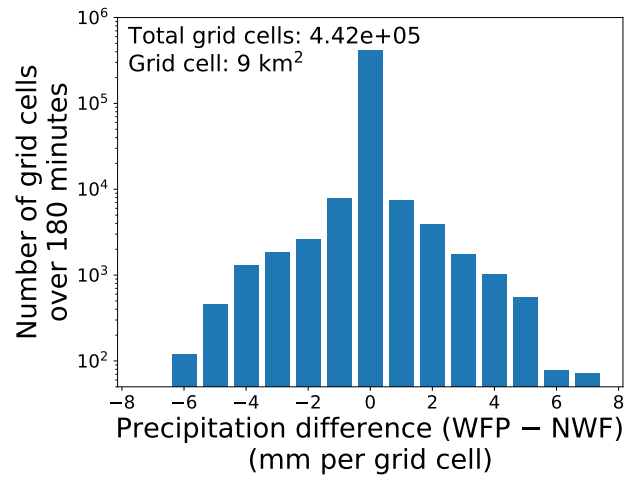


Figure 10. Histogram detailing the 1-minute differences between the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) and no wind farm (NWF) simulations in precipitation at each grid cell within a 100-km radius of the Hale wind farm over 180 minutes.

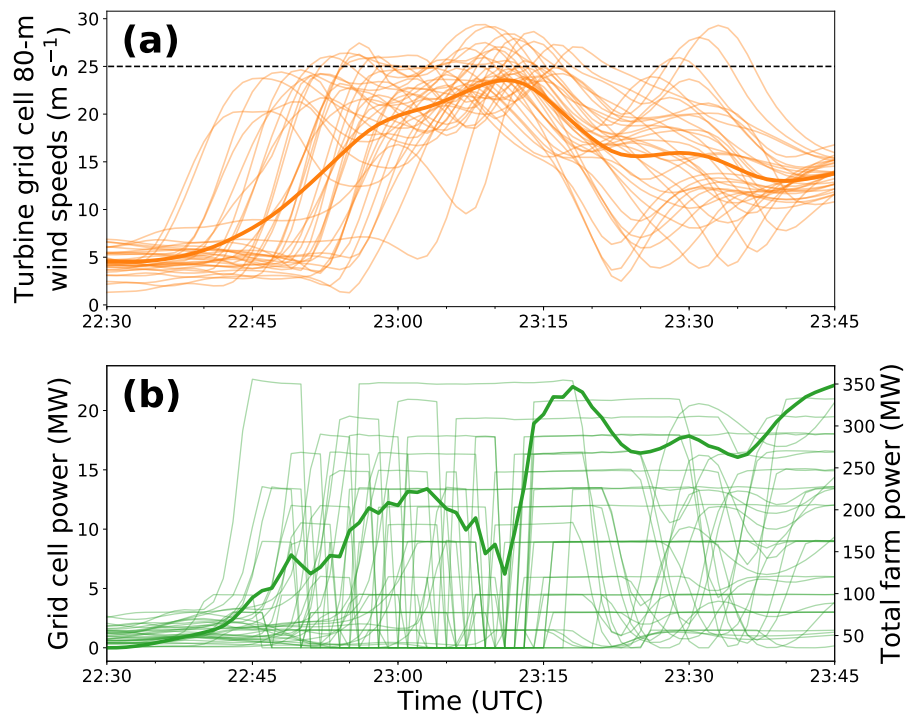


Figure 11. Time series of simulated (a) 80-m wind speeds from all turbine-containing grid cells (average wind speed plotted in the thicker line) and (b) power from all turbine-containing grid cells (total farm power production plotted in the thicker line) in the Wind Farm Parameterization (WFP) simulation.

shifts to precipitation location in the WFP simulation caused a maximum instantaneous grid-cell precipitation difference of 7
295 mm km⁻², but 93.4% of grid cells within the area over the event period experienced no change in precipitation (Fig. 10).

While we have shown that a wind farm can interact with and modify thunderstorm outflow, impacts to the modified outflow
~~propagation-speed~~ and associated kinematic and thermodynamic variables are transient and localized. These subtle changes
arising from wind farm interaction may be useful to consider when conducting nowcasting of precipitation and wind speed
on a scale of a few kilometers and minutes, perhaps for aviation or other time-sensitive purposes. Impacts beyond that scale
300 appear to be negligible.

This study uses a single known case of a wind farm interacting with outflow and is corroborated by simulations of that
case. This case study could motivate a larger-scale climatology of additional outflow-wind-farm interaction events, including
different environments with variable soil moistures or other meteorological properties. Such a climatology could consider
wind farms of different layouts and sizes, as well as different turbine types and sizes to assess generalized sensitivity of
305 atmospheric modifications to the turbine layouts and density. In previous studies (Lundquist et al., 2018), we have noticed
wind farms apparently modifying the passage of frontal boundaries, so a large-scale climatology of such events, tracking
frontal ~~propagation-speed~~ground-relative velocity, could shed more light on how widespread and impactful the modification of
atmospheric processes by wind farms can be.

Code and data availability. The WRF-ARW model code (<https://doi.org/doi:10.5065/D6MK6B4K>) is publicly available at
310 <http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/>. This work uses the WRF-ARW model and the WRF Preprocessing System version 3.8.1 (released on
August 12, 2016), and the wind farm parameterization is distributed therein. Initial and boundary conditions are provided by Era-Interim (Dee
et al., 2011) available at <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds627.0/>. Topographic data are provided at a 30-s resolution from [http://www2.mmm.ucar](http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/download/get_source.html)
.edu/wrf/users/download/get_source.html. The Pennsylvania State University generic 1.5-MW turbine (Schmitz, 2012) is available at [https://doi](https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.22492.18567)
.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.22492.18567. The user input and data needed to recreate the figures and analysis are located at <https://doi.org/10.5281/>
315 [zenodo.3974719](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3974719).

Author contributions. JKL and JMT conceived the research and designed the WRF simulations; JMT carried out the WRF simulations and
wrote the manuscript with significant input from JKL.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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