

# Impacts of Offshore Wind Farms On The Atmospheric Environment Over Taiwan Strait During An Extreme Weather Typhoon Event

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## Research Article

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15

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Wind energy is one of the cleanest renewable resources. Through the “Thousand Wind Turbines  
18 Project”, Taiwan is planning to increase the proportion of power generation from renewable  
19 energy and has set a target of 5.7 GW for offshore wind by 2025. However, the effects of future  
20 offshore wind farms (OWFs) over the Taiwan Strait on the atmospheric environment have not  
21 been evaluated. This study examined the potential effects of proposed OWFs on the atmospheric  
22 environment if the OWFs had existed during Tropical Storm Haitang (July 30–31, 2017) by  
23 using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model. As Tropical Storm Haitang made  
24 landfall in southern Taiwan and moved northward, wake effects formed at downstream of the  
25 OWFs and weather parameters were affected at the coastal area of western Taiwan. A significant  
26 reduction (as high as 6.1 %) in 24-hour accumulated precipitation was found over the western  
27 plain of Taiwan. Concurrently, the divergence increased, corresponding to a reduction in wind  
28 speed, vertical velocity, moisture flux, reflectivity and precipitable water–vapor (PWV), whereas  
29 a slight warming of near-surface air occurred. Sensitivity simulations demonstrated that the  
30 influence of OWF location and wind turbine density should not be ignored.

31

32 **Introduction**

33 The global demand for renewable energy is increasing rapidly because the Earth's resources are  
34 limited. According to a report published by the International Energy Agency (IEA) [1],  
35 renewable energy is expected to increase by approximately 50 %, and total installed solar and  
36 wind capacity will overtake both coal and gas to become the largest source of electricity  
37 generation globally in the next five years. Wind farms can generate clean electricity by  
38 extracting energy from the atmosphere. As wind flow passes through the wind turbine, wakes are  
39 generated downwind of the turbine, resulting in the reduction of wind speed, and the disturbed  
40 wind flow may affect local weather.

41

42 Wind farms considerably affect local circulation and regional weather; if sufficiently large, they  
43 may even alter the regional climate. Using a numerical model, Baidya Roy et al. [2]  
44 demonstrated that wind farms could substantially alter local meteorological parameters, such as  
45 temperature and humidity, as well as surface fluxes. Christiansen and Hasager [3] reported that  
46 as wind flow passed through large arrays of wind turbines, the mean wind speed was reduced by  
47 8–9 % and wake length could exceed 20 km.

48

49 By conducting modeling studies, researchers have discovered that large-scale wind power may  
50 affect the global climate. For example, Keith et al. [4] revealed that large-scale wind power  
51 caused a non-negligible climatic change at continental scales by altering surface roughness in  
52 two general circulation models. Considering the current and a future scenario, Vautard et al. [5]  
53 examined the effect of future potential European wind farms on regional climate by using the

54 Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model. They found modest changes, generally limited  
55 to the winter season, and the impacts remain much weaker than the natural variability. Wang and  
56 Prinn [6] suggested that large-scale wind farms can increase global precipitation by 10 % in  
57 some areas; however, the overall changes were not significant. Furthermore, Siedersleben et al.  
58 [7] indicated that large offshore wind farms (OWFs) could affect local weather and regional  
59 microclimate, and thus, might alter regional climate.

60

61 Recently, Pan et al. [8] reported that hypothetical OWFs protected the coast from heavy  
62 precipitation during Hurricane Harvey. The horizontal divergence induced by the wind turbines,  
63 causing a reduction in vertical motion and precipitation downstream of the farms. Al Fahel and  
64 Archer [9] showed that the velocity deficit in wakes affected onshore precipitation and generated  
65 a divergence zone, which enhanced the vertical downward motion and suppressed precipitation.  
66 In addition, they reported that the effect of onshore precipitation was associated with the distance  
67 between OWFs and the coast.

68

69 Taiwan is located in the western North Pacific (Fig. 1a), which is one of the most active areas for  
70 tropical cyclones. On average, Taiwan experienced 4.8 typhoons per year between 1979 and  
71 2016 [10]. According to Taiwan's "Four-year Wind Power Promotion Plan," a goal of 5.7 GW  
72 before 2025 has been set for the capacity of OWFs  
73 (<https://www.twtpo.org.tw/eng/offshore/directions.aspx>). The number of wind turbines is  
74 expected to increase rapidly within the next few years. Once a tropical cyclone comes, its  
75 circulation could be altered by the OWFs and the coastal area would be influenced. To date, few  
76 studies have examined the effect of OWFs on local meteorological parameters and circulation

77 over Taiwan, particularly extreme weather events. The objective of this paper is to assess the  
78 potential impacts of Taiwan's proposed OWFs during a tropical cyclone by using the WRF  
79 model, which could be provided as reference for the authorities in environmental impacts and  
80 management. Section 2 describes the model configuration and the proposed OWFs. Section 3  
81 presents a detailed analysis of the potential effects of OWFs and the results of sensitivity  
82 simulation. Section 4 summarizes the results.

83

## 84 **Model setup and data**

### 85 **Model configuration**

86 In this study, the WRF model, version 3.9 [11], was utilized to investigate the effects of proposed  
87 OWFs on meteorological parameters over western Taiwan if the OWFs had existed during  
88 Tropical Storm Haitang (July 30–31, 2017). Simulations were performed using three nested  
89 domains with horizontal grid spacing 6 km (domain 1,  $211 \times 211$  grid points), 2 km (domain 2,  
90  $211 \times 253$  grid points) and 0.6667 km (domain 3,  $211 \times 313$  grid points), respectively (Fig. 1a).  
91 One-way nesting was employed in the simulation. The initial and boundary conditions were  
92 provided by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric  
93 Research (NCEP/NCAR) and Global Data Assimilation System with a resolution of  $0.25^\circ$  at an  
94 interval of 6 hours. The vertical layer consisted of 64 layers with 26 levels below 1 km and 4  
95 levels within the rotor area (i.e., 28–192 m), which had the lowest eta level of 0.996  
96 (approximately 17 m above surface) and the highest terrain-following hydrostatic pressure of 10  
97 hPa. The MODIS land use/land cover (LULC) and USGS Global Multi-resolution Terrain  
98 Elevation Data (GMTED2010, 30 arc seconds, ~1 km) were applied for the WRF model. The

99 model was used to simulate 4 days—from 00:00 UTC on July 28, 2017, to 00:00 UTC on August  
100 1, 2017—to examine the effect of proposed OWFs during Tropical Storm Haitang. The first two  
101 days were considered the spin-up time of the model, and the model output was hourly. In terms  
102 of physical parameterizations, the WRF single-moment 5-class microphysics scheme [12] and  
103 land surface physics with the Noah Land Surface Model [13] were adopted in the simulation.  
104 Furthermore, the Mellor–Yamada–Nakanishi–Niino 2.5–level planetary boundary-layer scheme  
105 [14] was used for wind farm parameterization (WFP) in the WRF model. Fitch et al. [15]  
106 developed WFP in the WRF model such that it represents a wind farm as an elevated momentum  
107 sink and an added turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) source. On the basis of the method reported by  
108 Blahak et al. [16], Fitch et al. [15] modeled the turbine drag by using the total fraction of kinetic  
109 energy extracted from the atmosphere by wind turbines, depending on thrust and power  
110 coefficients; additional details are given by Fitch et al. [15]. To improve the simulations of the  
111 track and intensity, the four-dimensional data assimilation (grid nudging) technique was only  
112 used in the outer domain (i.e. domain 1). To examine the effects of proposed OWFs on the  
113 atmospheric environment during the study period, differences from the inner domains (i.e.  
114 domain 2 and domain 3) between the simulations with OWFs (denoted as “case 711-WTs”) and  
115 without OWFs (denoted as “case CTRL”) were presented in this study.

116

## 117 **Proposed OWFs**

118 In Taiwan, the “Thousand Wind Turbines Project” was approved by the government in 2012.  
119 The Bureau of Energy, Ministry of Economic Affairs (MOEA), has been actively promoting  
120 wind power development. According to the “Four-Year Wind Power Promotion Plan,” the  
121 MOEA is planning to increase the proportion of power generated from renewable energy and has

122 set a target of 5.7 GW for offshore wind by 2025. Most of the proposed OWFs (Fig. 1a) are  
123 located offshore of Changhua County, and they have a potential output capacity of 2400 MW,  
124 accounting for 62.6 % of the total offshore wind power capacity. Moreover, many offshore wind  
125 turbines will be installed in the Taiwan Strait within the next few years.

126

127 In terms of the power capacity, if we assume that the type of wind turbine is the Vestas V164–  
128 8.0 MW [17] in this study, then the total number of wind turbines required would be as high as  
129 711. Therefore, we artificially installed 711 wind turbines in this area only in the inner domains  
130 (i.e. domain 2 and domain 3) of WRF model, following the offshore wind projects of Taiwan’s  
131 government. The location of offshore wind farms in the model is shown in Fig. 1a, and at a  
132 distance of 40–70 km from the coastline of Taiwan. The turbine, with a 164-m rotor diameter  
133 (D), had a rated capacity of 8.0 MW and a hub height of 110 m above mean sea level. The cut-in  
134 and cut-out wind speeds were 4.0 and 25.0 m s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The inter-turbine spacing was 4 D  
135 in the east–west direction and 6.4–11.6 D in the south–north direction.

136

137 For the sensitivity analysis, three additional simulations with different inter-turbine spacing and  
138 OWF locations were examined. Case 178-WTs covered the same area but with double the  
139 spacing of wind turbines as in case 711-WTs; thus case 178-WTs had one-fourth the number of  
140 wind turbines as case 711-WTs. Case 711-WTs\_W was a case in which the OWFs in case 711-  
141 WTs were moved 20 km westward. Similarly, case 711-WTs\_E was a case in which the OWFs  
142 in case 711-WTs were moved 20 km eastward.

143

144 **Results**

145 **Model validation**

146 To validate the performance of the WRF model, we examined the simulated track and MSLP of  
147 Tropical Storm Haitang, and precipitation during the study period against observations. The  
148 cyclone best track data and central minimum sea level pressure (MSLP) were obtained from the  
149 Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) typhoon archive (<http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/jma-eng/jma-center/rsmc-hp-pub-eg/besttrack.html>). The hourly precipitation was provided by Central  
150 Weather Bureau (CWB), Taiwan from 522 rain gauge stations. Fig. 1a and b show the  
151 comparison of track and MSLP, respectively, during July 30–31, 2017. Our simulated track was  
152 comparable to the observed track, whereas the intensity was underestimated before 03:00 UTC  
153 on July 31 (Fig. 1b). In particular, the simulated track agreed favorably with the observed track  
154 during the invasion period over Taiwan. The bias of the average track error was estimated to be  
155 lower than 22 km during 06:00–18:00 UTC on July 30, 2017. The simulated central MSLP (Fig.  
156 1b) was slightly underestimated but generally followed the observed trend. The bias was  
157 generally lower than 4 hPa after landfall of the tropical storm in western Taiwan. The observed  
158 accumulated (06:00–18:00 UTC, 30 July) precipitation was 30–200 mm in southwest Taiwan  
159 and could be more than 300 mm over mountain ranges in southern Taiwan (Fig. 1c). The  
160 simulation reasonably reproduced and captured the spatial distribution of accumulated  
161 precipitation over Taiwan (Fig. 1c). A strong spatial correlation, with a correlation coefficient as  
162 high as 0.73, was observed between the simulated and observed data.

164

165 **Effects of OWFs on atmospheric parameters during the study period**

166 Although our simulation focused on the Tropical Storm Haitang, there was another typhoon  
167 Nesat coming from the ocean to the northeast of Taiwan on 29 July. In other words, Typhoon  
168 Nest was prior to Typhoon Haitang approaching Taiwan (Fig. 2) and the circulations were  
169 complex over Taiwan as it was hit by two tropical cyclones during 29–31 July (Fig. 2). Actually,  
170 a Fujiwhara effect was observed, i.e. these two tropical cyclones were in the proximity of one  
171 another, rotating cyclonically around a common center, and their tracks eventually interfered  
172 with each other. Typhoon Nesat made landfall on the northeastern coast of Taiwan at 11:00 UTC  
173 on July 29, 2017 (Fig. 2). Concurrently, Tropical Storm Haitang was located in the South China  
174 Sea and gradually moved toward southwestern Taiwan. As Typhoon Nesat made landfall over  
175 China (at 00:00 UTC 30 July in Fig. 2), its intensity was dramatically weakened. On the other  
176 hand, it induced a southwesterly flow over the Taiwan Strait (00:00–03:00 UTC 30 July in Fig.  
177 3). A coupled low-pressure and a counter-clockwise rotation area can be seen around Taiwan,  
178 resulting from the interactions of these two cyclonic systems (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). In general, whether  
179 the OWFs impacted on atmospheric parameters over western Taiwan or not was strongly related  
180 to the location of the typhoon and its induced ambient wind direction. In particular, the mean  
181 height of the Central Mountain Range (CMR) in Taiwan (Fig. 1a) is more than 2000 m [18]. The  
182 mountains do not only block but also uplift rainfall systems depending on the location of the  
183 cyclone and the direction of rain bands' movement. Therefore, the strength of the effect  
184 depended on the variation of the cyclone track and interaction of the wind field with the complex  
185 geographic structure. According to the track of Typhoon Nest on 29 July, the wind speed was  
186 weak over western Taiwan due to the blocking effect of the CMR (Fig. 2). Thus, in this study,  
187 we focused on the passage of Tropical Storm Haitang over Taiwan during 30–31 July 2017.

188

189 To examine the effects of proposed OWFs on the atmospheric environment during an extreme  
190 weather event, we conducted simulations with and without the inclusion of OWFs. Data showed  
191 that landfall of Tropical Storm Haitang occurred in Pingtung County in southern Taiwan at 08:40  
192 UTC on July 30, 2017. Tropical Storm Haitang moved northward after 09:00 UTC and its low-  
193 pressure center was in western Taiwan. However, strong typhoon's cyclonic circulations  
194 interacted with the CMR mainly in the eastern of the island and resulted in a weak-wind region  
195 (less than  $10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) on the lee side of the mountains over western Taiwan. It was noted that two  
196 different directions' flow, northeasterly and northwesterly interacted at the upstream of OWFs  
197 between 09:00–12:00 UTC, on July 30 (Fig. 3). The flow over the Taiwan Strait was replaced  
198 with southwesterly between 15:00 and 21:00 UTC (Fig. 3) as Tropical Storm Haitang already  
199 moved to the north of OWFs. The wake effects [3,19–21] occurred due to a reduction of wind  
200 speed at downwind of OWFs during 09:00–13:00 UTC, on July 30 (Supplementary Fig. S1).  
201 Siedersleben et al. [7] used aircraft measurements and the WRF model to investigate all existing  
202 and planned wind farms in the North Sea. They reported that the effects of wakes on temperature  
203 and water vapor could propagate more than 100 km downwind under strong stable atmospheric  
204 conditions. In Taiwan, the distances of proposed OWFs from the west coast are 40–70 km. Thus,  
205 the atmospheric environment over western Taiwan is expected to be strongly affected by wind  
206 turbine wakes. Owing to the variation of wind field near the OWFs, the differences between the  
207 simulations with and without wind farms in other meteorological parameters (such as hub-height  
208 wind speed, hub-height divergence, hub-height vertical velocity and the precipitable water–  
209 vapor) over western Taiwan were examined from 9:00 UTC to 16:00 UTC 30 July.

210

211 Fig. 4 shows the area-mean of the time series of differences in hub-height wind speed, PWV and  
212 precipitation over the downwind regions (region I marked by a red box while region II was blue  
213 in Fig. 5a) of the OWFs and the west coast of Taiwan (indicated by the grey slashed area in Fig.  
214 5a). The mean wind direction presented the variations of the ambient flow at the downwind of  
215 OWFs. It was noted that the period of the wind speed reductions in different regions was  
216 different according to the ambient wind direction. The wind direction was changing from  
217 westerly to northwesterly and so as the wind speed significantly decreased at the downwind of  
218 OWFs between 06:00–10:00 UTC in region I (Fig. 4a). A similar wind direction changed also  
219 occurred in region II, and so as the wind speed decreased during 10:00–17:00 UTC (Fig. 4b). It  
220 could be recognized the propagation of the wake effect from region I and region II as a result of  
221 the movement of Tropical Storm Haitang its circulation interacted with OWFs (Fig. 3 and Fig.  
222 4a,b). In general, the wind speed was weak over western Taiwan. Over the west coastal Taiwan,  
223 the PWV and precipitation were consistently reduced after 13:00 UTC (Fig. 4c).

224

225 Fig. 5a shows a significant reduction in the 24-hour accumulated precipitation between case 711-  
226 WTs and CTRL over Taiwan. To quantify the reduction in precipitation downwind of OWFs in  
227 the western plain, we particularly focused on the area ranging from 23.0 °N to 24.5 °N and  
228 considered an elevation of fewer than 30 m in this study (the gray diagonally lined area in Fig.  
229 5a). Simulation results indicated that the average reduction in 24-hour accumulated precipitation  
230 over the western plain was approximately 6.1 % (7.6 mm), with the maximum reduction being  
231 up to 47 %. However, the precipitation was increase in the Taiwan Strait between the OWFs and  
232 the coastline, with a maximum value of approximately 35 %, which was associated with the  
233 enhanced wind speed (region I in Fig. 4a) owing to the channel effect [22]. The reason for

234 precipitation decreased onshore while increased offshore was similar to the finding proposed by  
235 Pan et al. [8]. Beyond our focus area over a mountain and southern Taiwan, their precipitation  
236 differences had nearly dipole patterns. It might be associated with simulation location differences  
237 in the cyclone's rain bands between 711-WTs and CTRL cases.

238

239 Fig. 5b–j presents a time–latitude diagram of the differences between 711-WTs and CTRL  
240 simulation, averaging from E–W direction over the western plain marked by grey slashed area in  
241 Fig. 5a. The simulation results indicated that the differences in hub-height divergence, wind  
242 speed, vertical wind speed, TKE, and moisture flux firstly varied southward and then northward  
243 from 06:00 UTC to 18:00 UTC. The reduction of hub-height reflectivity, precipitable water–  
244 vapor (PWV), and precipitation can be clearly seen after Tropical Storm Haitang made landfall  
245 (at 9:00 UTC 30 July). Precipitation was found to significantly decrease and then propagate  
246 northward after Haitang making landfall (Fig. 5i). A maximum reduction of  $21 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$   
247 corresponded to an increase of  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in hub-height divergence (Fig. 5b), and a reduction of  
248  $2.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $5.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $46 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{m s}^{-1}$ ,  $35 \text{ dBZ}$  and  $3.1 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$  in hub-height wind speed (Fig.  
249 5c), hub-height vertical velocity (Fig. 5d), hub-height moisture flux (Fig. 5f), hub-height  
250 reflectivity (Fig. 5g), and PWV (Fig. 5h), respectively. By contrast, the surface air temperature  
251 increased by up to  $0.4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 5j), which was likely caused by decreased precipitation resulting  
252 from the velocity deficit of wind turbine wakes. Overall, over the western plain, wind divergence  
253 occurred accompanied by a significant downward motion, less moisture transport, reflectivity,  
254 and precipitable water–vapor (PWV), as well as warmer air temperature, which adversely  
255 affected precipitation because of the presence of the wind farm. These factors are consistent with  
256 those reported by Al Fahel and Archer [9].

257

258 To further examine the interactions among the complex circulations and OWFs, vertical cross-  
259 sections along line AB (Fig. 6a) through the OWFs to the shore for WRF model domain 3  
260 (resolution is 0.6667 km) at 11:00 UTC, 30 July as shown in Fig. 6. The results shown in Fig. 6  
261 represented the differences between the simulations with and without OWFs. As Tropical Storm  
262 Haitang made landfall in southern Taiwan and toward to the north, its cyclonic flow was  
263 weakened due to blocking effect of the CMR. It was identified that the horizontal wind speed  
264 was over  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  to the east of the CMR, however, at the lee side of the mountain, the wind  
265 speed was less than  $10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  around the OWFs and the western plain of Taiwan (Fig. 3).

266

267 Fig. 6b–e illustrates the vertical cross-section in NW–ES direction across the OWFs from A to  
268 B. Owing to the presence of the OWFs, a maximum wind speed decrease ( $\sim 3.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , 43.3 %)   
269 was at the elevation of hub-height (110 m) within the rear side of the farm (near  $119.85^\circ \text{E}$ ). The  
270 OWFs not only can block wind speed but also enhance the upward and downward motion above  
271 the wind farm (Fig. 6c). The influence of the OWFs in wind speed was up to a height of 600 m  
272 (Fig. 6b), with a significantly decreased being around. The northwesterly winds were  
273 significantly affected over the OWFs as well as the onshore area (Fig. 6b). It can be seen that the  
274 divergence zones associated with horizontal wind speed deficit (Fig. 6b), and substantial  
275 downward motion (Fig. 6c) from the surface to an elevation of 1000 m. Furthermore, the adverse  
276 moisture flux transport (Fig. 6d) resulted in precipitation inhibiting onshore due to downward  
277 motion also can be seen in Fig. 5a. The surface air temperature (Fig. 6e) was then further  
278 influenced by the OWFs. It was estimated that a horizontal velocity deficit of  $6.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  ( $\sim 50\%$ ,  
279 near the triangle symbol in Fig. 6b), the vertical velocity decreased up to  $1.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  at a height of

280 1000 m (Fig. 6c) and surface moisture flux also decreased by  $125 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{m s}^{-1}$  (~80 %) over the  
281 west coastal area (near the triangle symbol in Fig. 6d). Moreover, air temperature increased by a  
282 maximum of  $1.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (~7.3 %, Fig. 6e) at a height of 1000 m and extend to the surface. This  
283 warming was associated with a descending motion and a decreased moisture flux. The higher  
284 temperature was due to the enhancement of vertical mixing as well as the contribution of warmer  
285 air from above resulting from turbulent mixing. Overall, over the western plain, wind divergence  
286 occurred accompanied by a significant downward motion, less moisture transport, and warmer  
287 air temperature, which adversely affected precipitation because of the presence of the wind farm.

288

### 289 **Sensitivity to OWF location**

290 Three additional simulations were performed to investigate the sensitivity of the results to OWF  
291 location and inter-turbine spacing. The OWF layout for the sensitivity simulations is shown in  
292 Fig. 7 and Table 1. We focused on different OWF arrangements and their effects on accumulated  
293 precipitation on July 30, 2017. The sensitivity study design considered the number of wind  
294 turbines (178-WTs, i.e., one-fourth of the wind turbines as in case 711-WTs; Fig. 7a) and  
295 locations of wind farms (Fig. 7b,c).

296

297 Fig. 7 and Table 1 show the differences in 24-hour accumulated precipitation between the cases  
298 considered in the sensitivity simulations and CTRL. Compared with case 711-WTs (Fig. 5a), a  
299 minor decrease in precipitation ( $-6.9 \text{ mm}$ ,  $-5.9 \%$ ) was found in case 178-WTs (Fig. 7a and  
300 Table 1). The magnitude of average change in precipitation for case 178-WTs was smaller than  
301 in case 711-WTs ( $-7.6 \text{ mm}$ ,  $-6.1 \%$ ), which was due to the less density of wind turbines. When

302 the OWF was moved away from the coastline (case 711-WTs\_W, Fig. 7b and Table 1), the  
303 average difference in simulated precipitation reduction ( $-1.8$  mm,  $-2.1$  %) was much smaller  
304 than that in case 711-WTs. Furthermore, when the OWF has moved closer to the shore (case  
305 711-WTs\_E, Fig. 7c), a larger influence on precipitation ( $-8.7$  mm,  $-7.3$  %) can be seen over  
306 western Taiwan.

307

308 Fig. 8 illustrates the simulated divergence and the difference in precipitation between the  
309 sensitivity and CTRL simulations (between  $23.0^{\circ}\text{N}$  and  $24.5^{\circ}\text{N}$  and between  $120.0^{\circ}\text{E}$  and  
310  $120.7^{\circ}\text{E}$ , bounded by the grey diagonally lined area in Fig. 5a), and the evolution spanning this  
311 area from the south to the north is displayed for the period 00:00 UTC to 23:00 UTC on July 30,  
312 2017. The reduction in precipitation was associated with an increase in divergence and is  
313 consistent with the findings reported by Pan et al. [8] and Al Fahel and Archer [9]. Moreover, the  
314 reduction in precipitation was strongly related to the occurrence of the divergence. The  
315 divergence was estimated to increase approximately 1–2 hours earlier than the reduction in  
316 precipitation (Fig. 8). When the number of turbines was decreased (by increasing the distance  
317 between turbines; case 178-WTs), the reduced precipitation and increased divergence decreased  
318 (Fig. 8b). Furthermore, simulation differences between cases 711-WTs\_W and 711-WTs\_E  
319 indicated that OWF location affected the location of divergence similar to precipitation, as  
320 shown in Fig. 8c,d.

321

322 Al Fahel and Archer [9] suggested that the divergence zone forms and precipitation effects are  
323 observed approximately 10 km downwind of the farm. They presented two OWFs in the western

324 United Kingdom and found that when the OWF was close to the shore, no significant reduction  
325 in onshore precipitation was observed. In addition, they reported that a divergence zone was  
326 associated with a downward motion, causing a reduction in precipitation downwind of the farms.  
327 A sufficient distance between wind turbines in OWFs and the shore was needed for the  
328 divergence zone to form, causing precipitation suppression near the shore.

329

330 The sensitivity results showed that not only the size and density of OWFs but also the distance of  
331 farms from the shore should be considered because of the corresponding alterations in  
332 meteorological conditions.

333

## 334 **Conclusions**

335 This study evaluated the potential effects of proposed OWFs on the atmospheric environment  
336 when an extreme weather event, Tropical Storm Haitang as an example, occurred over Taiwan.  
337 The WRF model (version 3.9) with a WFP scheme was employed in this study. According to the  
338 energy policy of the Bureau of Energy, MOEA, the proposed OWFs with 711 wind turbines  
339 (case 711-WTs), with a rated capacity of 5.688 GW, were implemented in the model.

340

341 Compared with observation, the control simulation without OWFs discovered an MSLP that was  
342 slightly underestimated but generally exhibited the same trend. The WRF model could reproduce  
343 the spatial distribution of accumulated precipitation, with the corresponding correlation  
344 coefficient at 0.73. Simulation results indicated that OWFs exerted significant effects on their  
345 surroundings and even downwind over the western plain of Taiwan. As Tropical Storm Haitang

346 made landfall in southern Taiwan and moved northward, its circulations would be blocked by the  
347 proposed OWFs. The presence of the OWFs was estimated to reduce the wind speed within the  
348 farms. Perturbations were generated upstream of the farms and then propagated downstream,  
349 which induced a significant downward motion, thus resulting in the formation of a divergence  
350 area. These processes affected wind speed, vertical velocity, moisture flux, radar reflectivity,  
351 precipitable water–vapor (PWV), precipitation as well as near-surface air temperature over  
352 western Taiwan, with the maximum alteration of  $-2.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $-5.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $-46 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  
353  $-35 \text{ dBZ}$ ,  $-3.1 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ,  $-21 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$  and  $+0.4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively. Sensitivity analysis was examined  
354 for the wind farm location and number and density of turbines, revealing their non-negligible  
355 influence.

356

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409

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415

416 **Author contributions**

417 C.Y. Lin conceived the idea, data interpretation, critical revision of the manuscript for important  
418 intellectual content, and study supervision. Model simulation and data analysis contributed from  
419 T.Y. Lee, Y.Y. Lin, Y.F. Sheng, and Y.T. Wu. T. Y. Lee and Y.Y. Lin drafted the manuscript. All  
420 authors have contributed to the final manuscript.

421

422 **Competing interests**

423 The authors declare no competing interests.

424

425 **Additional information**

426 Supplementary information: separate file in PDF format.

427

428

429 Table1. Summary of simulation cases and differences in accumulated precipitation compared  
 430 with that in CTRL over the west coastal area for the period 00:00 UTC to 23:00 UTC on July 30,  
 431 2017.

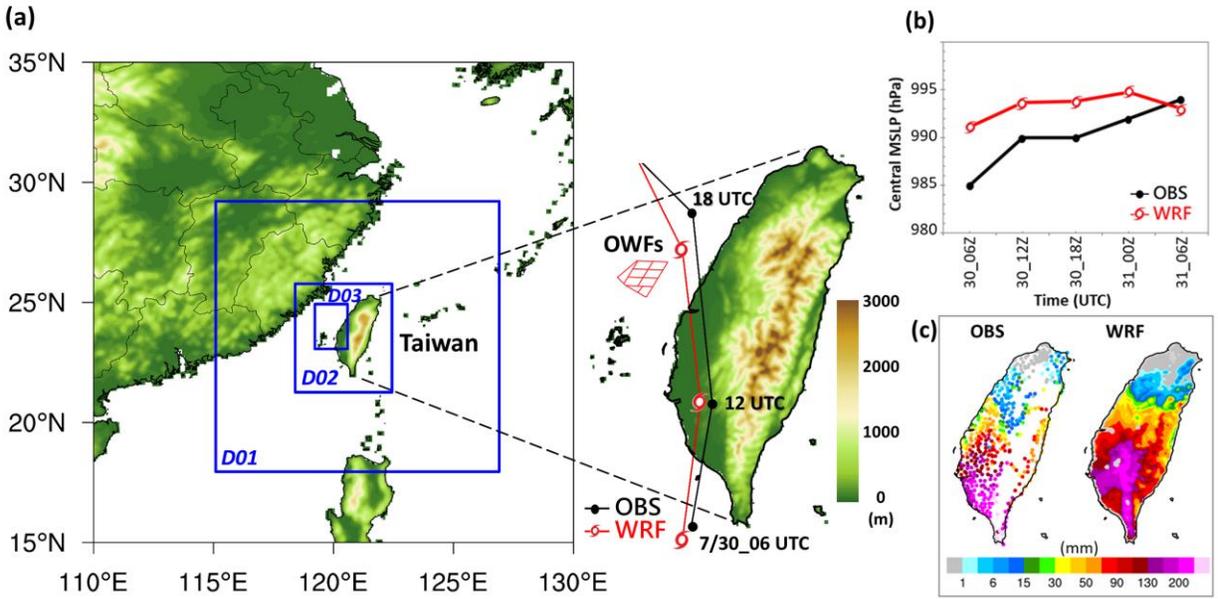
Cases	No. of turbines	The average change of precipitation
		mm (%)
CTRL	0	N/A
711-WTs	711	-7.6 (-6.1 %)
178-WTs	178	-6.9 (-5.9 %)
711-WTs_W	711	-1.8 (-2.1 %)
711-WTs_E	711	-8.7 (-7.3 %)

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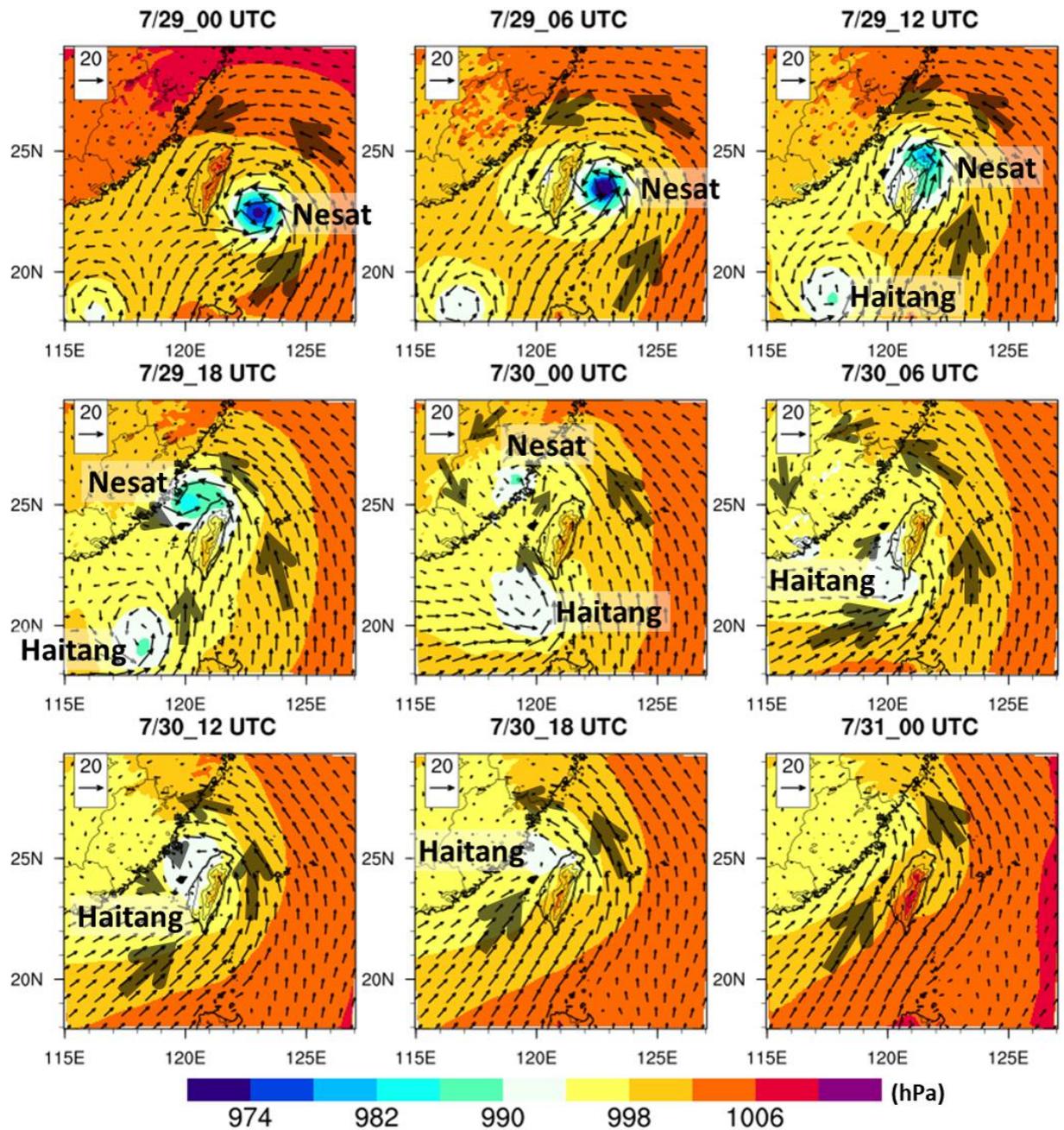
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437 Figure 1. (a) Configuration of Weather Research and Forecasting model domain, topography,  
 438 location of proposed offshore wind farms (OWFs) over Taiwan, and the comparisons of  
 439 observed data and WRF model CTRL simulation of the track. OWFs location were indicated by  
 440 the red area nearby western Taiwan. D01 , D02 and D03 indicate simulation domain 1, domain  
 441 2 and domain 3, respectively. (b) Comparisons of observed (black line) and WRF model CTRL  
 442 simulation (red line) in central minimum sea level pressure, and (c) Observed and simulated  
 443 accumulation precipitation over Taiwan during the period 06:00 UTC to 18:00 UTC 30 July 2017.  
 444

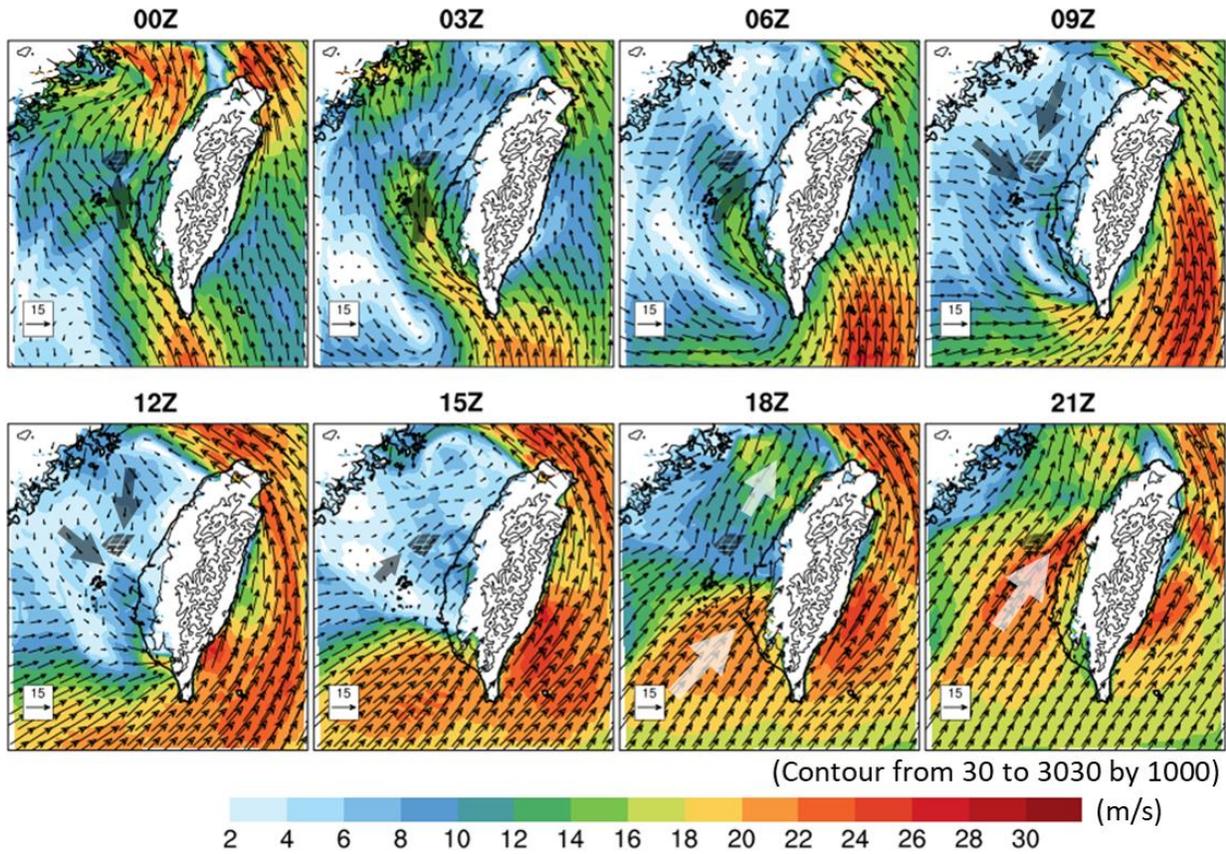


445

446 Figure 2. Sea level pressure (shaded, hPa) and 10-m horizontal wind (vector,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) during 29–31

447 July, 2017.

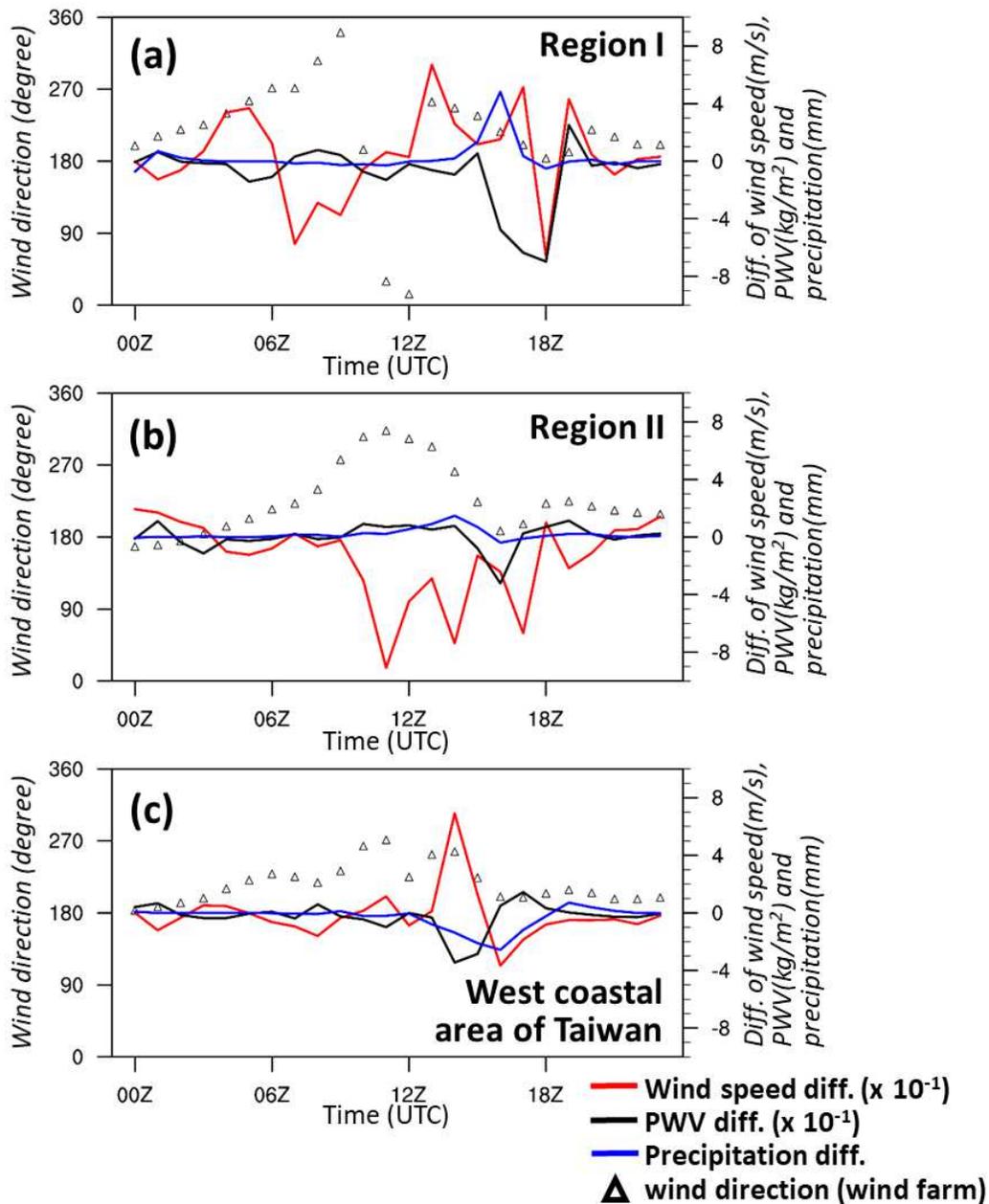
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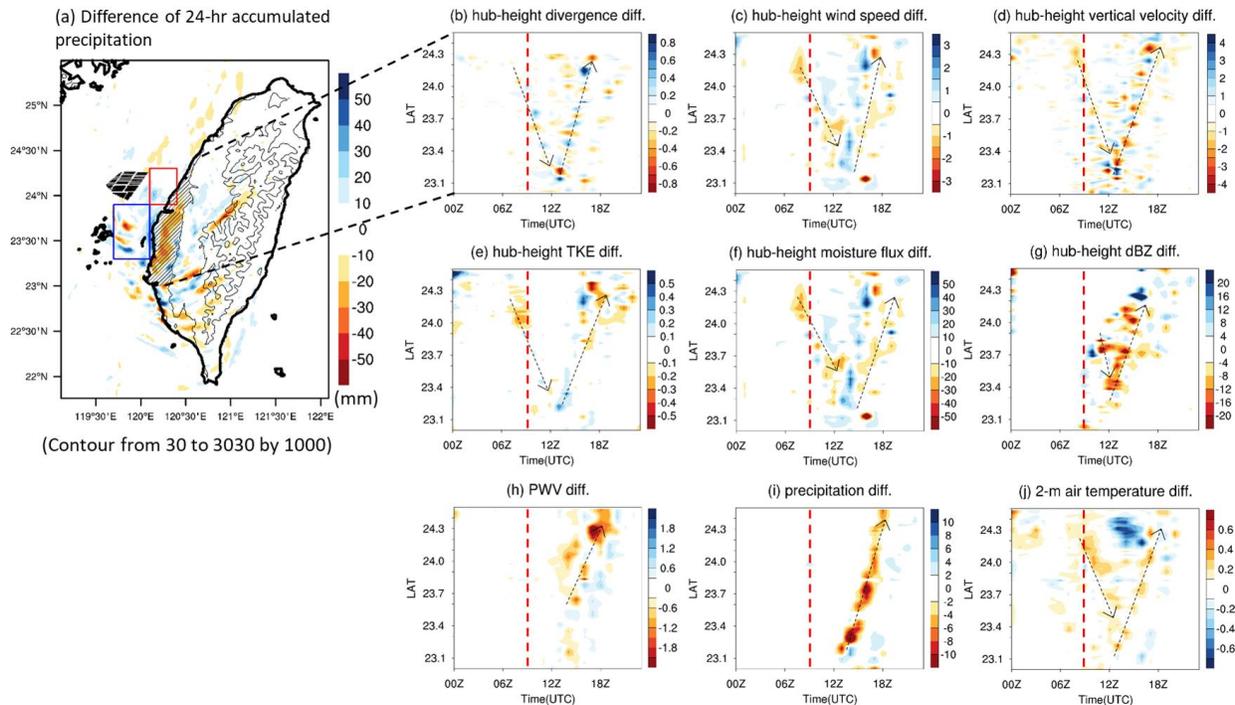
450 Figure 3. Hub-height (110 m) horizontal wind speed (shaded,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) and horizontal wind (vector,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) during 00:00–21:00 UTC on July 30, 2017. The black contour lines indicate the elevation  
 451  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) during 00:00–21:00 UTC on July 30, 2017. The black contour lines indicate the elevation  
 452 of Taiwan (m). The contour interval is 1000 m from 30 m to 3030 m.

453



454

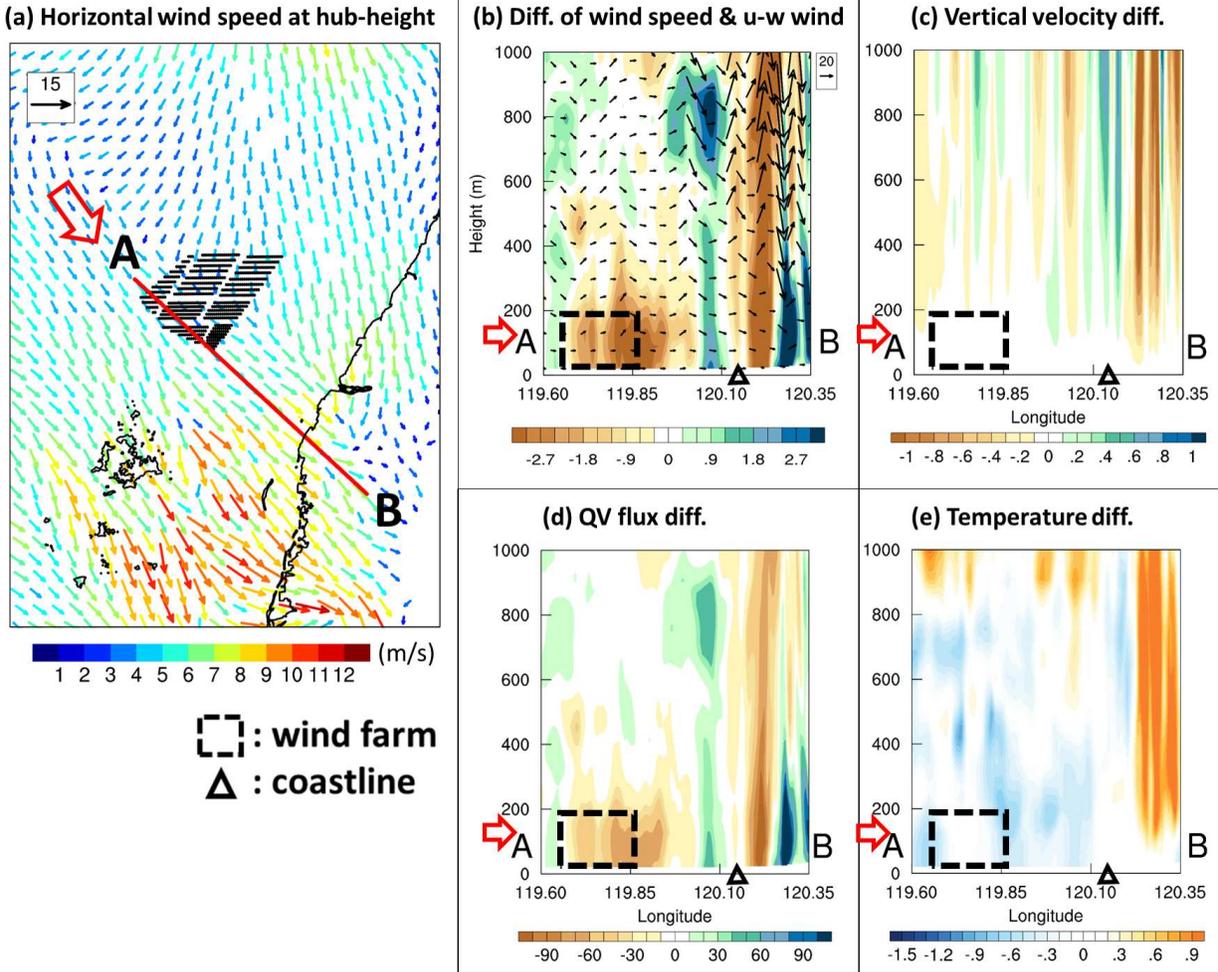
455 Figure 4. Area-mean of the time series of differences in hub-height wind speed (red lines, right  
 456 axis,  $\times 10^{-1}$ ,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), precipitable water–vapor (PWV, black lines, right axis,  $\times 10^{-1}$ ,  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ ) and  
 457 precipitation (blue lines, right axis, mm) between 711-WTs and CTRL simulations, and the area-  
 458 mean wind direction (denoted by the black triangle symbol, left axis, degree) of 711-WTs  
 459 simulation during 00:00–23:00 UTC on July 30, 2017. (a) region I, (b) region II and (c) the west  
 460 coastal area of Taiwan. Those areas were indicated by the red box, blue box and the grey  
 461 slashed area, respectively in Fig. 5a.



462

463 Figure 5. (a) Difference in 24-hour accumulated precipitation (mm) between 711-WTs and CTRL  
 464 simulations over Taiwan during 00:00–23:00 UTC on July 30, 2017. The gray diagonally lined  
 465 area represents the west coastal area of Taiwan. Time-latitude diagrams of differences  
 466 between 711-WTs and CTRL simulations at hub-height (b) divergence ( $\times 10^{-3}, s^{-1}$ ), (c) wind  
 467 speed ( $m s^{-1}$ ), (d) vertical velocity ( $\times 10^{-2}, m s^{-1}$ ), (e) TKE ( $m^2 s^{-2}$ ), (f) moisture flux ( $g kg^{-1} \cdot m s^{-1}$ ),  
 468 (g) reflectivity (dBZ), (h) precipitable water–vapor (PWV,  $kg m^{-2}$ ), (i) precipitation (mm) and (j) 2-  
 469 m air temperature ( $^{\circ}C$ ). Averaging from E-W direction over the west coastal area of Taiwan  
 470 (indicated by the grey slashed area in Fig. 5a. The red dashed lines indicate the time when  
 471 Tropical Storm Haitang made landfall at 09 UTC. The black contour lines in Fig. 5a indicate the  
 472 elevation of Taiwan (m). The contour interval is 1000 m from 30 m to 3030 m. The black dashed  
 473 arrows in Fig. 5b–j represent the direction of propagation.

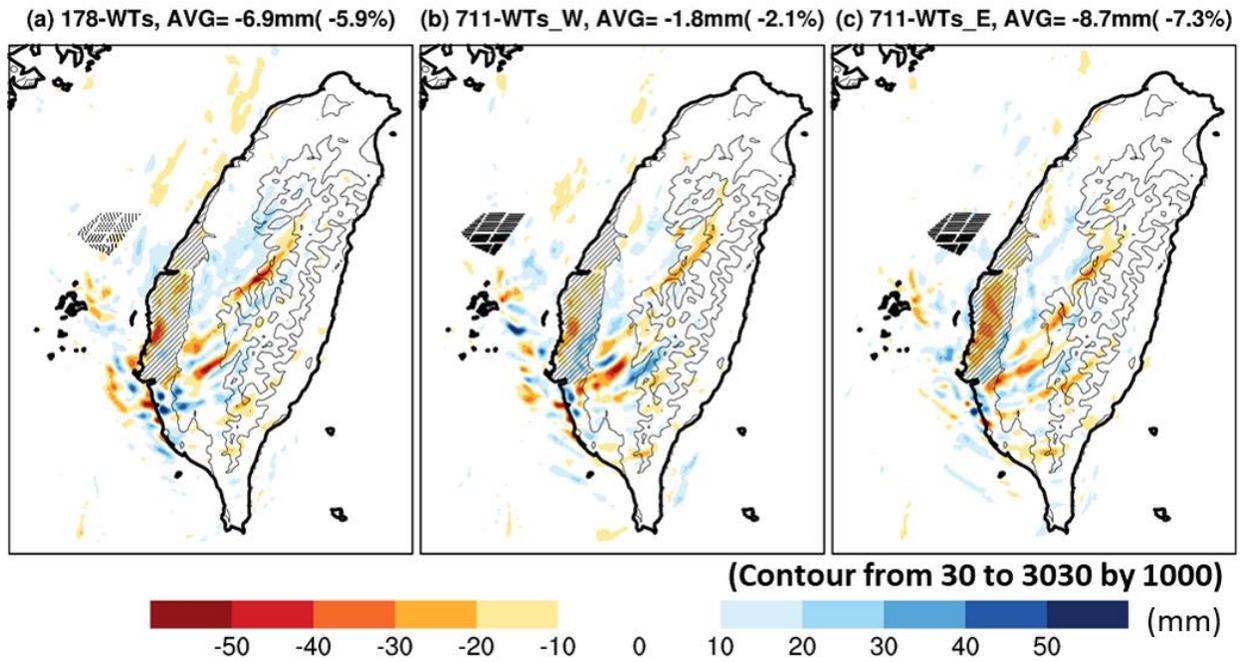
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476 Figure 6. Vertical cross-sectional diagram of simulation differences between case 711-WTs and  
 477 CTRL along the line AB at 11:00 UTC on July 30, 2017: (a) horizontal hub-height wind speed in  
 478 case 711-WTs (vector,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (b) horizontal wind speed difference (shaded,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) and u-w wind  
 479 vectors in case 711-WTs (w-wind:  $\times 10^{-2}$ ,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (c) vertical velocity difference ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), (d)  
 480 moisture flux difference ( $\text{g kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and (e) temperature difference ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). The black triangle  
 481 represents the coastline, and the location of offshore wind farms is marked with a dashed-line  
 482 square.

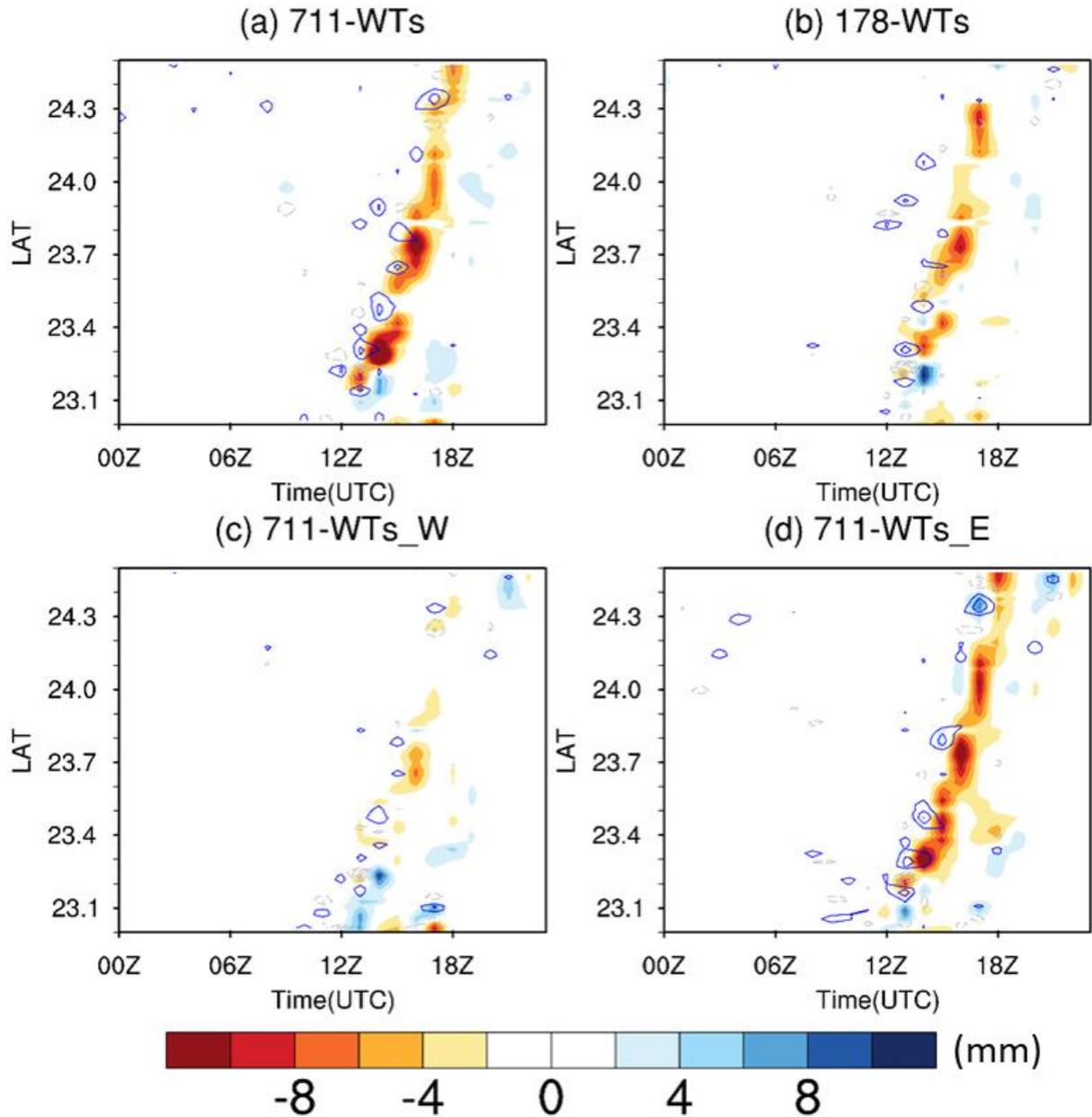
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484

485 Figure 7. Same as Fig. 5a except for the differences between the sensitivity cases and CTRL over  
 486 Taiwan during 00:00–23:00 UTC on July 30, 2017 (a) case 178-WTs, (b) case 711-WTs\_W, and (c)  
 487 case 711-WTs\_E.

488



489

490 Figure 8. Same as Fig. 5b-j except for the differences between the sensitivity cases and CTRL in  
 491 precipitation (colored, mm) and 10-m divergence (contour interval was  $1.5 \times 10^{-4}$ , from  $-6 \times$   
 492  $10^{-4}$  to  $6 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $s^{-1}$ ): (a) case 711-WTs, (b) case 178-WTs, (c) case 711-WTs\_W, and (d) case 711-  
 493 WTs\_E.

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