¹ Direction of Tornado Motions and Its

² Relationship with the Large-scale Wind Field

Yuri Mita and Tsubasa Kohyama

3

5

6

⁴ Department of Information Sciences, Ochanomizu University,

Tokyo, Japan

February 19, 2024

Corresponding author: Yuri Mita, Department of Information Sciences, Ochanomizu University, 2-1-1, Otsuka, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo, 112-8610, Japan. E-mail: mita.yuri@is.ocha.ac.jp

Abstract

According to Niino et al. (1997), more than half of tornadoes in Japan 8 from 1961 to 1993 moved toward the northeast quadrant. However, since 9 this data was based on visual observations, the reported directions of tor-10 nado motions were biased toward 8 directions out of 16. Therefore, using 11 tornado records from the database of gusty winds of the Japan Meteoro-12 logical Agency, our study collects directional data of tornado motions in an 13 objective way, and investigates comprehensively the relationship between 14 directions of tornado motions and the large-scale wind field. First, the di-15 rection of tornado movement is calculated from the latitudes and longitudes 16 of the starting and ending points of the damage path. These calculations 17 show that approximately 70% of tornadoes moved toward the northeast 18 quadrant. The preference for the northeastward movement remains similar 19 for the periods of 1961-1993 and 1994-2022, although the Japan Meteorolog-20 ical Agency changed several times their operation to collect tornado report 21 data during the periods. This northeast preference is caused by the superpo-22 sition of eastward and northward peaks. The eastward preference suggests 23 that the cumulonimbus clouds are transported by the westerly wind at the 24 middle troposphere to first order. In all seasons, a similar eastward prefer-25 ence is observed. In contrast, the distribution of the direction of movement 26 of JJA and SON tornadoes exhibit a northward predominance, due to torna-27

7

does associated with typhoons. The high correlations between the direction 28 of tornado motions and the large-scale wind directions are also consistent 29 with a notion that tornadoes are overall transported by winds along with 30 cumulonimbus clouds. Nevertheless, predicting the direction of supercell 31 movements using the method of Bunkers et al. (2000), the directions of 32 tornado movements are found to deviate approximately 60° counterclock-33 wise from the supercell movements on average. This result quantitatively 34 suggests that many tornadoes in Japan are not necessarily supercell-type. 35

Keywords tornado; direction of movement; typhoon; supercell; circular
 statistics

38 1. Introduction

A tornado is a violent atmospheric vortex caused by an updraft in a cu-39 mulus or cumulonimbus cloud. Tornadoes are generated when atmospheric 40 conditions are extremely unstable, and can cause extensive damage over 41 a narrow band-like area in a short period of time. In addition to damage 42 caused by tornadoes (Brooks and Doswell, 2002; Agee and Taylor, 2019) and 43 the spatio-temporal distribution of the occurrences of tornadoes (Dessens 44 and Snow, 1989; Taszarek and Gromadzki, 2017), the climatological as-45 pects (Galway, 1977) and the effect of their synoptic scale phenomena on 46 tornado occurrence have long been discussed (Tippett et al., 2016; Tochi-47 moto, 2022). Despite these efforts, tornado occurrence has been difficult 48 to predict. In the United States, where damage caused by tornadoes and 49 waterspouts is common, previous studies have not only focused on the oc-50 currence of tornadoes, but also on the directions and tracks of tornado 51 movements (Notis and Stanford, 1976; Suckling and Ashley, 2006). 52

Prediction of the occurrence and track of tornadoes is essential to reduce
damage on people and infrastructure. The frequency of tornado occurrence
and the extent of damage are affected by weather conditions and geograph-

ical factors thus, different features are observed in each country. As tor-56 nadoes are relatively local phenomenons, they are rarely considered as a 57 social issue in Japan, but they do cause damage. According to Kobayashi 58 and Norose (2012), 1228 tornadoes occurred from 1961 to 2011 in Japan, 59 and 42% of them caused human or property damage. The total number of 60 deaths was 39 and the number of injuries was 2,022. Owing to the rugged 61 terrain in Japan, few tornadoes have long damage paths, with an average 62 damage path length and average width of 3.2 km and 98 m, respectively (Ni-63 ino et al., 1997). Additionally, coastal areas, especially the Pacific coast, are 64 prone to tornadoes (Hayashi et al., 1994). In areas with a large population, 65 the possibility of severe damage from tornadoes is high, and if the weather 66 becomes more unstable in the future, the concerns of people living along 67 the coast may increase. 68

Many studies of developmental structure using numerical simulations 69 have been conducted in Japan to investigate tornadoes. Recent studies ex-70 tensively simulated a deadly tornado in Japan, which was spawned by the 71 supercell in Tsukuba on May 6, 2012. In these numerical simulations, the 72 vorticity source of mesocyclones was used to investigate the causes of tor-73 nado occurrence (Mashiko, 2016a,b; Yokota et al., 2018). Other previous 74 studies have also used Doppler radar measurements and numerical simu-75 lations to investigate the vertical structure of cumulonimbus clouds and 76

⁷⁷ occurrence factors of tonadoes (e.g., Niino et al., 1993; Mashiko et al., 2009;
⁷⁸ Adachi and Mashiko, 2020).

However, the number of statistical studies on tornadoes is limited owing 79 to the reliance on visual observation reports. As the most comprehen-80 sive statistical study on tornadoes in Japan, Niino et al. (1997) (hereafter 81 NFW97) conducted a significant statistical analysis of tornadoes and wa-82 terspouts during 33 years from 1961 to 1993, and estimated the risk of 83 tornado encounters in each prefecture. Other previous studies on tornado 84 statistics in Japan include the following: general statistical studies that 85 have proposed a scale for evaluating the strength of tornadoes based on 86 damage (Fujita, 1971); statistical investigation of tornado characteristics 87 by regions and weather conditions (Hayashi et al., 1994); and observational 88 research reports (e.g., Suzuki et al., 2000; Kobayashi et al., 2008). Although 89 previous studies have discussed the environmental fields suitable for tornado 90 occurrence and their predictability before tornado occurrence (Sakurai and 91 Kawamura, 2008; Shibata, 2006), little statistical research has been con-92 ducted on the subsequent movement of tornadoes, especially in the north-93 west Pacific. 94

This situation has motivated us to discuss the possibility of statistically predicting the direction of tornado movements after its occurrence. According to NFW97, more than 50% of tornadoes from 1961 to 1993 moved toward the northeast quadrant and approximately 22% moved northeastward (Fig. 1a). Nevertheless, these directions are not necessarily accurate as visual observation reports tend to be stated in eight major directions (i.e, $45^{\circ} \times n$ (integer) from the east), and NFW97 did not deeply investigate the reasons for the preference in the direction of tornado movement and the relationship with large-scale wind fields.

Therefore, in this study, we first calculate the direction of tornado move-104 ments, including occurring after NFW97, based on the starting and ending 105 points of the damage path. Subsequently, we verify that the northeastward 106 propensity remains the same in a more recent time period. Thereafter, we 107 consider the characteristics of the distribution of the directions of tornado 108 movement by categorizing tornado movements by seasons, regions of occur-109 rence, and meteorological conditions at the time of occurrence. We then use 110 circular statistics to determine the correlation between tornadoes and the 111 mean wind. We also employ a method to predict the supercell movement 112 to understand tornadoes that deviate from the mean wind. By doing so, we 113 explore the cause of the propensity toward the northeast quadrant. 114

This article is organized as follows. The data used in this study are described in the following section. In the third section, after examining the statistics of the distribution of the directions of tornado movement, we show that the directions of tornado movement and tropospheric wind

exhibit a statistically significant correlation. Furthermore, by predicting the
directions of supercell movements to compare them with those of tornado
movements, we examine the asymmetric drift relative to the mean wind.
The summary, including future challenges, are presented in section 4.

¹²³ 2. Data and Methods

¹²⁴ 2.1 Directions of tornado movement

The tornado data used for statistical analyses are the database of gusty 125 winds of the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA). This database contains 126 the records of 1,611 tornadoes between January 1961 and December 2022. 127 From these samples, we extract 1,068 tornado cases, including the records 128 of the time (on the second timescale) and location (latitude and longitude). 129 Observational errors are not considered. Subsequently, we use the time and 130 place of occurrence. The direction of tornado movement provided by JMA 131 is not used because available data are limited for cases where the track has 132 been determined or reported. 133

As shown in Fig. 1b, we calculat the direction of tornado movements using the starting and ending points of the damage path, without using visual observation reports or the wind direction at the surface. The direction 137 of tornado movement θ_t is calculated using equation 1,

$$\theta_t \equiv \arctan \frac{R(\varphi_2 - \varphi_1)}{R \cos \overline{\varphi}(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)} \tag{1}$$

where $\varphi_1(\varphi_2)$ and $\lambda_1(\lambda_2)$ represent the latitudes and longitudes of the starting (ending) points, respectively, and $\overline{\varphi} = (\varphi_1 + \varphi_2)/2$ denotes the mean latitude. R is the radius of the earth, namely, 6.4×10^6 m. If $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ $(\varphi_1 \neq \varphi_2)$, θ_t is defined to be 90°. When presenting the statistics in 16 directions, all directions are divided into 16 pieces at intervals of 22.5°. For example, when θ_t is 0°, the movement is eastward.

The tornado case is extracted only if it moved for more than 1 second (approximately 40 m) in either latitudes or longitudes from the observed damage, and 650 cases are available during the statistical period (1961-2022) of this study. In the Appendix, we discuss whether it is appropriate to consider a tornado track as a straight line connecting the places of occurrence and extinction by ignoring the details of its complex movement.

¹⁵⁰ 2.2 Typhoon-related Tornadoes

Tornadoes that occur in conjunction with typhoons (hereafter referred to as typhoon-related tornadoes) are defined on the basis of the distance from the typhoon center. The tornado database of JMA has a list of candidates for related synoptic disturbances, and the number of estimated typhoonrelated tornadoes is 144 out of the 650 tornadoes presented in section 2.1.

Nevertheless, as the precise definition is not provided, we have extracted the 156 typhoon-related tornadoes as follows. We first obtain the location of the 157 center of the typhoon from the Best Track Data of The Regional Specialized 158 Meteorological Center (RSMC) at the closest time when a tornado was 159 recorded by the JMA. If multiple typhoons occurred simultaneously, the 160 one with the closest distance is used. Subsequently, a tornado is defined 161 to be typhoon-related if its distance from the center of the typhoon is less 162 than 1,500 km. 163

$$R\sqrt{(\cos\overline{\varphi}(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1))^2 + (\varphi_2 - \varphi_1)^2} < 1,500 \text{ km}$$
(2)

The number of extracted typhoon-related tornadoes are 181, which is comparable with that of the JMA database.

166 2.3 Wind Directions

We use the reanalysis data of horizontal winds at specified pressure 167 levels (300, 400, and 500 hPa, and at intervals of 50 hPa from 600 to 1000168 hPa) provided by the European Medium-Range Weather Center (ECMWF) 169 Reanalysis 5 (ERA5). The horizontal resolution is 0.25° in both zonal and 170 meridional directions, and the temporal resolution is 1 h. At the time 171 immediately preceding tornado occurrence, we use the mean of winds at 172 four nearest neighbors of the point of occurrence for both zonal (u) and 173 meridional (v) wind data. The angle of wind direction θ_w is calculated 174

using equation 3,

$$\theta_w \equiv \arctan \frac{v}{u} \tag{3}$$

and if u = 0, θ_w is defined to be 90°. For example, the wind directions toward the east (i.e., westerly wind), north, and south are represented by θ_w values of 0°, 90°, and -90°, respectively.

179 2.4 Circular Statistics

Angular data poses a major problem when conducting statistical anal-180 ysis. Notably, statistical analysis methods that target non-angular data 181 cannot be used when analyzing angular data. This problem is caused by 182 the fact that angles (or circumferences) have periodicity. For example, a 183 mean value will have unnatural definitions if applied naively to angular 184 data. The mean of 1° and 359° should not be $(1^{\circ}+359^{\circ})/2 = 180^{\circ}$, but 185 should be 0° . The statistical analysis method for angular data is defined as 186 circular statistics (e.g., Fisher et al., 1993; Mardia et al., 1999). 187

In this study, we calculate the correlations between two angular variables, tornado movement direction θ_t , and wind direction θ_w at the time of tornado occurrence using the circular correlation measure descrobed by Jammalamadaka et al. (2001). The circular correlation coefficient γ_c is de $_{192}$ fined as

$$\gamma_c \equiv \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n \sin(\theta_{tk} - \overline{\theta_t}) \sin(\theta_{wk} - \overline{\theta_w})}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n \sin^2(\theta_{tk} - \overline{\theta_t}) \sin^2(\theta_{wk} - \overline{\theta_w})}}$$
(4)

¹⁹³ where the direction of tornado movement is θ_{tk} , that of the wind is θ_{wk} , and ¹⁹⁴ the sample size is denoted as n. Here, the mean values of θ_{tk} and θ_{wk} using ¹⁹⁵ circular statistics are represented by $\overline{\theta_t}$ and $\overline{\theta_w}$, respectively, and calculated ¹⁹⁶ as

$$\overline{\theta_i} \equiv \arctan \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin \theta_{ik}}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \cos \theta_{ik}} \quad (i = 1, 2)$$
(5)

¹⁹⁷ Based on Jammalamadaka et al. (2001), the test statistic z_{γ} of two corre-¹⁹⁸ lated variables is determined as

$$z_{\gamma} = \gamma_c \sqrt{\frac{n\alpha_{20}\alpha_{02}}{\alpha_{22}}}$$

199 where

$$\alpha_{ij} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sin^{i}(\theta_{tk} - \overline{\theta_{t}}) \sin^{j}(\theta_{wk} - \overline{\theta_{w}})$$

and the statistical confidence interval is calculated assuming that z_{γ} follows a standard normal distribution.

202 2.5 Estimation of supercell-type tornadoes

The causes of tornadoes in Japan range from large-scale disturbances, 203 such as typhoons and cold fronts, to localized disturbances, and include 204 both supercell and non-supercell types. A typical method for predicting the 205 movement direction of supercells is proposed by Bunkers et al. (2000), and 206 is referred to as the internal dynamics (ID) method. If most tornadoes in 207 Japan are supercell-type, we can predict the movement of tornadoes along 208 with that of supercells. To test whether most tornadoes are of the supercell-209 type, we calculate the movement vector of the supercell for each date and 210 time of tornado occurrence, following the ID method. 211

We use the reanalysis data of horizontal wind at specified pressure levels (intervals of 100 hPa from 500 to 1000 hPa) provided by ERA5. The equations for the motion of right-moving (RM) and left-moving (LM) supercells are expressed as

$$\mathbf{V}_{\rm RM} = \mathbf{V}_{\rm mean} + D \left[\frac{\mathbf{V}_{\rm shear} \times \hat{\mathbf{k}}}{|\mathbf{V}_{\rm shear}|} \right]$$
(6)

216

$$\mathbf{V}_{\rm LM} = \mathbf{V}_{\rm mean} - D\left[\frac{\mathbf{V}_{\rm shear} \times \hat{\mathbf{k}}}{|\mathbf{V}_{\rm shear}|}\right]$$
(7)

Following Bunkers et al. (2000), D = 7.5 m/s is the relative speed of the supercell to the mean wind. \mathbf{V}_{mean} and $\mathbf{V}_{\text{shear}}$ are the advective and propagation components, respectively. In this study, \mathbf{V}_{mean} is estimated as the mean wind vector from 500 to 1000 hPa (at intervals of every 100 hPa), V_{shear} as the difference between the 500 and 1000 hPa winds, and $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ denotes the unit vector along the vertical axis.

223 **3.** Results

First, using the JMA data and equation 1, we have compared our study 224 with a previous study, and presented the geographical distribution of the di-225 rections of tornado movement in subsections 3.1 and 3.2. Subsequently, we 226 further analyze the obtained data on the seasonality and their relationship 227 with typhoons in subsections 3.3 and 3.4. Thereafter, in subsections 3.5 228 and 3.6, we indicate the relationship between tornado movement and the 229 large-scale wind at the time of tornado occurrence. Additionally, in sub-230 section 3.7, we discuss the relationship between the tornado and supercell 231 movements. Last, in subsection 3.8, we have conducted similar analyses by 232 focusing only on tornadoes that have caused more than a certain amount 233 of damage. 234

²³⁵ 3.1 Comparison with the previous study NFW97

First, to establish the statistical confidence of the directional predominance indicated in NFW97, we present statistics for the same period as in NFW97 and the subsequent period. During the same period, we have reproduced that the directions of tornado movement are concentrated in

the northeast quadrant (Fig. 1c). Here, the northeast quadrant denotes 240 the 90° -range counterclockwise from the east to the north. Among the 241 149 tornadoes that occurred between 1961 and 1993, 73% (109 cases) of 242 them moved toward the northeast quadrant. While NFW97 consolidated 243 the movement directions of 353 tornadoes over the same period, this study 244 is limited to 149 cases. The reason for this discrepancy lies in the fact that, 245 while NFW97 gathers tornado information from various reports by JMA 246 and literature by local meteorological observatories, this study relies solely 247 on the database of gusty winds currently provided by JMA. 248

The protrusions in 8 directions reported in NFW97 (Fig. 1a) became 249 moderate, as shown in Fig. 1c. As previous indicated in NFW97, these 250 protrusions are likely caused by the fact that people tend to state direc-251 tions in these eight directions when presenting visual observation reports. 252 In NFW97, northeast was the most frequent direction of tornadoes, at ap-253 proximately 22%. Similarly, in our result, northeast is the most frequent, at 254 18%, followed by east, east-northeast, and north-northeast during the same 255 period. 256

²⁵⁷ 501 tornadoes that occurred between 1994 and 2022, which is after the ²⁵⁸ time span of NFW97, are also analyzed similarly. Consequently, Fig. 1c ²⁵⁹ shows that 64% (327 cases) of the tornadoes moved to the northeast quad-²⁶⁰ rant. During this period, the east direction has the highest number of

tornado occurrences, at 17%, followed by north, east-northeast, and north-261 east. As the years progress, reports of smaller tornadoes with less damage 262 increased, and this change is presumably the reason for the difference in the 263 two shapes shown in Fig. 1c. The F1 tornadoes in the Fujita scale (here-264 after referred to as the F scale), which roughly estimates wind speed based 265 on the damage caused by gusts, such as tornadoes and downbursts, were 266 83% from 1961 to 1993 but 36% for the subsequent period. In both periods 267 (i.e., 1961-1993 and 1994-2022), nearly half the tornadoes were concentrated 268 within the 45° range from the east to the northeast. The qualitative results 269 are the same for the two independent periods thus, the northeastward pre-270 dominance is presumably not attributed to a sampling bias. 271

272 3.2 Geographical Distribution (1961-2022)

Tornadoes move to the northeast quadrant all over the Japanese main-273 land (Fig. 1d). Additionally, the occurrence of tornadoes are concentrated 274 on the coast and in the Kanto Plain. Among all 650 tornadoes that occurred 275 between 1961 and 2022, 66% (426 cases) of them moved to the northeast 276 quadrant, comprising east (16%), east-northeast (13%), northeast (13%), 277 north (13%), and north-northeast (10%) directions. The distribution of tor-278 nado occurrence is similar to that of previous statistical studies, with many 279 tornadoes occurring along the coast, Kanto Plain, and plains of Miyazaki 280

and Shizuoka. In Japan, with many mountainous areas, this distribution of
tornadoes is mostly ascribed to the topography, but it also depends on the
environment near the point of tornado occurrence (e.g., typhoons, fronts,
and low pressure systems).

285 3.3 Seasonal Distribution

More than 60% of the tornadoes that occur in Japan move toward 286 the northeast quadrant in all seasons. Figure 2a shows the number of 287 tornadoes observed in June-July-August (JJA) and September-October-288 November (SON), when the number of tornado occurrences is particularly 289 high. SON experiences the highest number of cases of 321, followed by JJA 290 (178 cases), December-January-February (DJF, 78 cases), and March-April-291 May (MAM, 73 cases). In these cases, 60, 65, 82, and 74% of tornadoes in 292 SON, JJA, DJF, and MAM, respectively, moved to the northeast quadrant. 293 In JJA and SON, the number of tornadoes exhibits peaks in both the 294 east and north directions (Fig. 2a). In particular, in SON, almost the 295 same number of tornadoes move toward the east and north (among the 296 321 tornadoes in SON, 53 and 47 tornadoes move to the north and east, 297 respectively). This bimodal feature is particularly interesting because when 298 considering all seasons, tornado movement exhibits moderate preference 299 toward the northeast quadrant. As these two peaks are seasonal, in the 300

next subsection, we discuss tornadoes associated with typhoons, which are
 common during this season.

In DJF and MAM, when tornado occurrences are relatively rare, tornadoes often occur on the side of Sea of Japan. 21 and 19% of tornadoes in DJF and MAM, respectively, moved to the east and more than half of them moved from east to northeast in both seasons.

The peaks to the north are observed only in JJA and SON, suggesting that tornado movement and its meteorological conditions are closely related, although the spatial and temporal scale of tornadoes is extremely small. The map in Fig. 2b shows the geographical distribution of tornado in JJA and SON. Tornadoes during these two seasons are frequently observed in the Pacific coast and plains, and show little difference in their geographical distribution.

314 3.4 Relationship with Typhoons

As specified in the previous subsection, 47 and 53 tornadoes moved eastward and northward, respectively, among the 321 cases in SON. Presumably, these two peaks are observed owing to different mechanisms, and the northward peak is observed only from July to October. Therefore, in this subsection, we investigate the relationship of tornadoes with typhoons because tornadoes occurring intensively in these seasons are occasionally ³²¹ related to typhoons.

Typhoons are one of the main weather conditions of tornadoes (Niino 322 et al., 1997). According to Hayashi et al. (1994), the number of typhoons 323 since the 1980s has not decreased compared with that in the previous years, 324 but the annual number of tornadoes caused by typhoons has decreased. 325 However, based on the data used in this study, we observed 31 cases in 326 the first 20 years (1961-1980), 24 cases in the next 20 years (1981-2000), 327 and 81 cases in the next 22 years (2001-2022) thus, this number is actually 328 increasing. This increase is likely attributed to an increase in the number of 329 reported cases since 2000 and to changes in operation of damage surveys by 330 the JMA several times, and may not be a real upward trend in the number 331 of cases. 332

We extract 64 and 114 cases of tornadoes occurring with typhoons in JJA and SON. The definition of typhoon-related tornadoes is described in section 2.2. Typhoon-related tornadoes move most frequently to the north (Fig. 3a), whereas typhoon-unrelated tornadoes to the east (Fig. 3b). These two peaks are consistent with the observational evidence suggesting that 65% of all tornadoes from 1961 to 2022 moved to the northeast quadrant (subsection 3.2).

More than 70% of typhoon-related tornadoes (73 and 76% for JJA and SON, respectively) are concentrated in the northern quadrant (northeast

to the northwest), and few moved eastward. In contrast, approximately 342 70% (72 and 65% for JJA and SON, respectively) of typhoon-unrelated 343 tornadoes moved to the northeast quadrant. Thus, the peak to the north is 344 presumably caused by typhoon-related tornadoes. 345

The reason why tornadoes associated with typhoons move to the north 346 is that most tornadoes occur in the northeast quadrant of a typhoon (e.g., 347 Kobayashi et al., 2007; McCaul, 1991), which has a counterclockwise cir-348 culation, yielding southerly winds in the environmental fields. Based on 349 the JMA data, more than 80% of typhoon-related tornadoes occurred in 350 the northeast quadrant relative the typhoon, and nearly a half of these tor-351 nadoes particularly occurred in the 22.5°-range of the northeast direction. 352 A similar directional bias in the incidence of tornado events, rather than 353 their movement after their occurrence, is also reported for hurricanes (e.g., 354 Novlan and Gray, 1974; Gentry, 1983). 355

3.5Correlations with the large-scale wind field at each pres-356 sure level

357

The wind direction at the time of tornado occurrence is mainly west-358 ward, and is mostly toward the northeast quadrant, regardless of the alti-359 tude (Fig. 4a). As mentioned above, as eastward movements are the most 360 common in all seasons, we hypothesize that to first order, the direction of 361

tornado movement is determined by the movement of cumulonimbus clouds
steered by the westerly winds in the middle troposphere. Therefore, in this
subsection, we calculate the angular correlations between the directions of
tornado movement and wind.

First, we focus on the 500 hPa level, which is present at an altitude of 366 approximately 5.5 km in the middle troposphere. Figure 4b shows the scat-367 ter plot between the wind direction and direction of tornado movement. At 368 the time of tornado occurrence, 75% of the winds blew toward the north-369 east quadrant. To investigate the relationship between wind and tornadoes 370 moving toward the northeast quadrant, we hereafter only consider tornadoes 371 whose wind direction and movement direction are within $-45^{\circ} < \theta \le 135^{\circ}$ 372 (524 cases at the 500 hPa level; the black box shown in Fig. 4b). The 373 correlation coefficient between the directions of tornadoes movement and 374 wind at the 500-hPa level is 0.58 (Fig. 4c), which is statistically significant 375 at the 95% confidence level. 376

We similarly calculate the correlations at each pressure level from 300 to 1000 hPa (Fig. 4c). The 500-700 hPa layer exhibits the strongest correlation, and this correlation gradually decreases with decreasing altitude toward the surface of the Earth. This decrease occurres because as inferred from Fig. 4a, the northeastward predominance in wind direction becomes weaker with decreasing altitude. Both typhoon-related and typhoon-

unrelated tornadoes have less strong correlations than in the total case, and
the correlations are almost the same in both cases.

385 3.6 Directional drifts relative to tropospheric winds

Among tornadoes that occurred from 1961 to 2022, the directions of tornado movement and wind were most often the same, confirming the high correlation presented in subsection 3.5. Figure 5a shows the difference between the directions of tornado movement and wind at the 500 hPa level, $\theta_t - \theta_w$, i.e., the angle at which a tornado moves relative to the 500 hPa wind. In 292 out of the 650 cases, the directions of the winds and tornado movements are within 30° of each other.

If looked at closely, however, Fig. 5a shows a difference in the ratio between clockwise and counterclockwise drifts, and it is asymmetrical. In 62% (405 cases) of all cases, the direction of tornado movement is within 90° counterclockwise, relative to the wind direction. In contrast, the directions of tornado movement in only 24% (158 cases) of the cases are within 90° clockwise.

This asymmetry is also observed in typhoon-related tornadoes. In Fig. 5b, 144 tornadoes associated with typhoons are similarly illustrated. Although the number of tornadoes within 30° is small (59 cases), 128 tornadoes travel within 90° counterclockwise from the wind, accounting for

⁴⁰³ 70% of the total. The number of clockwise tornado cases is 18, which is an
⁴⁰⁴ overwhelmingly smaller number than the case shown in Fig. 5a.

405 3.7 Determination of supercell-type tornadoes and its rela 406 tionship with tornado movements

To understand the mechanism of the drifts presented in subsection 3.6, 407 we investigate the relationship between supercells and tornadoes in Japan. 408 by calculating the direction of supercell movements. Supercells cause ex-409 tremely severe storms, including tornadoes, and the supercells propagate 410 to the left and right in response to the vertical wind shear of environmen-411 tal winds. The ID method proposed by Bunkers et al. (2000), which uses 412 hodograph techniques, is a standard procedure to predict supercell move-413 ments, including atypical supercells. A typical profile yields RM supercells, 414 and most violent tornadoes are produced by supercells (e.g., Moller et al., 415 1994). 416

By hypothesizing that all tornadoes in Japan are of the supercell type, we follow the ID method to approximate the movement direction vector of the RM supercell that drives the tornado (see subsection 2.5). Although the conclusion by Bunkers et al. (2000) states that the usefulness of this method depends on the presence of sufficient vertical wind shear for the occurrence of the supercell process, we use this method to obtain a rough estimate. As the data of tornado speed are unavailable, we only compare the directions of the supercell (referred to as θ_s) and tornado movements (θ_t).

Following the definition of RM supercells, 94% of the supercells drifted 425 clockwise relative to the environmental wind (500 hPa layer). For most 426 of the RM supercells, the angle $\theta_s - \theta_w$ falls within the range of 0° to 427 -60° , with the mean being -30° . This result is consistent with those of a 428 previous study by Maddox (1976), which proposed a simpler way to predict 429 the movement of tornadoes through proximity soundings (i.e., storms, not 430 necessarily supercells). They empirically found that supercells deviated 431 approximately 30° clockwise from the mean wind direction. 432

Based on these calculations, few tornadoes are found to be of the supercelltype. As shown in Fig. 5c, on average, the direction of tornado movement θ_t is approximately 35° counterclockwise away from θ_s . Only 181 tornadoes moved within 30° from θ_s , accounting for less than 30%.

Typhoon-related tornadoes are also not supercell-type, as expected, and drift counterclockwise more than all cases (Fig. 5d). The asymmetric drifts presented in subsection 3.6 occur as tornadoes tend to move more counterclockwise (LM) relative to the mean wind, whereas supercells tend to move clockwise (RM).

⁴⁴² Notably, many tornadoes move along with the supercell direction if su⁴⁴³ percells are assumed to be LM supercells relative to the mean wind (Fig.

5e). Therefore, we have made the following speculations regarding the in-444 fluence of large-scale fields on the occurrence of tornadoes. In general, RM 445 supercells are cyclonic, and LM supercells are anticyclonic. Cyclonic vor-446 tices develop in large-scale fields with the help of the Coriolis force thus, 447 so the energy is easily amplified and manifests as supercells. In contrast, 448 anticyclonic vortices are prohibited to develop strongly in large-scale fields. 449 Hence, anticyclonic vortices may not manifest as supercells, but may result 450 in tornadoes by the cascading of energy on smaller meteorological scales. 451 Nevertheless, this speculation does not match the rotational direction of 452 the tornadoes from observational reports, and is only consistent with en-453 ergy. In the JMA database, the directions of rotation of only approximately 454 30% (193 cases) of all tornadoes are recorded, and 18 tornadoes, less than 455 10%, were reported to be anticyclonic (clockwise). Niino et al. (1997) also 456 reported that 15% of all tornadoes were anticyclonic. As supercell-type tor-457 nadoes tend to be more violent than non-supercell-type tornadoes (Brooks 458 and Doswell III, 2001), cases with a clockwise rotation may possibly be 459 underestimated. 460

461 3.8 Tornadoes that caused more damage (F1 or higher)

From the perspective of disaster prevention, strong tornadoes that cause societal damage are especially important. When conducting the same anal464 ysis on tornadoes whose F-scale, a method to classify tornadoes based on 465 the maximum level of damage, is F1 or higher, the results are consistent 466 with those obtained in our study (Fig. 6). The number of these strong cases 467 is 305, which is half the number of all the cases (650 cases).

The preference toward the northeast quadrant remains unchanged, but 468 the distribution of movement directions is more evenly prominent to the 469 east and the north (Fig. 6a). Compared with that of the results for all 470 cases, the difference in prominence of tornado movement is because many 471 of the strong cases are tornadoes associated with typhoons. In particular, 472 112 cases are associated with typhoons, and 193 are without typhoons for 473 strong tornadoes. This is in contrast to the 181 cases with typhoons and 469 474 cases without typhoons for all the cases. We investigated the relationship 475 between the direction of tornado movement and, the movement of 500 hPa 476 winds and RM supercells, in the same way as subsection 3.6, 3.7, but the 477 shape of the histogram does not change. 478

Fig. 6

479 4. Summary

Approximately 70% of tornadoes that occurred in Japan from 1961 to 2022 moved to the northeast quadrant. We have confirmed the preference in the movement direction indicated in the previous study, namely, NFW97, by calculating the direction in a more objective manner using the starting

and ending points of the damage path. This preference has not changed 484 between the NFW97 (1961-1993) and subsequent periods (1994-2022), and 485 the direction of tornado movement is predominantly from the east to the 486 north throughout Japan. This predominance is observed throughout the 487 seasons, but the distribution of tornadoes occurring in JJA and SON show 488 sharp peaks in the north and east directions. By classifying tornadoes 489 according to whether they occur in association with typhoons or not, the 490 peak of the frequency to the north are largely explained by typhoons, while 491 that to the east is caused by a mid-level flow in an environment without 492 typhoon. 493

To predict the direction of tornado movements, we should pay attention 494 to the troposphere as according to a first-order approximation tornadoes 495 move in the same direction as the large-scale wind field. Using circular 496 statistics, we have confirmed statistically significant correlations between 497 the directions of tornado movement and wind throughout the entire tropo-498 spheric layer. However, more tornadoes drift counterclockwise than clock-499 wise. Many tornadoes move more than 35° to the left relative to the mean 500 wind. This direction is opposite to the movement of typical supercells, 501 which tend to move to the right relative to the mean wind. Based on this 502 result, many tornadoes that occur in Japan are suggested to not belong to 503 be the supercell-type. Careful examination is required to understand the 504

⁵⁰⁵ direction of drifts realtive to the wind fields.

Based on our results, as a simplest approach, disaster prevention mea-506 sures could be taken by issuing a warning to the northeastward area im-507 mediately after the observation of a tornado. Furthermore, this study has 508 demonstrated that the tornado movement is nearly similar to the movement 509 of the parent storm or the environmental wind to first order. Therefore, uti-510 lizing the movement of storms observed by radar, specifically based on the 511 nowcasting system provided by JMA or other weather service companies, 512 could aid in determining the direction of tornado movement. Presently, pre-513 dicting and detecting tornado occurrences remain challenging, with the hit 514 rate of tornado cautionary information provided by JMA generally remain-515 ing around 5%. However, in the future, narrowing the range of warnings 516 by incorporating the direction of tornado movement could not only reduce 517 accidents but also enhance public disaster preparedness awareness. 518

Nevertheless, in this study, we have statistically investigated the predominance in the direction of tornado movement by ignoring details, such as the strength of the tornado and occurrence region. From the perspective of disaster prevention, the direction of tornado movement can be estimated by considering details of regional characteristics for tornadoes (e.g., facing the sea or large mountain range), and by using data with a finer spatial resolution.

Data Availability Statement

Tornado data analyzed in this study are available at https://www. data.jma.go.jp/stats/data/bosai/tornado/index.html, horizontal wind data analyzed in this study are available at https://cds.climate.copernicus. eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=form, and typhoon track data analyzed in https://www.jma.go.jp/jma/jma-eng/ jma-center/rsmc-hp-pub-eg/besttrack.html

533

526

Acknowledgements

The second author is supported by JSPS-Kakenhi 20K14554, 22H04487, 23H01241, and 23K13169. We would like to thank Editage (www.editage. jp) for English language editing.

537

References

Adachi, T., and W. Mashiko, 2020: High temporal-spatial resolution observation of tornadogenesis in a shallow supercell associated with Typhoon Hagibis (2019) using phased array weather radar. <u>Geophys.</u>
Res. Lett., 47(19), e2020GL089635.

542	Agee, E., and L. Taylor, 2019: Historical analysis of us tornado fatalities
543	(1808–2017): Population, science, and technology. Weather, climate,
544	and society, 11(2) , 355–368.

- Brooks, H., and C. A. Doswell III, 2001: Some aspects of the international climatology of tornadoes by damage classification. <u>Atmos.</u>
 Res., 56(1-4), 191–201.
- Brooks, H. E., and C. A. Doswell, 2002: Deaths in the 3 May 1999 Oklahoma
 City tornado from a historical perspective. <u>Wea. Forecasting</u>, 17(3),
 354–361.
- ⁵⁵¹ Bunkers, M. J., B. A. Klimowski, J. W. Zeitler, R. L. Thompson, and M. L.
 ⁵⁵² Weisman, 2000: Predicting supercell motion using a new hodograph
 ⁵⁵³ technique. Wea. Forecasting, 15(1), 61–79.
- ⁵⁵⁴ Dessens, J., and J. T. Snow, 1989: Tornadoes in France. <u>Wea. Forecasting</u>, ⁵⁵⁵ **4(2)**, 110–132.
- Fisher, N. I., T. Lewis, and B. J. Embleton, 1993: <u>Statistical Analysis Of</u>
 Spherical Data. Cambridge Univ. Press.
- ⁵⁵⁸ Fujita, T. T., 1971: Proposed characterization of tornadoes and hurricanes ⁵⁵⁹ by area and intensity. SMRP Research Paper 91, Univ. Chicago 42.

560	Galway, J. (G., 1977:	Some	climatological	aspects	of	tornado	outbreaks.
561	Mon.	Wea. Rev	., 105 ((4), 477–484.				

Gentry, R. C., 1983: Genesis of tornadoes associated with hurricanes. Mon.
 Wea. Rev., 111(9), 1793–1805.

Hayashi, T., M. Yasushi, and I. Tohru, 1994: Statistics of tatsumaki in
Japan (in Japanese). <u>Annu. Disaster Prevention Res. Inst., Kyoto</u>
Univ. B, **37(B-1)**, 57–66.

- Jammalamadaka, S. R., A. Sengupta, and A. Sengupta, 2001: <u>Topics In</u> <u>Circular Statistics</u>, Volume 5 of <u>Series on Multivariate Analysis</u>. World Scientific, 336.
- Kobayashi, F., and K. Norose, 2012: Features of Human Damage Caused
 by Tornadoes in Japan. In <u>Proc. Natl. Symp. Wind. Eng.</u>, Japan
 Association for Wind Engineering, 79–84.
- Kobayashi, F., Y. Sugawara, M. Imai, and T. Maesaka, 2008: Wind speed
 of a waterspout occurred over Futtsu Coast on May 31, 2007. <u>J.</u>
 Wind. Eng., **33(2)**, 45–50.
- 576 Kobayashi, F., Y. Sugawara, and M. Matsui, 2007: Statistical character-577 istics of tornadoes in Japan during recent 10 years. In Summaries

578	to Technical Papers of Annual Meeting 2007, Japan Association for
579	Wind Engineering, Japan Association for Wind Engineering, 29–29.
580	Maddox, R. A., 1976: An evaluation of tornado proximity wind and stability
581	data. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u> , 104(2) , 133–142.
582	Mardia, K. V., P. E. Jupp, and K. Mardia, 1999: Directional Statistics,
583	Volume 2 of <u>Wiley Series in Probability and Statistics</u> . John Wiley
584	and Sons, Inc., 432.
585	Mashiko, W., 2016a: A numerical study of the 6 May 2012 Tsukuba City
586	supercell tornado. Part I: Vorticity sources of low-level and midlevel
587	mesocyclones. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u> , 144(3) , 1069–1092.
588	Mashiko, W., 2016b: A numerical study of the 6 May 2012 Tsukuba City
589	supercell tornado. Part II: Mechanisms of tornadogenesis. <u>Mon. Wea.</u>
590	<u>Rev.</u> , 144(9) , 3077–3098.
591	Mashiko, W., H. Niino, and T. Kato, 2009: Numerical simulation of tor-
592	nadogenesis in an outer-rainband minisupercell of Typhoon Shanshan
593	on 17 September 2006. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u> , 137(12) , 4238–4260.
594	McCaul, E. W., 1991: Buoyancy and shear characteristics of hurricane-
595	tornado environments. <u>Monthly Weather Review</u> , 119(8) , 1954–
596	1978.

31

597	Moller, A. R., C. A. Doswell, M. P. Foster, and G. R. Woodall, 1994: The
598	operational recognition of supercell thunderstorm environments and
599	storm structures. Wea. Forecasting, 9(3) , 327–347.
600	Niino, H., T. Fujitani, and N. Watanabe, 1997: A statistical study of tor-
601	nadoes and waterspouts in Japan from 1961 to 1993. <u>J. Climate</u> ,
602	10(7) , 1730–1752.
603	Niino, H., O. Suzuki, H. Nirasawa, T. Fujitani, H. Ohno, I. Takayabu,
	N Kinoshita and V Ogura 1003: Tornadoos in Chiba profesture
604	N. Kinosinta, and T. Ogura, 1995. Tornadoes in Cinba prefecture
605	on 11 December 1990. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u> , 121(11) , 3001–3018.
606	Notis, C., and J. L. Stanford, 1976: The synoptic and physical character of
607	Oklahoma tornadoes. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u> , 104(4) , 397–406.
608	Novlan, D. J., and W. M. Gray, 1974: Hurricane-spawned tornadoes. Mon.
609	Wea. Rev., 102(7) , 476–488.
610	Sakurai, K., and R. Kawamura, 2008: The Environment and Potential Pre-
611	dictability of Tornadoes occurred in japan. <u>Tenki</u> , $55(1)$, 7–22.
612	Shibata, N., 2006: Predictability of Tornado-Producing Supercell Associ-
613	ated with Typhoon -Environments and Characteristics of the Parent
614	Storm of the Tornado in Hanyu city, Saitama Prefectureon 22 August
615	2001 <u>Tenki</u> , 53(3) , 197–205.

32

- Suckling, P. W., and W. S. Ashley, 2006: Spatial and temporal characteristics of tornado path direction. <u>The Professional Geographer</u>, 58(1),
 20–38.
- Suzuki, O., H. Niino, H. Ohno, and H. Nirasawa, 2000: Tornado-producing
 mini supercells associated with Typhoon 9019. <u>Mon. Wea. Rev.</u>,
 128(6), 1868–1882.
- Taszarek, M., and J. Gromadzki, 2017: Deadly tornadoes in Poland from
 1820 to 2015. Mon. Wea. Rev., 145(4), 1221–1243.
- Tippett, M. K., C. Lepore, and J. E. Cohen, 2016: More tornadoes in the most extreme US tornado outbreaks. <u>Science</u>, **354(6318)**, 1419– 1423.
- ⁶²⁷ Tochimoto, E., 2022: Environmental controls on tornadoes and tornado ⁶²⁸ outbreaks. Atmos.–Ocean, **60(3-4)**, 399–421.
- Yokota, S., H. Niino, H. Seko, M. Kunii, and H. Yamauchi, 2018: Important
 factors for tornadogenesis as revealed by high-resolution ensemble
 forecasts of the Tsukuba supercell tornado of 6 May 2012 in Japan.
 Mon. Wea. Rev., 146(4), 1109–1132.
- 633

Appendix

In this study, the direction of tornado movement is defined as a straight 634 line connecting the point of occurrence and extinction. To justify this 635 definition based on the cases with detailed reports since 2000, we select 636 two tornadoes in Japan that yielded long damage areas and a large so-637 cial impact. The first case is a tornado caused by a front that occurred 638 in the Saitama prefecture at 14:00 on September 2, 2013 Japan Stan-639 dard Time (JST) (available at https://www.data.jma.go.jp/obd/stats/ 640 data/bosai/tornado/2013090201/ref01.pdf). This tornado was long last-641 ing (30 minutes), strong (Fujita(F)-scale was F2), and the length of the af-642 fected area was long (19 km). Comparing the radar images provided by the 643 JMA and the areas affected by tornadoes, the movement of the precipitat-644 ing clouds and that of tornadoes match well. Although a slight meandering 645 of the path was observed, the line drawn through the center of the path 646 aligns with the east-northeast direction of the movement. The 500-hPa 647 wind direction at this time is the northeast, and the tornado movement in 648 the JMA's report is also the northeast. 649

Another typhoon-related tornado occurred in the Tochigi prefecture at 11:30 on August 10, 2014 JST (available at https://www.data.jma.go. jp/obd/stats/data/bosai/tornado/2014081001/ref01.pdf). This tornado was also strong (F1), lasted 20 minutes, had a damaged path length of 15 km, and occurred to the east-northeast of the typhoon. The center of the typhoon was approximately 550 km away from the tornado occurrence, but strong precipitating clouds existed in the area where the tornado occurred. Radar images show that it moved toward the north-northeast while slightly deviating from the southwesterly wind, which is consistent with the results of this study.

According to NFW97, the average length of the damage area of torna-660 does in Japan is 3.2 km, so the majority of tornadoes are smaller and shorter 661 than the two aforementioned examples. Therefore, even if the direction of 662 movement is determined without considering the detailed meanderings of 663 the movement track, it is useful at least as a first-order approximation. 664 Nevertheless, the challenge is to analyze statistically while maintaining its 665 accuracy. Although this study used the wind direction of vertically aver-666 aged wind over the troposphere as the environmental field, it could be more 667 accurate to identify each cumulonimbus cloud to determine its direction of 668 movement. 669

List of Figures

671	1	a) Frequency distribution of the direction of tornado move-	
672		ments from 1961 through 1993 presented in Niino et al. (1997).	
673		b) Definition of the direction of tornado movement in this	
674		study. c) As in (a), but calculated using our definitions.	
675		d) Geographical distribution of tornado movement directions	
676		from 1961 through 2022	37
677	2	a) Distribution of the direction of tornado movement that	
678		occurred in JJA (178 cases) and SON (321 cases). b) As in	
679		Fig. 1d, but for JJA (left) and SON (right).	38
680	3	Top: As in Fig. 2a, but for (a) typhoon-related and (b)	
681		typhoon-unrelated tornadoes. Bottom: As in Fig. 1d, but	
682		for (a) typhoon-related and (b) typhoon-unrelated tornadoes.	
683		Red markers denote the north and (b) the east quadrant	39
684	4	a) Wind direction θ_2 at the time of tornado occurrence at	
685		300, 500, 850 and 1000 hPa (650 cases each). b) Scatter	
686		plot of tornado movement direction θ_1 and wind direction θ_2 .	
687		Typhoon-related (red) and typhoon-unrelated (blue) torna-	
688		does are shown. c) Circular correlation coefficient between	
689		tornado movements and winds at each pressure level. Only	
690		data in the black box shown in (b) are used	40
691	5	a) Geographical distribution and the histogram of tornado	
692		movements relative to winds $(\theta_t - \theta_w)$. A positive value (red)	
693		denotes the angle of the tornado movements counterclockwise	
694		relative to wind at the 500 hPa level, and a negative value	
695		(blue) denotes the angle clockwise relative to wind. b) As in	
696		Fig. 5a, but for typhoon-related tornadoes. c) Histogram of	
697		tornado movements relative to right-moving supercells (θ_t –	
698		θ_s). d) As in Fig. 5c, but for typhoon-related tornadoes. e)	
699		As in Fig. 5c, but for left-moving supercell movements	41
700	6	a) Distribution of the direction of tornado movement for all	
701		tornadoes (blue) and those of F1 scale or higher (red) from	
702		1961 through 2022. b) As in (a), but for typhoon-related	
703		tornadoes. c) As in (a), but for typhoon-unrelated tornadoes.	42



a) Frequency distribution of tornado movements b) Definition of the direction of tornado movement θ_1 1961-1993 (Niino et al. 1997)

Fig. 1. a) Frequency distribution of the direction of tornado movements from 1961 through 1993 presented in Niino et al. (1997). b) Definition of the direction of tornado movement in this study. c) As in (a), but calculated using our definitions. d) Geographical distribution of tornado movement directions from 1961 through 2022.



Fig. 2. a) Distribution of the direction of tornado movement that occurred in JJA (178 cases) and SON (321 cases). b) As in Fig. 1d, but for JJA (left) and SON (right).



a) Related to Typhoon

Fig. 3. Top: As in Fig. 2a, but for (a) typhoon-related and (b) typhoonunrelated tornadoes. Bottom: As in Fig. 1d, but for (a) typhoonrelated and (b) typhoon-unrelated tornadoes. Red markers denote the north and (b) the east quadrant.



Fig. 4. a) Wind direction θ_2 at the time of tornado occurrence at 300, 500, 850 and 1000 hPa (650 cases each). b) Scatter plot of tornado movement direction θ_1 and wind direction θ_2 . Typhoon-related (red) and typhoon-unrelated (blue) tornadoes are shown. c) Circular correlation coefficient between tornado movements and winds at each pressure level. Only data in the black box shown in (b) are used.



Fig. 5. a) Geographical distribution and the histogram of tornado movements relative to winds $(\theta_t - \theta_w)$. A positive value (red) denotes the angle of the tornado movements counterclockwise relative to wind at the 500 hPa level, and a negative value (blue) denotes the angle clockwise relative to wind. b) As in Fig. 5a, but for typhoon-related tornadoes. c) Histogram of tornado movements relative to right-moving supercells $(\theta_t - \theta_s)$. d) As in Fig. 5c, but for typhoon-related tornadoes. e) As in Fig. 5c, but for left-moving supercell movements



Fig. 6. a) Distribution of the direction of tornado movement for all tornadoes (blue) and those of F1 scale or higher (red) from 1961 through 2022. b) As in (a), but for typhoon-related tornadoes. c) As in (a), but for typhoon-unrelated tornadoes.