WIND-TUNNEL MODELLING OF HILL AND VEGETAT	ION
INFLUENCE ON WIND POWER AVAILABILITY	
TASK 1: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Prepared by	
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for	
Meteorological Services	
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Livermore, California 94550	
* Professor, Civil Engineering	
Director, Fluid Dynamics and Diffusion Laboratory	
FLUID MECHANICS AND WIND ENGINEERING PROGRAM	
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OCU O	State
CSU Contract No. 29-8610	
CER92-93-RNM-1	
October 1992, revised February 1993	

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A literature review was performed of agricultural meteorology and wind engineering literature to identify the parametric effects of hill shape, vegetation density, and clearing size on hill-top wind speed. Forest meteorology research was examined which considered forest canopy density, tree height, understory structure and tree species effects on wind speed parameters such as displacement height, d; surface roughness, z_o ; and surface drag, u_{\bullet}/u_{ref} . Field and laboratory measurement programs were surveyed which studied the variation of winds downwind of tree stands and the effect of clearings on clearing winds. Numerical and mathematical models were evaluated to determine the state-of-the-art of predictions of combined effects of hill terrain height and vegetation cover on wind fields.

The survey identified several tables and algorithms which may be used to estimate forest canopy displacement height and roughness length. Surface drag data seems to be much less systematic; hence, large variations in magnitude are recorded, and no one algorithm is reliable.

Field and laboratory measurement programs find that the presence or absence of vegetation can produce significant changes in wind speed. Vegetation may also enhance or inhibit the presence of flow separation over hill crests. Limited data taken near wind turbines erected near tree stands confirms that lower turbine productivity occurs at significant distances downwind of vegetation.

Analytic models based on linear-perturbation theories were identified which can predict the combined effects of hill height, hill slope, hill shape and surface roughness variation on hill top wind speeds. These perturbation models have been validated against field and laboratory measurements, and they are found to predict trends correctly, but in some cases may overpredict hill crest wind speeds. Numerical models (FLOWSTAR, MS3DJH/3) based on linear-perturbation methods and Fourier decomposition of complex terrain are available which can predict the joint effects of terrain elevation, thermal stratification, and non-homogeneous surface roughness. These models are constructed to work on small workstations or PC computers. These models are currently limited to stationary situations, "mild" terrain and roughness variations, and mild stratification such that flow separation and blocking do not occur.

Spreadsheet results are provided which estimate the added value of different size clearcut areas over various two-dimensional ridges. Predicted information includes depth of the inner layer of the flow at crest height, wind speeds in the outer and inner region, and fractional speed-up factors. Data is provided for roughness change speed-up, hill induced speed-up, and combined effect of hill slope and roughness variations.

Alternative diagnostic models based on the concept of mass consistency are also available which have been used to examine hill crest flows in the presence of vegetation (NOABL, UICWINDS, NUWINDS, ASL, etc.) Some of these models use ad hoc type modifications to allow for stratification and vegetation effects. These models are also limited to flows which have no separation or blocked regions.

Some authors have also proposed modifications to finite difference or finite element equation sets to account for vegetation drag on wind fields (HOTMAC, CSURAMS). The principle adjustment used is the addition over the vegetation filled portion of the grid of a drag term related to vegetation density. These models have been used to predict winds over meso-scale size regions, are often computer memory and time intensive, and require a fast workstation with considerable memory.

Robert N. Meroney, Professor Fluid Mechanics and Wind Engineering Civil Engineering, Colorado State University

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF	WLEDGEMENTS iii TABLES vi FIGURES vii
LIST OF	FIGURES
LIST OF	SYMBOLS xi
I. I N	NTRODUCTION
II. W 2. 2. 2. 2.	Field and Laboratory Measurements
III. W 3. 3. 3. 3.	Under-canopy Forest Flow Field26Above-canopy Forest Flow Field303.3.1 Logarithmic velocity profile models303.3.2 Power-law velocity profile models35Wind Flow Near Clearings, Clearcuts, and Forest Edges38Change of Surface Roughness523.5.1 Change of Roughness Models523.5.2 Multiple changes of roughness55
IV. V	EGETATIVE/SURFACE ROUGHNESS EFFECTS ON FLOW OVER ILLS /MOUNTAINS

V.	ANAL	YTIC	AND NUMERICAL MODELS 72
	5.1	Mass-o	consistent or Objective Analysis Models Applied to Vegetation
		Covere	ed Terrain
		5.1.1	NOABL Predictions for Clearcut Effects Over Cape Blanco,
			<i>Oregon</i>
			Atmospheric Science Laboratory (ASL) Model Predictions 77
		5.1.3	NUATMOS Predictions of Complex Terrain Flows
	5.2	Linear	-perturbation Models Applied to Vegetation Covered Terrain 81
		5.2.1	FLOWSTAR Model Predictions
		5.2.2	MS3DJH and MS-MICRO Model Predictions 81
			Mass-consistent and Linear-perturbation Model Comparisons 87
	5.3		ive Equation Models Applied to Vegetation Covered Terrain 87
		5.3.1	HOTMAC Predictions of Forest and Vegetation Effects 87
		5.3.2	FITNAH Vegetation Modifications to Predict Deforestation Effects
			on Drainage Flows and Local Climate
	5.4		d-sheet Predictions of Wind Effects of Clearcutting 91
		5.4.1	Linear-perturbation Expressions for Combined Changes in
			Roughness and Elevation
			Results of Spreadsheet Calculations
	5.5	Summ	<u>ary</u> 102
	~~~~		
VI.	CONC	CLUSIC	ONS
ADDE	ATTAXY.	DEXI	EW AND CLASSWICATION OF COMPLEY TERRADI
APPE	NDIX:		EW AND CLASSIFICATION OF COMPLEX TERRAIN
		MODI	ELS
DEFE.	RENC	FC	
THE PL		· .	

# LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 2.2.1</b>	Laboratory Simulations of Flow Over Complex Terrain	12
<b>Table 2.2.1</b>	(Continued)	13
<b>Table 2.2.1</b>	(Continued)	14
<b>Table 2.2.1</b>	(Continued)	15
	(Concluded)	
	Table of roughness length data	
	Wake behavior of buildings, trees and shelterbelts (Meroney, 1977)	
	Maximum increase of velocity in potential flow over various two-	
	dimensional hills with low slopes	61
<b>Table 5.2.1</b>	MS3DJH/3R and finite-difference model predictions for flow over	
	Gaussian hills with roughness modulation. (Walmsley et al., 1986)	84

# LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 2.1.1</b>	Characteristic wind speed and power availability over the crest of a two-	
	dimensional ridge	3
<b>Figure 2.1.2</b>	Velocity, turbulence, and static pressure profiles over a 1:6 slope	
	triangular hill. (Meroney, et al., 1976)	4
<b>Figure 2.1.3</b>	Velocity, turbulence and static pressure profiles over a 1:4 slope triangular	
	hill. (Meroney, et al. 1976)	5
<b>Figure 2.1.4</b>	Velocity, turbulence, and static pressure profiles over a 1:2 slope	
	triangular hill. (Meroney, et al. 1976)	6
<b>Figure 2.1.5</b>	Velocity speedup between approach flow and crest over different hill	
	shapes. (Meroney et. al. 1978)	7
<b>Figure 2.2.1</b>	Vertical profiles of speedup at the hilltop for two wind directions in	
	wind-tunnel (AES, OXR, NZR) and full-scale (FS) flows (Teunissen et	
		11
<b>Figure 3.0.1</b>	Drag coefficients of live and model trees: Dashed line (after Hsi and	127125
		18
	the state of the s	20
Figure 3.1.2	Vertical profiles of u at different point along the symmetry axis. The	
	dotted line shows the undisturbed profile of the inflow boundary. (Gross,	•
TI 212	1987)	21
Figure 3.1.3	Vertical profiles of shear stress, $\sigma$ , at different points along the symmetry	
	axis. The dotted line shows the reference (inflow) value. (Gross,	22
Eigung 2 1 4	1987)	22
rigure 3.1.4	Streamlines of the horizontal airflow for 1 m above the ground. The	
	contour of the tree is dotted, the dashed line indicates cases where u <	23
Figure 3 1 5	0. (Gross, 1987)	23
rigure 3.1.3		24
Figure 3 1 6	Wind deformation and the wind velocity that may produce that	۷٦
rigure 5.1.0	- 발생님이었는 보다는 - 10차 전에 대한 전에 가장 전에 대한 사람들이 되었다면 - 10차 전에 대한 - 10차	25
Figure 3 2 1	Meteorological wind tunnel at Colorado State University and artificial tree	
11guit 5.2.1		27
Figure 3.2.2a		28
_	Longitudinal turbulent intensity for model forest canopy.	
~ - <b>9</b>	(Meroney, 1968)	28
<b>Figure 3.2.3</b>	Under-forest canopy mean velocity profiles for expressions developed by	
3		29
<b>Figure 3.2.4</b>	Optimal fits of observed wind profile for a Ponderosa pine canopy.	
J	Observations are denoted by circles from Raupach and Thom	
		29
Figure 3.3.1	Above canopy wind profiles for various average forest canopy heights	
	when $d = 0.63 \text{ h}$ , $z_0 = 0.125 \text{ h}$ , and $u_* = 0.316 \text{ u(h)}$	34

<b>Figure 3.3.2</b>	Effective roughness for sinusoidal orography. Measurements, finite	
E: 2 2 2		36
rigure 3.3.3	Variation of the power-law index with increasing roughness and	
	corresponding roughness classes for Equations 3.3.8 and 3.3.9. (Baron,	37
Figure 3 3 4	Variation of the power-law index with increasing height of roughness	31
Figure 5.5.4	elements. (Baron, 1981)	39
Figure 3 3 5	Variation of the power-law index with increasing roughness length.	33
rigure 5.5.5	(Baron, 1981)	40
Figure 3.4.1	Windflow and vertical profiles of meteorological variables within and	40
11gure 5.4.1	above a forest. (Cionco, 1982)	41
Figure 3.4.2	Figure 3.4.1 with smoke plumes deployed. (Cionco, 1982)	
	Mean velocity profiles within and above the roughness. (Kawatani,	
rigure of the	1971)	42
Figure 3.4.4	Shear plate drag for model forest canopy (Meroney, 1968)	
	Study areas in the High Ridge Evaluation Area, Umatilla National Forest,	
	Oregon. (Fowler, et al., 1987)	47
<b>Figure 3.4.6</b>	Wind passage at 6 and 20m in watersheds 4 and 1 during two 11 month	
8	periodsone before and one after treatment. (Fowler et al., 1987)	48
<b>Figure 3.4.7</b>	Goodnoe Hills, WA. Radials show directions to towers. Percent reduction	
	in wind speed and increase in turbulence $[\Delta U\%/\Delta u\%]$ (Elliott and	
	Barnard, 1990)	49
Figure 3.4.8	Wind speed ratios (to tower 9) versus tower 9 wind direction. Directions	
	of major groves and wind turbines are indicated (Elliott and Barnard,	
	1990)	50
<b>Figure 3.4.9</b>		
	(Elliott and Barnard, 1990)	51
<b>Figure 3.5.1</b>	Wind profile transition height resulting from a change in surface	-
		53
<b>Figure 3.5.2</b>	Wind profile shapes and wind power profile shapes for various types of	- 1
F:- 2.52	- programme and the second sec	54
Figure 3.5.3	Internal boundary layer thickness versus normalized distance referenced	56
Figure 4.1.1	to larger z _o . Line is best fit to points. (Hunt and Simpson, 1982) Effect of surface roughness on wind flow over a sharp-crested ridge.	50
rigure 4.1.1	(Wegley, Orgill and Drake, 1978)	58
Figure 4 1 2	Fractional speedup ratio profiles at crest of triangular hills. Field	50
Figure 4.1.2	data, Bradley (1978); Laboratory data, Bouwmeester et al. (1978)	59
Figure 4.1.3	Approach flow velocity profiles for numerical inviscid flow calculations.	0,
rigure 41110	(Bouwmeester et al., 1978)	62
Figure 4.1.4	Fractional speedup ratios predicted from numerical inviscid flow	115.00
	calculations (Bouwmeester et al., 1978)	62
Figure 4.1.5	Flow over elliptical obstacles. Heights are scaled by object height.	
	Velocities are scaled by upstream velocity at $z/h = 3$ . (Jensen and	
	Petersen, 1978)	63

Figure 4.2.1	Measured fractional speed-up at top of the smooth and rough hills.	
Figure 422	(Britter et al., 1981)	66
Figure 4.2.2	al., 1978)	67
Figure 4.2.3	Horizontal isotachs over Rakaia Gorge, N.Z., $z_p = 50$ m. (Meroney et	07
	al., 1978)	68
Figure 4.2.4	Vertical section G-G isotachs at Rakaia Gorge, N.Z. (Meroney et al.,	
	3-7-10-50	69
Figure 4.2.5	Vertical section F-F isotachs at Rakaia Gorge, N.Z. (Meroney et al.,	
	1978)	70
	Smoothing scheme for aerodynamic roughness length (Lin et al., 1985)	74
Figure 5.1.2	Vertical wind profiles over a surface of smoothed surface roughness (Lin	75
Figure 5 1 2	et al., 1985)	75
rigure 5.1.5	Initialization of vertical wind profiles for 3-D wind flow computations. (Lin et al., 1985)	76
Figure 5.1.4	Typical complex terrain scenario with grass and forest ( $\Lambda$ ) vegetation and	70
riguit cirri	villages (□). (Cionco, 1982)	78
Figure 5.1.5	Surface layer windfield solution for Figure 5.1.4. (Cionco, 1982)	78
Figure 5.1.6	Schematic of 3-dimensional coupled wind model (Cionco, 1982)	79
Figure 5.1.7	Cross-section analysis of adjacent grid point wind profiles. (Cionco,	
	1982)	80
Figure 5.2.2	Crest velocities for sinusoidal hill and ln[z _o ], ——MS3DJH/3R; Finite	02
Figure 5 2 1	diff. $m_r = 4$ . (Walmsley et al., 1986)	83
rigure 5.2.1	Sinusoidal hill & $ln\{z_o\}$ . — MS3DJH/3R, finite diff. model, $m_r = 4$ ; + , $m_r = 100$ . (Walmsley <i>et al.</i> 1987)	83
Figure 5.2.4	Crest velocities over rough-crested 2-D Gaussian hill (See Figure 5.2.3 for	03
116010 0.2.4	notation) (Walmsley et al., 1986)	85
Figure 5.2.3	Rough-crested 2-D Gaussian hill, $(2\beta = 1000 \text{m}, h = 100 \text{m},$	
	$m_r=10$ )—u,roughness only fd model; $\uparrow$ , + roughness only	
	MS3DJH/3R model,	85
Figure 5.2.7	Cresttop velocities for the Coastal Hill and Island experiments.	0.0
F: 5.0.6	(Walmsley et al., 1986)	86
Figure 5.2.6	Wind speed at $z = 2m$ for Coastal and Island experiments. Dashed curves are roughness change alone. (Walmsley <i>et al.</i> , 1986)	86
Figure 5 2 8	Mean wind speeds for each of 12 directions computed by WAsP,	00
rigure 5.2.0	NOABL*, and MS-MICRO and measured values at Vounaros. (Lalas et	
	al., 1988)	88
Figure 5.3.1	Distribution of tree canopies. Units are in decimal, i.e., 3 indicates 0.3,	
	2 for 0.2, and 0 for no trees. (Yamada and Bunker, 1989)	90
<b>Figure 5.3.2</b>	HOTMAC modeling of horizontal wind vectors at $z = 24$ m at 0200 LST.	00
	(Yamada and Bunker, 1989)	90
Figure 5.3.3	Computed wind vectors at 2 m above Finkenbach valley terrain: (a) with	02
	canopy, (b) after deforestation. (Gross, 1987)	24

Figure 5.4.1	Linear-perturbation. Inverse-polynomial hill. $h_{hill} = 100 \text{ m}$ , $L = 1000 \text{ m}$ ,	
	$z_{o1} = 3.71 \text{ m}, z_{o2} = 0.1 \text{ m}. U_{10m} = 10 \text{ m/s}. \dots$	94
<b>Figure 5.4.2</b>	Effects of clearcutting upwind to the hill half-height, $h_{hill}$ /L = L for	
	various hill slopes. $z_{o1} = 3.71 \text{ m.} \dots$	95
<b>Figure 5.4.3</b>	Influence on windspeed of clearcutting different distances upwind for a hill	
	slope $h_{hill}/L = 0.10$ .	
		96
<b>Figure 5.4.4</b>	Influence on wind speed of clearcutting different distances upwind for a	
	hill slope $h_{hill}/L = 0.20$ .	1250
	$z_{o1} = 3.71 \text{ m}.$	97
Figure 5.4.5	Influence on windspeed of clearcutting different distances upwind for a hill	
	slope $h_{hill}/L = 0.40$ .	2200
	$z_{o1} = 3.71 \text{ m}.$	98
Figure 5.4.6	Influence on windspeed of clearcutting various distances upwind for hill	
	slope $h_{hill}/L = 0.10$ ,	
	$z_{o1} = 1.85 \text{ m}.$	99
Figure 5.4.7	Influence on windspeed of clearcutting different distances upwind for hill	
	slope $h_{hill}/L = 0.20$ ,	100
	$z_{o1} = 1.85 \text{ m}.$	100
<b>Figure 5.4.8</b>	Influence on windspeed of clearcutting different distances upwind for hill	
	slope $h_{\text{hill}}/L = 0.40$ ,	101
	$z_{o1} = 1.85 \text{ m}.$	101

# LIST OF SYMBOLS

Symbol	Description	[Dimension]
Α	Silhouette area	$[L^2]$
$C_D$	Drag coefficient	
$C_f$	Skin friction coefficient	
$C_p$	Surface pressure coefficient	
d	Displacement height	[L]
D	Crown diameter	[L]
h, h _{hill,} H	Hill, mountain, or escarpment height	[L]
h, H	Forest canopy height	[L]
K	Tree crown height	[L]
Н	Peak to trough height sinusoidal terrain	[L]
$l, l_z, \delta_1$	Inner layer depth	[L]
$l_{zh}$	Inner layer depth for hill effects	[L]
$l_{zr}$	Inner layer depth for roughness change	[L]
L	Distance from crest to hill half-height	[L]
L	Hill characteristic width	[L]
$L_{mo}$	Monin-Obukhov stratification scale	[L]
ΔΡ	Fractional power change	
Ri	Richardson number	
S	Horizontal area occupied by roughness element	$[L^2]$
ΔS	Fractional speedup factor	

# SYMBOLS (Contd.)

Symbol	<u>Description</u>	[Dimension]
$\Delta T$	Fractional turbulent intensity change	
u, U, V	Wind speed	[LS ⁻¹ ]
$\mathbf{u_h}$	Wind speed at top of vegetative canopy	[LS ⁻¹ ]
$u_o$	Upwind wind speed	[LS ⁻¹ ]
$\mathbf{u}_{ref}$	Reference wind speed	[LS ⁻¹ ]
u• u• ₁ u• ₂	Surface friction velocity  " " due to upwind roughness " " due to downwind roughness	[LS ⁻¹ ] [LS ⁻¹ ]
$egin{array}{l} \Delta u \ \Delta u_{hill} \ \Delta u_{rough} \end{array}$	Perturbation wind speed increment " " " from hill " " from roughness	[LS ⁻¹ ] [LS ⁻¹ ]
x, y, z	Coordinate distances	[L]
$z$ , $\Delta z$	Vertical distance above ground	[L]
Z _o Z _{o1} Z _{o2}	Surface roughness " " upwind " " downwind	(L) (L)
$Z_o^{eff}$	Effective surface roughness from both hills and local roughness	[L]
$Z_m$	Matching height	[L]
α	Power-law velocity exponent	
β	Deacon's parameter	
κ	von Karman's coefficient	
λ	Wavelength, sinusoidal hills	[L]
δ	Boundary layer thickness	[L]

### I. INTRODUCTION

Wind turbine aerodynamics is concerned with the interaction between atmospheric flows and the turbine's rotor. The wind-turbine rotor operates in the atmospheric surface layer, where wind shear, gustiness, and the local micro-meteorology of terrain shape and vegetation change the operating environment. Since wind turbine performance is critically linked to the availability of wind energy at turbine hub height, preferred sites are those with moderate and persistent winds (20-40 mph).

Hills or ridges are known to cause wind "speed-up" associated with streamline convergence. Convergence will occur in neutrally stratified flows at hill crest; whereas maximum streamline convergence will often occur on the lee of a hill or ridge when the wind flows between the surface and an elevated inversion. Tall vegetation such as woods, wind-breaks, or forests may degrade the wind environment over a hill. Eddies created by a tree canopy can enhance surface mixing reducing near-surface wind speeds, and the eddies themselves may cause gustiness which increases turbine blade loading and fatigue.

Given the simple-minded assumption that wind power is proportional to wind-speed cubed, even a 10% decrease in hub-height winds speed may reduce available wind power by 25%. Thus, knowledge of how vegetation cleared regions over hills may enhance or diminish hill crest velocities would be valuable planning information. Often the key question is how much clear cutting on the site of a proposed wind energy farm is required along the ridge tops and hilltops to maximize wind resources while minimizing environmental impact.

Wind energy specialists have focused frequently on the potential for wind speed amplification found in hilly terrain. Their concerns have led to additional field and laboratory data on the behavior of neutral and stratified flows over both two-dimensional ridges as well as three-dimensional isolated hills, valleys and gorges. Agricultural and forest meteorologists are concerned with "blow-down" in vegetative canopies during wind storms and the air transport of insects, pheremones, insecticides, herbicides, moisture, CO₂, soil, burning debris and smoke. Analytic and numeric models have been created to estimate wind flows above and within such canopies in complex terrain situations.

This review will focus primarily on information related to the operation of wind turbines on hill crests partially or totally covered with forests. Chapter 2 provides a short background about flow amplification over terrain covered with minimal vegetation (ie. no flow displacement and small local roughness; d = 0.0,  $z_o = 0-0.10$  m). Chapter 3 summarizes what is understood about wind flow over vegetative canopies over essentially horizontal ground surfaces. Chapter 4 considers the joint effects of vegetation and roughness effects over hills/complex terrain. Analytic, physical and numerical models used to characterize such flows are noted in Chapter 5. Conclusions relevant to the problem of wind turbine installation in vegetated hilly terrain are provided in Chapter 6.

### II. WIND FLOW OVER HILLS/COMPLEX TERRAIN

The earth's surface is covered with almost imperceptible bulges and depressions on the global scale. The highest mountain barriers only extend above the earth's radius by about one-tenth of one percent from it's sea level value. Nevertheless, the presence of hills, mountains and valleys determines a great portion of the weather we live within. Mountains and hills and valleys induce variations in wind speed and turbulence from the mean sufficient to justify location of wind energy devices in complex terrain. Unfortunately, for most of man's weather experience most measurements have been made over flat homogeneous sites. Thus, the understanding of wind flows over complex terrain has become a special area of meteorological consideration. Interest in weather modification, air pollution, and wind energy over the last twenty years has led to extensive additional information about mountain climatology. Today, there are numerous books and monographs specifically focusing on the climate and specifically the winds developed over complex terrain (Blumen, 1990; Frost and Shieh, 1981; Hiester and Pennell, 1981; Hunt and Simpson, 1982; Wegley et al., 1978).

### 2.1 General Wind Speed and Turbulence Characteristics

Single hills and isolated ridges are known to produce higher wind speeds at a given height over the crest than far upwind during high speed neutrally stratified air flow. The approximate improvement in wind speed should be of the order of h/L, where h is hill height above the surrounding terrain and L is some characteristic horizontal hill width (say the distance from the crest to half-hill height). Thus, a smooth surfaced hill with average approach slopes  $(h_{hill}/(2L))$  of 0.10, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, or 0.5 should produce fractional speedup  $[\Delta S = (u(z)$  $u_0(z)/u_0(z)$ ] increases at crest of the order 20%, 40%, 60%, 80% and 100%, respectively, or corresponding order increases in wind power up to 73%, 174%, 309%, 483%, and 700%, respectively (See Figure 2.1.1). Speedup does not seem to be as sensitive to hill shape for the same average slope as long as flow separation does not occur (See Figure 2.1.2). values may be reduced by the presence of forests, local undulations, and regions of flow separation. In particular, when hill slopes exceed 0.3 it is likely that flow separation may occur at hill crest decreasing wind speeds and inducing large gustiness. Figures 2.1.3 through 2.1.4 display wind and turbulence profiles measured over different slope triangular hills in a boundarylayer wind tunnel (Bouwmeester et al., 1978). Fractional speed up is defined as  $\Delta S = (u(z) - z)$  $u_0(z)/u_0(z)$ , where  $u_0(z)$  is the upstream profile and z is the height above local grade. Typically wind decreases at the foot of the hill then accelerates to hill crest. Over steep hills separation may occur at the hill crest (Figure 2.1.4), which decreases crest wind speeds and produces gustiness and excess turbulence downstream.

Figure 2.1.5 displays the effect of 2-dimensional hill shape on fractional wind speedup. Note that hill slope is more significant than hill shape on defining wind profiles as long as the elevation is not so abrupt as to generate separation regions downwind. Three dimensional hills are found to produce lower wind speed increases than similar cross-section ridges.

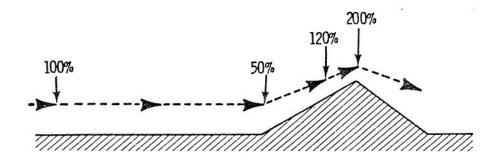


Figure 2.1.1 Characteristic wind speed and power availability over the crest of a two-dimensional ridge.

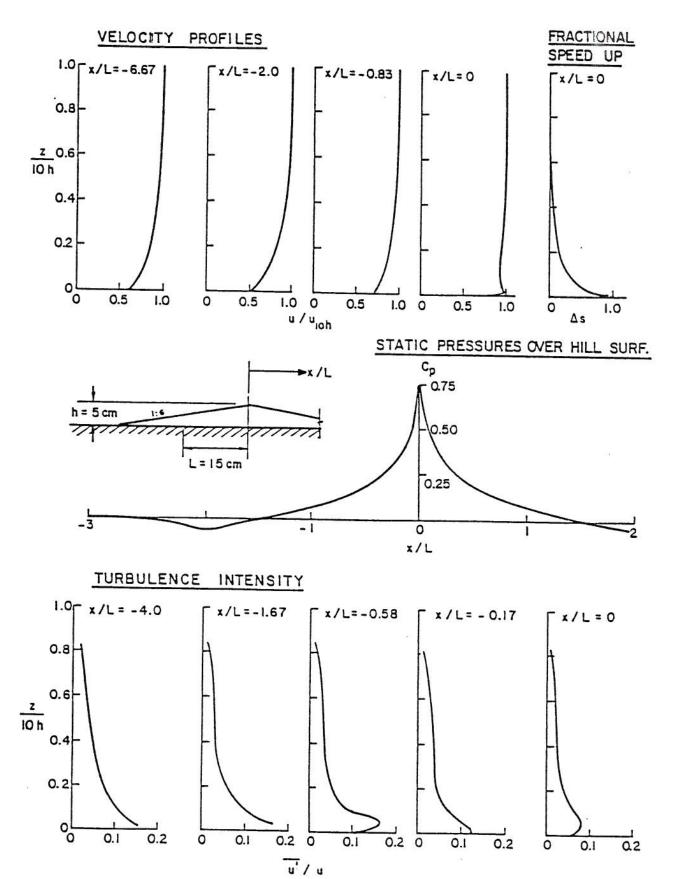


Figure 2.1.2 Velocity, turbulence, and static pressure profiles over a 1:6 slope triangular hill. (Meroney, et al., 1976)

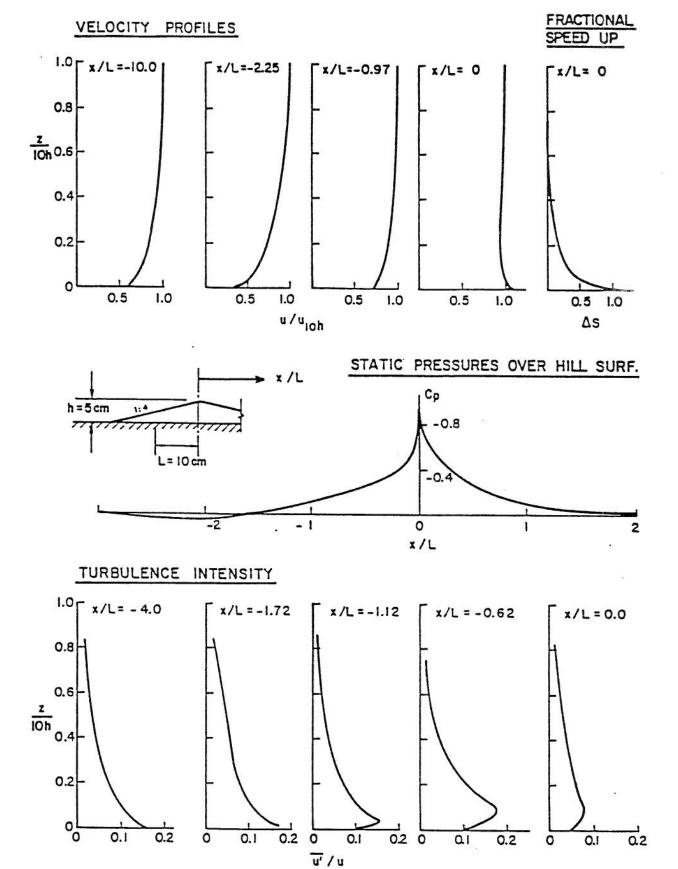
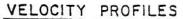
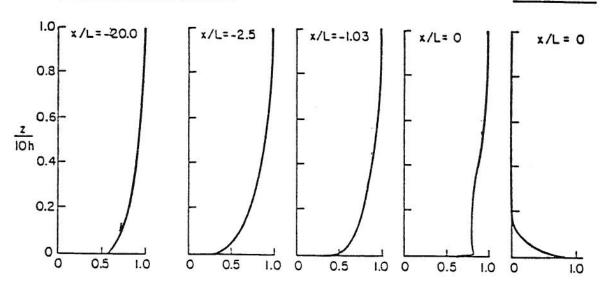
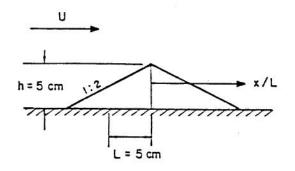


Figure 2.1.3 Velocity, turbulence and static pressure profiles over a 1:4 slope triangular hill. (Meroney, et al. 1976)



# FRACTIONAL SPEED UP





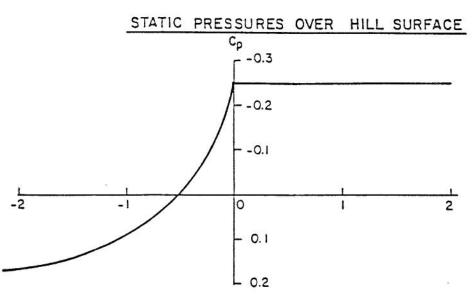


Figure 2.1.4 Velocity, turbulence, and static pressure profiles over a 1:2 slope triangular hill. (Meroney, et al. 1976)

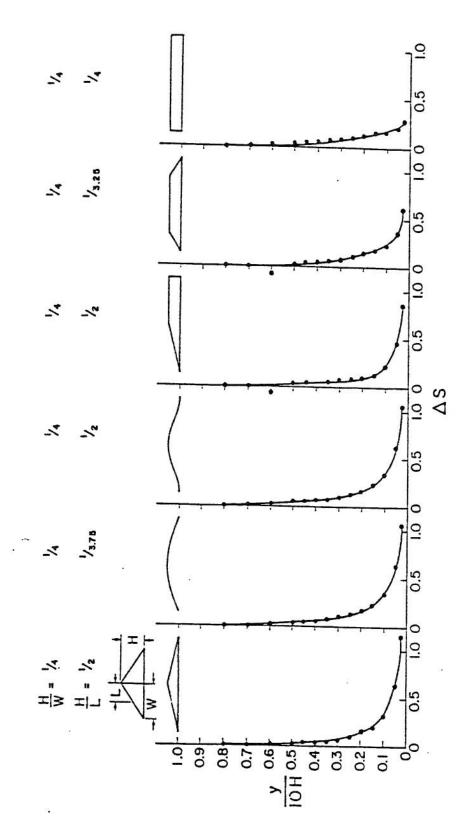


Figure 2.1.5 Velocity speedup between approach flow and crest over different hill shapes. (Meroney et. al. 1978)

It is more difficult to predict quantitatively the exact wind patterns in complex terrain where multiple hills, mountains and valleys occur over an extensive area. Flow interactions, blocking, and channeling may either enhance or decrease wind speeds. Indeed, at the present state of the meteorological art the serious wind-turbine meteorologist may be limited to field measurements, large meso-scale numerical models, or physical models in such cases.

Thermal stratification will also change the air flow over single hills and mountains substantially. Stable stratification may cause low level winds to move laterally around a hill barrier decreasing crest top winds but enhancing hill side winds, or alternatively an elevated inversion just above hill crest may induce very strong winds on the downslope side of a hill or ridge. Indeed some of the most persistent and attractive wind-energy locations appear to be associated with such downslope conditions. Blumen (1990) has edited a series of articles about such flows in hills, mountains and valleys into a monograph on atmospheric processes over complex terrain. In particular chapter 4 on mountain waves and downslope winds by D.R. Duran, chapter 5 on perturbation solutions to flow over hills by D.J. Carruthers and J.C.R. Hunt, and chapter 7 on physical modeling of flow over hills and mountains by R.N. Meroney are relevant reading for the wind-energy climatologist interested in wind power meteorology in hills and mountains.

Turbulence behavior over hills depends upon upwind fetch, strength of stream line convergence over the crest, and regions of increased shear. For small hills such that surface flows have limited time to come into local equilibrium with the new hill flow conditions the upwind turbulence is primarily advected along streamlines with minor changes; hence changes in wind shear play a small role. On the other hand convergence and divergence of streamtubes may lead to "rapid-distortion" or stretching, twisting, or shortening of turbulent vortex elements. Stretching distortions can lead to enhanced local vorticity and increased turbulence. When the local turbulent velocity is scaled by local mean speed at the hill crest the net effect may be a decrease in turbulent intensity although in absolute terms the turbulent fluctuations are greater. Of course if separation over the crest occurs then elevated regions of increased turbulence downwind will occur.

Hills or mountains with small slope or long upwind fetch conditions permit the near ground flow to move toward local equilibrium with local shear. An inner boundary layer,  $l_z$  grows upward in which these effects are significant. To a first order the depth at crest should be related to  $l_z \ln[l_z/z_o] = 2\kappa^2 L$ , where  $z_o$  is surface roughness and L is characteristic hill width. For most conditions  $l_z = 0.05 L$  when h/L is of order one. In such conditions over

¹ The characteristic hill width, L, may be defined in at least three different ways. It can be total base-width of hill from upstream base to downstream base; it can be the distance from upor down-wind hill base to hill crest; or it can be the distance from hill crest to the location up- or down-wind where the hill is one-half the total hill height above the base. The half-height width is used for characteristic width throughout this report.

moderate slope hills analytic and numerical methods based on linear-perturbation concepts work quite well (See Section 5.0). To a first order the fractional wind speedup,  $\Delta S$ , is still found to be proportional to h/L.

### 2.2 Field and Laboratory Measurements

As a result of environmental and energy concerns there now exists a large number of field data sets related to wind flow fields over hilly and mountainous terrains. Some were performed to answer questions about nuclear power safety, others were concerned with atmospheric transport of power plant plumes, and some were specifically posed to evaluate wind-energy potential over hill crests. Articles in Blumen (1990) refer to experiments of the Dept. of Energy ASCOT test series (Geysers, CA; Brush Creek, CO), the Environmental Protection Agencies CTMDP test series (Cinder Cone Butte,ID; Hog Back Ridge, NM; Tracy Power Plant, NV), and various international measurement efforts like the Askervein hill project (US, NZ, UK, CN). Meroney (1978, 1980) reviews pre-1980 field studies which had laboratory counterpart experiments (eg. Rakaia River Gorge, NZ; Gebbies Pass, NZ; Kahuku Point, Oahu, HA). During the 1980s a number of field studies over relatively smooth isolated hills and ridges were performed specifically to validate wind flow models proposed to predict wind-energy potential (Askervein Hill, Blashaval, Brent Knoll, Great Dun Fell, Nyland Hill, UK; Kettle Hill, CAN). Table 2.2.1 summarizes some details of 69 laboratory studies for 31 cases of which comparable field measurements are available.

Almost all of the isolated hill and ridge studies examined terrain with very small surface roughness (1-3 cm); hence, there are few published data (found during this review) for wind flow over simple terrain shapes incorporating forests, woods, shelterbelts, clearings or clearcut areas. (This is not to say individual meteorological measurements do not exist in clearings and clearcut areas in hills, but no extensive sets of measurements were made in such situations to document terrain wide flow.) One exception was the two-dimensional ridge study performed in Australia by Bradley (1978) (See discussion in Section 4.1).

The ASCOT Brush Creek study involved a 650 m deep valley in western Colorado where the southwest-facing walls were dry, and barren, while the northeast-facing walls were moist and brush covered. The vegetation was found to make a significant difference in diurnal absorption of thermal radiation, and the wind flows which developed in the valley. The ASCOT Geyser area study were performed over tree covered hills and meadow covered valleys. Again inclusion of the vegetation in analytic and numerical models was necessary to reproduce the wind flows observed. Unfortunately, no high wind conditions were observed in either ASCOT study, for the principal program goal was to evaluate the mechanisms of night time and daytime drainage flow in open-ended valleys.

An extensive set of physical model experiments were also performed during the 1980s. The Askervein Hill Project was a collaborative study of boundary-layer flow over low hills (Taylor and Teunissen, 1987). Two field experiments were conducted during fall 1982 and 1983 near and around Askervein, a 116 m high hill on the west coast of the island of South Uist in

the Outer Hebrides of Scotland. Over 50 towers were deployed and instrumented for wind measurements. Most were cup anemometers mounted on simple 10 m posts, but two 50 m, one 30 m, one 16 m, and thirteen 10 m towers were instrumented for three-component turbulence measurements. Subsequently, wind tunnel simulations of the hill were carried out at three different length scales (1 to 800, 1 to 1200, and 1 to 2500) in two wind tunnel facilities (Teunissen et al. 1987) The wind-tunnel results compared well with each other and with full scale data (Figure 2.2.1) Changes in mean flow speedup over the physical models were reproduced very well, including those due to small local terrain features that may be physically small at model scale. Relaxation of the aerodynamic roughness criterion (Re. =  $u_*z_o/\nu > 2.5$ ) affected the flow only on the lee side of the model hills. Turbulence changes induced by the hill did not depend on the nature of the surface roughness (suggesting the inner boundary length was quite small). An excessively smooth surface reduced the degree and extent of separated flow and resulted in overestimation of hill crest wind speeds. Simulations in two facilities using three models at three different scales showed a gratifying degree of consistency. The only effect of model scale was a predictable increase in difficulty in making measurements very close to the surface as the size of the model decreased. The depth of the turbulent inner layer was similar to the value predicted by Jensen et al. (1984) discussed in Section 3.5.

# 2.3 Summary

The general behavior of wind flow over simple and complex terrain is qualitatively well understood. Measurements in field or laboratory situations have been made under an amazingly broad range of conditions. Nonetheless, the possible combinations of hill shape, slope, surface roughness, stratification conditions, upwind approach conditions, surrounding terrain undulations, and unsteadiness associated with the diurnal cycle and weather result in few quantitatively reliable estimators for hill crest wind speeds.

Actual measurements of wind flow over vegetation covered terrain which can be used to specify the effect of forrest edges, clearings or clearcuts on wind energy siting are minimal. The few studies identified will be discussed in Sections 3.5 and 4.2.

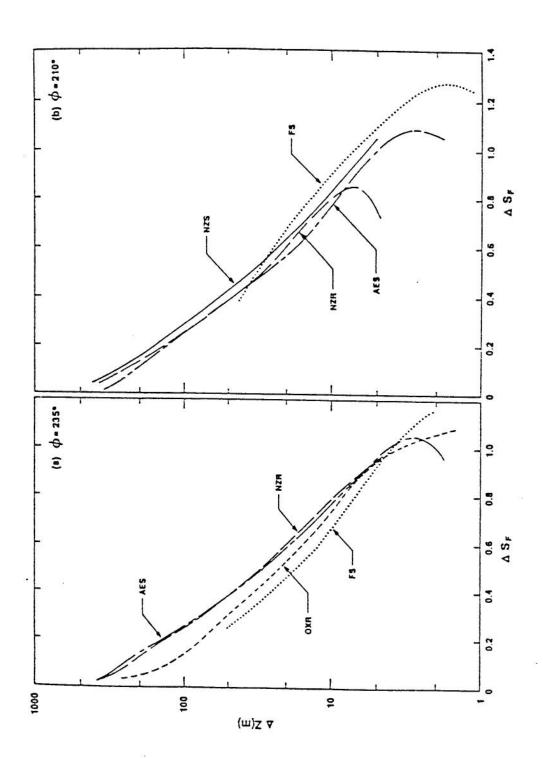


Figure 2.2.1 Vertical profiles of speedup at the hilltop for two wind directions in wind-tunnel (AES, OXR, NZR) and full-scale (FS) flows (Teunissen et al., 1987)

Laboratory Simulations of Flow Over Complex Terrain

Table 2.2.1

16000000	АИГНОЯ (ВАТЕ)	TOPOGRAPHIC BITE	PROBLEM STUDNED	TYPE OF AIRFLOW	100	LENGTH SCALE	delta/H	alpha	Similarde Critena Z/H x 104 u'	u//U	n/n	¥7	æ
10.0					FEATURE (m)	RATIO	88				•		or PG Category
7	Field and Warden (1929-1930)	Rock of Gbraltar	Topographol effects and turbulence	Neutral	520	6000	0.00	0.0					
	Abe (1941)	Mt. Fuj. Japan	Mountain clouds and topographic effects	Barostromatic (dry Ice)	4000	20000	0.10			70.00			not accurate
:	Puham (1948)	Pond Glastenberg Mt. Washington	Topographic effects	Neutral	300 850	6280 8280 5280		888					
4	Suzuki & Yabuki (1956)	Idealzedhilla	Mountain lee waves	Barostromatic (brine solution)			0.00	0.0					
10	Long (1953, 1954, 1955)	Idealzedhilla	Mountain lee waves	Barostromatic			0.00	0.00					13-94
	Long (1959)	Sierra Nevada Mins Calfornia	Mountain fee waves	(bine souton)	2750	75000	0.00	0.00					15-300
•	Nemoto (1961)	Enoshima & Akashi Chamei, Japan	Turbulence & Velocity profiles	Neutral	8	800 3300 10000	-	1.00		0.20		1.33	
	Haltsky, Toleiss, Kapin & Magony (1962–1963)	Bear Mountain New York	Turbulence & Wake pattems	Neutral	380	1920	1.25			0.16			
	Brigge (1963)	Rock of Gbrattar	Turbulence Patterns	Neutral	620	9009	0.00	0.00					
	Haltsky, Magony, & Halpern (1964–65)	Manchester, Vermant	Topographic effects	Neutral		52 87							
5	Plate & Lh (1965) CS U	Idealzedhill	Velocity & turbulence in wake	Neutral Unstable			9 10	0.16	1.50	0.14	0.03		0.02
Ξ	Chang (1966) CS U	lideafzedhill	Velocity & turbulence in wake	Neutral		107	2.00	0.16	1.50				
-	Cermak, Peterka & (Mercney) (1966) CSU	Pl. Arguello, CA	Topographic effects Diffusion	Barostromatic Neutral	600	12000	9.00	0.25					0.31
5	Meroney & Cermak (1967) CS U	San Nicolas Island, Califomia	Topographic effects Diffusion	Neutral & Barostromatic	275	6200	12.60	0.14	0.20		0.03	***************************************	0.30
=	Lh & Bhder (1967) CS U	Idealzed Mountain	M cuntain lee waves	Barostromatic		4.4.							4-25
5	Garrison & Cermak (1968) CS U	San Bruno Mountain, California	Topographic effects	Neutral Barostromatic (dry ice)	9 9 4	6000/4800 6000/4800 3000/2400	3.70	0.16	25.00		0.13		0.32
-	*16 Hsl Bhder & Cermak (1968) CS U	Green River, Utah	Topographic effects	Neutral	99	008	00.9	41.0	2.00				
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