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1 **Long-term regional reanalysis for Japan with**
2 **assimilating conventional observations**
3 **(RRJ-Conv)**

4 **Shin Fukui,**

5 *Meteorological Research Institute, Tsukuba, Japan*
6 *Graduate School of Science, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan*

7 **Eiichi Shirakawa,**

8 **Daiki Soga,**

9 **Ryota Ohara,**

10 **Ken Usui,**

11 **Kaito Takiguchi,**

12 **Keisuke Ono,**

13 **Taiga Hirose,**

14 **Sanae Matsushima,**

15

Junshi Ito,

16

Takeshi Yamazaki,

17 *Graduate School of Science, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan*

18

Kazuo Saito,

19 *Japan Meteorological Business Support Center, Tokyo, Japan*

20 *Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, the University of*

21 *Tokyo, Kashiwa, Japan*

22 *Meteorological Research Institute, Tsukuba, Japan*

23

Hiromu Seko,

24 *Meteorological Research Institute, Tsukuba, Japan*

25

and

26

Toshiki Iwasaki

27 *Graduate School of Science, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan*

28

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Corresponding author: Shin Fukui, Meteorological Research Institute, 1-1
Nagamine, Tsukuba, Japan.
E-mail: fukui@tohoku.ac.jp

Abstract

30 We are conducting a 5-km long-term atmospheric regional reanalysis for
31 Japan with assimilating conventional observations (RRJ-Conv). RRJ-Conv
32 is produced with a one-way double-nesting system consisting of a nonhydro-
33 static regional model and a local ensemble transform Kalman filter, which is
34 driven by the Japanese 55-year reanalysis (JRA-55). The assimilated data
35 are limited to long-term available data, specifically surface in-situ pressure
36 observations, upper-air radiosonde observations, and tropical cyclone center
37 positions.

38 This paper overviews the performance of RRJ-Conv for 20 years from
39 July 2001 to June 2021, mainly focusing on precipitation and exploring
40 added values to JRA-55. RRJ-Conv is confirmed to maintain long-term
41 consistency of analysis quality. Compared to JRA-55, RRJ-Conv reduces
42 biases in central pressures of tropical cyclones, maintaining position repro-
43 ducibility. RRJ-Conv represents detailed spatial distributions of monthly
44 precipitation, extreme values for daily precipitation, and their interannual
45 variation more realistically than JRA-55. The improvements to JRA-55 are
46 demonstrated for some extreme events, involving a tropical cyclone, Baiu
47 front and East Asian winter monsoon.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 More than a half century has passed since operational radiosonde up-
50 per air observations, in addition to surface in-situ observations, started to
51 cover the globe. Moreover, numerical weather prediction (NWP) systems,
52 including physical-based forecasting models and data assimilation schemes,
53 have gradually and greatly developed for decades, supported by advances in
54 computing technology (Bauer et al. 2015; Benjamin et al. 2018). By utiliz-
55 ing both stored observations and state-of-the-art NWP systems, some NWP
56 centers produce long-term global atmospheric reanalyses (e.g. Kalnay et al.
57 1996). The Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA), which has produced the
58 Japanese 25-year Reanalysis (JRA-25: Onogi et al. 2007) and the Japanese
59 55-year Reanalysis, (JRA-55: Kobayashi et al. 2015), is one of these centers.
60 Global reanalyses have greatly contributed to various fields. As proposed by
61 Trenberth and Olson (1988), and Bengtsson and Shukla (1988) the reanaly-
62 ses are essential for studying and monitoring natural variability and climate
63 change. They are used in developing new NWP systems and postprocesses
64 for routine weather prediction (e.g. Hamill et al. 2006). In addition, there
65 are a number of users of the reanalyses in a wide range of fields, such as
66 agriculture and energy (Gregow et al. 2016). Recently, reanalyses have
67 started to be used for training data-driven weather forecasting models (e.g.
68 Pathak et al. 2022). However, even in the latest global reanalyses, such

69 as the fifth generation of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
70 Forecasts atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5 Hersbach et al. 2020), the resolu-
71 tions are limited to a grid spacing of 30 km or more. These resolutions are
72 insufficient for capturing mesoscale phenomena and complex terrain effects.

73 Dynamical downscaling is widely applied to solve the resolution problem
74 in global reanalyses. It estimates higher-resolution atmospheric fields with
75 physical consistency, using high-resolution regional models driven by lower-
76 resolution data, such as global reanalyses. However, downscaled fields, even
77 at the synoptic scale, often depart from the lower-resolution driving data,
78 as the integration time is long. At the same time, limiting the integration
79 time does not allow the model to sufficiently spin up fine-scale structures,
80 affecting estimates of precipitation and clouds.

81 Regional reanalysis addresses the problems in dynamical downscaling by
82 assimilating observations within the regional domain, in addition to using
83 a high-resolution model. Recently, several long-term regional reanalysis
84 datasets covering North America (Mesinger et al. 2006), Europe (Bollmeyer
85 et al. 2014; Dahlgren et al. 2016; Jermey and Renshaw 2016), the Arctic
86 (Bromwich et al. 2016), Australia (Su et al. 2019), South Asia (Rani
87 et al. 2021), and East Asia (Yang et al. 2022; Yin et al. 2023) have been
88 generated.

89 To detect long-term variations from a reanalysis, it is favorable to limit

90 the assimilated observations to the conventional observations that are avail-
91 able throughout the reanalysis period (Kobayashi et al. 2014). Limiting
92 observations may degrade the analyses in the period when other abundant
93 observations, such as satellite observations, are available. However, it keeps
94 the analysis quality consistent over a long period, free from the history
95 of observing system advances. Most of the existing regional reanalyses use
96 satellite observations. There is still no long-term regional reanalysis without
97 assimilating satellite observations covering Japan, where various mesoscale
98 extreme events are accompanied by disturbances, such as tropical cyclones
99 (TCs), the Baiu front and cold-air outbreaks, and are affected by complex
100 terrain.

101 We developed a 5-km grid long-term regional reanalysis system for Japan
102 with assimilating conventional observations. Fukui et al. (2018) demon-
103 strated the feasibility of regional reanalysis, which assimilates only sur-
104 face pressure and radiosonde observations and can moderate the above-
105 mentioned problems in dynamical downscaling. They have suggested that
106 regional reanalysis improves the spatiotemporal variation of precipitation
107 compared to downscaling with long model integration and reduces the
108 underestimation of precipitation in downscaling with short model integra-
109 tion. They have also shown that regional reanalysis can better represent
110 heavy precipitation and topographic effects than can global coarser reanal-

111 ysis. These results motivate us to produce regional reanalysis data covering
112 several decades to provide climatological mean states and seasonal and in-
113 terannual variations, as well as past mesoscale extreme events.

114 The purpose of this study is to conduct a long-term 5-km grid regional re-
115 analysis for Japan with assimilating conventional observations (RRJ-Conv)
116 and to evaluate its performance for the period of 20 years from July 2001
117 to June 2021 by exploring added values to the driving data of JRA-55. Our
118 main focus is on precipitation. Accurate precipitation estimates are help-
119 ful for various applications, such as disaster prevention and water resource
120 management. High-resolution systems, such as RRJ-Conv, are necessary
121 for representing extreme precipitation events caused by mesoscale systems
122 and influenced by complex terrain. Precipitation observations, which are
123 not assimilated in RRJ-Conv, are suitable for evaluating the performance
124 of RRJ-Conv.

125 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we
126 describe the design of the system for RRJ-Conv. The performance of RRJ-
127 Conv is overviewed in terms of synoptic-scale fields and TCs in section 3.
128 We also evaluate RRJ-Conv, focusing on precipitation, including extreme
129 events over Japan, in section 4. Conclusions are summarized in section 5.

2. Regional reanalysis system

RRJ-Conv is conducted through sequential data assimilation cycles. The system for RRJ-Conv is based on that of Fukui et al. (2018). It is designed to be nested in JRA-55. Employing a one-way double-nesting approach, the outer and inner systems cover East Asia with a grid spacing of 25 km and Japan with a grid spacing of 5 km, respectively (Fig. 1). The time-integration model is JMA nonhydrostatic model (NHM: Saito et al. 2007), which was used for operational regional NWP for Japan at JMA until 2017. The data assimilation scheme is a local ensemble transform Kalman filter (LETKF: Hunt et al. 2007), which is a kind of ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF). The assimilated data are limited to conventional observations, specifically surface in-situ pressure observations, upper-air radiosonde observations, and TC center positions. These data cover more than 60 years. Limiting the assimilated data to conventional observations keeps the reanalysis quality stable over the long term, which is favorable for extracting climate change signals.

Fig. 1

To produce a long-term reanalysis dataset, RRJ-Conv is split into streams. Each stream covers one year from July to June of the following year. To spin up mesoscale variability from coarser initial fields, at least 12 hours are needed (Skamarock 2004). In addition, adjusting the perturbations in the outer system requires approximately one week. To have sufficient time

151 for these adjustments, the reanalysis streams are initialized at 12 UTC 20
152 June for the 25-km outer reanalysis and at 12 UTC 29 June for the 5-km
153 inner reanalysis. More details of the time-integration model, data assimilation
154 scheme, assimilated data for RRJ-Conv and evaluation method are
155 described in the following subsections.

156 *2.1 Time-integration model*

157 The time integration, providing first-guess fields and their error covari-
158 ances for LETKF and precipitation estimation, is performed by using the
159 NHM initialized at the analysis field in the previous cycle without initial-
160 ization procedure. Both the inner and outer NHMs include the following
161 schemes to represent physical processes. To represent cloud microphysics, a
162 bulk model is employed, prognosing the mixing ratios of cloud water, rain,
163 cloud ice, snow and graupel and the number concentrations of cloud ice,
164 snow and graupel (Ikawa and Saito 1991). Cumulus convections are param-
165 eterized with the Kain and Fritsch scheme (Kain 2004). Subgrid-scale tur-
166 bulence is treated with the Mellor-Yamada-Nakanishi-Niino Level-3 scheme
167 (MYNN3: Nakanishi and Niino 2006). Radiation processes are represented
168 by schemes for clear skies (Yabu et al. 2005) and clouds (Kitagawa 2000).
169 The cloud amount for radiation is diagnosed from subgrid-scale variances
170 estimated with MYNN3 to consider partial condensation (Sommeria and

171 Deardorff 1977). Surface fluxes are estimated by using a bulk method with
172 the coefficients proposed by Beljaars and Holtslag (1991). Land surface pro-
173 cesses are treated with a simple slab model consisting of 4 layers to estimate
174 soil temperature with heat conduction equations and 3 layers to estimate
175 soil moisture with the force-restore method.

176 The model top is set at a height of 22 km with 50 vertical layers in
177 the terrain-following hybrid coordinate system. The 25-km outer model is
178 constrained by global driving data via its lateral boundary conditions and
179 the spectral nudging (von Storch et al. 2000). The nudged components are
180 horizontal wind and potential temperature fields longer than 1200 km in
181 wavelength above a height of 2000 m with a weight of 0.05. In the 5-km
182 inner model, the spectral nudging is not applied. For the lower boundary
183 conditions, the sea surface temperature (SST) is obtained from COBE-SST
184 (Ishii et al. 2005). The model topography is based on Global 30 Arc-Second
185 Elevation data (GTOPO30: Gesch et al. 1999). The surface properties re-
186 flect the land uses and coverages of snow and sea ice. The land uses across
187 Japan are determined from the land-use product of the Geospatial Infor-
188 mation Authority of Japan. They are updated in 2007, 2011 and 2014, by
189 considering the land-use product versions. Those over the other countries
190 are fixed for the entire period, given from Global Land Cover Characteri-
191 zation from the U.S. Geological Survey, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln

192 and the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission (GLCC: Love-
193 land et al. 2000). The coverages of snow and sea ice are interpolated from
194 JRA-55. Concentrations of greenhouse gases, specifically CO₂, CH₄, N₂O,
195 CFC-11, CFC-12 and HCFC-22, are updated annually, using the same data
196 given in JRA-55.

197 *2.2 Data assimilation*

198 To assimilate observations, we employ LETKF. The forecast error co-
199 variances are estimated from the 30 perturbed runs. The first-guess fields
200 are from the single control runs, instead of the ensemble mean of the per-
201 turbed runs as in the original LETKF. The ensemble mean fields can be
202 too smooth for the first-guess fields. For example, TCs tend to be shallower
203 and wider in ensemble mean fields, reflecting the differences in TC positions
204 among ensemble members. This modification avoids this problem (Fukui
205 et al. 2018).

206 Perturbations are given for the initial and lateral boundary conditions.
207 Lateral boundary perturbations play an important role in spreading the en-
208 semble members and reflecting uncertainties in the first-guess fields because
209 long-term simulations with regional models depend on lateral boundary con-
210 ditions rather than initial conditions. For the 25-km outer perturbed runs,
211 the initial conditions are obtained from the JRA-55 fields on the same date

212 but in different years. The lateral boundary conditions are plus and minus
213 of 15 leading empirical orthogonal function modes of the JRA-55 clima-
214 tological anomalies over the domain. For the 5-km inner perturbed runs,
215 the initial and lateral boundary conditions are given from the 25-km outer
216 perturbed reanalyses.

217 The longitudinal and latitudinal TC center positions are directly assimi-
218 lated in RRJ-Conv. The direct assimilation method, which is easily applied
219 to ensemble Kalman filters, corrects first-guess fields with relatively little
220 disturbance to the dynamical balance (Kunii 2015). The TC center po-
221 sitions in the guess fields are detected as the minimal points around the
222 observed TCs in the mean sea level pressure (MSLP) fields. Considering
223 the difficulty in searching for TC centers with a simple method, the assimi-
224 lation of TC center positions is performed only for TCs over the sea in both
225 observations and first-guess fields.

226 The analysis is obtained at the end of 6-hour assimilation window with
227 hourly slots by applying the 4D-EnKF approach. The localization to re-
228 duce sampling errors is set in the observation space. The localization scales
229 are set to 200 km in the horizontal direction and $0.4 \ln p$ in the horizon-
230 tal direction for assimilating surface pressure and upper-air observations.
231 For assimilating TC center positions, the horizontal localization scale is set
232 to 400 km and the vertical localization is not set, in considering the TC

233 structure. To avoid filter divergence, the relaxation to prior perturbation
234 method (Zhang et al. 2004) is applied with a relaxation factor of 0.9. The
235 analyzed variables in the LETKF are three-dimensional wind components,
236 temperature, surface pressure and mixing ratios of water species. They are
237 used as initial conditions for the time integration with NHM in the next
238 cycle.

239 *2.3 Assimilated data*

240 The assimilated data in RRJ-Conv are surface in-situ pressure obser-
241 vations, upper-air radiosonde observations, and TC center positions. The
242 surface in-situ pressure observations are data reported from surface land
243 and sea stations and buoys. The radiosonde observations include upper-
244 air zonal and meridional winds, temperature and relative humidity. The
245 TC center position data in terms of latitude and longitude are from the
246 JMA's best track data. Figure 2 shows the time series of the numbers of
247 assimilated observations passing quality control processes. The numbers
248 are different for the reanalyses at 00 and 12 UTC and at 06 and 18 UTC
249 because the upper-air observations with radiosondes are generally operated
250 every 12 hours. From the viewpoint of a longer time scale, the numbers are
251 stable for the period of 20 years from July 2001 to June 2021.

Fig. 2

252 *2.4 Data for evaluation*

253 This section describes the data used for the evaluation of RRJ-Conv.
254 To check the stability and reproducibility of the reanalyses in RRJ-Conv
255 regarding the synoptic-scale fields, we compared RRJ-Conv to JRA-55. In
256 addition, the JMA's best track data were used to validate TC positions and
257 central pressures in RRJ-Conv. Approximately half of the heavy precipi-
258 tation events in Japan are associated with TCs (Tsuguti and Kato 2014).
259 Therefore, realistic analysis of TCs is critical for precipitation estimates in
260 RRJ-Conv. Regarding precipitation, we used the JMA's raingauge obser-
261 vations, which cover the Japanese islands. The sites of the raingauges that
262 we used are shown in Fig. 3. The total number was 711. Note that we
263 excluded the raingauge observations for which the number of the days with
264 missing values in the hourly records was more than 20% in a month. The
265 JMA's radar-based precipitation data calibrated with raingauge observa-
266 tions (radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation data: Nagata 2011) are used
267 only for extreme precipitation cases. This is because the radar-based data
268 capture fine precipitation distributions in space with high accuracy by using
269 both radar and raingauge observations, while they are largely influenced by
270 updates of the radar observing network and estimation algorithm.

Fig. 3

271 3. Synoptic-scale fields

272 3.1 Mean sea level pressures

273 Figure 4 shows the root mean square differences (RMSDs) and biases
274 of RRJ-Conv against JRA-55 for 6-hourly instant fields of mean sea level
275 pressure (MSLP) over the RRJ-Conv domain. Here, the RMSDs and biases
276 are calculated as

$$RMSD = \left(\frac{1}{\sum_i A(i)} \sum_i A(i) (x_{RRJ}(i) - x_{JRA}(i))^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (1)$$

$$bias = \frac{1}{\sum_i A(i)} \sum_i A(i) (x_{RRJ}(i) - x_{JRA}(i)), \quad (2)$$

277 where $A(i)$, $x_{RRJ}(i)$ and $x_{JRA}(i)$ are as the area and MSLPs of RRJ-Conv
278 and JRA-55, respectively, represented at the i -th JRA-55 grid inside the
279 RRJ-Conv domain. The 10-day running means of the RMSDs and biases
280 are stable, although they are relatively larger in summer than in winter. The
281 RMSDs are 0.7 hPa for June–August and 0.9 hPa for December–February
282 throughout the reanalysis period. The variability of MSLP fields around
283 Japan is larger in winter than in summer, which could be a cause of the
284 seasonality of the RMSDs. At longer time scales, the RMSDs and biases do
285 not vary during the 20 years. The results indicate that RRJ-Conv success-
286 fully reproduces most of the synoptic fields and maintains stable reanalysis
287 quality over the long term.

Fig. 4

288 Notable, the RMSDs of the instant fields sometimes have large values
289 exceeding 2 hPa. In some cases, the large RMSDs resulted from differences
290 in TC positions and intensities in RRJ-Conv and JRA-55. In other cases,
291 large RMSDs are associated with failure of RRJ-Conv to reproduce rapidly
292 developing extratropical cyclones passing through the Pacific Ocean to the
293 south and east of the main island of Japan. The observations assimilated in
294 RRJ-Conv are relatively sparse over the ocean, which can result in insuffi-
295 cient constraints of the fields. The perturbations given to lateral boundary
296 conditions are not flow-dependent, and no perturbations are given to ac-
297 count for uncertainties in the SST data and the model, which can fail to
298 estimate forecast error covariances. The failures in similar situations can
299 also imply that NHM has some systematic biases in simulating the rapid
300 development of such extratropical cyclones.

301 *3.2 Tropical cyclones*

302 Figure 5 shows the errors of the TC center positions in RRJ-Conv and
303 JRA-55 against the JMA's best track data for all the TCs inside the RRJ-
304 Conv domain during the 20 years. RRJ-Conv analyses more TCs with
305 position errors below 50 km than does JRA-55, while the number of TCs
306 with errors greater than 200 km slightly increases. The averaged error of
307 RRJ-Conv is approximately 60 km, which is comparable to that of JRA-55,

308 in which retrieved wind profiles surrounding TCs are assimilated (Kobayashi
309 et al. 2015). One of the factors for maintaining the reproducibility of the TC
310 positions in RRJ-Conv is assimilation of the TC positions. Each assimilation
311 process only corrects the TC position by a small amount but modifies the
312 position relative to the large-scale steering flows. As a result, the impacts
313 of the assimilation of TC positions can increase over time. Another factor
314 is the spectral nudging applied in the outer 25-km NHM-LETKF, which
315 contributes to reducing inconsistency between RRJ-Conv and JRA-55 in
316 large-scale steering flows in the RRJ-Conv system.

Fig. 5

317 Figure 6 shows comparisons between the TC central pressures of the
318 JMA's best track data and those of RRJ-Conv and JRA-55. JRA-55 over-
319 estimates TC central pressures. There are few TCs whose central pressures
320 are less than 960 hPa in JRA-55. RRJ-Conv also overestimates them but
321 tends to estimate TC central pressures closer to the JMA's best track data
322 than does JRA-55. Figure 7 shows the spatial distributions of biases of
323 TC central pressures. RRJ-Conv has biases comparable to those of JRA-55
324 along the lateral boundary of RRJ-Conv but improves TC central pressures
325 over the ocean along the southern coast of Japan main islands, even though
326 TC intensity information from the best track data is not assimilated. The
327 5-km grid model is starting to resolve TC inner core structures (Kanada
328 and Wada 2016). The benefit of the high-resolution model can primarily

329 contribute to the improvement of TC central pressures in RRJ-Conv. RRJ-
330 Conv avoids large TC position errors, resulting in TCs staying under the
331 environments consistent with the reality. This can also support the improve-
332 ments in TC central pressures. The small improvement along the lateral
333 boundaries exhibits insufficient spin-up for TCs from the boundary data at
334 lower resolution.

Fig. 6

Fig. 7

335 4. Evaluation of precipitation

336 4.1 Monthly precipitation

337 Figure 8a shows the 20-year mean monthly precipitation averaged over
338 the JMA's raingauge observation sites plotted in Fig. 3. Both RRJ-Conv
339 and JRA-55 simulate the amounts of monthly precipitation with relative
340 biases less than 15%. In terms of seasonal variation, the observed monthly
341 precipitation has two peaks in July and September and is minimal in winter.
342 RRJ-Conv successfully simulates the observed seasonal variation, despite
343 certain underestimation of precipitation in June. RRJ-Conv improves the
344 monthly precipitation in September the most and simulates the peak in
345 September, which is poorly represented by JRA-55.

Fig. 8

346 Figure 8b shows the spatial correlations to the observations for the 20-
347 year mean monthly precipitation at the observation sites across Japan. The

348 spatial correlation coefficients of JRA-55 are lower in summer, dropping to
349 0.4 in August, while they are approximately 0.8 in the other seasons. RRJ-
350 Conv improves the spatial correlations in most of the months, although
351 they are still relatively low in July and August. Figure 8c shows the spa-
352 tial standard deviations of the 20-year mean monthly precipitation, which
353 measure the amplitude of the spatial variability in the monthly precipita-
354 tion. Compared with the raingauge observations, JRA-55 underestimates
355 the deviation throughout the year. RRJ-Conv improves the spatial devia-
356 tions but overestimates the deviations in July and August. The relatively
357 low spatial correlation and large spatial deviations in July and August in
358 RRJ-Conv are caused by the overestimation of convective precipitation over
359 the mountainous region in the central part of Japan, while RRJ-Conv suc-
360 cessfully simulates the precipitation pattern in the western part of Japan,
361 which is rather uniform in JRA-55. Apart from this deficiency, RRJ-Conv
362 represents the spatial distributions of the 20-year mean monthly precipita-
363 tion more realistically in terms of both pattern and amplitude throughout
364 the year than does JRA-55.

365 In September, RRJ-Conv improves both amount and spatial variation
366 in the monthly precipitation compared with JRA-55 (Fig. 8). Figure 9
367 shows the spatial distributions of the monthly precipitation in September.
368 Large amounts of precipitation are observed on the Pacific Ocean sides of

369 mountains in the western part of Japan. RRJ-Conv simulates the observed
370 distribution well, while JRA-55 underestimates the enhanced precipitation.
371 The spatial distribution is similar to that of TC-induced precipitation in
372 Japan which has a peak in September, as shown in Kamahori and Arakawa
373 (2018). RRJ-Conv can improve the representation of the TC intensity to
374 JRA-55, as mentioned in Section 3.2. In addition, RRJ-Conv represents
375 fine topographies that lift TC-driven moist flows better than does JRA-55.
376 These factors contribute to the improvement of locally enhanced precipita-
377 tion. Despite this improvement, RRJ-Conv still tends to underestimate the
378 overall precipitation. One possible cause is the insufficient representation
379 of the TC intensity, as mentioned in Section 3.2.

Fig. 9

380 4.2 *Extreme precipitation*

381 Figure 10a shows the frequencies of daily precipitation exceeding the
382 thresholds. JRA-55 overestimates the frequencies of weak precipitation, but
383 the frequencies rapidly decrease as the thresholds increase. Figure 10b shows
384 the bias scores, defined as the ratios of the simulated frequencies to the ob-
385 served frequencies, for daily precipitation exceeding thresholds. The bias
386 scores of JRA-55 are less than 1 for precipitation more than 15 mm day⁻¹
387 and only approximately 0.2 for precipitation more than 100 mm day⁻¹, al-
388 though the score is approximately 1.5 for precipitation more than 1 mm day⁻¹.

389 RRJ-Conv represents the observed frequencies much better than JRA-55 for
390 weak and heavy precipitation. Comparing with those of JRA-55, the bias
391 scores of RRJ-Conv fits to 1, exceeding 0.8 even for precipitation more
392 than 120 mm day⁻¹. For thresholds larger than 150 mm day⁻¹, the bias
393 scores decrease rapidly, which may imply a certain limitation of RRJ-Conv,
394 although they are still much better than those of JRA-55.

Fig. 10

395 Figure 11 shows the spatial distributions of the frequencies of daily precip-
396 itation exceeding 100 mm from July 2001 to June 2021. Daily precip-
397 itation exceeding 100 mm is more frequently observed at stations in the
398 south-western part of Japan, particularly in regions along the Pacific Ocean
399 and East China Sea (Fig. 11a). RRJ-Conv simulates the observed features
400 well (Fig. 11b). As displayed in the scatter plots (Fig. 11d), the frequen-
401 cies in RRJ-Conv fit those observed at all sites, except for Ono-Aida on
402 Yakushima (Fig. 11a). Note that Yakushima is a small and steep Island
403 with a diameter of approximately 20 km and an elevation of approximately
404 2000 m at its peak. As reported by Sasaki et al. (2015), the 5-km grid
405 system is insufficient to resolve the observed local features at Ono-Aida,
406 causing overestimation. When Ono-Aida is excluded, the spatial correla-
407 tion and regression coefficients of RRJ-Conv to the observations are 0.87
408 and 0.79, respectively. In contrast, JRA-55 has difficulty representing daily
409 precipitation greater than 100 mm, thereby largely underestimating the fre-

410 quencies. The spatial correlation and regression coefficients of JRA-55 to
411 the observations, except for Ono-Aida, are 0.71 and 0.16, respectively. The
412 comparisons indicate that RRJ-Conv improves the representation of the
413 spatial distribution of the frequencies of heavy precipitation, such as daily
414 precipitation exceeding 100 mm, compared with JRA-55.

Fig. 11

415 Figure 12 shows the interannual variation in the number of days with
416 precipitation exceeding 100 mm averaged across all the observation sites.
417 RRJ-Conv tends to underestimate the numbers by 11% but the biases are
418 stable throughout the period, indicating that RRJ-Conv can maintain con-
419 sistency in reanalysis quality over the time period. In terms of interannual
420 variability, RRJ-Conv simulates the observed variation better than does
421 JRA-55. The correlation and regression coefficients of RRJ-Conv to the
422 observations are 0.94 and 0.96, respectively, while those of JRA-55 are 0.79
423 and 0.44, respectively. The results suggest that RRJ-Conv successfully rep-
424 resents interannual variability, in addition to climatological means, in heavy
425 precipitation, compared to JRA-55.

Fig. 12

426 *a. A Baiu heavy rainfall case*

427 In early July 2018, extremely heavy rainfall was brought by the Baiu
428 front stagnating over the western part of Japan (Shimpo et al. 2019).

429 Figure 13 shows the 96-hour accumulated precipitation from 12 UTC

430 on 4 to 12 UTC on 8 July. From the JMA's radar/raingauge-analyzed
431 precipitation data, precipitation exceeds 300 mm over the western part of
432 Japan and is locally enhanced to more than 500 mm. JRA-55 captures
433 more than 300 mm of precipitation along the western part of Japan but
434 cannot represent large amounts of local precipitation (Fig. 13c). RRJ-Conv
435 can simulate the observed features, including local enhanced precipitation
436 exceeding 500 mm in the precipitation area along the western part of Japan,
437 although heavy precipitation is spuriously simulated or is missed in some
438 areas (Fig. 13b). The histograms of the total precipitation (Figs. 13a–c) also
439 depict that RRJ-Conv better fits to the JMA's radar/raingauge-analyzed
440 precipitation than JRA-55, particularly for precipitation larger than 500 mm
441 (Figs. 13d, e). The Spearman's correlation coefficient of the spatial distri-
442 bution over the domain indicated in Fig. 13 is 0.81 between RRJ-Conv and
443 the JMA's radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation. Figure 14 shows the
444 time series of the fractions of areas with 3-hour precipitation greater than
445 10 and 30 mm. Note that the target domain is over and around Japanese
446 islands, specifically the domain surrounded by black bold lines in Fig. 13,
447 considering the observation ranges of the radar network and the distribution
448 of the raingauges. For 3-hourly precipitation greater than 10 mm, although
449 the variation in JRA-55 follows that of the observations, JRA-55 tends to
450 overestimate these areas (Fig. 14a). JRA-55 estimates no areas with 3-hour

451 precipitation greater than 30 mm in most of the period (Fig. 14b). These
452 results indicate a limitation of JRA-55 in representing heavy precipitation.
453 RRJ-Conv largely improves the representation of the time series, compared
454 to JRA-55. The variation in the area of 3-hourly precipitation over 10 mm
455 in RRJ-Conv are more consistent with the observed variation. For pre-
456 cipitation greater than 30 mm, RRJ-Conv can follow the observed time
457 series, although it underestimates some of the observed peaks. As Shimpo
458 et al. (2019) reported, there were a number of mesoscale convective systems
459 embedded in the Baiu front, which contributed to locally enhanced precip-
460 itation. While JRA-55 cannot resolve such mesoscale systems, RRJ-Conv
461 can capture the heavy precipitation brought by the mesoscale systems. The
462 resolution of RRJ-Conv is still insufficient to fully resolve them, requiring
463 a cumulus parameterization, which causes difficulties in simulating such
464 heavier precipitation in the short term.

Fig. 13

Fig. 14

465 *b. A typhoon heavy rainfall case*

466 An extreme heavy rainfall event caused by Typhoon Hagibis (T1919)
467 occurred over the eastern part of Japan in October 2019. Typhoon Hagibis
468 approached Japan after its central pressure reached 915 hPa over the Pacific
469 Ocean to the south of Japan. It made landfall in the Izu Peninsula on
470 12 October and passed through the eastern part of Japan. A number of

471 the JMA's raingauges observed record-breaking rainfalls. At Hakone, 72-
472 hour precipitation exceeded 1000 mm from 10 to 12 October 2019 (Japan
473 Meteorological Agency 2019).

474 Figure 15 shows the track and central pressure of Typhoon Hagibis.
475 Both JRA-55 and RRJ-Conv simulate the track close to the JMA's best
476 track data. The observed central pressure was less than 950 hPa before
477 landfall (Fig. 15b). JRA-55 estimates it only approximately 970 hPa even
478 at the minimum. RRJ-Conv better represents the TC intensity around
479 Japan. Its central pressure is gradually deepened as it moves to the center
480 of the domain, reaching 962 hPa right before the landfall. The shallow
481 bias as in JRA-55 remains in RRJ-Conv, particularly over the ocean to the
482 south of Japan. This issue can be attributed to insufficient spin up for the
483 TC across the lateral boundary. The lower-resolution lateral boundary data
484 are strongly affected near the southern lateral boundary. In addition, over
485 the ocean there are few in-situ surface pressure and upper-air observations,
486 which might include information about the TC intensity when TCs pass
487 near the observation sites.

Fig. 15

488 Figure 16 shows the 72-hour precipitation from 00 UTC on 10 to 00
489 UTC on 13 October 2019. Along the TC track, the precipitation from the
490 JMA's radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation data exceeded 200 mm and
491 locally enhanced on the eastern side of the mountainous areas. Although

492 JRA-55 captures heavy precipitation along the TC track, it fails to repre-
493 sent the localized enhancement. The correlation is weak between JRA-55
494 and the radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation for the total precipitation
495 larger than 250 mm (Fig. 16e). RRJ-Conv improves the distribution of
496 precipitation compared to JRA-55, representing the locally enhanced pre-
497 cipitation despite underestimating the peak values. RRJ-Conv better fits
498 the radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation than JRA-55, particularly for
499 precipitation larger than 250 mm (Fig. 16d), and the Spearman correlation
500 coefficient to the radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation is 0.83. The im-
501 provements in the local enhancement of precipitation appear to result from
502 the finer orography in RRJ-Conv, which can better represent the effects of
503 lifting warm humid air at the local scale. RRJ-Conv captures the intensity
504 of the TC around Japan better than does JRA-55, which can also con-
505 tribute to the improvement. While improving the local enhancement along
506 mountainous areas, RRJ-Conv underestimates the total precipitation, par-
507 ticularly in the plain area. RRJ-Conv still underestimates the intensity of
508 Typhoon Hagibis passing through Japan. This underestimation of the TC
509 intensity could be one of the possible causes. The cumulus parameterization
510 used in the model tends to be overly sensitive to topography when simulat-
511 ing precipitation (Narita 2008; Kanada et al. 2008). This model bias can
512 be another possible cause.

Fig. 16

513 *c. A heavy snowfall case*

514 An anomalously heavy snowfall occurred due to the intensified East
515 Asian winter monsoon. On the Japan sea side of Honshu, the largest island
516 of Japan, from 14 to 21 December 2020, the previous records of snowfall
517 at some of the JMA’s raingauges sites were broken (Japan Meteorological
518 Agency 2020).

519 Figure 17 shows the total precipitation for the period of 14–21 Decem-
520 ber 2020. The distribution of the observed precipitation has clear contrast
521 between the upwind and leeward sides of mountain ranges, including locally
522 enhanced areas. This local enhancement is attributed to convections trig-
523 gered by steep topography and mesoscale convergences of the cold airmass
524 inflows. Figure 18 shows the time series of 3-hour precipitation at Tsunan,
525 which is one of the raingauge sites where extremely heavy snowfall were ob-
526 served in this event. According to the raingauge observations, the amount
527 of 3-hour precipitation varies from 1.0 mm to 10.5 mm during the event,
528 except for the period with almost no precipitation in 17–18 December due
529 to temporal weakening of the monsoon.

Fig. 17

530 Although JRA-55 simulates precipitation along the Sea of Japan side
531 of Japan, the contrast is weaker than that observed. The localized dis-
532 tribution is roughly represented on the Sea of Japan side of Japan, but
533 the peak values are underestimated. The maximum total precipitation is

Fig. 18

534 less than 240 mm in JRA-55, while the maximum value exceeds 350 mm
535 in the observation. The temporal variation in precipitation at Tsunan in
536 JRA-55 is smaller than the observed variation. RRJ-Conv successfully sim-
537 ulates the locally enhanced precipitation exceeding 350 mm for the 8 days
538 in RRJ-Conv, which is comparable to the observations. RRJ-Conv repre-
539 sents the temporal variation in precipitation at Tsunan, including the period
540 without precipitation, better than JRA-55. Nevertheless, RRJ-Conv tends
541 to underestimate precipitation in the plains in the windward side and to
542 spread more precipitation to the leeward side. The histograms also depict
543 that RRJ-Conv has higher potential to represent heavy precipitation than
544 JRA-55. When measured with the Spearman's correlation coefficient to the
545 radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation, RRJ-Conv is 0.85, which is compa-
546 rable to JRA-55. One of the possible causes is the topography in the 5-km
547 grid model. The modeled topography is lower and smoother than the ac-
548 tual topography, resulting in precipitation systems tending to be flowed over
549 the mountains. The resolution of the RRJ-Conv system is still insufficient
550 to fully resolve convections to produce precipitation in this area in winter
551 (Kawase et al. 2019). The insufficient resolution can delay the initiation of
552 convections, which also causes the downwind shift in precipitation.

553 5. Conclusions

554 We started to conduct RRJ-Conv, a 5-km grid long-term regional re-
555 analysis for Japan with assimilating conventional observations. RRJ-Conv
556 for 20 years from July 2001 to June 2021 was evaluated with exploring its
557 added values to JRA-55, mainly focusing on precipitation. RRJ-Conv is
558 confirmed to provide atmospheric fields with consistency in analysis quality
559 for the long term, which is favorable for investigating local climates.

560 Comparisons with JRA-55 suggest that RRJ-Conv has advantages in
561 representing the TC intensity and simulating moderate and heavy precipi-
562 tation. The improvements in simulating heavy precipitation are consistent
563 with the results of Fukui et al. (2018). RRJ-Conv improves the seasonality
564 of precipitation and the spatial distributions of monthly precipitation. It
565 simulates the interannual variability in daily precipitation exceeding 100 mm
566 well, which JRA-55 has difficulty representing. RRJ-Conv is demonstrated
567 to fit the observed precipitation better than JRA-55 in extreme precipitation
568 cases induced by the Baiu front, the TC and the East Asian winter monsoon
569 cold-air outbreak, respectively. The improvements can be attributed to the
570 enhanced model resolution to a 5-km grid spacing, which can better rep-
571 resent mesoscale phenomena, such as TCs and local convergences, and the
572 effects of complex topography. It is also emphasized that the assimilation
573 contributes to the improvements by maintaining the environments favorable

574 for simulating the actual situations.

575 Despite the presented improvements to JRA-55, RRJ-Conv still has
576 some limitations. RRJ-Conv sometimes fails to reproduce depression sys-
577 tems passing through the ocean to the south and east of Japanese islands,
578 where few conventional observations are available. Biases remain in heavier
579 precipitation in RRJ-Conv. Therefore, advancing the reanalysis system to-
580 wards the next generation of RRJ-Conv is also an important future work.
581 To improve the treatment of cumulus convections, which largely influences
582 precipitation simulations, further optimizing the cumulus parameterization
583 or enhancing the resolution to a convective permitting model is one future
584 direction. To extract more information from the limited observations, it
585 is essential to improve the estimation of forecast error covariances. One
586 approach is to enhance the ensemble size with relaxing the localization, as
587 demonstrated by some studies (e.g. Kunii 2014; Duc et al. 2021). Another
588 approach is to apply flow-dependent perturbations to the lateral boundary
589 and sea surface temperature fields to appropriately represent uncertainties
590 in boundary conditions.

591 A long-term high-resolution reanalysis dataset with stable quality cov-
592 ering more than 60 years helps us to comprehend the long-term variations
593 in the local climate in Japan. The evaluation in this study was only for
594 the period of 20 years. This period is sufficient to understand current cli-

595 mate states and some interannual variabilities but is insufficient in detecting
596 longer variations, including impacts of global warming. Therefore, further
597 evaluation from the perspective of climate change is necessary after complet-
598 ing RRJ-Conv, which extended back to 1958, which is the starting point of
599 JRA-55. In addition, our evaluation mainly focused on precipitation in this
600 present study. To explore the potential of RRJ-Conv for various applica-
601 tions, it would be also interesting to examine other meteorological variables,
602 such as temperature and wind speed. These aspects will be addressed in
603 our forthcoming study.

604 **Data availability statements**

605 The generated regional reanalysis dataset is available for reasonable us-
606 age upon request at <https://doi.org/10.20783/DIAS.646>. The assim-
607 lated observations are not publicly available due to the JMA's data policy.
608 The JMA best track data are available at [https://www.jma.go.jp/jma/](https://www.jma.go.jp/jma/jma-eng/jma-center/rsmc-hp-pub-eg/besttrack.html)
609 [jma-eng/jma-center/rsmc-hp-pub-eg/besttrack.html](https://www.jma.go.jp/jma-eng/jma-center/rsmc-hp-pub-eg/besttrack.html). The JRA-55
610 reanalysis is available at [https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.](https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html)
611 [html](https://jra.kishou.go.jp/JRA-55/index_en.html). The JMA's radar/raingauge-analyzed precipitation data and rain-
612 gauge observation data are available upon request to the Japan Meteoro-
613 logical Business Support Center, [http://www.jmbsec.or.jp/en/index-e.](http://www.jmbsec.or.jp/en/index-e.html)
614 [html](http://www.jmbsec.or.jp/en/index-e.html).

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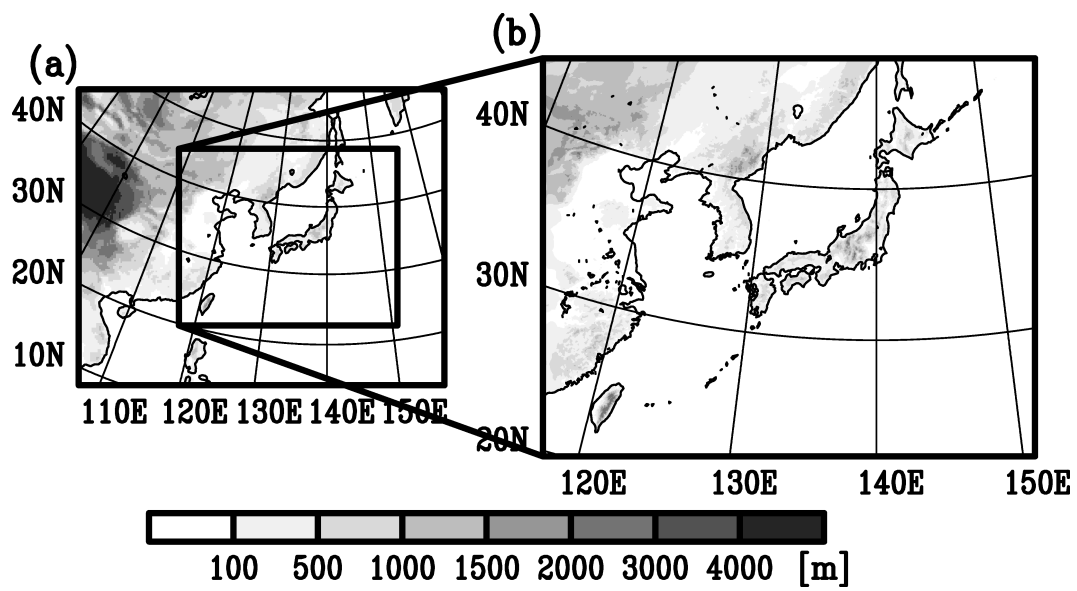


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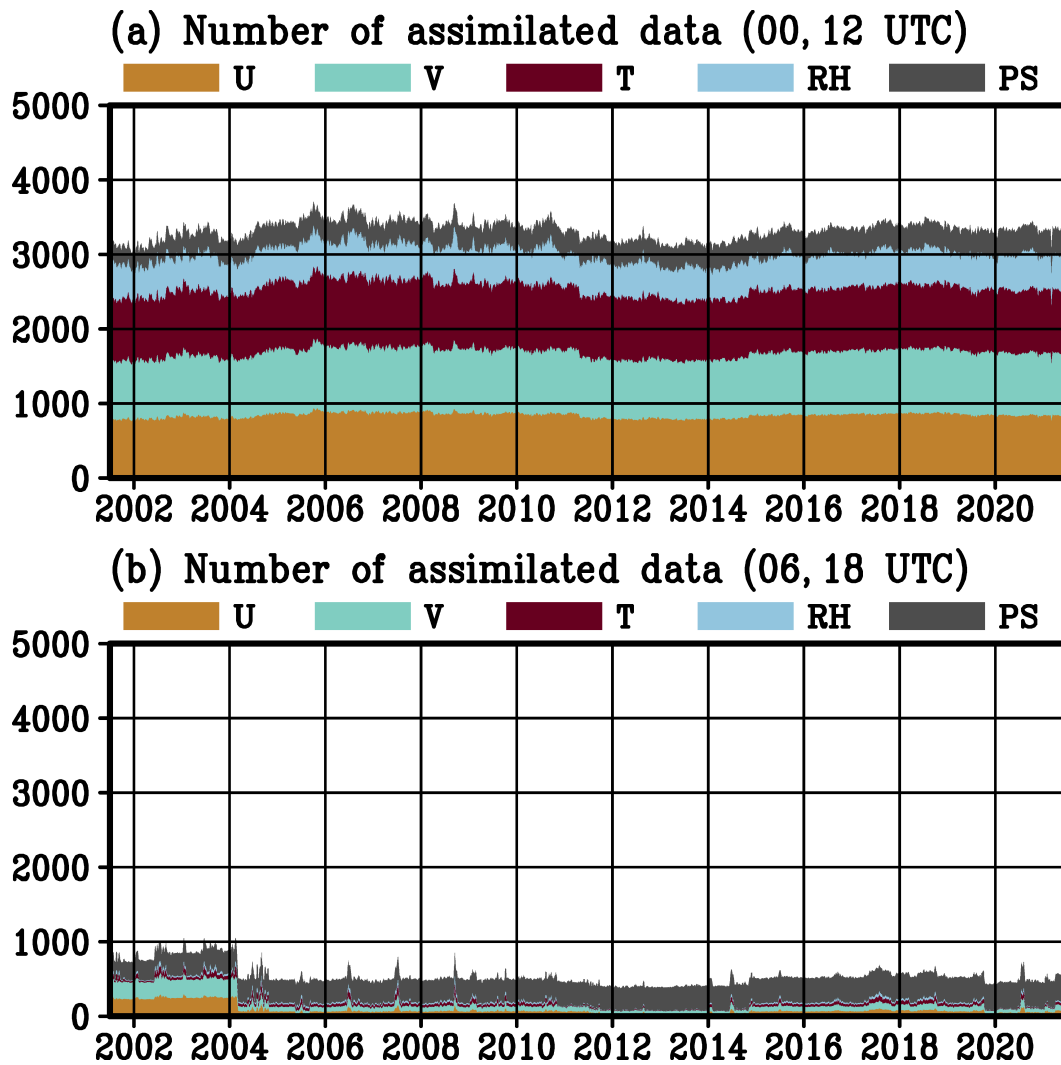


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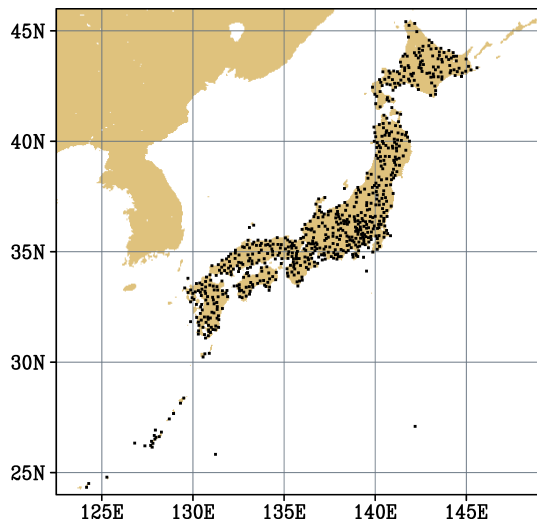


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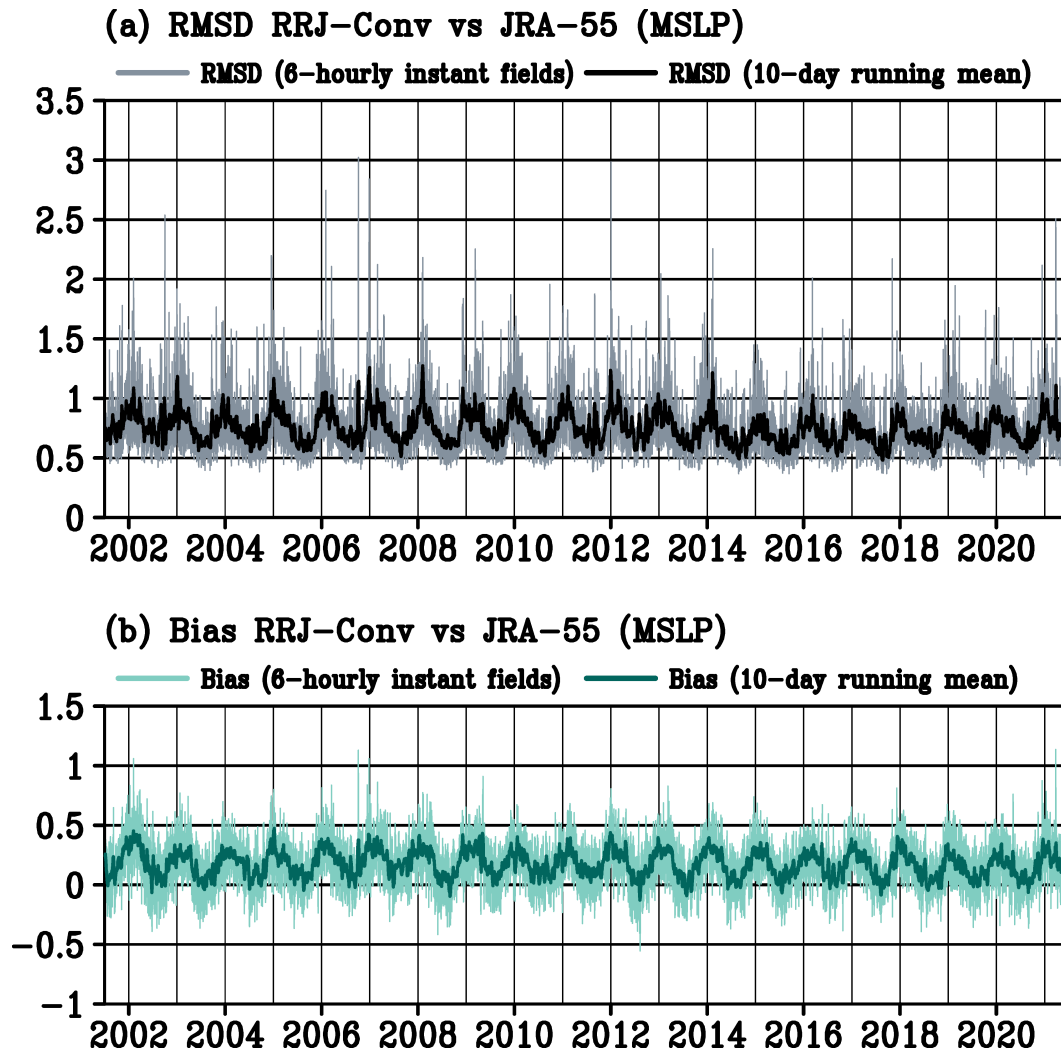


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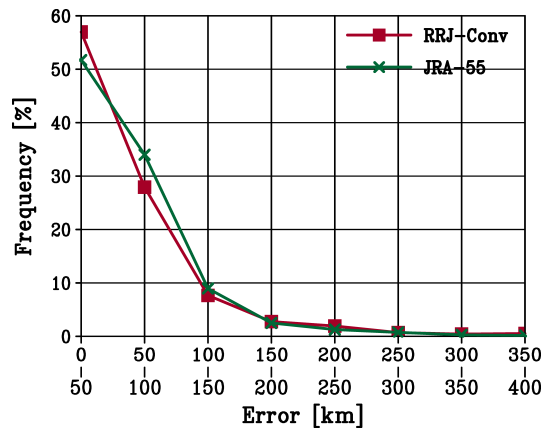


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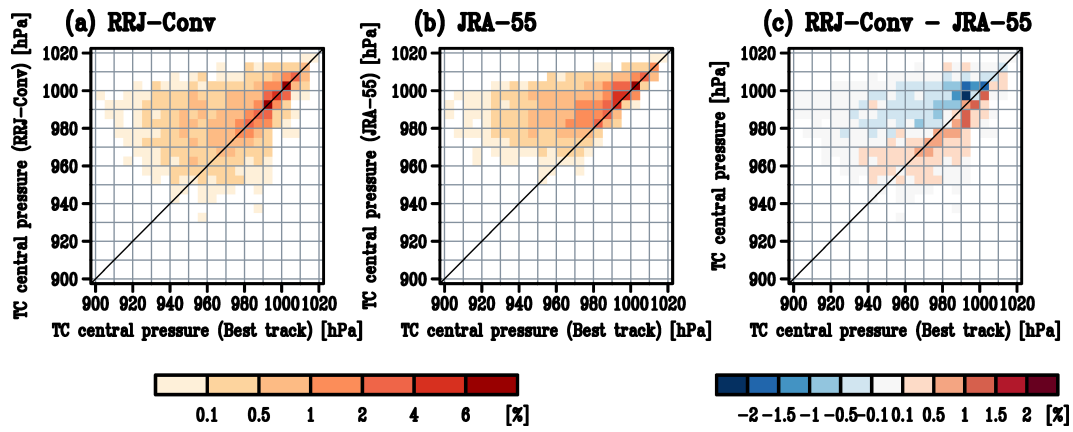


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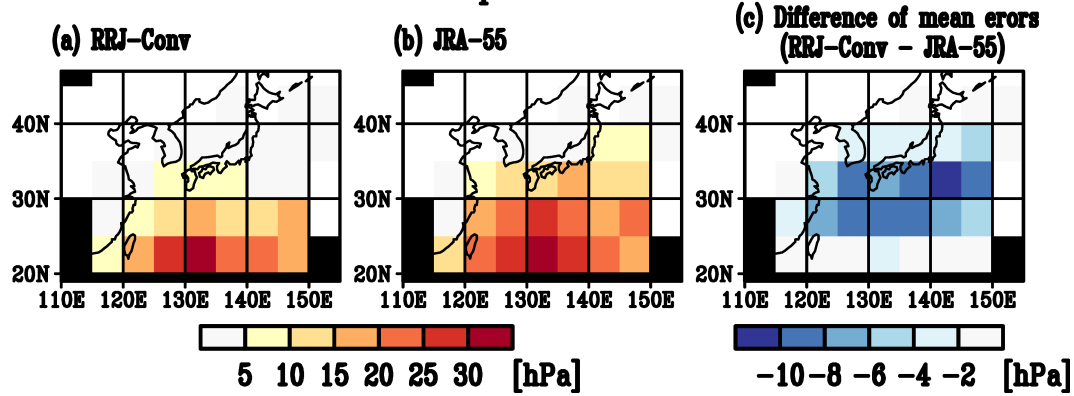


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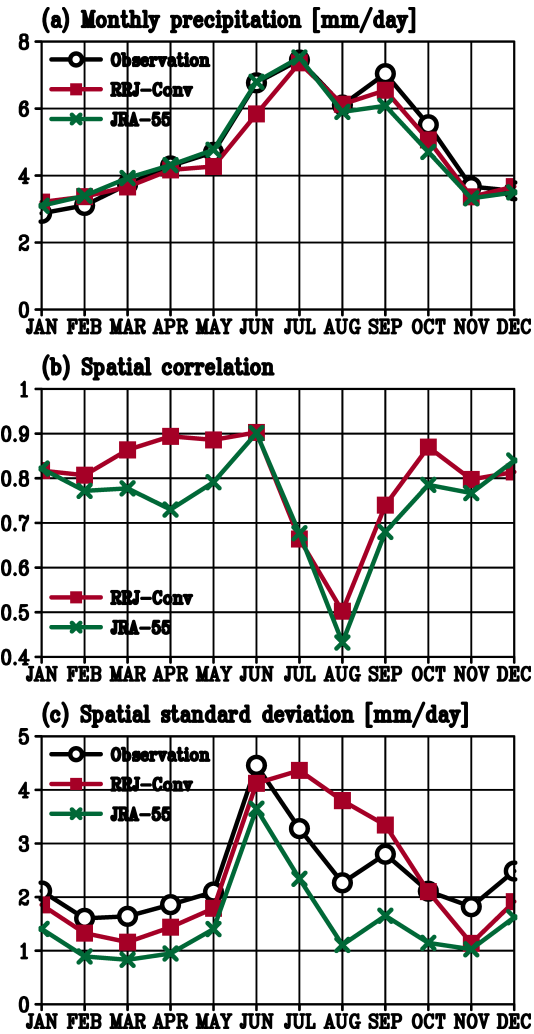


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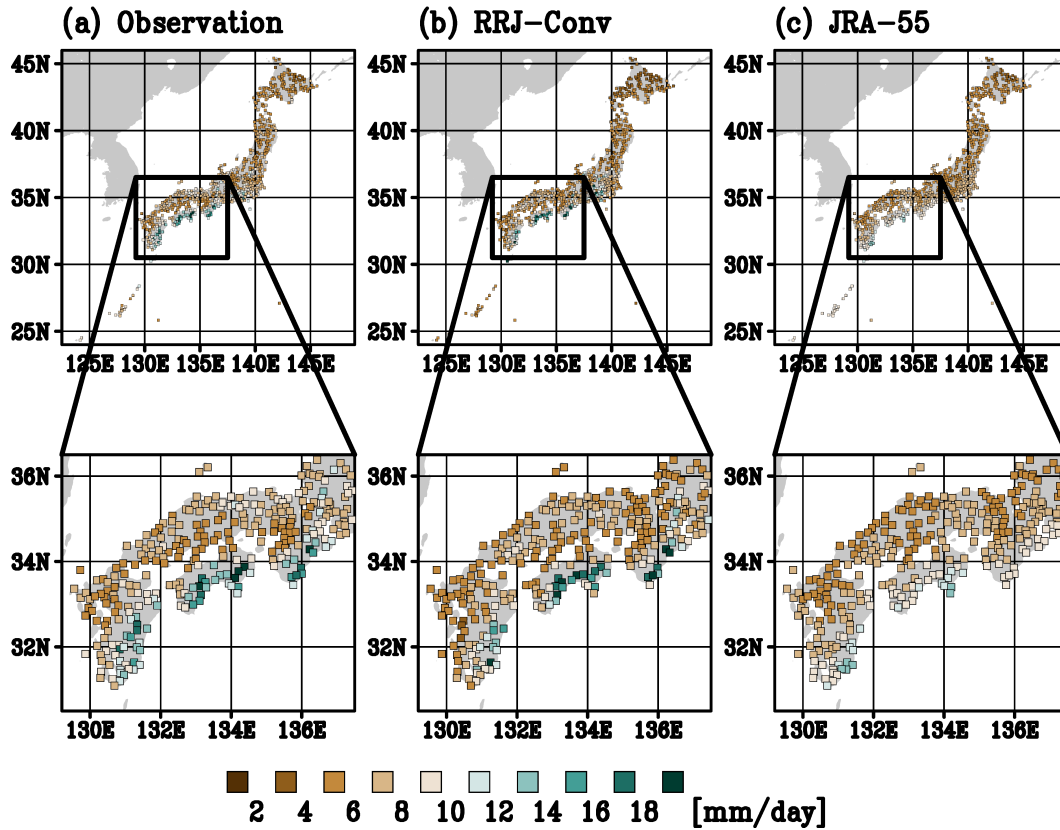


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Daily precipitations exceeding thresholds

—○— Observation —■— RRJ-Conv —×— JRA-55

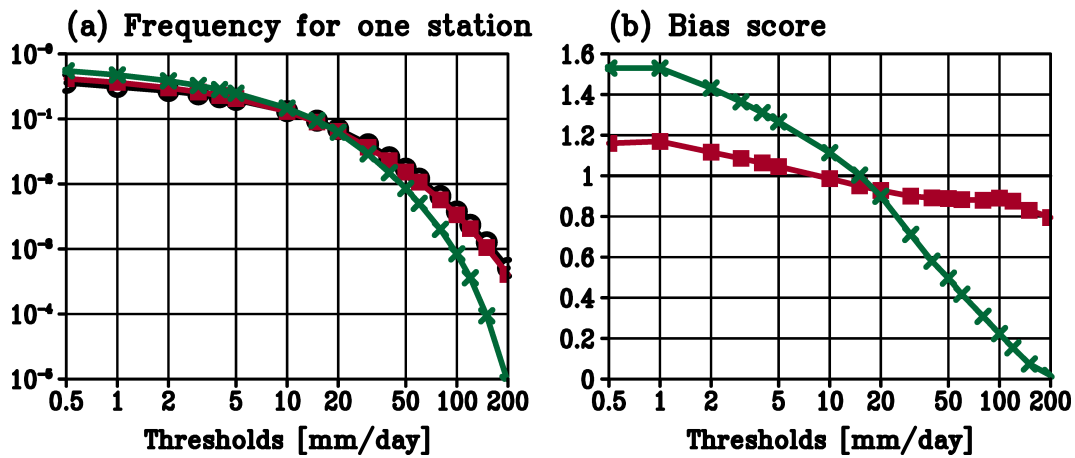


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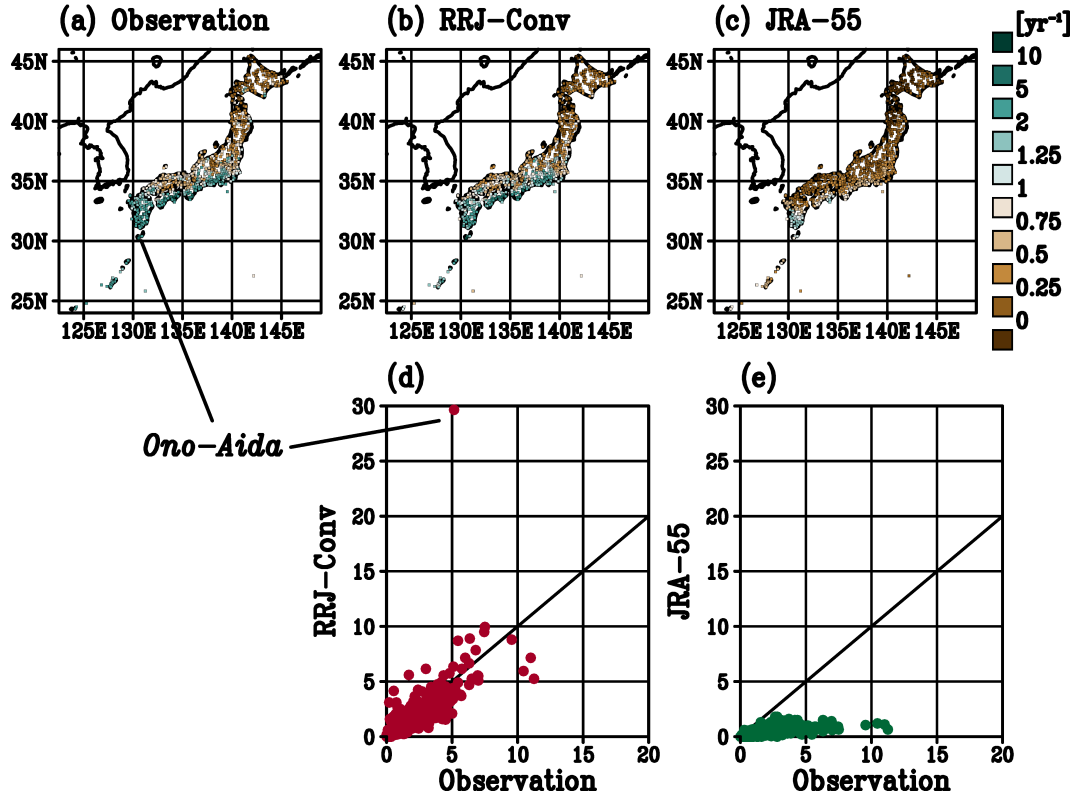


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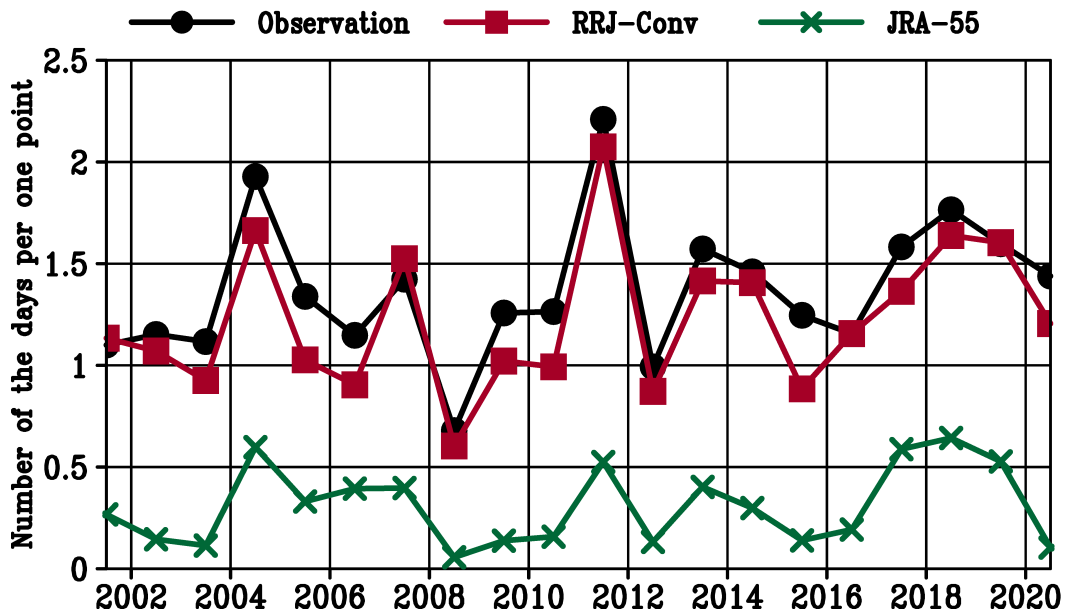


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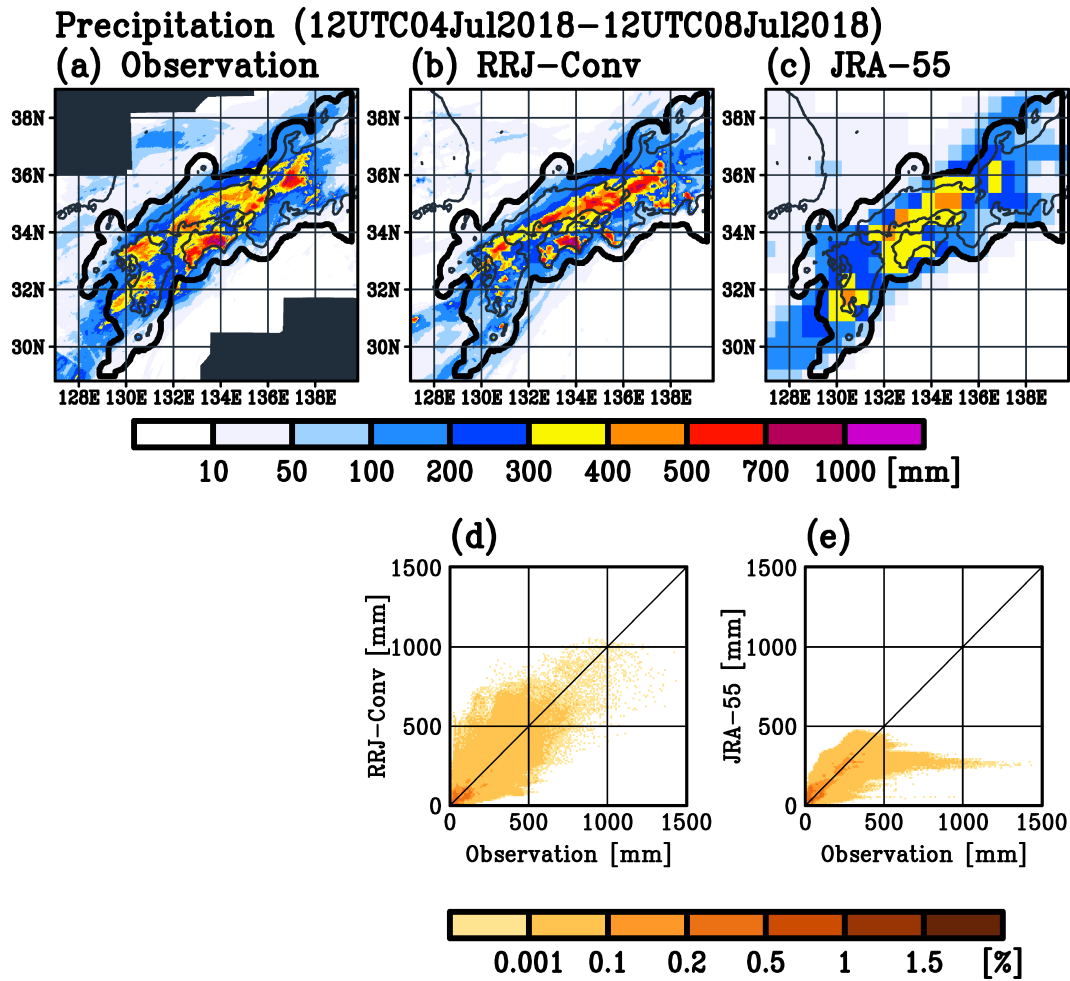


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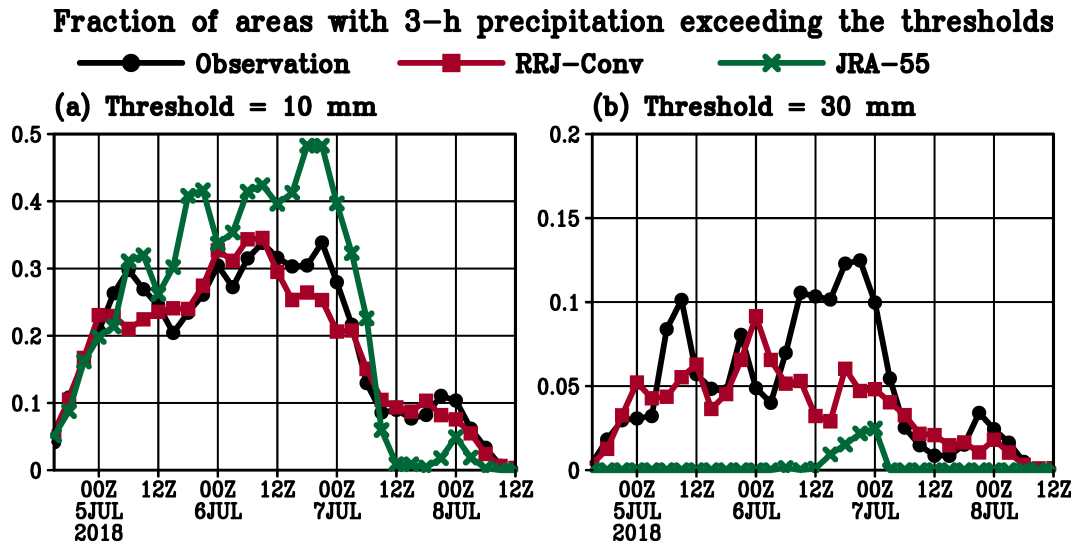


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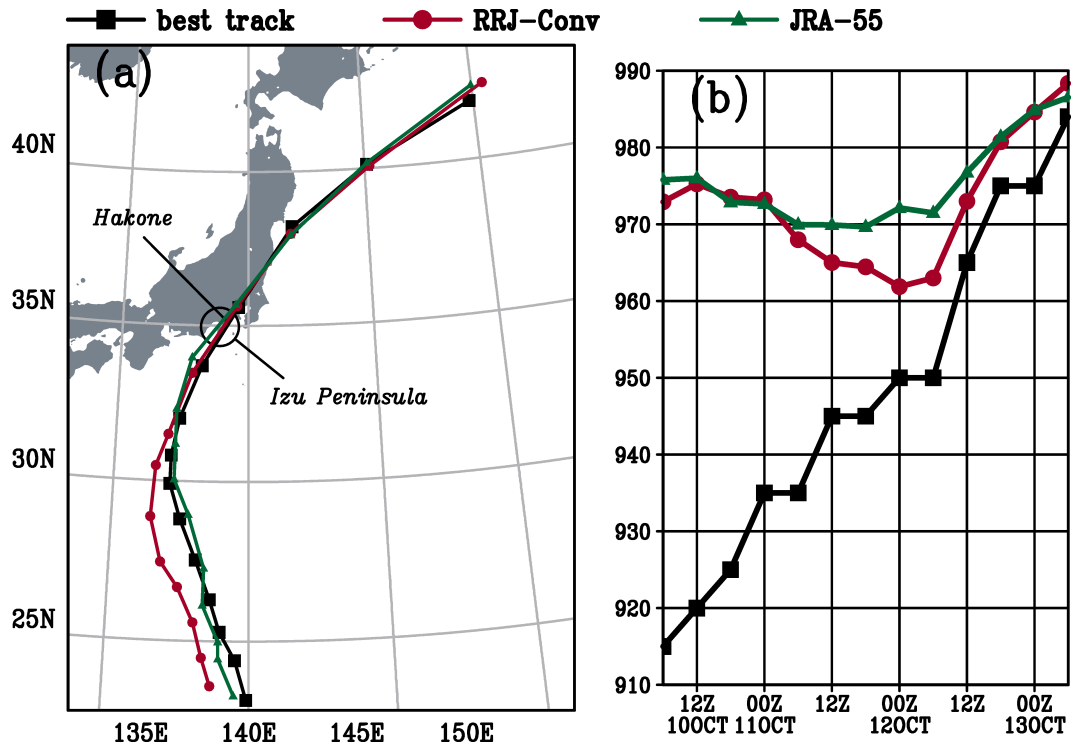


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Precipitation (00UTC10Oct2019–00UTC13Oct2019)

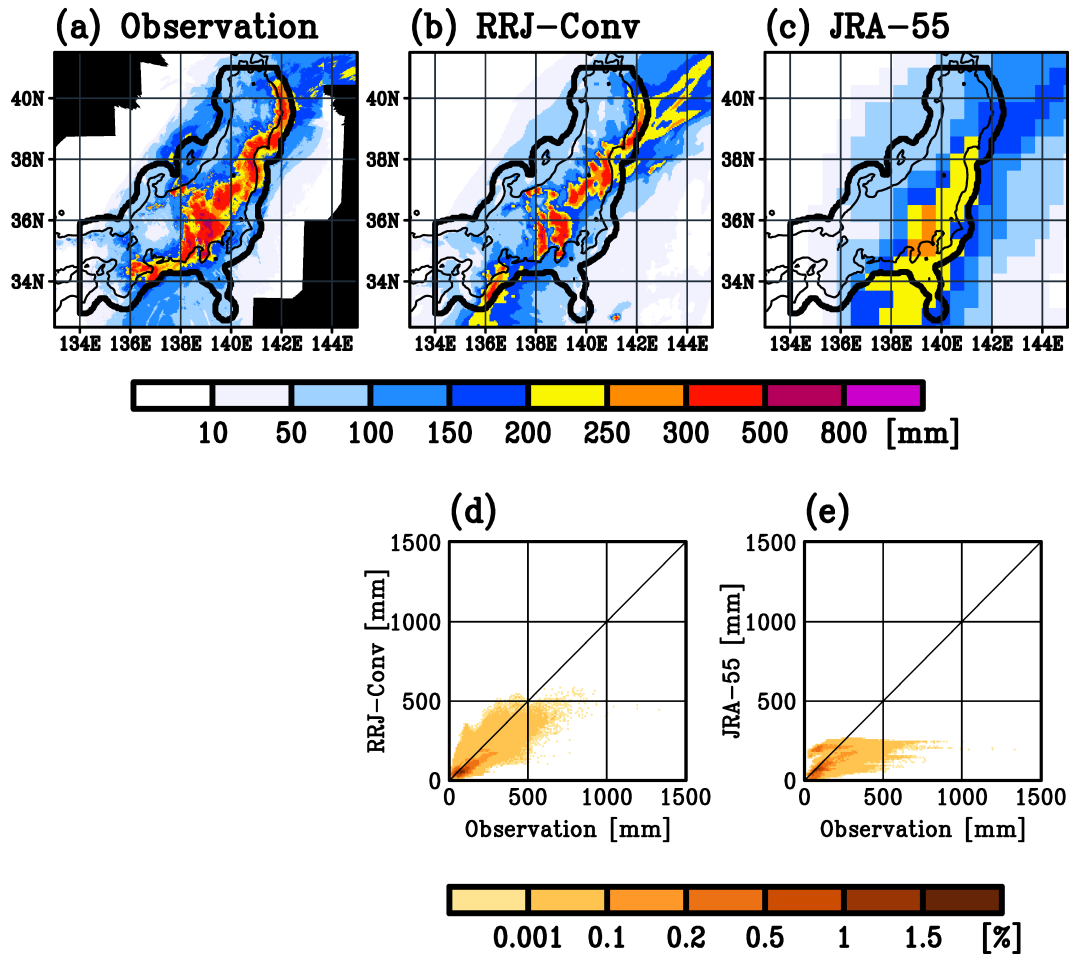


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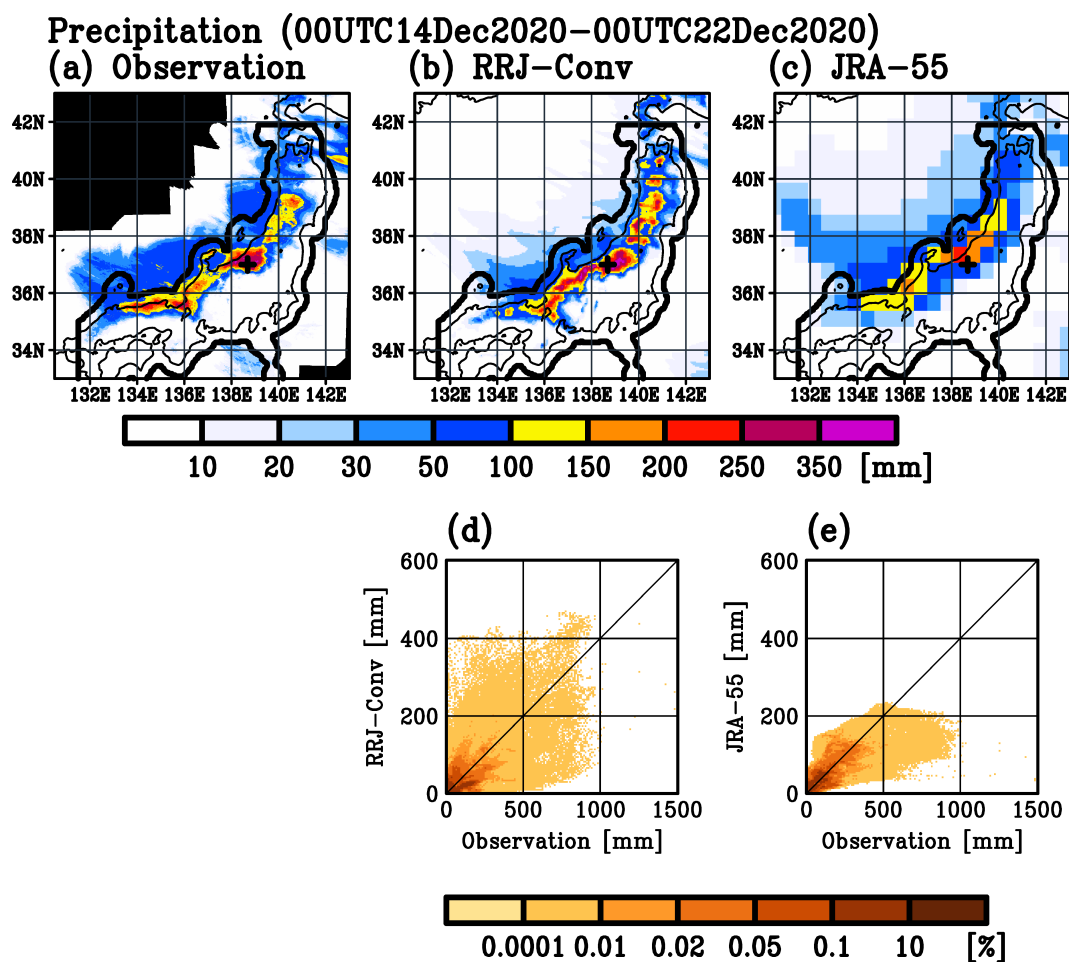


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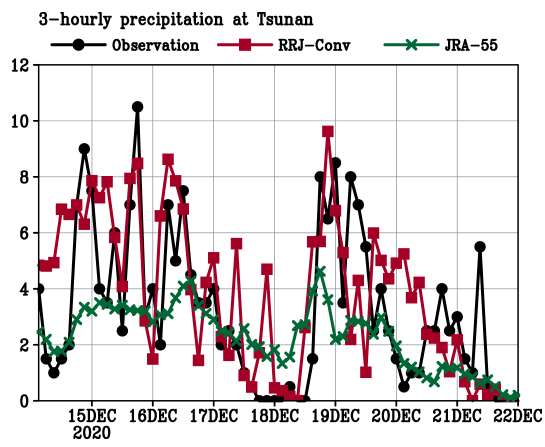


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