1	Investigation of An Extreme Rainfall Event during 8-12 December 2018 over
2	Central Vietnam. Part I: Analysis and Cloud-Resolving Simulation
3	
4	Chung-Chieh Wang and Duc Van Nguyen*
5	
6	Department of Earth Sciences, National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan
7	
8	Corresponding author address: Duc Van Nguyen (nguyenvanduc_t57@hus.edu.vn),
9	Department of Earth Sciences, National Taiwan Normal University, No. 88, Sec. 4, Ting-
10	Chou Rd., Taipei 11677, Taiwan
11	Highlights:
12	• A record-breaking rainfall event over central Vietnam is investigated
13	• Key factors in this event include the combined effect of northeasterly wind that
14	originated from northern China, low-level easterly wind blow to central Vietnam
15	from the northwest Pacific Ocean, southeasterly wind, local topography, and high sea
16	surface temperature over North West Pacific Ocean and South China Sea.
17	• A cloud-resolving model is applied to simulated this extreme rainfall event in central
18	Vietnam, and the results show that the model mostly captured the quantitative rainfall
19	of this event. These results are very impressive.

Abstract

20

An extreme rainfall event occurred from 8 to 12 December 2018 along the coast of central 21 Vietnam. The observed maximum rainfall amount in 72 h was over 900 mm and set a new record, 22 and the associated heavy losses were also significant. The analysis of this event shows some key 23 factors for its occurrence: (1) The interaction between the strong northeasterly winds, blowing from 24 the Yellow Sea into the northern South China Sea (SCS), and easterly winds over the SCS in the 25 lower troposphere (below 700 hPa). This interaction created strong low-level convergence, as the 26 winds continued to blow into central Vietnam against the Truong Son Range, resulting in forced 27 28 uplift over the coastal plains due to the terrain's barrier effect. Furthermore, the low-level convergence in this event was strong enough, and the air was unstable enough to trigger most of the 29 convection near the shoreline (further inland). As a consequence, heavy rainfall occurred along the 30 coastal zone and coastal sea. (2) The strong easterly wind played an important role in transporting 31 moisture from the western North Pacific across the Philippines and the SCS into central Vietnam. 32 33 (3) The Truong Son Range also contributed to this event due to its barrier effect. (4) In addition to cumulonimbus, the low-level precipitating clouds such as nimbostratus clouds were also major 34 35 contributors to rainfall accumulation for the whole event. The analyses of local thermodynamics 36 also indicate that the southward movement of the low-level wind convergence zone caused the southward movement of the main heavy rain band during the event. 37

The Cloud-Resolving Storm Simulator (CReSS) was employed to simulate this recordbreaking event at a grid size of 2.5 km, and evaluated results show the model had good simulated the surface wind as well as captured the southward movement of the low-level wind convergence. The overall rainfall can be captured quite well not only in quantity but also in its spatial distribution (with a Fractions Skill Score ≈ 0.7 and Threat Score > 0 at 700 mm for 72 h rainfall). Thus, the CReSS model is shown to be a useful tool for both research and forecasts of heavy rainfall in Vietnam. The model performed better for the rainfall during 9-10 but not as good on 11 December.

In the sensitivity test without the terrain, the model had poorly simulated the surface wind, which led to the model not only did not generate nearly as much rainfall for this event but also did not capture the spatial distribution of the rainfall. Thus, the test confirms the important role played by the local topography for the occurrence of this event.

49 Keywords: Extreme rainfall, central Vietnam, cloud-resolving model.

50 **1 Introduction**

Heavy to extreme rainfalls are natural disasters that often cause deaths, flooding, landslides, 51 and erosion. Vietnam is one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world with many different 52 types of natural disasters. In the country, central Vietnam is most affected by natural disasters and 53 climate change, with frequent occurrences of rainstorms and extreme rainfalls. For example, during 54 8-12 December 2018, an extreme rainfall event (hereafter abbreviated as the D18 event) occurred 55 56 along the coast of central Vietnam. The peak 72-h accumulated rainfall (from 1200 UTC 8 to 1200 UTC 11 Dec) at some stations exceeds 800 mm (Fig. 1d). Among the stations, Da Nang (16.0° N, 57 108.2° E, cf. Figs. 1a,b) recorded 24-h rainfall amounts greater than 600 mm on 9 December and 58 59 over 300 mm the next day. This extreme event resulted in 13 deaths, an estimated 1200 houses inundated, around 12,000 hectares of crops destroyed, some 160,000 livestock killed and many 60 other economic losses (Tuoi Tre news, 2018). Furthermore, according to a publication by the 61 Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Vietnam (Tran et al., 2016) regarding climate 62 change and sea-level rise scenarios, extreme precipitation events will increase in both their 63 64 frequency and intensity in the future. Hence, how to improve the ability in the quantitative precipitation forecast (QPF) of heavy-rainfall events over central Vietnam is very important. 65 Climatologically, the central part of Vietnam is the country's rainiest region and is strongly 66 67 affected by heavy to extreme rainfall, with average annual precipitation ranging from 2400 to over 3300 mm (1980–2010, Fig. 1f). The main rainy season in this region is from late fall to early winter 68

(Yokoi and Matsumoto, 2008; Chen et al., 2012). Past studies have shown some main factors that 69 can lead to heavy rainfall in central Vietnam, such as (1) the combined effect of cold surges that 70 originate from northern China, (2) tropical depressions, and (3) local topography due to the 71 72 topography is characterized by high mountains (< 3000 m), highlands, narrow coastal plain with the 73 narrowest place less than 100 km in width (east-west), and gradually lowers from the west to the 74 east (Fig. 1a) (Bui, 2019; Yokoi and Matsumoto, 2008; Chen et al., 2012; Nguyen-Le and 75 Matsumoto, 2016; van der Linden et al., 2016). According to these studies, a cool, dry continental surface high pressure system (known as the Siberian high-pressure system) gradually establishes 76 over the continental East Asia after boreal summer in October-November. This high-pressure 77 system's intensification and southeastward amplification lead to an episodic southward progression 78 of cold surge into the tropics. The interaction of this cold surge and preexisting tropical disturbance 79 80 over the SCS and the topography in central Vietnam can bring large amounts of rainfall along the east-central coast through orographic rainfall processes. 81

In this study, central Vietnam is referred to as the area between 14.7° N and 18° N (Fig. 2a). Its eastern boundary is the South China Sea (SCS), and the western boundary is the border to Laos, where the Truong Son Range (also known as the Annamite Range) runs parallel to the coast. The central Vietnam includes Quang Binh, Quang Tri, Thua Thien Hue, Da Nang city, Quang Nam, and a part of Quang Ngai province. Most of the population and cities are concentrated along the coastal plain. By these characteristics of steep topography, when heavy rain occurs, it often leads to flooding and causes great damages to people and the environment.

- 89
- 90
- 91
- 92

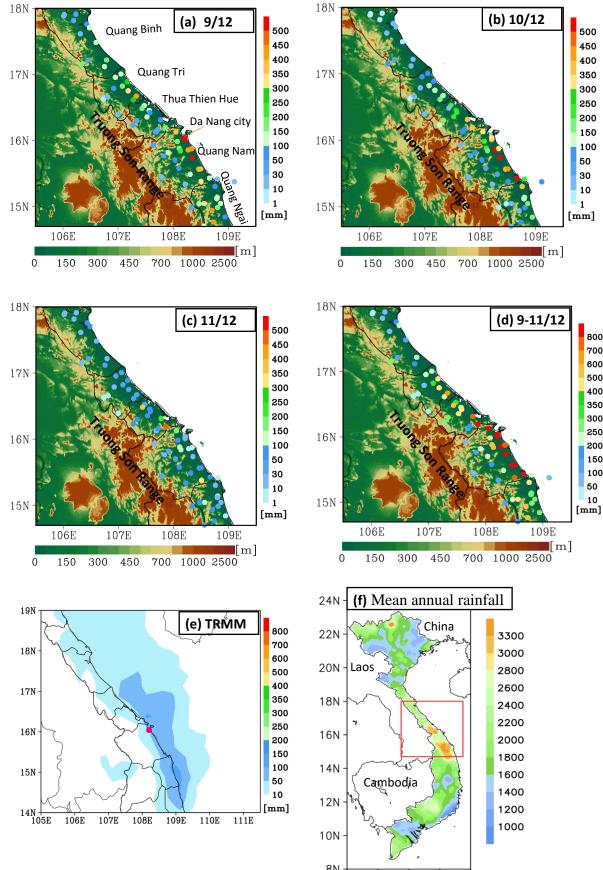


Figure 1. (a) observed 24 h accumulated rainfall (mm, color dots, 1200 – 1200 UTC) and
topography (m, shaded) for 9 Dec. Vertical colorbar for rainfall, and horizontal colorbar for
topography. (b) As in (a), but for 10 Dec. (c) As in (a), but for 11 Dec. (d) As in (a), but for 72 h
accumulated rainfall during 1200 UTC 8–1200 UTC 11 Dec. (e) 72 h accumulated rainfall obtained
by TRMM estimate. The pink dot marks the location of Da Nang station. (f) Mean annual rainfall
distribution (mm) in Vietnam from 1980 to 2010, obtained from the Vietnam Gridded Precipitation
(VnGP) data, and the study area of central Vietnam (red box).

Furthermore, according to Wang et al. (2017), Vietnam is impacted by about 4-6 typhoons per 100 year. Nguyen-Thi et al. (2012) investigated the characteristic of tropical cyclone rainfall over 101 Vietnam in the climatology. Their results show that the tropical cyclone rainfall amount is 102 concentrated in central Vietnam, peaking between October and November. Takahashi et al. (2009) 103 performed a long-term simulation for September (from 1966 to 1995) using a high-resolution 104 105 model. They found that the observed long-term decrease in September rainfall is due to the weakening of tropical cyclone activity over the Indochina Peninsula. As for the impacts of El Niño-106 Southern Oscillation (ENSO), some studies have examined the linkages between rainfall in 107 Vietnam and ENSO, and suggested more (less) rainfall during La Niña (El Niño) years. For 108 109 example, Yen et al. (2010) analyzed the interannual variation of the rainfall in fall over central Vietnam, and their results indicated a negatively correlated relationship between rainfall in central 110 Vietnam and the sea surface temperature over the NINO3.4 region. Besides, Vu et al. (2015) 111 investigated the effects of ENSO on fall rainfall in central Vietnam and concluded that central 112 Vietnam has more (less) rainfall in La Niña (El Niño) years. Finally, Wu et al. (2012) analyzed the 113 Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) activity from September to November for 30 years (1981-2010) 114 over Vietnam and showed that the MJO is also an important factor in the formation of extreme 115 precipitation events in central Vietnam. 116

In recent decades, the Cloud-Resolving Storm Simulator (CReSS) has been widely known due to its good performance in quantitative precipitation forecasts. This model has been applied to study tropical cyclones, heavy to extreme rainfall events, and many other convective systems in Japan and Taiwan (e.g., Ohigashi and Tsuboki, 2007; Yamada *et al.*, 2007; Akter and Tsuboki, 2010, 2012;
Wang *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, the CReSS model has been used to perform routine highresolution forecasts at the National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU) and provided to the TTFRI
as a forecast member since 2010. Hence, this study employed the CReSS model to simulate the
D18 event and evaluated its performance

From the review above, the important mechanisms for the heavy rainfall in some previous 125 events over central Vietnam are revealed. However, according to Dr. Hoang Phuc Lam - National 126 Center for Hydro- Meteorological Forecasting, it can be said that this extreme event has never 127 happened in the past because the observed rainfall at some places in the Central region has 128 surpassed the record according to the statistics of rainfall at the end of the main rainy season 129 (Communist Party of Vietnam Online Newspaper). Furthermore, Figs.1a,b,c,d and e show that the 130 main heavy rain band concentrated on the coastal plains and coastal sea while Fig. 1f show the 131 annual mean rainfall extends into the mountain with their peak amounts over the mountain slopes, 132 several questions are therefore raised: What mechanisms caused this record-breaking event at such 133 a magnitude? Was its mechanism similar to those in previous events? Or, it was a different one. 134 How important was the role played by local terrain in this event? From a forecast perspective, one 135 related question would be whether a cloud-resolving model is capable of reproducing the D18 136 event? The answers to these questions will help improve our understanding on the mechanisms that 137 cause heavy rainfall in central Vietnam, as well as on the predictability of such events in the future. 138 Hence, the present study was carried out with an aim to answer the above questions. The remainder 139 of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the datasets and methodology used in the 140 study. The analysis and modeling results are presented in Section 3 and 4, respectively. Finally, the 141 conclusions are given in Section 5. 142

143 **2 Data and Methodology**

144 **2.1 Data**

145 2.1.1 NCEP GDAS/FNL Global Gridded Analyses and Forecasts

146	The NCEP GDAS/FNL Global Gridded Analyses and Forecasts is provided freely by the
147	National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP). In this study, this dataset is used as the
148	initial and boundary conditions (IC/BCs) for the cloud-resolving model (CRM) simulation. The data
149	are on a $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ latitude-longitude grid with 26 levels extending from the surface to 20 hPa.
150	The data period is from 0600 UTC 8 December to 0000 UTC 13 December 2018, at 6-h intervals.
151	Parameters include geopotential height, zonal and meridional wind components, pressure,
152	temperature, and relative humidity. The dataset and its detailed information are available at
153	https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.3.
154	2.1.2 The fifth generation ECMWF reanalysis data (ERA5)
155	The ERA5 is the fifth-generation reanalysis dataset, developed by the European Centre for
156	Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) to replaces the ERA-Interim reanalysis. We have used
157	these data to delineate the synoptic weather patterns during the D18 event. The horizontal resolution
158	of this dataset is $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ latitude-longitude at 22 selected levels from 1000 to 100 hPa and
159	including the surface. Parameters include zonal and meridional wind components, geopotential
160	height, specific humidity, relative humidity, temperature, vertical velocity, mean sea level pressure,
161	and sea surface temperature. The dataset was downloaded from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11
162	December 2018 at 6-h intervals (Hersbach et al., 2018a,b).
163	2.1.3 Observation data
164	The daily observed rainfall data (1200–1200 UTC, i.e., 1900–1900 LST) from 8 to 12
165	December 2018 at 69 automated gauge stations across central Vietnam are used for case overview
166	and verification of model results. This dataset is provided by the Mid-central Regional Hydro-

167 Meteorological Centre, Vietnam.

168 *2.1.4 Satellite data*

169 (a) TRMM (TMPA) rainfall estimates

The TRMM multi-satellite precipitation estimates (3B42, version 7, Huffman *et al.*, 2016) are freely provided by the NASA Goddard Earth Sciences (GES) Data and Information Services Center (DISC). The horizontal resolution of this dataset (level 3) is $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ latitude-longitude and the time resolution is every 3 h. In this study, we used this satellite data to verify rainfall distribution over the coastal sea due to the limitation of the observation station network, we only have the observation stations inland, as shown in the Figure. 1d and Fig. 1e. This dataset was downloaded from 1200 UTC 8 to 1200 UTC 11 December 2018 to analyze the D18 event.

177 (b) The Himawari satellite images

The color-enhanced infrared imageries are designed mainly for the detection of convective clouds, including those from the Himawari-8 satellite. The different colours represent different cloud-top heights. Therefore, we have used these images to discern deep convection in convective clouds and precipitating clouds based on their characteristics. In this study, the dataset was downloaded from the Central Weather Bureau website, Taiwan, with a time resolution of 1 h.

183 *2.1.5 Radar data*

The column-maximum radar reflectivity data are one indispensable data source to identify precipitation and verify model results. The reflectivity data (in dBZ) cover a wide range and the values indicate rainfall intensity (the higher the dBZ, the stronger the intensity of precipitation). Therefore, we used the column-maximum radar reflectivity data over central Vietnam at 1-h intervals over 8-11 December 2018 to estimate the rainfall intensity during the D18 event. This dataset is provided by the Mid-central Regional Hydro-Meteorological Centre of Vietnam.

190 2.1.6 *The Vietnam Gridded Precipitation (VnGP) Dataset.*

- 191 The VnGP data are derived base on the daily observed data from 481 rain gauges cross
- 192 Vietnam. This dataset has a resolution of 0.1° and covers the period of 1980-2010 (Nguyen-Xuan et
- al., 2016). In this study, this dataset is used to depict the rainfall climatology in Vietnam.
- 194 2.1.7 The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) data
- 195 The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) data was made and provided freely by NOAA Climate
- 196 Prediction Center (CPC). The ONI data was computed by three month running mean of NOAA
- 197 ERSST.V5 SST anomalies in the Niño 3.4 region (5N-5S, 120-170W), based on changing base
- 198 period which onsist of multiple centered 30-year base periods. The ONI is the most commonly used
- indices to define El Niño and La Niña events. This study used the ONI data for Niño 3.4 region to
- 200 define the ENSO phase of 2018. This data is available at:

201 <u>https://psl.noaa.gov/data/correlation/oni.data</u>

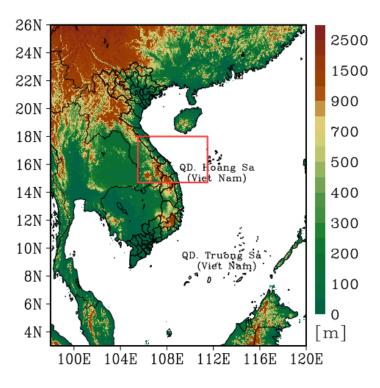
202 2.2 Model description and experiment setup

The Cloud Resolving Storm Simulator (CReSS, version 3.4.2), developed by Nagoya 203 204 University, Japan (Tsuboki and Sakakibara, 2002, 2007) is used for numerical simulation of the D18 event. This model is a non-hydrostatic and compressible cloud model, designed for simulation 205 of weather events at high (cloud-resolving) resolution. In the model, the cloud microphysics is 206 treated explicitly at the user-selected degree of complexity, such as the bulk cold-rain scheme with 207 six species: vapor, cloud water, cloud ice, rain, snow, and graupel (Lin et al., 1983; Cotton et al., 208 1986; Murakami, 1990, 1994; Ikawa and Saito, 1991). Other subgrid-scale processes parameterized, 209 such as turbulent mixing in the planetary boundary layer, as well as physical options for surface 210 processes, including momentum/energy fluxes, shortwave and longwave radiation are summarized 211 212 in Table 1.

To study the D18 event and investigate the role played by the local terrain in this event using
the CReSS model, two experiments were performed using the same model domain setting, physical

215	options, and initial and boundary conditions. Specifically, both experiments using a single domain
216	at 2.5-km horizontal grid spacing and a (x, y, z) dimension of 912 x 900 x 60 grid points (Table 1,
217	cf. Figure 2). As introduced in subsection 2.1.1, the NCEP GDAS/FNL Global Gridded Analyses
218	and Forecasts ($0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$, every 6 h, 26 pressure levels) was used as the IC/BCs of the model.
219	These experiments were started from 0600 UTC 8 to 0000 UTC 13 December 2018 (for a
220	simulation length of 114 h).
221	The only different setting between these experiments is at the lower boundary, the real terrain

- data at (1/120°) resolution (roughly 0.9 km) was provided for the control simulation (CTRL) while
- this was ignored for the sensitivity test without the terrain (NTRN)
- The main information of these two experiments, including the domain setup and model configuration, is listed in Table 1.



226

Figure 2: The simulation domain of the CReSS model and topography (m) used in this study. The

red box marks the study area.

Table 1. The basic information of experiments.

Domain and Basic setup	
Model domain	3°–26°N; 98°–120°E
Grid dimension (x, y, z)	912 × 900 × 60
Grid spacing (x, y, z)	2.5 km × 2.5 km × 0.5 km*
Projection	Mercator
IC/BCs (including SST)	NCEP GDAS/FNL Global Gridded Analyses and Forecasts $(0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}, \text{ every 6 h}, 26 \text{ pressure levels})$
Topography (for CTRL only)	Digital elevation model by JMA at (1/120)° spatial resolution
Simulation length	114 h
Output frequency	1 hour
Model physical setup	
Cloud microphysics	Bulk cold-rain scheme (six species)
PBL parameterization	1.5-order closure with prediction of turbulent kinetic energy (Deardorff, 1980; Tsuboki and Sakakibara, 2007)
Surface processes	Energy and momentum fluxes, shortwave and longwave radiation (Kondo, 1976; Louis et al., 1982; Segami et al., 1989)
Soil model	41 levels, every 5 cm deep to 2 m

- 230 * The vertical grid spacing (Δz) of CReSS is stretched (smallest at bottom) and the averaged value is
- 231 given in the parentheses

232 **2.3 Verification of model rainfall**

In order to verify the model-simulated rainfall, some verification methods are used, including (1) visual comparison between the model and the observation (from the 69 automated gauges over the study area), and (2) the objective verification using categorical skill scores at various rainfall thresholds from the lowest at 0.05 mm up to 900 mm for three-day total. These scores are listed in Table 2 along with their formulas, perfect value, and worst value, respectively. To apply these scores at a given threshold, the model and observed value pairs at all verification points (gauge sites here, N) are first compared and classified to construct a 2×2 contingency table (Wilks, 2006). At

any given site, if the event takes place (reaching the threshold) in both model and observation, the 240 prediction is considered a hit (H). If the event occurs only in observation but not the model, it is a 241 miss (M). If the event is predicted in the model but not observed, it is a false alarm (FA). Finally, if 242 both model and observation show no event, the outcome is correct rejection (CR). After all the 243 points are classified into the above four categories, the scores can be calculated by their 244 corresponding formula in Table2. 245

Table 2. List of the categorical skill scores and their formulas. 246

Name of skill score	Formula	Perfect score	Worst score
Bias Score (BS)	(H+FA)/(H+M)	1	0 or N - 1
Probability of Detection (POD)	H/(H+M)	1	0
False Alarms Ratio (FAR)	FA/(H+FA)	0	1
Threat Score (TS)	H/(H+M+FA)	1	0

247

In addition to the categorical scores, the Similarity Skill Score (SSS, Wang et al., 2022) is also 248 applied to evaluate the model rainfall results, as 249

250

250

$$SSS = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (F_i - O_i)^2}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} F_i^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} O_i^2}$$
(1)

where N is the total number of verification points, F_i is the forecast value, and O_i is the observed 252 value, at the *i*th point among N, respectively. SSS is used to measure against the worst the mean 253 squared error (MSE) possible. The formula shows that a forecast with perfect skill has a FSS of 1, 254 while a score of 0 means zero skill. 255

3 Overview of the D18 Event 256

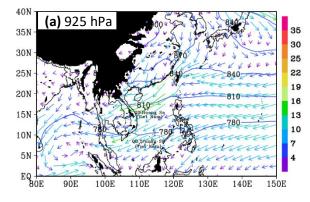
3.1 Rainfall and its distribution 257

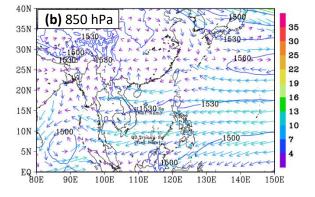
The maximum accumulated rainfall was recorded from 9 to 11 December with a peak daily 258 rainfall greater than 500 mm and 72-h accumulated rainfall exceeds 800 mm (Figs. 1a-d). Besides, 259

the daily and 72-h rainfalls observed at 69 stations show that the extreme precipitation occurred along the eastern coastal plains, on the eastern side of the Truong Son Range. Especially over Quang Nam province, where the Truong Son Range reaches its highest of over 2500 m (Figs. 1a-d). In addition, satellite products from the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) seriously underestimates the D18 event (Fig. 1e), but indicates that the rainfall occurred not only in coastal plains but also over the nearby ocean.

266 **3.2 Synoptic conditions**

During the D18 event, the horizontal winds at 925 hPa (averaged from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 267 UTC 11 December) over central Vietnam and the SCS are characterized by a strong convergent 268 zone between the northeasterly winds blowing from northeastern China into northern SCS and 269 central Vietnam, and the easterly winds blowing from the western North Pacific (WNP) into the 270 SCS (Fig. 3a). The wind speed over northern SCS and central Vietnam is over 13 m s⁻¹. At 850 271 hPa, horizontal winds are predominantly easterly, with speeds of about 10–13 m s⁻¹ (Fig. 3b). At 272 273 500 hPa, central Vietnam is affected by southeasterly winds that originated from the easterly winds over the WNP (Fig. 3c). Besides, Figure 3 also indicates that there was no existence of any tropical 274 275 cyclone during the D18 event. Therefore, tropical cyclones or the combined effect of cold surges originating from northern China and tropical depressions that have been mentioned as one of the 276 patterns that cause heavy rainfall in central Vietnam is not the mechanism of the D18 event. 277





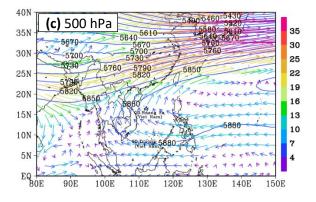
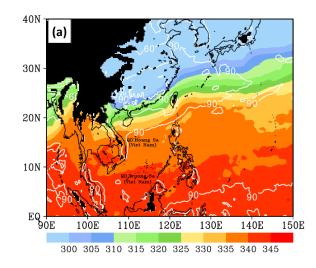


Figure 3. (a) The ERA5 averaged horizontal wind vectors (m s⁻¹, color for speed) and geopotential
height (gpm, blue contours, every 30 gpm) at the 925 hPa from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec
2018. (b) As in (a), but for the 850 hPa. (c) As in (a), but for the 500 hPa. The blacked areas are
where the 925-hPa level is below the ground.

From a thermodynamic perspective, the equivalent potential temperature (θ_e) field at 925 hPa shows that a warm and moist tropical air mass exist in central and SCS with θ_e values greater than 335 K, and the relative humidity is around 90 % during the D18 event (Fig. 4a). The high moisture content combines with a decrease in θ_e with altitude, indicating convective instability in the lower atmosphere below about 500 hPa (Fig. 4b). Furthermore, the interaction between northeasterly and easterly winds seemed to enhance instability in the lower atmosphere.



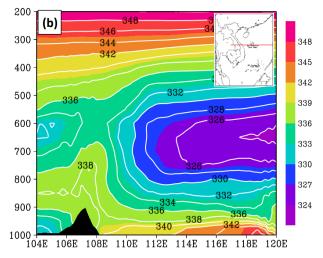


Figure 4. (a) The ERA5 averaged equivalent potential temperature (K, color), and relative humidity (%, white contours, every 30 %) at 925 hPa. The blacked areas are where the 925-hPa level is below the ground. (b) the east-west vertical cross-section along 16°N (see insert) of averaged equivalent potential temperature (θ_e , K, color, every 5 K), from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec 2018. The topography is dark shaded.

The above analysis suggests that the northeasterly, easterly, and southeasterly winds (cf. Figs. 3a-c) all played an important role in transported unstable air into central Vietnam. Particularly, when the strong northeasterly and the easterly winds at low levels and southeasterly wind at upper levels blow into central Vietnam, they bring warm, moist, and unstable air into central Vietnam. This moisture is transported to central Vietnam by strong moisture flux through the deep column from the WNP, across the Philippines and the SCS (Fig. 5a). Furthermore, the high SST of the SCS (>27° C) also help to enhance and maintain abundant moisture during this event (Fig. 5b).

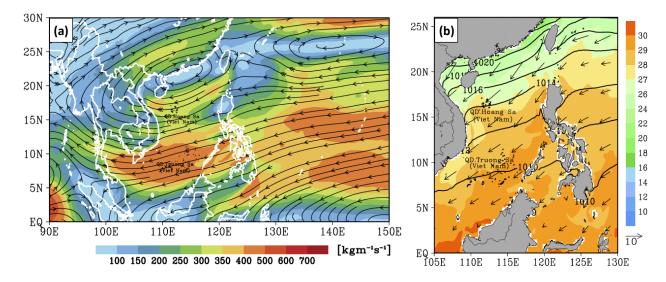


Figure 5. (a) The ERA5 averaged surface–200-hPa vertically integrated moisture flux (kg m⁻¹s⁻¹).
(b) the ERA5 averaged SST (°C, color), mean sea-level pressure (hPa, isobars, every 2 hPa), and
horizontal wind vectors at 10-m height (m s⁻¹, vector), from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec
2018.

Consequently, the atmospheric conditions and local topographic characteristics in interaction 306 result in moisture convergence and forced uplift in the lower troposphere during the D18 event. 307 This can be seen in Fig. 6, where extensive rising motion occurs in the lower troposphere along 308 coastal Vietnam, with a maximum value of -1.2 Pa s⁻¹. Besides, Figs. 6a,b also indicate that the 309 strong northeasterly wind along with warm, moist and unstable air is blocked by the Truong Son 310 Range. This pattern suggests that the Truong Son Range also played an important role in the 311 development of heavy rainfall in central Vietnam in D18. In detail, when the northeasterly and 312 easterly winds at low levels blow into central Vietnam and become block by the Truong Son Range, 313 which is located along the border of Vietnam and Laos, forced uplift is resulted at the windward 314 side, with downward motion over the lee side (in Laos, Fig. 6b). Furthermore, the low-level 315 convergence in this event was strong enough (Fig. 3a), and the air was unstable enough (Fig. 4b) to 316 trigger most of the convection near the shoreline (further inland, Fig. 6a) 317

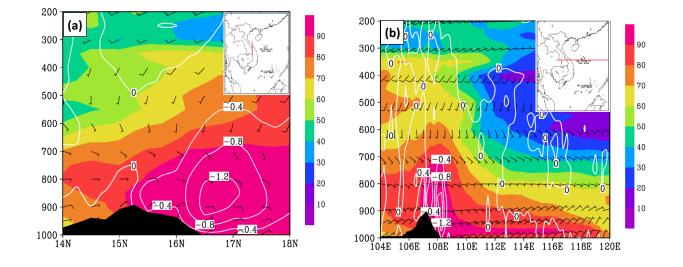


Figure 6. (a) The ERA5 the south-north vertical cross-section along 107.5°E (see insert) of
averaged horizontal wind (m s⁻¹, vectors) and vertical motions (Pa s⁻¹; white contours, negative for
upward motion), and relative humidity (%, shaded), from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec 2018.
The topography is dark shaded. (b) As in (a), but for the vertical cross-section along 16° N.

As described above, when the strong northeasterly and easterly winds at low levels blow into 322 central Vietnam, they bring warm, moist, and unstable air that originated in the WNP and is 323 enhanced over the SCS. Then, this air is blocked by the Truong Son Range, which has a height of 324 325 around 2 km, leading to forced convergence and upward motion at low levels and divergence further above. These conditions consequently lead to moisture flux convergence of over 8×10^{-4} g 326 kg⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 925 hPa (Fig. 7a) and moisture flux divergence at 850 hPa with comparable magnitudes 327 (Fig. 7b). This divergence reduces sharply further up toward the middle and upper levels (Fig. 7c). 328 These factors create a moist atmosphere with a precipitable water amount (through the deep 329 column) exceeding 50 mm during the D18 event (Fig. 7d). The above atmospheric ingredients and 330 characteristics in local topography in combination created favorable environmental conditions to 331 trigger orographic rainfall. As a consequence, the D18 event happened. 332

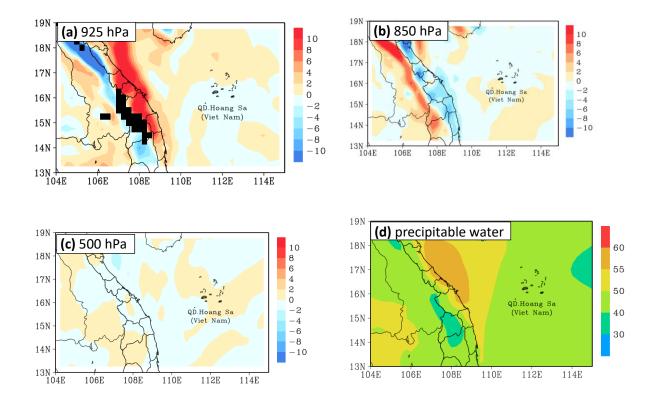


Figure 7. (a) The ERA5 averaged moisture convergence/ divergence (x10⁻⁴, g kg⁻¹ s⁻¹, shaded,
positive for convergence) at the 925 hPa, from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec 2018. The blacked
areas are where the 925-hPa level is below the ground. (b) As in (a), but for the 850 hPa. (c) As in

(a), but for the 500 hPa. (d) The ERA5 averaged precipitable water between surface and 200 hPa
(mm), from 0000 UTC 8 to 1800 UTC 11 Dec 2018.

Besides investigating the synoptic-scale atmospheric conditions above, this study also verified the impact of intraseasonal oscillations in the tropical atmosphere on the D18 event. To be more specific, figure 8a reveals that the MJO in Western Pacific was not active in early December 2018 as well as during the D18 event. Figure 8b indicates that the last three months of 2018 are a fairly weak El Niño phase. In addition, previous studies showed that central Vietnam had less rainfall in the El Niño years. Therefore, MJO and ENSO are also not the cause and have no impact on the D18 event.

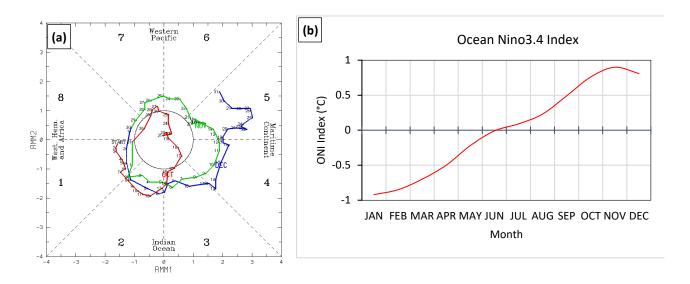
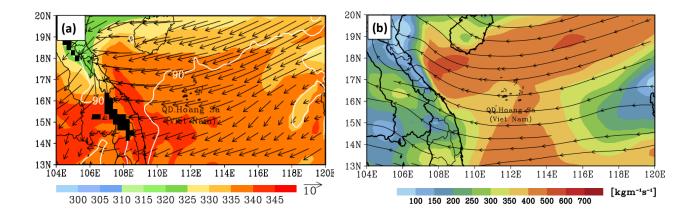


Figure 8. (a) The Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) location and the strength through 8 different
areas along the equator around the globe. Labelled dots for each day. Red line is for October, Green
line is for November, Blue line is for December. Source: Commonwealth of Australia 2019, Bureau
of Meteorology. (b) The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) of the Niño 3.4 region (5° N-5° S, 120°-170°
W) for 2018.

350 **3.3** The local thermodynamic conditions prior the D18 event

Figure 9 shows these conditions at 1200 UTC 8 December 2018. At this time, there is a strong 351 convergence zone of the low-level northeasterly wind carrying the moisture over the north of the 352 study area and near the shoreline (Figs. 9a,b). The northeasterly wind convergence led to a low-level 353 354 moisture convergence both inland and over the coastal sea. This happened as the low-level northeasterly wind carrying the moisture blew to central Vietnam and interacted with local 355 topography, the low-level northeasterly flow reduced in speed over a wide area (refers to Figs. 6), 356 leading to a strong moisture flux convergence at low-level both inland and near the shoreline and 357 moisture flux divergence at the upper level (Figs. 9c, d). Due to the convergence of northeasterly 358 wind and moisture happened mainly in the north of latitude 16, the rising motion in the south of 359 latitude 16 mainly happened at low-level (less than 700 hPa, Fig. 9e) due to blocked by the Truong 360 Son range. Furthermore, this process occurred in a warm and unstable atmosphere (refer to Figs. 4), 361 362 making a favourable environmental condition to trigger most of the convection near the shoreline instead of over the slopes (further inland) by forced uplift of the terrain. Hence, precipitable water 363 between the surface and 200 hPa exceeding 55 mm just formed over the coastal zone of the north of 364 the study area (Fig. 9f). Consequently, heavy rainfall only concentrated around the coastal zone. 365 These analyses are suitable for satellite and radar data. 366



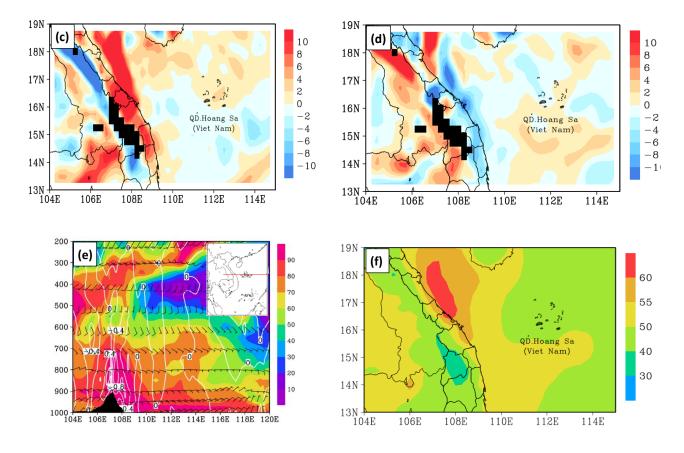


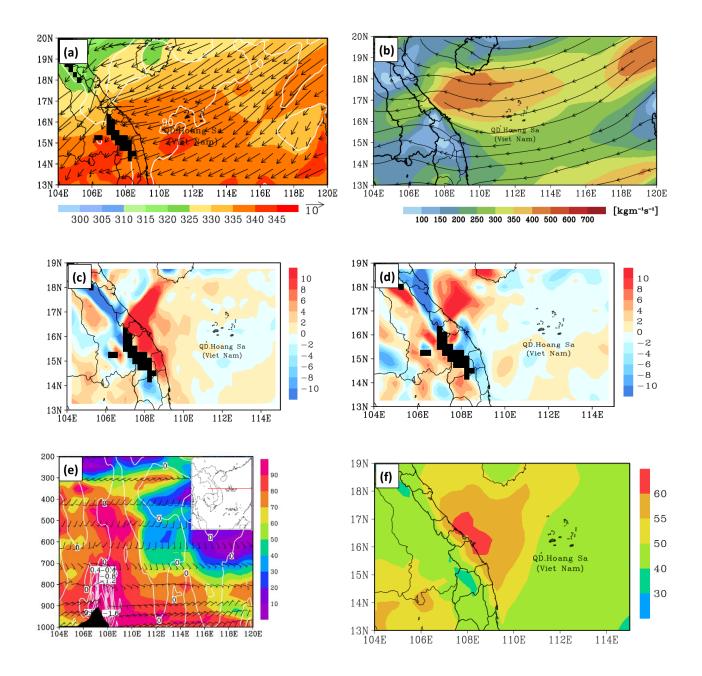
Figure 9. (a) The ERA5 θ_e (K, shaded), horizontal winds (m s⁻¹, vector), and relative humidity (%, white contours, every 30 gpm) at 925 hPa. The blacked areas are where the 925-hPa level is below the ground. (b) Surface–200-hPa vertically integrated moisture flux (kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹). (c) East-west vertical cross-section along 16°N (see insert) of vertical motions (Pa s⁻¹, white contours), relative humidity (%, shaded), and horizontal winds (m s⁻¹, vector). The topography is black shaded. (d) Precipitable water between surface and 200 hPa (mm). All panels are for 1200 UTC 8 Dec 2018.

To be more specific, on satellite imageries from 1200 UTC 8 to 1100 UTC 9 December (Fig. S1), a series of deep convective clouds (cumulonimbi, or Cb) first form over northern and central Vietnam and Laos on 8 December, with mainly a northeast-southwest to east-west alignment. With blackbody temperatures (T_B) below -42° C, several isolated deep cells also develop near the coast over the southern part of the study area after 0200 UTC on 9 December (Fig. S1). Generally, these deep Cb clouds tend to move slowly offshore and weaken after a few hours. Meanwhile, the study area is also covered by precipitating clouds known as nimbostratus (Ns) that are not as deep, with

380	cloud-top T_B at $-20^{\circ}-0^{\circ}$ C and above (Fig. S1). These Ns clouds first form over the northern part of
381	the study area and then grow and expand southward along the coast, eventually cover the entire
382	study area on 9 December (Fig. S1). As analyzed above, both deep Cb clouds and the persistent Ns
383	clouds produced long-lasting rainfall for hours, starting along the coast from 1200 to 1700 UTC 8
384	December. After that, the rain area extends both inland and over the coastal sea (Fig. S2). The
385	rainfall intensity is the greatest from 2000 UTC 8 to 0200 UTC 9 December, with a column-
386	maximum radar reflectivity (C _{max}) \approx 40 dBZ (Fig. S2). Afterwards, the rainfall intensity decreases
387	to some extent but remain at 15-35 dBZ rather steadily (Fig. S2). While the precipitation is not too
388	intense, it falls persistently over many hours, leading to high 24-h rainfall accumulation at some
389	locations. Thus, the local thermodynamic conditions seem to maintain for many hours and lead to
390	the continuous development of precipitating clouds during much of 8 December.

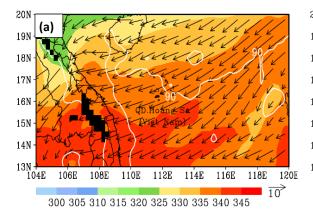
At 1200 UTC 9 December, a warm, moist, and unstable atmosphere is still maintained over 391 central Vietnam and the SCS, with $\theta_e > 335$ K (Fig. 10a and Figs. 4). However, the strong 392 393 convergence of the low-level northeasterly wind carrying the moisture in Ha Tinh and Quang Tri provinces moved southward to Quang Tri and Quang Nam provinces (Fig. 10a). This moving 394 dragging along the move of the low-level moisture convergence (Figs. 10c,d). Besides, Fig. 9e 395 396 shows that the low-level uplifting motion is stronger than the previous day due to most of the strong northeasterly wind zone blocked by the Truong Son range. Besides, the southward movement of the 397 398 northeasterly wind and moisture convergence zone also led to the southward movement of 399 precipitable water between the surface and 200 hPa to the coastal zone between Quang Binh and 400 Quang Tri provinces (Fig. 10f). As a result, the main heavy rainfall also moved southward to this area. Moreover, these thermodynamic conditions played a role to sustain the development of 401 402 precipitating clouds on 9 December. This also coincides with observed satellite and radar data. In detail, on this day (since 1200 UTC), satellite imageries also show some characteristics of deep 403 404 convection over the coastal area (Fig. S3), but the cloud top temperatures, in general, are not as cold

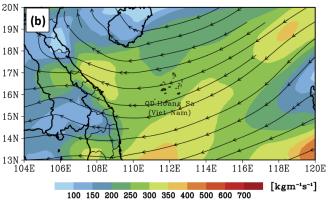
405 as on 8 December. Meanwhile, the lower precipitating Ns clouds cover much of the study area from 406 1200 UTC 9 to 0300 UTC 10 December, then gradually disintegrate (Fig. S3). These clouds kept 407 producing rainfall for the whole day, with the higher C_{max} values (~40 dBZ) and rainfall intensity 408 from 1200 UTC 9 to around 0000 UTC 10 December (Fig. S4), mainly over the coastal plain and 409 nearby sea. After that, the rain gradually decreases in both intensity and areal coverage.

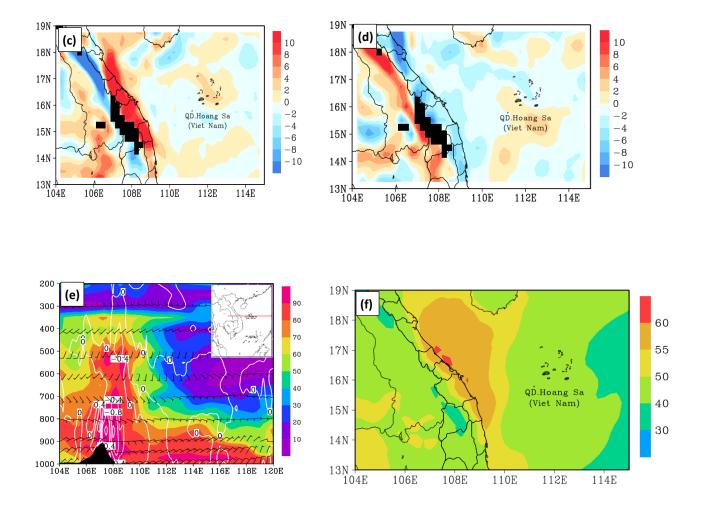


410 **Figure 10.** As in Fig. 9, except for 1200 UTC 9 Dec 2018.

At 1200 UTC 10 December, the atmosphere remains very moist with a precipitable water 411 amount of 55 mm (Fig. 11d). Some of the local dynamical and thermodynamically parameters, 412 however, are reduced from one day earlier and become not as favorable, including the velocity of 413 414 northeasterly wind, the upward motion over central Vietnam (Fig. 11c), moisture flux (Fig. 11b) and precipitable water amount (Fig. 11f). Hence, the development of precipitating clouds also 415 reduces significantly on this day and mostly exist offshore over the ocean (Fig. S5). Compared to 416 the past two days, the development of convective cells is also reduced. Near the coast, only three 417 convective cells developed on 10 December, one at 1400 UTC, the second at 2000 UTC, and the 418 third one shortly after 2200 UTC. Also, moving eastward and offshore after formation, these 419 relatively small cells spend only 1-3 h over land. In general, the environmental conditions become 420 less favorable for developing rain clouds after 1200 UTC 10 December. Consequently, there is a 421 422 significant decrease in rainfall, which occurs mainly during 1200-1600 UTC then weaken with time (Fig. S6). 423







424 **Figure 11.** As in Fig. 9, except for 1200 UTC 10 Dec 2018.

425 4 Model Simulation Results

In this section, the model simulation results are used to investigate the role of topography in the development of clouds and rainfall in the D18 event, and the CReSS model is also evaluated for its ability to reproduce the event over the study area.

Figure 12 presents the daily averaged surface horizontal winds and daily rainfall in CTRL and

430 NTRN for each of the three days from 9 to 11 December 2018. In CTRL, the model has well

- 431 simulated the surface wind. As a result, the model produced a maximum 24-h rainfall of around 400
- 432 mm on 9 December (Fig. 12a), roughly comparable in magnitude to the observation (Fig. 12c).
- 433 While one should bear in mind that the limited number of rain gauges have a smaller coverage area
- and cannot resolve the detailed distribution of rainfall (cf. Fig. 1a), the model rainfall in CTRL is

slightly more offshore north of 16° N but more inland near 16° N, thus is not as abundant along the
coast compared to the observation. In other words, model rainfall has some location errors but the
magnitude is comparable by visual inspection.

An objective and more quantitative verification of model rainfall can be provided by the threat 438 score (TS) computed at the rain-gauge sites, which shows that the model has high score at low 439 thresholds of ≤ 10 mm (per 24 h) but gradually decreases toward higher thresholds (Fig. 13a, red 440 curve). In particular, the TS is about 0.5 at 25-50 mm, below 0.2 above 160 mm, and about 0.1 at 441 350 mm. Eventually, the TS drops to zero at 500 mm, which is not too far from the observed peak 442 rainfall of over 500 mm (at Da Nang, cf. Fig. 1a). The bias score (BS) confirms that the model does 443 not produce enough rainfall over the coastal plains, as its value drops from about 1.0 at 0.05 mm to 444 below 0.4 at and above 250 mm. As another objective measure of overall quality of prediction, the -445 Similarity skill score (SSS) is about 0.5 for 9 December. Overall, the model appears to produce too 446 much rainfall offshore north of 16° N and not enough rainfall along the coast, and this might be to 447 some extent linked to its surface wind coming more from the east-northeast, compared to northeast 448 in the ERA5 analysis (Figs. 12a,c), leading to somewhat different locations of low-level 449 convergence of wind and moisture. 450

451

452

- 453
- 454
- 455
- 456

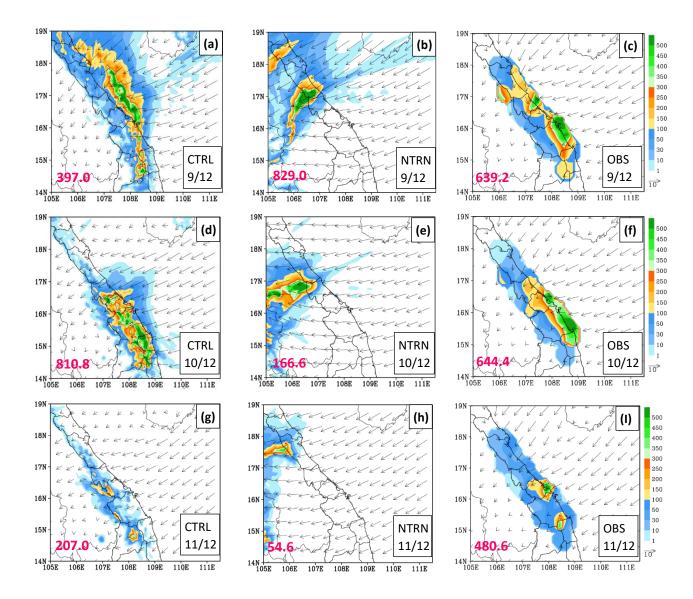
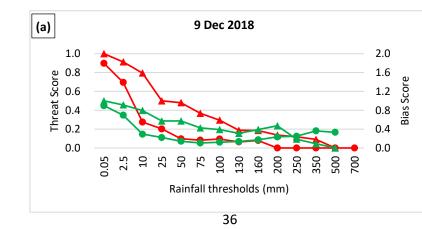


Figure 12. Simulated daily-mean surface horizontal wind vectors (m s⁻¹, reference length at right
column) and 24-h accumulated rainfall (mm, color) in CTRL (left column) and NTRN (middle
column), and the observed rainfall at gauge sites (OBS), overlaid with the daily-mean surface wind
vectors derived from the ERA5 data (right column). From top to down are: (a-c) 9 Dec, (d-f) 10
Dec, and (g-i) 11 Dec 2018. The pink number at the lower left indicates the maximum value of 24-h

463

rainfall.



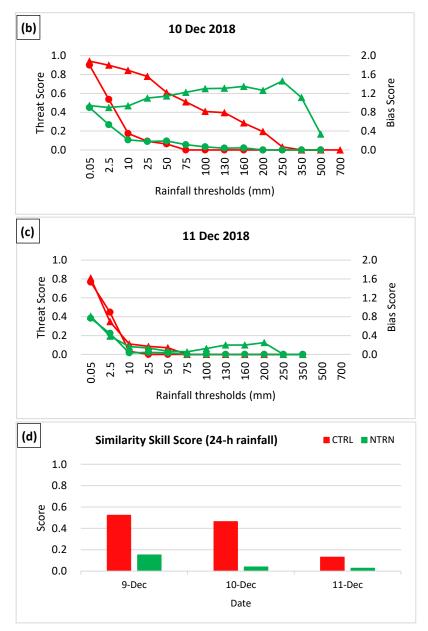


Figure 13. (a)-(c) The threat scores (red) and bias scores (green) of 24-h accumulated rainfall for
the CTRL (curve with triangles) and NTRN (curve with dots) experiments for the three days of 9-11
Dec 2018. (d) Fractions skill scores of 24-h accumulated rainfall for the two experiments.

For 10 December, while similar differences in prevailing surface winds still exist between
model simulation and ERA5 data, the model captured the southward movement of the northeasterly
wind. Therefore, the model had well captured the southward movement of the main heavy rainfall.
The rainfall location has improved with better agreement with the observation (Figs. 12d,f), but in

general slightly more inland and not right on the coast. Both over 600 mm, the observed and
simulated peak daily rainfall values are again comparable. Due to the improvement in spatial
pattern, the TSs exhibit higher values than those for the previous day across low to middle
thresholds (up to 200 mm) but reduce to zero at 250 mm (Fig. 13b), while the SSS (near 0.46) is
only slightly reduced (Fig. 13d). In agreement with the better TS values, the BS remains between
0.8 and about 1.4 from low thresholds up to 350 mm, and drops to about 0.35 at 500 mm (Fig. 13b).

For 11 December, the model does not simulate well the rainfall field, as its rainfall is displaced 477 toward the Truong Son Range (and the border to Laos), instead of over the coastal plain as observed 478 (Figs. 12g,i). The spatial coverage of model rainfall is smaller and the peak amount (~200 mm) also 479 lower compared to the rain-gauge data, while the surface wind appears weaker than the ERA5 data 480 as well. While the observed peak amount became lower as the D18 event was coming to an end, the 481 TSs also decrease rapid with threshold, and are close to 0.1 at just 10 mm and become zero at and 482 above 70 mm (Fig. 13c). Consistent with the inadequate amount over land, the BSs also decrease 483 rapidly with thresholds, from about 0.8 at 0.05 mm to below 0.3 over 100-200 mm. For this day, the 484 SSS is only about 0.14 and significantly lower than the values for 9 and 10 December (Fig. 13d). 485 Likely also related to the weaker surface winds in the model, the less-than-ideal results of rainfall 486 may be also affected by the longer range of integration, at 66-90 h, for 11 December. 487

To test the impact of topography in the D18 event, the NTRN experiment was carried out. 488 Without the terrain, the model had not good simulated the surface wind. Consequences, the rainfall 489 490 as simulated by CReSS would be displaced much more inland from the coastal region for all three days of 9-11 December (Figs. 12b,e,h), and more importantly, the pattern would no longer be 491 elongated and parallel to the coast, even though the peak amounts are similar to the observation. 492 Thus, the topography was fundamental in determining the basic rainfall area and pattern in the D18 493 event. With incorrect distributions, the TS values (Fig. 13, green curves) are much lower and drop 494 to below 0.2 at thresholds above 10-25 mm for all three days. The thresholds at which the TSs 495

decrease to zero are 200, 75, and 25, respectively for the three days, and much lower than those in the CTRL, especially for 9 and 10 December. The BS values in the NTRN also tend to be lower than those in the CTRL, sometimes much lower, reflecting its incorrect location and thus little rainfall at gauge sites with rainfall in reality. The SSS values are also much lower, with values near 0.16, 0.04, and 0.04 for the three days. Without the topography, the surface wind pattern near the coast and over land would be much stronger and very different, due to the lack of its blocking and uplifting effects, and also the associated thermodynamic effects.

For the D18 event as a whole, the three-day total rainfall distribution produced by the model 503 504 compares quite favorably with the observation in both quantity and spatial pattern (Figs. 14a,c), with generally minor displacement errors more toward inland at around 15°-16° N. Despite these 505 errors, the spatial distribution of rainfall in the model corresponds well to the zone of low-level 506 moisture convergence in the ERA5 analysis (Fig. 7a). In agreement with visual assessment, the TSs 507 508 of the 72-h QPFs are quite high across even heavy-rainfall thresholds: around 0.8 at 100 mm (per 72 h), close to 0.5 at 200 mm, above 0.2 at 350 mm, and 0.1 at 700 mm, with an overall SSS ≈ 0.7 509 (Figs. 14d,e). As shown, the rainfall fields for individual days in D18 are very different without the 510 topography in NTRN, and the same is true for the whole event (Fig. 14b). The TSs also indicate a 511 much lower skill in QPF, with TS below 0.2 at \geq 50 mm (per 72 h) and TS = 0 at \geq 350 mm, BS 512 below 0.35 at \geq 10 mm, and also an overall SSS of less than 0.1 (Figs. 14d,e). The results in Figs. 513 514 12 and 14 also indicate a significant wind-blocking effect by the Truong Son Range. In CTRL, the surface northeasterly winds commonly exceed 10 m s⁻¹ in speed over the SCS, but are reduced 515 significantly (and even to near-zero speed) near the Annamite Range (and in Laos). On the contrary, 516 there is no reduction in speed as the winds blow across central Vietnam in NTRN, without the 517 blocking effect of the topography. 518

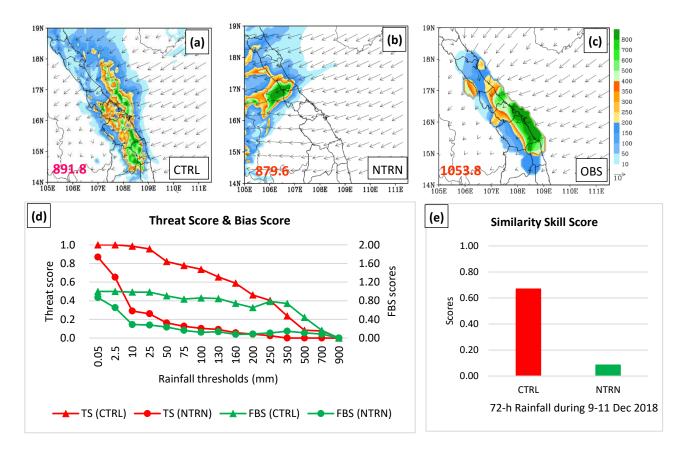


Figure 14. (a)-(c) As in Figs. 11a-c, except for three-day averaged surface horizontal wind vectors
and 72-h accumulated rainfall over 9-11 Dec 2018. (d), (e) As in Figs. 12c,d, except for TSs and
FSSs of the 72-h accumulated rainfall over 9-11 Dec 2018.

523 **5 Conclusion**

In this study, the extreme precipitation event that occurred on 8-12 December 2018 along the coast of central Vietnam is analyzed, and the simulation results by a CRM (the CReSS model) is evaluated. The major findings are summarized below.

527 Analysis on the D18 event has revealed several key factors which led to this record-breaking 528 rainfall event: First, for all four days from 8 to 11 December, the strong northeasterly winds in the 529 lower troposphere blew from the Yellow Sea into the SCS, and interacted with strong low-level 530 easterly winds (below 700 hPa) over the SCS. This interaction strengthened the upstream easterly to 531 northeasterly winds and generated strong low-level convergence, as the winds blew into central 532 Vietnam and were blocked by the Truong Son Range, the low-level northeasterly flow reduced in 533 speed and led to moisture flux convergence and rising motion along the coast of Vietnam persistently. Consequently, heavy rainfall was produced along the coast of central Vietnam. Second, 534 the strong easterly winds played an important role in transporting moisture from the WNP, across 535 536 the Philippines and the SCS, into central Vietnam. Third, the Truong Son Range also played an important role in this event due to its barrier effect. Finally, the high SST of the SCS (>27° C) also 537 acted to help replenishing the moisture in this event. This above mechanism in the D18 event is 538 different from those documented in previous studies. Particularly, according to previous studies, the 539 heavy and extreme rainfall events are usually due to the multi-interaction between the northeasterly 540 wind and preexisting tropical disturbance over the SCS and local topography or tropical cyclone or 541 impacts by ENSO or MJO. However, these factors have not appeared during the D18 event. 542 Therefore, we suggest that the interaction of the northeasterly and easterly winds in the moist, 543 544 unstable atmospheric and local topography can also lead to heavy precipitation events along the central coastal plains of Vietnam. Another interesting finding of this study is that even though short 545 periods of heavy rainfall from deep convection also contributed, the extreme rainfall of the D18 546 event was mainly from the persistent rain from nimbostratus clouds (Ns) that do not possess a high 547 reflectivity or a very cold cloud top. 548

One of the features of the D18 event is that the main heavy rain band moved from the north to south of the study area during the event. The analysis of the local thermodynamic reveals the movement of the convergence northeasterly wind zone in the north of the study area from north to south. This movement dragged along the movement of the convergent moisture zone. The movement of convergent moisture zone results in precipitation water column moving from north to south. Consequently, the main heavy rain band moved from north to south.

555 The evaluation of model simulation results at a grid size of 2.5 km indicates the following. In the 556 CTRL, the model has well simulated the surface wind as well as captured the wind convergence's 557 southward movement. Therefore, the CReSS model has reproduced this event's rainfall field quite

558 well, for both daily and three-day accumulations, but with some displacement errors. In terms of objective verification skill scores, in particular, CReSS displays high skills at heavy-rainfall 559 thresholds for both daily rainfall (TS ≥ 0.1 at 200-350 mm and FSS ≈ 0.5 for 9 and 10 December) 560 and 72-h total (TS \approx 0.1 at 700 mm and FSS \approx 0.7). However, the rainfall simulation is less ideal for 561 11 December (TS drops to zero at thresholds \geq 75 mm), which had less rainfall and is at a longer 562 range (than the previous two days). Besides, the model also captured the southward movement of the 563 main heavy rain band during the event, as seen in the observed data. In the sensitivity test of NTRN 564 where the topography is removed, the model has poorly simulated the surface wind and did not 565 capture the southward movement of the wind convergence zone. This led to the model produced a 566 different rainfall pattern not along the coast as observed (and in CTRL), thus confirming the important 567 role by the Truong Son Range in this event. In addition, the evaluation of simulation results also 568 569 shows that the CReSS model has well simulated the surface winds, both in their direction and 570 magnitude.

571 Generally, these results enhanced our knowledge about the mechanisms which cause the heavy 572 rainfall in central Vietnam, as well as explained features of the D18 event. The above result also 573 shows the promising capacity of the CReSS model for research and forecast of heavy rainfall in 574 Vietnam. In a follow-up paper, a set of high-resolution time-lagged ensemble prediction is performed 575 using the CReSS model, and the predictability of the D18 event will be evaluated.

576 Code and data availability

- 577 The CReSS model used in this study and its user's guide are available at the model website at
- 578 <u>http://www.rain.hyarc.nagoyau.ac.jp/~tsuboki/cress_html/index_cress_eng.html</u>.
- 579 Author contribution

580	Duc Van Nguyen prepared datasets, executed the model experiments, performed analysis, and
581	prepared the first draft of the manuscript. Chung-Chieh Wang provided the funding, guidance and
582	suggestions during the study, and participated in the revision of the manuscript.
583	Competing interests
584	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
585	Acknowledgement. We thank Mr. Nguyen Tien Toan at Mid-central Regional Hydro-
586	Meteorological Centre, Viet Nam for kindly providing the observed rainfall and radar data, as well
587	as his comment. We acknowledge the free use of ECMWF ERA5 from Copernicus Climate Change
588	Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS) https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/ reanalysis-
589	datasets/era5. The Vietnam Gridded Precipitation rainfall dataset is available at
590	http://danida.vnu.edu.vn/cpis/en/content/gridded-precipitation-data-of-vietnam.html. The TRMM
591	3B42 satellite data are from https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/TRMM_3B42_7/summary. The IR1

592 Himawari imagines data are from Central Weather Bureau, Taiwan at <u>https://www.cwb.gov.tw</u>.

593 **References**

- Akter, N., and Tsuboki, K.: Characteristics of Supercells in the Rainband of Numerically Simulated
 Cyclone Sidr., SOLA, 6A, 025–028. <u>https://doi.org/10.2151/sola.6A-007</u>, 2010.
- Akter, N., and Tsuboki, K.: Numerical Simulation of Cyclone Sidr Using a Cloud-Resolving Model:
 Characteristics and Formation Process of an Outer Rainband. Mon. Wea. Rev, 140, 789-810.
 http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/2011MWR3643.1, 2012.
- Bui, M.T.: Extratropical forcing of submonthly variations of rainfall in Vietnam, J. Climate, 32 (8),
 2329-2348, 2019.
- Chen, T.-C., Tsay, J.-D., Yen, M.-C., and Matsumoto, J.: Interannual variation of the late fall rainfall
 in central Vietnam, J. Climate, 25, 392–413, 2012.

- Cotton, W.R., Tripoli, G.J., Rauber, R.M., and Mulvihill, E.A.: Numerical simulation of the effects
 of varying ice crystal nucleation rates and aggregation processes on orographic snowfall. J.
 Climate Appl. Meteorol. 25, 1658–1680, 1986.
- 606 Deardorff, J. W.: Stratocumulus-capped mixed layers derived from a three-dimensional model,
 607 Bound.-Lay. Meteorol., 18, 495–527, 1980.
- Huffman, G.J., D.T. Bolvin, E.J. Nelkin, and R.F. Adler.: TRMM (TMPA) Precipitation L3 1 day
 0.25 degree x 0.25 degree V7, Edited by Andrey Savtchenko, Goddard Earth Sciences Data and
 Information Services Center (GES DISC), Accessed on 10-12-2019,
 10.5067/TRMM/TMPA/DAY/7, 2016.
- Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Biavati, G., Horányi, A., Muñoz Sabater, J., Nicolas, J., Peubey,
- 613 C., Radu, R., Rozum, I., Schepers, D., Simmons, A., Soci, C., Dee, D., and Thépaut, J-N.: ERA5

hourly data on pressure levels from 1979 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S)

- Climate Data Store (CDS). (Accessed on 14-06-2021). Doi: 10.24381/cds.bd0915c6, 2018b.
- Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Biavati, G., Horányi, A., Muñoz Sabater, J., Nicolas, J., Peubey,
- 617 C., Radu, R., Rozum, I., Schepers, D., Simmons, A., Soci, C., Dee, D., and Thépaut, J-N.: ERA5
- hourly data on single levels from 1979 to present. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S)
- 619 Climate Data Store (CDS). (Accessed on 14-06-2021). DOI: 10.24381/cds.adbb2d47, 2018a.
- Ikawa, M., and Saito, K.: Description of a non-hydrostatic model developed at the Forecast Research
 Department of the MRI, MRI Technical report 28, Japan Meteorological Agency, Tsukuba,
 Japan, 1991.
- Kondo, J.: Heat balance of the China Sea during the air mass transformation experiment, J. Meteorol.
 Soc. Jpn., 54, 382–398, https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj1965.54.6_382, 1976.
- Lin, Y.-L., Farley, R.D., and Orville, H.D.: Bulk parameterization of the snow field in a cloud model.
- 626 J. Climate Appl. Meteorol. 22, 1065–1092, 1983.

- 627 Louis, J. F., Tiedtke, M., and Geleyn, J. F.: A short history of the operational PBL parameterization
- at ECMWF, in: Proceedings of Workshop on Planetary Boundary Layer Parameterization, 25–
- 629 27 November 1981, Shinfield Park, Reading, UK, 59–79, 1982.
- 630 Murakami, M.: Numerical modeling of dynamical and microphysical evolution of an isolated
- 631 convective cloud the 19 July 1981 CCOPE cloud, J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn., 68, 107–128, 1990.
- 632 Murakami, M., Clark. T.L., and Hall, W.D.: Numerical simulations of convective snow clouds over
- the Sea of Japan: Two-dimensional simulation of mixed layer development and convective
 snow cloud formation, J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn. 72, 43–62, 1994.
- Nguyen-Le, D., and Matsumoto, J.: Delayed withdrawal of the autumn rainy season over central
 Vietnam in recent decades. Int. J. Climatol., 36, 3002–3019, 2016.
- Nguyen-Thi, H.A., Matsumoto, J., Ngo-Duc, T., and Endo, N.: Long-term trends in tropical cyclone
 rainfall in Vietnam. J. Agrofor. Environ., 6(2), 89–92, 2012.
- 639 Nguyen-Xuan, T., Ngo-Duc, T., Kamimera, H., Trinh-Tuan, L., Matsumoto, J., Inoue, T., and Phan-
- 640 Van, T.: The Vietnam Gridded Precipitation (VnGP) Dataset: Construction and validation.
- 641 SOLA, 12, 291–296, https://doi.org/10.2151/sola.2016-057, 2016.
- Ohigashi, T., and Tsuboki, K.: Shift and intensification processes of the Japan-Sea Polar-Airmass
 Convergence Zone associated with the passage of a mid-tropospheric cold core. Journal of the
 Meteorological Society of Japan, 85(5), 633-662, 2007.
- Segami, A., Kurihara, K., Nakamura, H., Ueno, M., Takano, I., and Tatsumi, Y.: Operational
 mesoscale weather prediction with Japan Spectral Model, J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn., 67, 907–924,
 https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj1965.67.5_907, 1989.
- 648Tran, T., Coauthors: The Climate Change and Sea Level Rise Scenarios for Viet Nam. The Ministry
- of Natural Resources and Environment. Page count:170, 2016.

- Tsuboki, K., and Sakakibara, A.: Large-Scale Parallel Computing of Cloud Resolving Storm
- 651 Simulator. In: Zima H.P., Joe K., Sato M., Seo Y., Shimasaki M. (eds) High Performance
- 652 Computing. ISHPC 2002. Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

653 Vol 2327, https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-47847-7_21, 2002.

- Tsuboki, K., and Sakakibara, A.: CReSS User's Guide (17th IHP training course text). Page count:
 273, 2007.
- Takahashi, H.G., Yoshikane, T., Hara, M., and Yasunari, T.: High-resolution regional climate
 simulations of the longterm decrease in September rainfall over Indochina. Atmos. Sci. Let., 10,
 14–18, doi:10.1002/asl.203, 2009.
- Vu, V.T., Nguyen, T.H., Nguyen, V.T., Nguyen, V.H., Pham, T.T.H., and Nguyen, T.L.: Effects of
 ENSO on Autumn Rainfall in Central Vietnam. Advances in Meteorology, Vol. 2015, Article
 ID 264373, 12 pages. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2015/264373</u>, 2015.
- van der Linden, R., Fink, A.H., Phan-Van, T., and Trinh-Tuan, L.: Synoptic-dynamic analysis of early
- dry-season rainfall events in the Vietnamese central highlands. Mon. Wea. Rev., 144, 1509–
- 664 1527. <u>https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-15-0265.1</u>, 2016.
- 665 Wilks, D.S.: Statistical Methods in the Atmospheric Sciences, Academic Press. Page count: 648.
- Wang, C.-C., Lin, B.-X., Chen, C.-T., Lo, S.-H.: Quantifying the effects of long-term climate change
 on tropical cyclone rainfall using cloud-resolving models: Examples of two landfall typhoons in
- 668 Taiwan, J. Climate, 28, 66-85. https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00044.1, 2015.
- 669 Wu, P., Fukutomi, Y., and Matsumoto, J.: The impact of intraseasonal oscillations in the tropical
- atmosphere on the formation of extreme central Vietnam precipitation. SOLA, 8, 57–60.
- 671 <u>https://doi.org/10.2151/sola.2012-015</u>, 2012.

- Wang, C. G., Liang, J., and Hodges, K. I.: Projections of tropical cyclones affecting Vietnam under
- climate change: Downscaled HadGEM2-ES using PRECIS 2.1, Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc.,143,
 1844–1859, https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3046, 2017.
- Wang, C.-C., Tsai, C.-H., Jou, B.J.-D., and David, S.J.: Time-Lagged Ensemble Quantitative
- 676 Precipitation Forecasts for Three Landfalling Typhoons in the Philippines Using the CReSS
- 677 Model, Part I: Description and Verification against Rain-Gauge Observations. Atmosphere, 13,
- 678 1193. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos13081193</u>, 2022.
- Yokoi, S., and Matsumoto, J.: Collaborative effects of cold surge and tropical depression-type
 disturbance on heavy rainfall in central Vietnam, Mon. Wea. Rev., 136, 3275–3287.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1175/2008MWR2456.1, 2008.</u>
- Yen, M.C., Chen, T.-C., Hu, H.-L., Tzeng, R.-Y., Dinh, D.T., Nguyen, T.T.T., and Wong, C.J.:
 Interannual variation of the fall rainfall in Central Vietnam, J. Meteor. Soc. Japan, 89A, 259-270.
 https://doi.org/10.2151/jmsj.2011-A16, 2010.
- Yamada, H., Geng, B., Uyeda, H., and Tsuboky, K.: Role of the Heated Landmass on the Evolution
 and Duration of a Heavy Rain Episode over a Meiyu-Baiu Frontal Zone, Journal of the
 Meteorological Society of Japan, Vol. 85, No. 5, 687-709, 2007.
- 688 Website:
- Tuoi Tre news (2018) <u>https://tuoitre.vn/mien-trung-tiep-tuc-mua-lon-14-nguoi-chet-va-mat-tich-</u>
 <u>20181212201907413.htm</u>.
- 691 Communist Party of Vietnam Online Newspaper (2018) https://dangcongsan.vn/xa-hoi/mua-lon-tai-
- 692 mien-trung-la-bieu-hien-ro-ret-cua-bien-doi-khi-hau---507626.html