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🗛 Urban climate in the Tokyo metropolitan area in Japan

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ABSTRACT

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37 Contents

38 Introduction 1. Urban heat island 0 39 Urban rainfall 40 2. 0 41 3. 0 42 4. Conclusions 0 43 Acknowledgments 0 44 References 0

47 Introduction

48 Urban climate and global warming are two major climate 49 changes induced by human activities. The former is more 50 local in nature, and thus needs careful examination based 51 on precise local information. The Tokyo metropolitan area, 52 located in the Kanto Plain in Japan, is one of the largest urbanized areas in the world. Tokyo has developed into a big 53 city over the course of a long history. 54

Long-term climate changes related with urbanization in Tokyo, Japan, and recent temperature 14

and heavy rainfall distribution in the Tokyo metropolitan area are reviewed. A relatively high 15

temperature increase in annual mean temperature at the rate of 3.0°C/century was detected 16

in Tokyo for the period 1901–2015. Some observational evidence showed the existence of both 17

thermal and mechanical effects of urbanization on recent heavy rainfall occurrences, and 18 modeling studies also support precipitation enhancement. Urban influences were recognized 19

in other climatological elements, such as number of fog days, relative humidity, and wind 20

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Population increase and urban expansion in the Tokyo 55 metropolitan area started in the beginning of the 17th century 56 when Ieyasu Tokugawa set up the central Shogunate at 57 Edo (currently Tokyo) in 1603. After the collapse of the Edo 58 Shogunate in 1868, the Meiji Era started. The city of Edo 59

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changed its name to Tokyo, which means eastern capital. The
capital city of Japan moved to Tokyo in 1869 from Kyoto,
which had been the capital city since 794.

At that point, the Japanese industrial revolution began. 63 The population in Tokyo was approximately 860 thousand 64 in 1872 when the official collection of population statistics 65 started. The population of Tokyo steadily increased to 66 7.3 million until 1942, when many Japanese cities including 67 68 Tokyo were burnt out by American bombing during World War II (WWII), drastically decreasing the Tokyo population by 69 1945 to less than 3.5 million. Part of the observed temperature 70 decrease in Tokyo at that time may have been affected by 71 72such reduced urban population and activities (Fig. 1), although more detailed examination is needed to verify this statement. 73 After the end of WWII, rapid population increase continued 74 until the early 1960s, when the population of Tokyo exceeded 7510 million. The rate of increase of population in the Tokyo 76 metropolitan area slowed down, with a current population 77 of approximately 11.3 million. On the other hand, the popu-78 lation of the three neighboring prefectures continued to 79increase until recently, and the total population including 80 these neighboring prefectures exceeded 30 million in the 21st 81 Century (Fig. 1). 82

83 Official meteorological observations in Tokyo started in 1875. Since then, the Central Meteorological Observatory 84 85 (until 1956) and the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) 86 continued their observations for more than 140 years, al-87 though they moved their observation site three times, in 1882, 1923 and 2014. As early as in the 1920s and 1930s, urban 88 89 warming has been recognized by observational studies in 90 Japan. For example, Fukui and Wada (1941) presented the temperature distribution during one night on March 1939, 91 92 showing an approximately 5°C difference between the city center and suburban area (Fig. 2). Extensive research works 93 have been conducted on the urban climate in Japan during 94 95 the most recent six decades. They are reviewed by Yamashita (1990), Kusaka (2008), and Nakagawa (2011). More recently, 96



Fig. 1 – Long-term changes of population of Tokyo Metropolis and three neighboring prefectures (Saitama, Chiba and Kanagawa), as well as population changes in the whole country of Japan (Fujibe, 2011).

Fujibe (2011) reviewed urban climate studies in Japan focusing 97 on long-term warming. Fujibe (2012a, 2012b) further reviewed 98 more general features of urban climate in Japan. Mikami 99 et al. (2011a, 2011b) edited a special issue on urban climate 100 in the Japanese Journal of Geography, and Kanda (2012) 101 edited review articles in the Japanese Meteorological Research 102 Note. JMA has reported their heat island monitoring results 103 every year since 2005, and the latest report was published 104 in 2016 (JMA, 2016). Although excellent reviews have been 105 conducted (e.g., Arnfield, 2003; Collier, 2006; Roth, 2007), these 106 recent Japanese results have not been well known, since some 107 of them were written only in Japanese. The present paper 108 reviews urban climate, mainly in the Tokyo metropolitan 109 area in Japan. 110

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1. Urban heat island

After the pioneering study of Fukui and Wada (1941), the 113 temperature field of the Tokyo heat island was studied by 114 many researchers from routine (e.g., Maejima et al., 1980; 115 Kawamura, 1985) and mobile observations (e.g., Aida and Yaji, 116 1979; Yamashita, 1996). As JMA operates only 4 Automated 117 Meteorological Data Acquisition System (AMeDAS) stations 118 in central Tokyo, complementary information based on 119 routine data has been collected using networks of Air Quality 120 Monitoring System (AQMS) stations deployed by municipali- 121 ties to study the urban climate (e.g., Yamazoe and Ichinose, 122 1994; Mikami et al., 2004). As introduced by Yokoyama et al. 123 (2008) and Akasaka et al. (2011), the Tokyo Metropolitan 124 Research Institute for Environmental Protection (TMRIEP) 125 and Tokyo Metropolitan University (TMU) established a 126 system for dense temperature and other meteorological 127 observations named the Meteorological Environmental Tem- 128 perature and Rainfall Observation System (METROS) starting 129 in 2002. The wider metropolitan area over the Kanto Plain has 130 been covered by the Extended-METROS system since 2006. 131 The results of these observations are presented in Fig. 3 132 (Mikami et al., 2011a, 2011b). Since Tokyo is located in the 133 coastal area, and is affected by the Asian monsoon circula- 134 tion, the temperature distribution in summer and winter 135 is somewhat different, and the urban effect is masked by 136 the local land-sea effect. Takahashi et al. (2011a, 2011b) and 137 Takahashi and Takahashi (2013, 2014) used the surface 138 pressure data of METROS to detect a pressure deficit in central 139 Tokyo resulting from the hydrostatic effect of the nighttime 140 heat island. The effect of sea breeze on the daytime urban 141 heat island in summer was presented in Yamato et al. (2011). 142 Takahashi et al. (2014) showed the detailed temperature 143 distribution in the Tokyo metropolitan area under clear sky 144 and weak wind conditions in winter. They pointed out 145 different nighttime cooling conditions within the city, imply-146 ing the effect of the inner city building structure. For the 147 vertical structure of the heat island, Yoshikado and Kondo 148 (1989) found an enhanced mixing layer in central Tokyo in the 149 summer daytime. 150

Fig. 4 shows the departure of the annual mean tempera- 151 ture (Tmean) from the average during 1901–1920 at Tokyo 152 and Hachijo Island (Hachijo-Jima) in the North Pacific, which 153 is located 300 km south of Tokyo and may indicate the 154

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