

# Tornadoes in the Tyrrhenian regions of the Italian peninsula: the case study of 28 July 2019

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## Abstract

On 28 July 2019 a tornado affected a small rural area in central Italy causing several damages and one casualty. The tornado was spawned by a thunderstorm embedded in a linear convective system that crossed the central Tyrrhenian Sea. The environment was characterized by high values of convective available potential energy (CAPE) and deep layer wind shear (DLS). The severity of this type of events highlights the importance of carrying out multi-scale integrated analysis on tornado phenomena in the Italian central Tyrrhenian area, one of the most affected by these events and on which dedicated studies have not yet been carried out so far.

Tornadoes in the area are identified in the years 1990-2021, allowing to perform a synoptic/mesoscale analysis of the main patterns associated to these events. The 30-year analysis is carried out using both radiosonde observations and ERA5 reanalysis.

The average synoptic configuration is dominated by an upper level trough over the central Mediterranean Sea and by a low surface pressure area over northwestern Italy, with southwesterly upper-level winds over the Tyrrhenian Sea and higher-than-average northwesterly winds entering the western Mediterranean through the gulf of Lion. Moderate mean values of CAPE (about 700 J Kg<sup>-1</sup>) and DLS (about 15 m s<sup>-1</sup>) are found, and the linear shape of the hodograph suggests favorable conditions for multicell systems.

High-resolution WRF (Weather Research and Forecasting) model simulations of the 28 July 2019 case study correctly reproduced the event and the structure of the storm. Extreme values of the typical instability parameters/indices denote an environment particularly favorable for tornado formation; some sensitivity tests permitted to evaluate the role of several forcing (Sea Surface Temperature, surface fluxes and orography) in the development and the trajectory of the storm.

**Keywords:** Tornado; Italy; WRF; ERA5; severe storms; convective environment; synoptic patterns.

## 1. Introduction

Tornadoes are recognized as one of the most severe meteorological phenomena, mainly affecting the midlatitudes (Goliger and Milford, 1998). Their occurrence and intensity are assessed based on visual observations and post-event reports, which lead to subsequent classifications (e.g., Enhanced Fujita scale, EF hereafter; Doswell et al., 2009).

For many years, detailed studies about these phenomena have been almost exclusively confined to the USA, due to the higher frequency and intensity compared to other countries (Brooks et al., 2003). However, recent studies (Antonescu et al., 2016, 2017) demonstrated the high frequency and damage potential of tornadoes in several European countries (Dotzek, 2003; Taszarek et al., 2020).

The methodology of analysis is generally based on instability parameters identified in radiosounding profiles. Several studies, both for US (Rasmussen and Blanchard, 1998; Craven and Brooks, 2004) and for Europe (Giaiotti et al., 2007; Groenemeijer and van Delden, 2007; Taszarek et al., 2013; 2017), showed, in agreement with theoretical studies (e.g., Rotunno, 1981; Weisman and Klemp, 1986), that large vertical wind shear, high convective available potential energy (CAPE), low lifting condensation level (LCL) are ingredients that favor the formation of significant tornadoes. The main difference between US and Europe events is in the higher values of these

parameters in the former region.

Other studies considered numerical model atmospheric reanalysis (Brooks et al. 2003; Gensini and Ashley 2011; Taszarek et al., 2020; Romero et al., 2007; Inghrosso et al., 2020; Rodríguez and Bech, 2020); also in these works useful thresholds for specific severe weather parameters were identified, helping weather forecasters to recognize potential tornadic storm environments. Reanalysis data have the advantage of incorporating upper-air observations, satellite data, surface measurements, and they have a finer spatial/temporal resolution compared to the sparse radiosonde locations. Even if the agreement between rawinsondes and reanalyses should be better explored (Pilguy et al., 2022), in particular to understand if the reanalyses are capable of correctly reproducing the fine-scale atmospheric thermodynamic and kinematic vertical profiles, such gridded data have the great advantage to reproduce the main synoptic patterns and the mesoscale fields that may be potentially related to extreme weather events, such as tornadoes.

Although the impact of Italian tornadoes on the territory is not negligible (Groenemeijer and Kuhne, 2014), the scientific literature on this topic is very limited. After the pioneering climatological work of Palmieri and Pulcini (1978), and the historical survey by Gianfreda et al. (2005), relative to south-eastern Italy, Giaiotti et al. (2007) proposed a first climatology of the Italian tornadoes and waterspouts, that was updated after a decade by Miglietta and Matsangouras (2018).

Other studies mainly focused on severe tornado case studies able to cause significant damages, injuries and even fatalities. Miglietta and Rotunno (2016) and Miglietta et al. (2017a; 2017b) analyzed in detail a multi-vortex EF3 tornado occurred in southeastern Italy, and Zanini et al. (2017) performed a study on a rare EF4 tornado affecting Veneto region. More recently, Avolio et al. (2020) analyzed a severe convective storm affecting northwestern Italy, plausibly related to a tornado coexisting with a downburst. Finally, Avolio and Miglietta (2021) studied four tornado-spawning supercells over southern Italy, hitting the same (Ionian) regions and characterized by common synoptic conditions.

Two recent studies dealt with the synoptic/mesoscale conditions favorable to Italian tornadoes. Inghrosso et al. (2020) studied the mesoscale environmental characteristics related to a selection of 57 significant tornadoes occurring over Italy in the 2000–2018 years, analyzing the role of the vertical wind shear and of CAPE derived from reanalysis fields. They performed a punctual investigation, using the fields extracted at the grid point nearest to the tornado locations, to conclude that large vertical wind shear and medium-to-high values of CAPE are possible precursors of tornadoes. Bagaglini et al. (2021) analyzed synoptic patterns and mesoscale parameters derived from reanalysis in the same period, selecting 149 tornadoes over Italy. They performed a cluster analysis, describing the main characteristics of the environment favorable to tornadoes for the different Italian areas.

In the present work, first we examine the main synoptic patterns and upper-air environmental characteristics associated to tornado events over a specific Italian area, i.e. the central peninsular Tyrrhenian regions, but using a larger tornado database (32-years period, from 1990 to 2021), so that a larger number of tornado events are retained over Italy (459), and in the central Tyrrhenian regions in particular (93). Also, differently from the previous works, in the present study we consider not only reanalysis fields but also upper-air observations (from a sounding station representative of the study area). Note that this is the first study dealing with tornadoes in this Italian region.

In the second part of the work, we focus on a significant tornado, representative of the intense vortices occasionally affecting this area, through high-resolution numerical simulations performed with the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model. The tornado occurred in Fiumicino (west of Rome) on 28 July 2019, and caused one casualty and several damages.

The characteristics of the storm spawning the tornado suggest it was a Quasi-Linear Convective System (QLCS; Weisman and Davis, 1998). Previous works about QLCS-related tornadoes have

1 shown significant differences with respect to those related to isolated supercell (SPC)  
2 thunderstorms, which are generally stronger and with clearer radar signatures and to which a larger  
3 number of studies has been devoted.

4 In the US, the first climatology of QLCS tornadoes (Tessendorf and Trapp, 2000; Trapp et al.,  
5 2005) demonstrated that they account for about 20% of the total cases, and that they were  
6 predominantly weak and more frequent in winter and during nighttime. A recent study (Ashley et  
7 al., 2019), based on 22-year radar image classification and machine learning methods, demonstrate  
8 that more than 21% of tornadoes are due to QLCSs across the central and eastern US.

9 In Europe, Gatzen (2011) analyzed 10 years of QLCSs during the cold season in Germany, finding  
10 that they were mostly associated with weak convective instability and strong low-level vertical  
11 wind shear. Clark (2013) examined 7 years of convective storms in the UK, finding that 27% of the  
12 QLCSs produced at least one tornado; Mulder and Schultz (2015) assessed that QLCSs are  
13 responsible for 42% of tornado days. The analysis of some tornadoes in Spain (Ramis et al., 1997;  
14 Aran et al., 2009; Bech et al., 2011) demonstrated that tornadoes were predominantly associated to  
15 multicell storms and linear systems, rather than to single cell thunderstorms.

16 Thus, higher percentages of tornadoes related to QLCSs appear in Europe compared with the US,  
17 possibly due to differences in the environmental conditions, and several authors emphasized the  
18 importance of studying (for forecasting and surveillance purposes) also these types of events,  
19 although potentially less intense: Bech et al. (2015) studied a QLCS in NE Spain producing a weak  
20 (EF0/EF1) tornado; Buckingham and Schultz (2020) documented 9 tornado outbreaks related to  
21 QLCSs in the UK between 2004 and 2019, through a synoptic-scale approach.

22 The paper is organized as follow. The data used to analyze the 30-yr period, the observational and  
23 modeling tools used in this work are described in Section 2. Section 3 presents the results; first, the  
24 main synoptic/mesoscale characteristics related to the tornadoes in the central Tyrrhenian regions;  
25 then, the high-resolution numerical model simulations of this particular case study. Section 4  
26 summarizes the main results of the work.

## 2. Data and methods

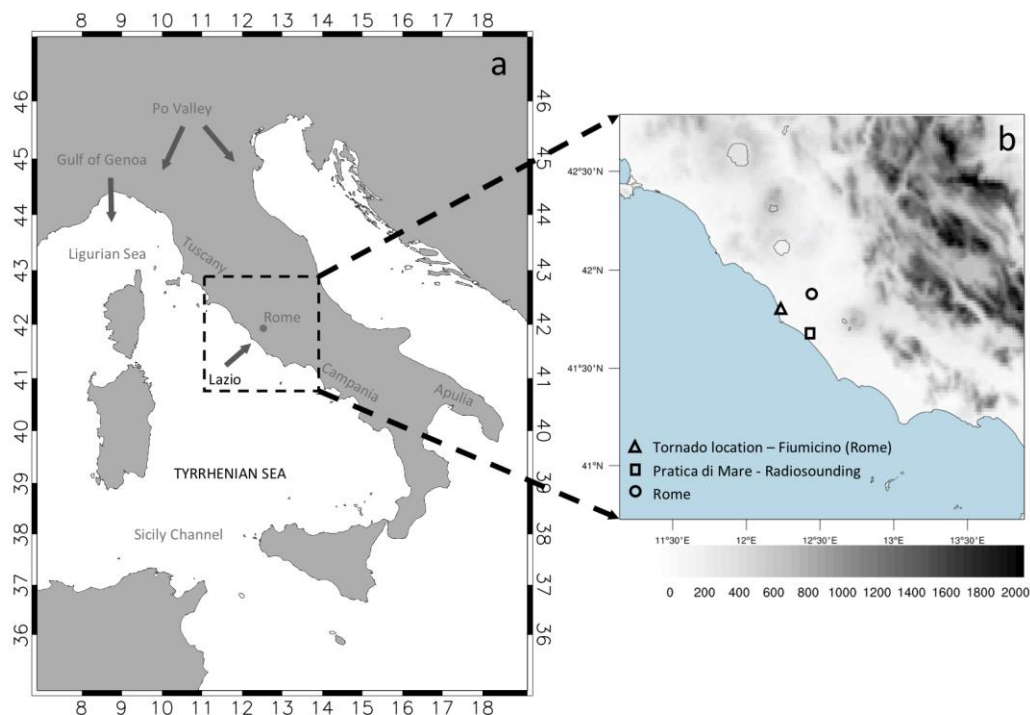


Fig. 1. The main locations cited in the text. On the right: 1 km grid spacing WRF model inner domain and terrain height (m).

The positions of the tornado and other cited locations are also reported.

## 2.1 ESWD reports

For the climatological part of our study, we used the European Severe Weather Database (ESWD; Dotzek et al., 2009), which aims to collect and provide quality-controlled information on severe convective storm events over Europe. The database has been widely used and successfully adopted in several research activities and publications during the years, and the structure of the reports permits to perform some selections aimed at increasing the reliability of the considered reports.

First, we select the tornado events occurred in Italy from 1990 to 2021 (1848 reports); in the following we will refer to "30-years period" when we indicate the complete database.

To avoid unreliable events and weak cases, we retain:

- Only reports with quality control level 1 (report confirmed by reliable source) or 2 (scientific case study);
- Only events classified with Fujita scale equal to 1 or higher;
- Only tornadoes over land (thus excluding waterspouts);
- Only reports with maximum time accuracy of 3 hours (-1.5h / +1.5h) and location accuracy less than 3 km.

This selection allowed retaining 445 events over Italy, of which 93 events cover the central Tyrrhenian regions (Figure 1; Tuscany, Lazio and Campania regions, considering the tornadoes occurred on their west side). These criteria are restrictive since they led to a conspicuous decrease of the initial database. However, these choices make it possible to consider all and only the significant events with high spatial-temporal plausibility.

## 2.2 Upper air radiosonde observations

Upper air RADiosonde OBServation (RAOB) from Global Telecommunications System (GTS) reports at Pratica di Mare (Lazio region, see position in Fig. 1b) were considered, as this site is the only valuable one for the central peninsular Tyrrhenian regions; this profile is particularly useful for the case study analyzed in section 3.2, since it is very close to the location where the tornado was observed.

The sounding data relative to the selected 93 events were considered to evaluate the atmospheric conditions during the tornadoes, and to calculate specific instability parameters with the aim of comparing them with those calculated using the ERA5 reanalysis.

Sounding data were taken from the Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming archive, considering profiles only at 00 and 12 UTC. To make uniform the format of the soundings, we considered only the 18 mandatory pressure levels from the surface up to 5 hPa ([https://glossary.ametsoc.org/wiki/Mandatory\\_level](https://glossary.ametsoc.org/wiki/Mandatory_level)).

In addition to the wind, temperature, and humidity fields at the prescribed levels, the RAOB reports make available instability parameters that have been considered here: Convective Available Potential Energy (CAPE), Total Totals index (TT), and K index (KI) (see Table A1 for their definition).

Additionally, the deep layer wind shear (DLS; the differences between the wind vector near the surface (1000 hPa) and at about 6 km (500 hPa)), the 0-3 km storm relative helicity (SRH03) and the WMAXSHEAR were also calculated (Table A1).

Several methodologies are adopted to choose representative soundings for the study of severe weather events as tornadoes. In this work we followed a temporal proximity-inflow method employed, among others, by Rasmussen and Blanchard (1998), Rasmussen (2003), Renko et al. (2016) and Rodríguez and Bech (2017). Our temporal selection criteria considered a 9-h window, starting 6h before and ending 3h after each event; each sounding comprised in this time interval was retained (78 soundings, in our case). The asymmetry of the time window with respect to the time of tornado occurrence is due to the possible change in the environmental conditions after the passage

of the tornado. Of the 78 cases, 6 reports refer to two or more nearby events, while 9 soundings over 78 were not available. In summary, 63 proximity soundings were taken into account.

### 2.3 ERA5 ReAnalysis

The global climate monitoring dataset ECMWF ReAnalysis (ERA5; Hersbach et al., 2020) is considered here with two purposes: to study the large-scale atmospheric patterns related to the tornado occurrences, and to calculate the thermodynamic diagrams, the hodographs and specific sounding-derived parameters at the Pratica di Mare site coordinates, with the aim of comparing them with the analogous parameters derived from the RAOB observations.

The ERA5 fields are available hourly on a regular latitude-longitude grid with  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  horizontal resolution; both “pressure-levels” (37 pressure levels, from the surface to 0.01 hPa) and “single-levels” databases are used here. The fields considered in this work are: geopotential height at 500 hPa (HGT500); temperature at 850 hPa (T850); mean sea level pressure (MSLP); U and V wind components at 500, 700, 900 hPa and at 10 m height; CAPE; TT; KI. These parameters were directly extracted from the ERA5 archive at 00 and 12 UTC, for a 30-years period (1990-2021), over a domain large enough to represent the main synoptic features influencing the Mediterranean area (i.e.,  $-20^\circ\text{W}$ ,  $20^\circ\text{S}$ ,  $50^\circ\text{E}$ ,  $60^\circ\text{N}$ ). Similar to what has been done for upper air observations, other fields/parameters were also calculated: DLS, SRH03 and WMAXSHEAR (Table A1).

The same temporal proximity-in flow method described in section 2.2 is adopted for the ERA5 data. Therefore, for the sake of punctual comparison with radiosounding profiles (section 3.1.1), 63 pseudo proximity soundings are evaluated in the same point. Instead, for the calculation of large-scale patterns analysis, the full set of 72 events is retained; for the calculation of the anomalies, the whole 30-year period ERA5 database was considered to define the average fields.

### 2.4 WRF model

The high-resolution simulation of the EF2 tornado case study is performed with the non-hydrostatic Advanced Research (ARW) Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF) (Skamarock et al., 2019) version 4.2. Three two-way nested domains were configured with horizontal grid spacing of 9, 3 and 1 km respectively (Fig. 1b; Table 1).

In order to choose the “best” model set-up, first we qualitatively compared several WRF outputs (maximum composite reflectivity, vertical velocity and Updraft Helicity in particular; Table A1) with the observed radar reflectivity / lightning maps (Fig. 11), also considering the ESWD report. Several runs were executed to test different initial and boundary conditions and different initial times; further experiments were also conducted to study the impact of different physical parameterization schemes (PBL and radiation schemes). The results (not shown) indicate that the WRF simulation (CTL run in the following) forced with the ECMWF-IFS analysis/forecasts, with the configurations summarized in Table 1, was in better agreement with the observations. Starting from the CTL configuration, further specific sensitivity tests were done (see section 3.2.3 for the main results) in order to study the forcings affecting the evolution of the supercell.

RUN	RUN time and INIT	Domains	Physics
CTL	Init = ECMWF-IFS analysis/forecasts starting at 00 UTC on 27 July (16 vertical levels, from 1000 to 10 hPa; $0.1^\circ$ resolution; step 3h) Run WRF= 21h (starting	Grids = 9 km ( $192 \times 184$ grid points), 3 km ( $193 \times 181$ grid points), 1 km ( $232 \times 232$ grid points) WRF Vertical	PBL = ACM2 (Pleim, 2007,) & SF_SFCLAY = MM5 Similarity (Jimenez et al., 2012) MP = WSM 6-class (Hong et al., 2006) CU = BMJ (Janjic, 1994) for 9/3 km grids; explicit for 1 km grid RA_LW = RRTMG (Iacono et al., 2008) RA_SW = RRTMG (Iacono et al., 2008)

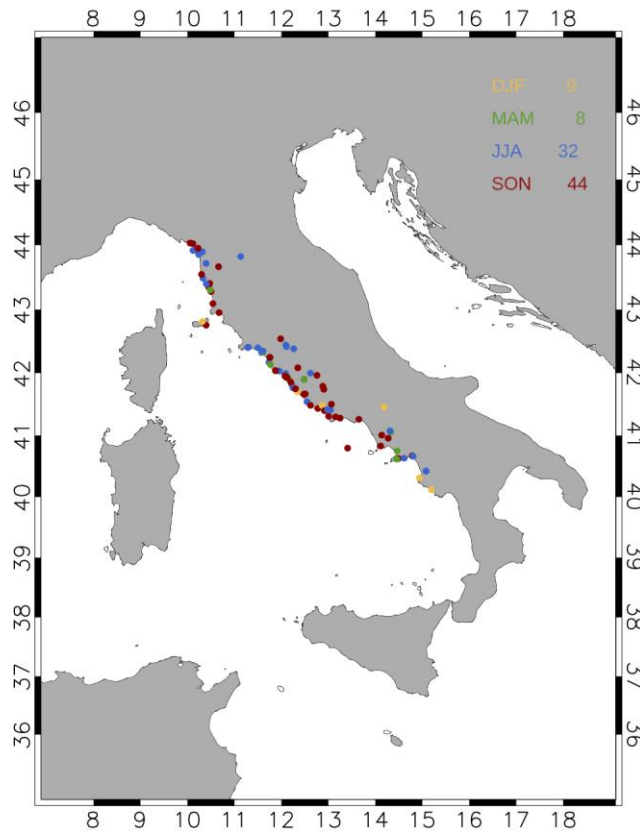
	at 06 UTC on 27 July)	levels = 40	SF_SURFACE = Noah Land Surface Model (Tewari et al., 2004)
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**Table 1** WRF model configuration (CTL run)

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Tornadoes in the Tyrrhenian regions of the Italian peninsula

A detailed climatological analysis over the whole Italy territory is out of the purposes of our paper, but we devote a few comments about it in Appendix B. In the present Section, in contrast, we focus on the environmental characteristics associated with the tornadoes in the central Tyrrhenian regions of the Italian peninsula (CT hereafter). As previously mentioned, the selection criteria described in section 2.1 allowed to retain 93 events in the CT regions, 52 of which refer to the Lazio region (Fig. 1).



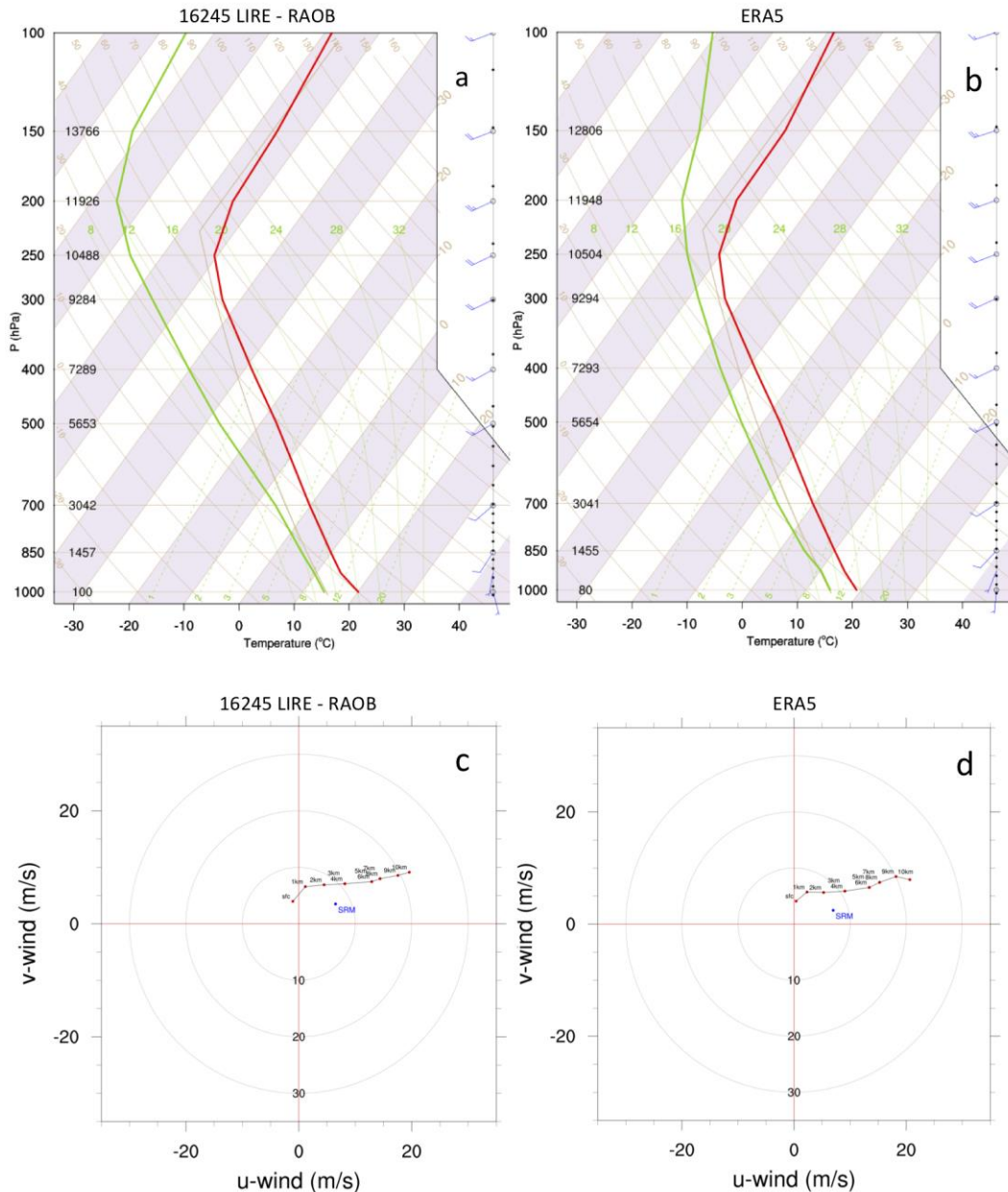
**Fig. 2.** Position of the 93 tornadoes during the 30-years period in the CT regions; the different colors refer to the different seasons.

The number of recorded tornadoes (Fig. 2) in autumn (September-October-November) appears noticeably greater than in other seasons (44 over a total of 93), with a high concentration on the western coasts of Lazio. The concentration of events near the coastline suggests an important role played by the sea, possibly tornadoes originated as waterspouts.

In the next sub-sections, we will analyze the main upper air atmospheric conditions and large-scale atmospheric patterns related to the 93 selected tornadoes occurred on CT.

##### 3.1.1 Composite sounding-derived parameters at Pratica di Mare

In this section we evaluate the upper air atmospheric characteristics at the coordinates of Pratica di Mare (the only close upper air observation site; Fig. 1b), in terms of thermodynamic diagrams, hodographs and sounding-derived parameters, both considering observations (RAOB) and reanalysis fields (ERA5), for the selected 63 proximity soundings in the CT regions. For a fair comparison, the average sounding was calculated considering the mandatory pressure levels (18 levels) from the surface to 5 hPa (see section 2.2) for both RAOB and ERA5 data. The composite thermodynamic diagrams (skew-T diagrams) and hodographs are reported in figure 3; specific sounding-derived parameters were also calculated and are shown in figure 4.



**Fig. 3.** Composite Skew-T diagrams and hodographs at Pratica di Mare from RAOB sounding (a,c) and from ERA5 reanalysis (b,d). (RAOB data Source: Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming).

The mean vertical profiles (very smooth due to the limited number of vertical levels we used) are shown in figure 3a-b for RAOB and ERA5 data, respectively, and indicate a general agreement. The ERA5 pseudo-soundings show higher humidity in the whole vertical column, particularly in the

1 low levels, thus represent potentially more unstable conditions. A moderate directional wind-shear  
2 is visible in the lower atmospheric layers (below 1500 m), due to weak-to-moderate south-  
3 southeasterlies near the surface that slightly intensify with height and become southwesterlies at  
4 850 hPa. However, the rotation in the low-levels is more apparent in the RAOB data than in the  
5 ERA5 reanalysis.

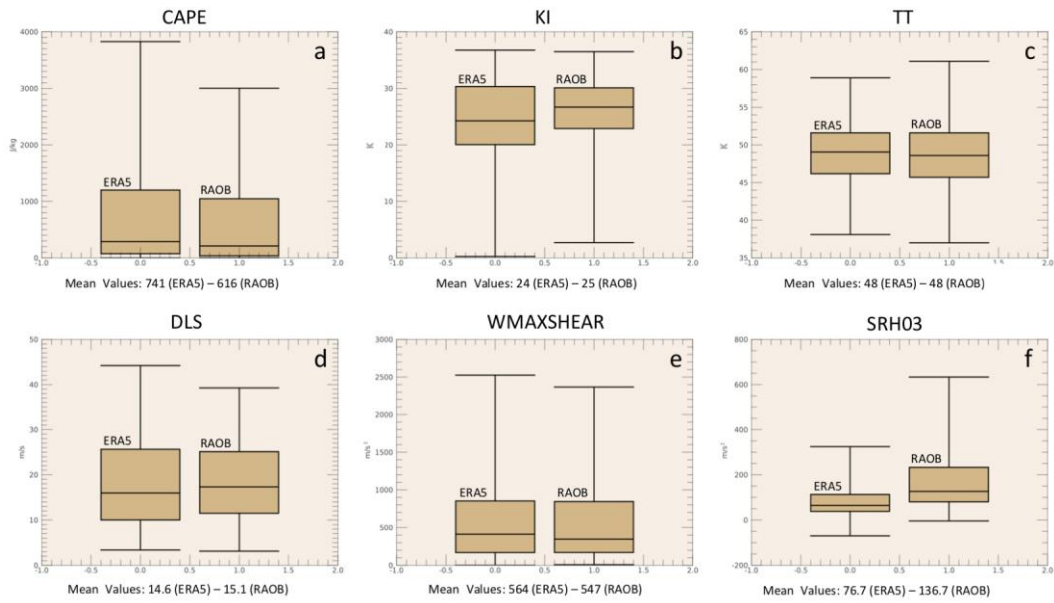
6 Figure 4 shows the box-and-whiskers plots for the composite CAPE, KI, TT, DLS, WMAXSHEAR  
7 and SRH03 (Table A1); below the x-axis the mean values are also reported. The observed and  
8 simulated mean values of the most unstable CAPE (MUCAPE) are quite similar in RAOB and  
9 ERA5 and are of moderate intensity ( $616 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  for RAOB and  $741 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  for ERA5). However, as  
10 discussed in Avolio and Miglietta (2021) and Miglietta et al. (2017a), a strong variability in CAPE  
11 may occur in the Mediterranean in a relatively short distance and time scale, thus these values may  
12 not be fully representative of the environmental conditions in which the supercells develop.  
13

14 All the others sounding-derived parameters show a good agreement between observations and  
15 simulations. The mean values of KI and TT are almost identical for RAOB and ERA5 (KI is about  
16 25 K and TT about 48 K, for both datasets). Also, the mean values of DLS are moderate, for both  
17 RAOB and ERA5, and in good agreement between them ( $15.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for RAOB and  $14.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for  
18 ERA5). In contrast, a general underestimation of SRH03 is apparent in ERA5, with mean values  
19 almost halved compared to observations ( $137 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  for RAOB and  $78 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  for ERA5). This may  
20 be a consequence of the smaller wind shear in the low levels (see the different wind direction near  
21 the ground in Figs 3a and 3b). Except for the SRH03, all variables reported in figure 4 show a  
22 satisfactory agreement also in terms of upper/lower extremes/quartiles and medians; however, for  
23 CAPE and DLS, the upper extremes in ERA5 data are higher than in RAOB. The mean values of  
24 the parameters are certainly greater than the average fields (see also ERA5 maps in section 3.1.2),  
25 although not extreme.  
26

27 Also, we tested the hypothesis that these moderate values may be due to the low representativeness  
28 of the Pratica di Mare station for the whole region; thus we repeated the analysis only for the  
29 tornadoes occurred in the Lazio region (55 events and 33 useful proximity soundings). Although  
30 some composite values are slightly higher (e.g., CAPE of  $802 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  for RAOB and  $906 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  for  
31 ERA5; SRH03  $159 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  for RAOB and  $95 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  for ERA5), the wind shear values, as well as KI  
32 and TT, are very close to those obtained using the whole dataset. Therefore, we rejected our  
33 hypothesis.  
34

35 The composite hodographs (figure 3c-d) show a very similar shape in the two cases (RAOB and  
36 ERA5), with moderate values of bulk shear. Mean southerlies are visible in the low levels and west-  
37 southwesterlies above; the storm relative motion is toward the right of the vertically averaged  
38 steering flow, following Corfidi et al. (1996) and Corfidi (2003). In this relatively straight  
39 hodograph, directional shear is noticeable only in the low levels. At upper levels the wind speed  
40 increases but the direction changes only slightly with height (unidirectional shear) favoring the  
41 formation of right-moving multicell systems, as pioneeringly assessed by Chisholm and Renick  
42 (1972) and Weisman and Klemp (1984). These types of multicell storms are generally regenerated  
43 by new cells, that are triggered on the flanks of older cells, which generally move following the  
44 mid-tropospheric winds (Wallace and Hobbs, 2006).  
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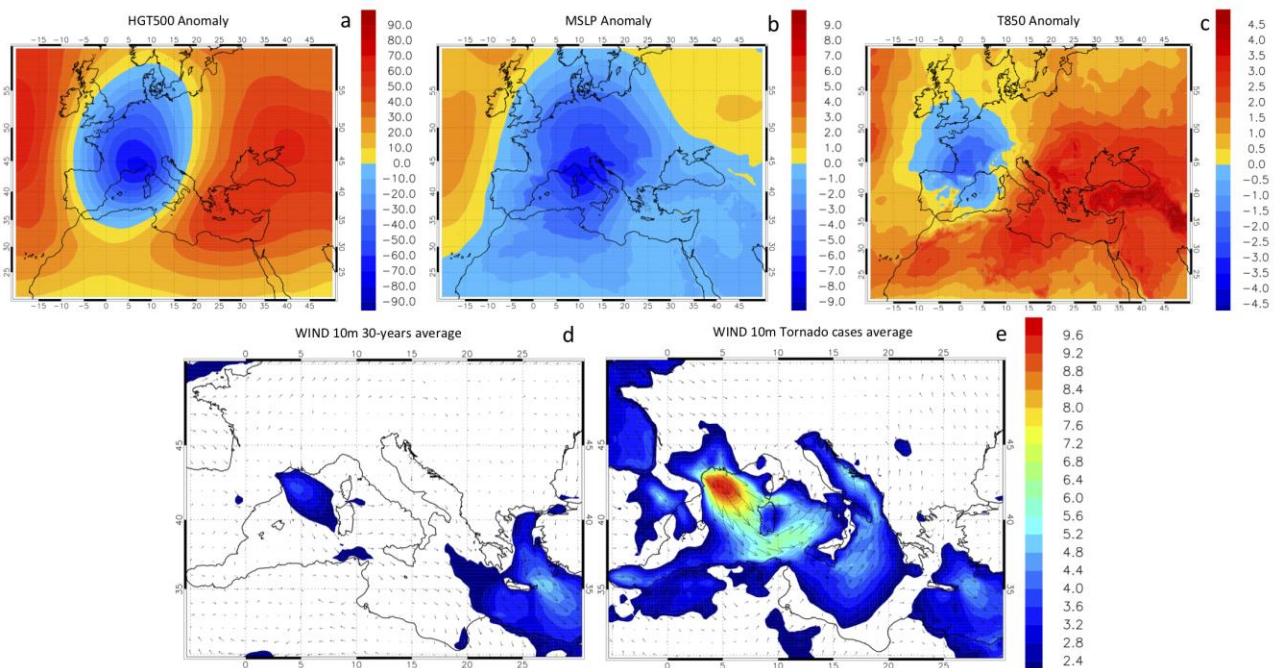




**Fig. 4.** Boxplots for CAPE (a), KI (b), TT (c), DLS (d), WMAXSHEAR (e) and SRH03 (f), for both ERA5 (box on the left) and RAOB (box on the right) data, related to the 63 selected proximity soundings. The 25th, the 50th (median) and the 75th percentiles are shown, as well as the extremes. Mean values are also reported on x-axis.

### 3.1.2 ERA5-derived meteorological and convective environments

To study the large-scale atmospheric patterns at the time of the tornadoes in the CT regions, the ERA5 anomaly fields are here reported in figure 5. We considered the HGT500, T850, MSLP and 10m wind fields; the anomalies were computed considering the difference between the fields averaged in the 72 selected events (see section 2.3) and the 30-year averages.



**Fig. 5.** Anomalies of the ERA5 fields of geopotential height at 500 hPa (m; (a)), mean sea level pressure (hPa; (b)), temperature at 850 hPa (K; (c)). Anomalies are calculated considering the mean values of the selected 72 tornado cases with respect to a 30-year period average (1990–2021). The 10-m wind (vector and speed; m/s) are reported for the 30-years average (d) and for the 72-tornado

cases average (e). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, and all the others in the manuscript, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

The synoptic configuration can be summarized as follows:

a) Considering the HGT500 anomalies (Fig. 5a), a deeper-than-average upper-level trough is centered over the northwestern Italy, just north of the Gulf of Genoa.

b) All the northern Italian regions are affected by lower-than-average mean sea level pressure (Fig. 5b), with values smaller than 8 hPa with respect to the mean; this suggests the occurrence of a typical synoptic configuration for this area, i.e. a cyclogenesis over the Gulf of Genoa, as confirmed by the mean MSLP map (not shown for brevity).

c) The deepening of the trough is related to the formation, and the transport toward the Mediterranean, of a low/middle-level cold air mass (Figs. 5c,e), which anyway remains quite far from the Tyrrhenian coast, that is still affected by a warm anomaly.

d) This colder air is advected toward the western Mediterranean Basin by higher-than-average surface winds (Figs. 5d-e). This configuration is also typical for the area, associated with Atlantic perturbations that penetrate the Mediterranean Basin through the Rhone Valley / Gulf of Lion. Figure 5e shows an area of stronger-than-average 10m wind just over this area, with mean values of about  $10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for the selected tornadoes cases. Central Italy, Lazio in particular, is hit by southwesterly currents carrying warmer and more humid air toward the Tyrrhenian coast.

Some of these maps show similarities with the results of Bagaglini et al. (2021), although they considered a dataset limited to 20 years and used different procedures.

Figure 6 shows the mean CAPE and DLS values for the 72 representative cases in the CT regions, in order to evaluate the spatial distribution of these fields. As already stated in section 3.1.1, the mean ERA5 convective fields are greater than the 30-year average (not shown), although not extreme.

Moderate-to-high values of the composite CAPE are noticeable on the whole Tyrrhenian Sea; in particular, a local maximum (values greater than  $800 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ) is present just off the Tyrrhenian coast of Lazio. Regarding the composite DLS, the map confirms the occurrence of moderate DLS over central Italy (as already assessed in section 3.1.1) and the presence of higher shear values over the Sicily Channel and the southern Tyrrhenian, with relative maxima on the western coasts, probably due to the friction generated by the land-sea contrast.

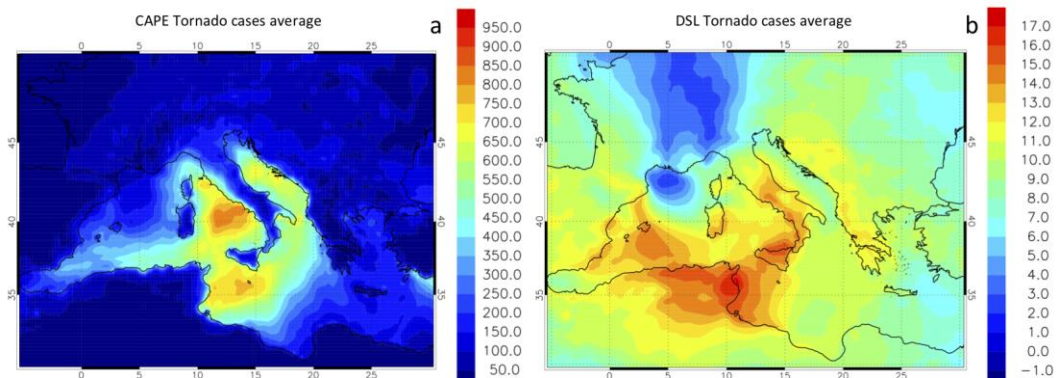
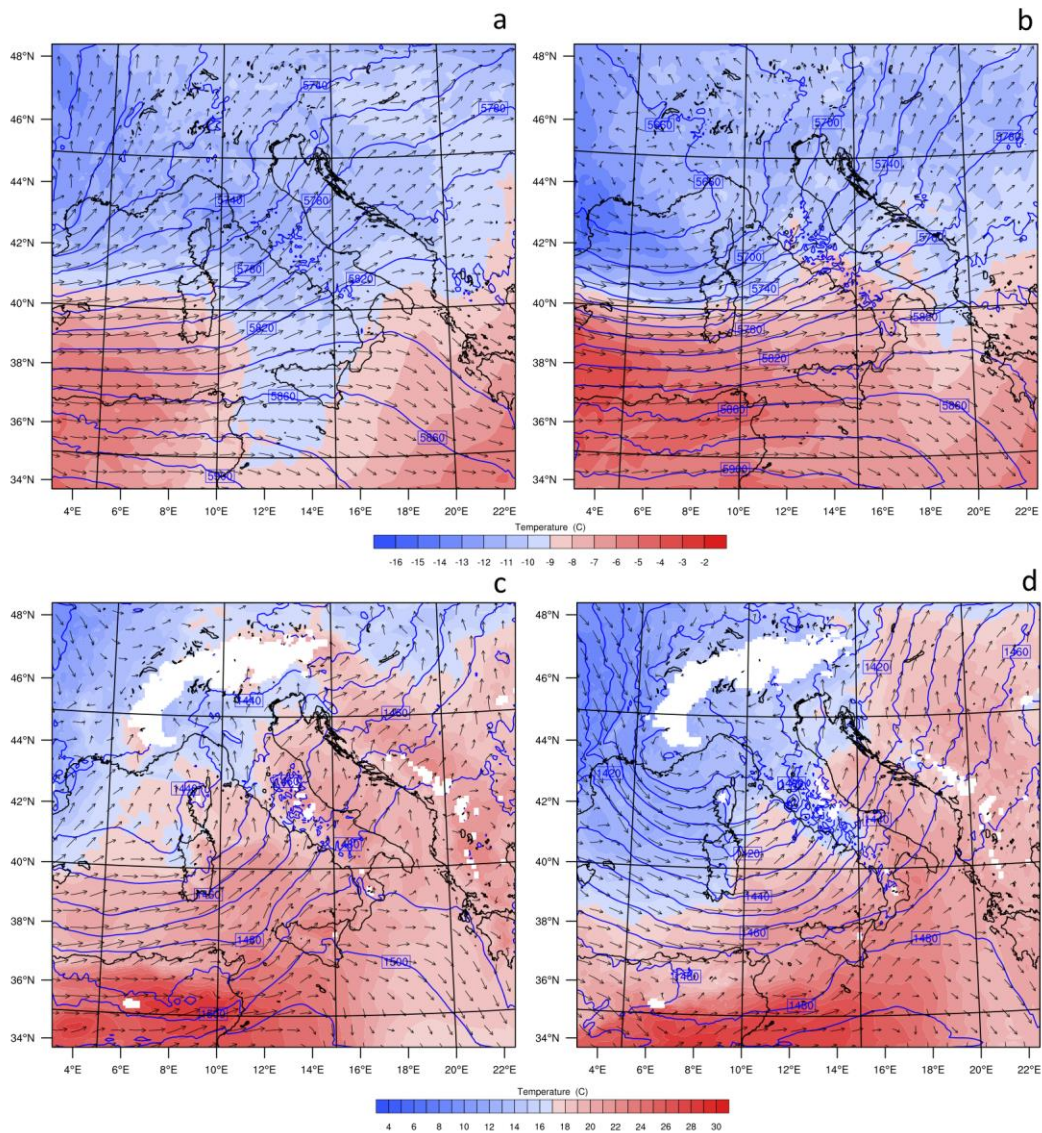


Fig. 6. Convective available potential energy ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ; (a)) and deep layer wind shear ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (b)) for the 72-tornado cases average.

### 3.2 The 28 July 2019 case study

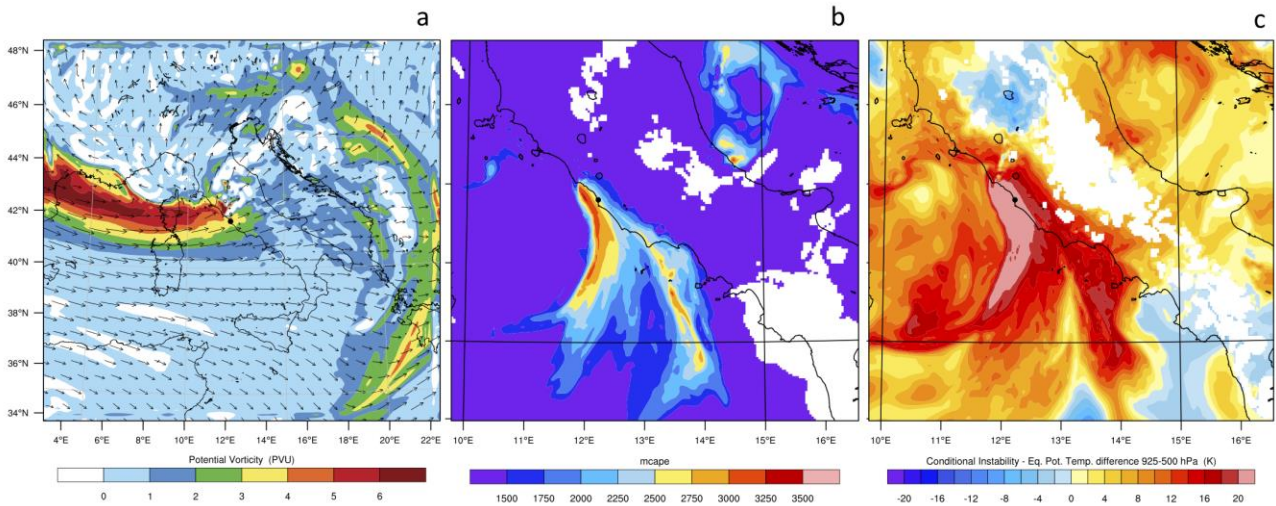




**Fig. 8.** WRF-outer grid (9 km resolution): temperature (colours, °C), geopotential height (blue-contours, m) and wind vectors at 500 hPa (a,b) and 850 hPa (c,d), on 12:00 UTC, 27-07-2019 (left column) and 00:00 UTC, 28-07-2019 (right column).

Large-scale forcing and mesoscale features contribute to severe convection in the area. A potential vorticity streamer was clearly visible over the western Mediterranean (Fig. 9a), associated to a jet stream developed on the southern flank of the trough. This upper-level PV anomaly, and the related conditions of baroclinic instability, may enhance the cyclonic circulation at the surface, favoring air–sea interaction (Homar et al., 2003; Federico et al., 2007). In the same region, a maximum of MUCAPE is clearly visible (Fig. 9b; values greater than  $3000 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ), mostly due to strong equivalent potential temperature difference (greater than 20 K) between 925 hPa and 500 hPa (Fig. 9c). This tongue of high MUCAPE corresponds well to the location of the cold front.

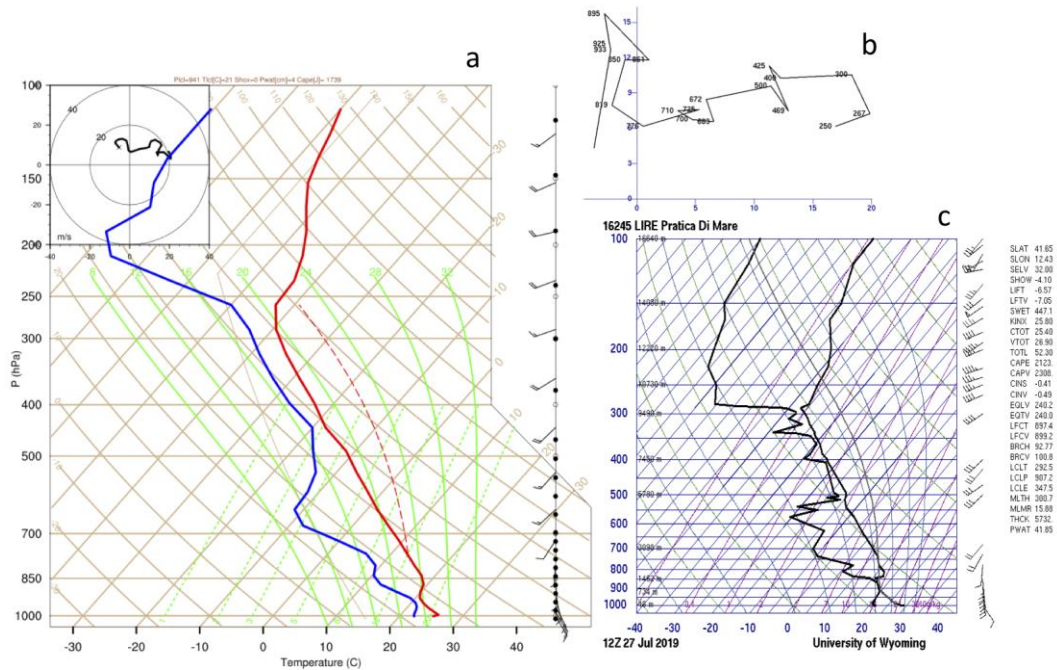
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**Fig. 9.** a) WRF-outer grid (9 km resolution) Potential Vorticity (PV) (colours, PVU) and wind vectors at 300 hPa; b) WRF 3 km grid spacing MUCAPE ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ); c) WRF 3 km grid spacing Equivalent Potential Temperature difference 925-500 hPa ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). All maps refer to 00:00 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location.

### 3.2.2 Mesoscale analysis

In order to analyze the pre-convective environmental characteristics, the soundings / pseudo-soundings in Pratica di Mare at 12 UTC on 27 July are here considered. The comparison of RAOB and WRF model outputs shown in Fig. 10 reveal that the model is able to reproduce accurately the wind and temperature profiles. Vertical wind shear is present in the lower atmospheric layers (below 2000 m), due to weak southeasterlies winds near the surface that rotate from southwest and intensify with height. The temperature profiles show saturation at about 900 hPa and an inversion layer at about 800 hPa (at 850 hPa in WRF model output). This configuration is typical of “loaded-gun” soundings, where the instability can be suddenly released when the uplift is sufficient to remove the convective inhibition. At this time the simulated MUCAPE is high ( $1740 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ), but even higher in the observations ( $2130 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ).



**Fig. 10.** Skew-T diagrams and hodographs at Pratica di Mare from 1 km grid spacing WRF CTL run (a) and from RAOB sounding (b,c); the maps refer to 12:00 UTC, 27-07-2019. (RAOB data Source: Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming).

The observed and simulated hodographs are also in good agreement, showing a clockwise low-level curvature that indicates conditions favorable to supercells development (Weisman and Klemp, 1984; 1986). At upper levels the shear appears nearly unidirectional, similar to that found for the 30-years composite analysis (section 3.1.1) and more favorable to the development of multicell convective systems (Chisholm and Renick, 1972).

Figure 11 represents a multi-panel of observed and simulated fields between 00 and 01 UTC, every 30 minutes, around the time of tornado occurrence. The first row shows the strokes number at 00 and 01 UTC. A cluster of strokes is visible just over the area of the tornado, moving eastward; its spatial distribution can be superimposed to the observed maximum values of the composite reflectivity (second row), suggesting that lightning flashes provide good information on the spatio-temporal identification of tornado-spawning cells (Avolio and Miglietta, 2021). The maximum reflectivity simulated in the inner grid of the CTL run (third row) is consistent with the observed patterns (second row). The values of vertical wind speed at 700 hPa (fourth row) and Updraft Helicity (UH) (fifth row) are shown to represent the intensity of the supercells; the usefulness of UH in representing mid-level mesocyclonic rotation is known, using a typical threshold of  $UH = 50 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$  (Clark et al., 2012).

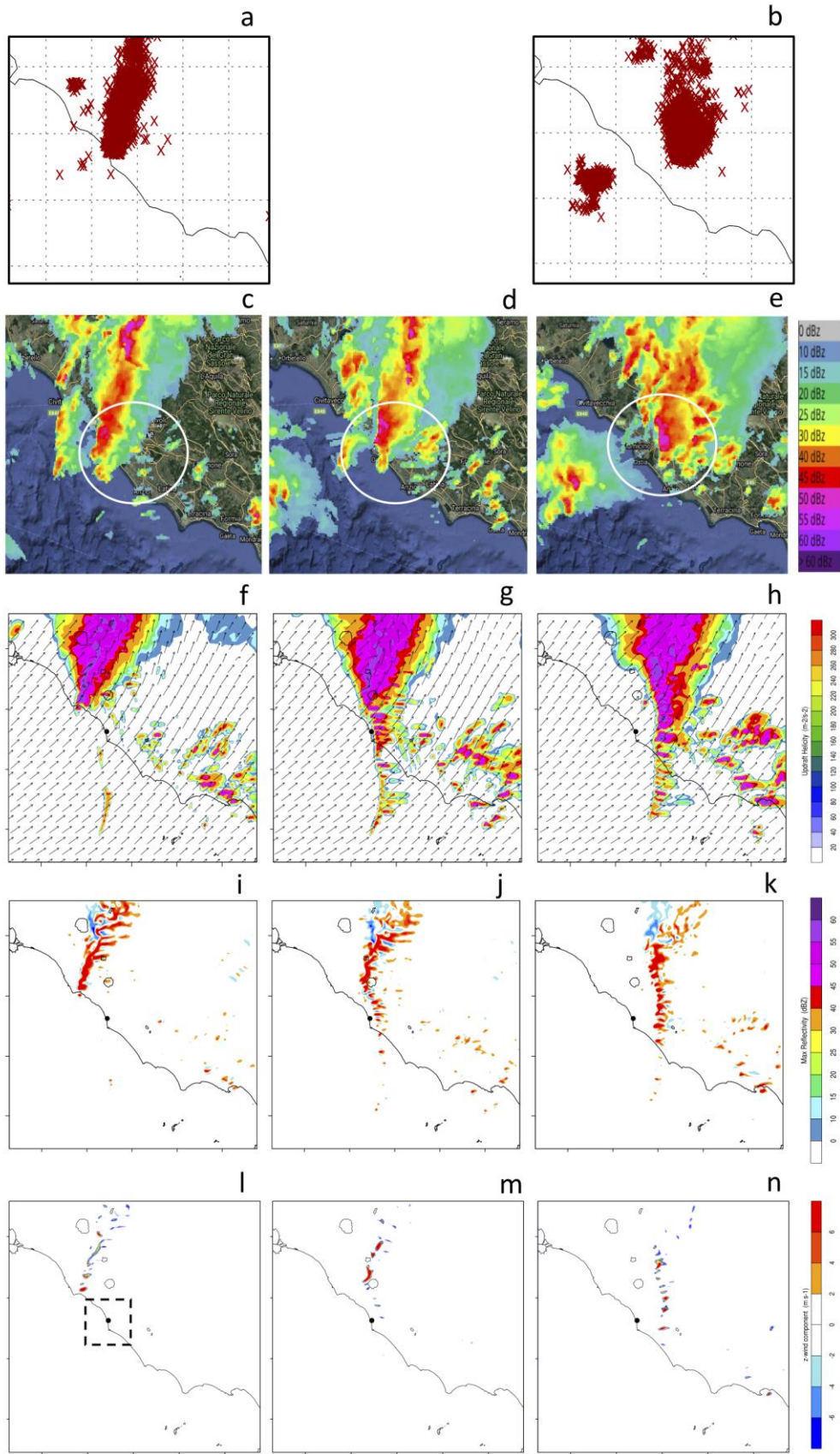
The sequence of the UH maps shows the eastward motion of a few scattered cells crossing the Lazio region, with values greater than  $300 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ , especially in northern and southern ends of the convective line; the highest values are simulated few km north of Fiumicino. Similarly, the maps of vertical wind component at 700 hPa reveal a linear pattern of upward motion, crossing the tornado location and the areas north of it. The shape of the system, and the radar reflectivity maps (Figs. 11c-e; the ‘yellowish-orange-red’ structure in particular), suggest that the tornado may have been caused by a Quasi-Linear Convective System (QLCS) (Weisman and Davis, 1998), i.e. a linearly-oriented zone of high convection (thunderstorms). QLCSs are occasionally associated to tornadoes, which generally tend to be weaker than those generated by isolated supercell thunderstorms (e.g. Trapp et al., 2005).

A QLCS is a type of mesoscale convective system that generally moves in east-west direction parallel to a cold front and, in its evolution, can sometimes form a bowing segment (bow echo). The main ingredients for the formation of these storms are the presence of moisture, lift and instability

1 conditions; a cold front, which separates cooler air from warm and moist air, is also typical.  
2 Convergence in the lower levels can enhance its potential. The thermodynamic large-scale  
3 conditions favorable for the genesis of this type of multicell systems are moist southerly flows at  
4 low levels, and drier westerly / southwesterly flows aloft, with the storm moving along the mid-  
5 tropospheric wind (Wallace and Hobbs, 2006).

6 All the ingredients mentioned above are found in our case study. In particular, Figure 11 shows that  
7 the linear convective system is located ahead of the previously identified cold front (section 3.2.1;  
8 figs 7a and 8) and crosses the tornado location few minutes before 00:30 UTC, in good agreement  
9 with the tornado report. The 950 hPa convergence/divergence fields and the wind vectors at 00:30  
10 UTC (Fig. 12) show a strong low-level convergence, with southerly winds near the surface on the  
11 southern side of the convergence line and westerlies on the western side; to this situation  
12 corresponds, at the upper-level, divergence and southwesterly winds (not shown). Observing the  
13 motion of the linear structure (Fig. 11) and considering the WRF horizontal winds at various levels  
14 (figs. 8, 9), the steering flow for the system is represented by the westerlies / southwesterly upper  
15 tropospheric wind.  
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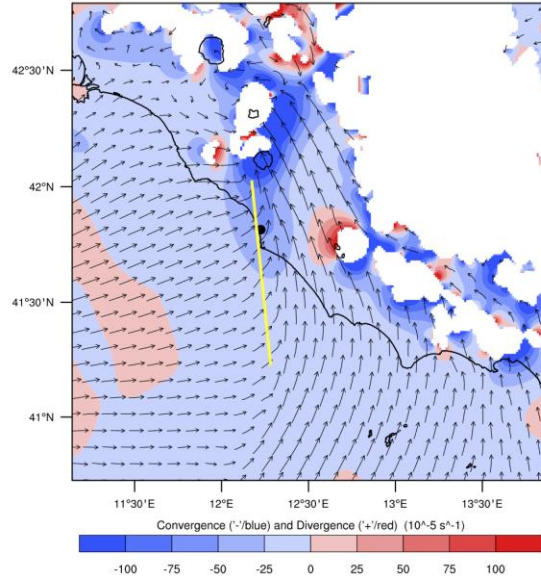
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**Fig. 11.** Lightning activity (cloud-to-ground and intra-cloud data recorded by the LINET network; Betz et al., 2009. The electric discharges are grouped within a 10 km radius and the maps shows the sum of the strokes over 10 min) at 00:00 (a) and 01:00 UTC (b); composite radar reflectivity (dBZ; second row). Data from the automatic system “Dewetra” of the Italian Department of Civil Protection, [www.mydewetra.org](http://www.mydewetra.org)); WRF maximum reflectivity (dBZ; third row); WRF vertical velocity at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; fourth row); WRF



Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; fifth row). All WRF maps refer to the CTL configuration (1 km grid spacing) at 00:00 (first column), 00:30 (second column) and 01:00 (third column) UTC. In the lower left panel, a black dotted square identifies a 40x40 km box around the tornado location (black dot).



**Fig. 12.** 950 hPa divergence (positive values; red) / convergence (negative values; blue) ( $10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) fields and wind vectors at 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location; the yellow line identifies the convergence line.

### 3.2.3 Sensitivity tests and qualitative model performance evaluation

Some sensitivity tests were also performed to evaluate the role of the SST, the orography, and the surface fluxes in the evolution of this event. For this purpose, we identified a box around the tornado location and calculated the maximum value of some meteorological fields and instability parameters in a time-interval centered at the time of tornado occurrence. Such an approach was adopted in the recent past. For example, Avolio and Miglietta (2021) evaluated the maximum of some instability indices for four tornadoes affecting southern Italy; Grieser and Haines (2020) proposed a tornado risk climatology over Europe, based on the maximum daily values of CAPE, DLS, and significant tornado parameter (STP) in grid cells of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ; Chernokulsky et al. (2020) calculated the maxima of several thermodynamic and kinematic variables within a 100-km area around the location of some observed tornadoes (in the Ural Region) in a 6 h interval.

Here, we consider a small box of 40x40 km (see the black dotted square in the lower-left panel in Fig. 11), and model outputs every 30 minutes from 23:00 to 02:00 UTC.

Having already ascertained the importance of the SST in tornadic supercells in the southeastern Italian regions (Miglietta et al., 2017b; Avolio and Miglietta 2021), we performed three tests aimed at evaluating, also for the present case, the role played by the SST. In particular, in the “MUR\_SST” run the initial SST field in the CTL run (taken from the ECMWF-IFS analysis) was replaced by the observed high-resolution (1 km) MUR SST (see Section 3.2.1); in the “SST+1” (“SST-1”) run the initial SST values were increased (decreased) uniformly all over the domain by 1 K with respect to the CTL run.

The role of the orography was analyzed in the “HALFTOPO” run, performed by halving the height of the terrain in all the WRF model domains; lastly, the role of sensible and latent heat fluxes was investigated by turning-off the surface fluxes from 18:00 UTC onward (“NOFLUX” run).

Fig. 13 shows the time series of the maximum simulated values of UH (a), vertical wind speed at 700 hPa (W700) (b), SRH03 (c), DLS (d), maximum reflectivity (MAX DBZ) (e), and SCP (f) (see

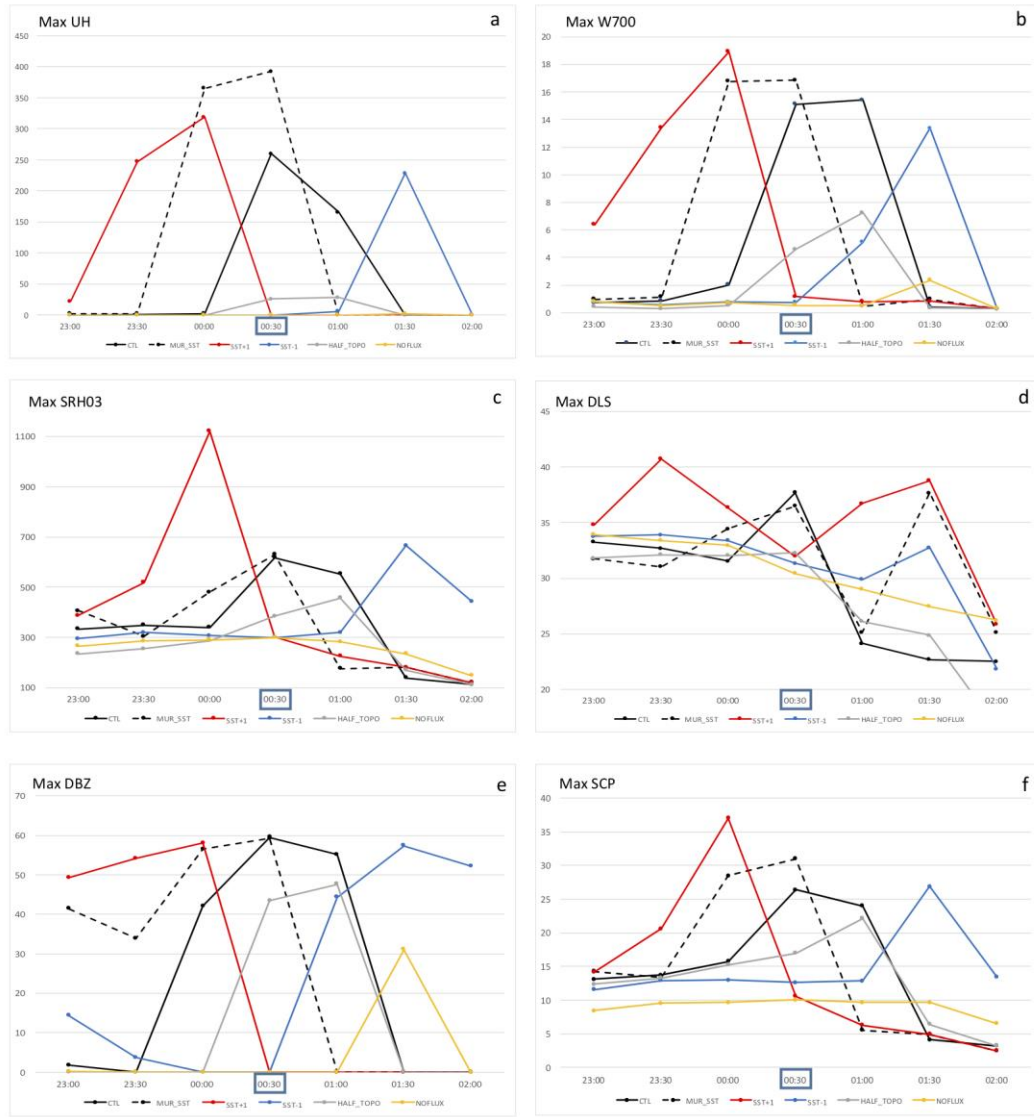
1 Table A1) in the 40 x 40 km box for the CTL (black solid lines), MUR\_SST (black dotted line),  
2 SST+1 (red), SST-1 (blue), NOFLUX (yellow), and HALFTOPO (grey) tests, during the selected  
3 time interval (outputs every 30 minutes).

4 For the CTL run, the maximum values are simulated around the time of tornado occurrence, at  
5 about 00:30 UTC, confirming that the simulation is able to reproduce the most favorable conditions  
6 for intense convection at the right time. The run “MUR\_SST” exhibits a similar evolution, but with  
7 slightly higher values for most of the instability parameters. The run SST+1 produces an  
8 intensification of the updraft rotation in the supercell as well as greater vertical velocity and higher  
9 values for most of the instability parameters, and an anticipation in the evolution of the system (the  
10 opposite is observed for the run SST-1). In fact, higher SST implies a warmer and moister lower  
11 troposphere, thus more unstable conditions and potentially stronger updrafts are expected.

12 The maximum CAPE in the CTL run exhibits extreme values ( $> 3000 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ), as seen in section  
13 3.2.1; also, DLS and SRH03 values appear much higher than average (DLS  $\approx 38 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , SRH  $\approx 600$   
14  $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ ). Other instability parameters show very high values at the time of tornado, confirming the  
15 favorable conditions of the environment to the supercell development (EHI=8.2; KI=46.4 K;  
16 WMAXSHEAR=2330  $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ ; SCP=26; STP=4). Also, updraft rotation appears moderate-to-high  
17 (UH=260  $\text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ ; W700=15  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ). The values of the instability parameters are much higher than for  
18 a QLCS-related tornado in Spain (Bech et al., 2015), but, compared to the Ionian Italian tornadoes  
19 (Avolio and Miglietta, 2021), generated by isolated supercells, the values appear generally smaller,  
20 mainly due to the high low-level wind shear present in these cases.

21 The HALFTOPO run shows lower values for all parameters compared to CTL (Fig. 13); in  
22 particular, the halved orography produced a drastic decrease in the DLS and the SRH03, and,  
23 consequently, in UH and W700. However, moderate values of maximum reflectivity still appear  
24 and the structure of the convective system (Fig. C1; Appendix C) is only slightly modified, with a  
25 shift of the orographic triggering northward, closer to the Apennines.

26 Turning-off the surface heat fluxes leads to a strong inhibition of convective activity (in figure 13  
27 the NOFLUX curves are the lowest). Regarding the structure of the storm, Figure C1 shows that the  
28 suppression of the fluxes causes the lost of the linear structure of the convective system, which  
29 appears scattered and weaker, especially on its southern side.  
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**Fig. 13.** Time series of the maximum simulated values of UH ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; (a)), vertical wind speed at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (b)), SRH03 ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; (c)), DLS ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (d)), maximum composite reflectivity (MAX DBZ) (dBZ; (e)) and SCP (f) in the  $40 \times 40$  km box for the CTL (black solid lines), MUR\_SST (black dotted line), SST+1 (red), SST-1 (blue), NOFLUX (yellow), and HALFTOPO (grey) tests, during the selected time interval reported on the x-axis.

Lastly, further considering the modification of the trajectories and the structure of the tornado spawning cells as the SST varies, figure C2 (Appendix C) shows how the SST+1 (SST-1) run anticipates (delays) the crossing of the convective line over the tornado location (see also Fig. 13), in agreement with Avolio and Miglietta (2021), where the authors hypothesized that the acceleration can be attributed to the DMM (downward momentum mixing) mechanism (Hayes et al., 1989).

#### 4. Summary and Conclusions

The present work focuses on the study of tornado events on one of the Italian hotspots for such extreme weather episodes, the central Tyrrhenian regions of the peninsula. Starting from the climatology of the significant tornadoes based on the 1990-2021 years, a synoptic/mesoscale analysis, performed through the use of both radiosonde observations and ERA5 reanalysis, permits

1 to identify the main synoptic patterns and the main mesoscale characteristics associated with these  
2 events.

3 93 tornadoes were identified in the area and in the considered period. A pronounced upper-level  
4 trough over the central Mediterranean Sea and a low-pressure over northwestern Italy dominate the  
5 mean synoptic conditions associated with the occurrence of these tornadoes, thus the tornado-  
6 spawning cells generally reach the central Tyrrhenian coast pushed by southwesterly winds. During  
7 these events, higher-than-average surface winds entered the western Mediterranean through the  
8 Rhône Valley / Gulf of Lion, the favored gateway of the Atlantic perturbations for the  
9 Mediterranean basin. The mean values of some instability parameters are moderate-to-high, with  
10 CAPE of about  $700 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  and deep layer wind shear of about  $15 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The analysis of the mean  
11 wind profiles, performed at a representative sounding site, suggests an environment favorable to the  
12 development of multicell systems.

13 A specific tornado case study is also analyzed in this work, concerning a significant event (EF2)  
14 that hit the central Tyrrhenian coast on 28 July 2019. The WRF model satisfactorily simulates  
15 conditions favorable to severe convection and the presence of a linear convective system that  
16 triggered the tornado. This is the first time that such a triggering mechanism is identified for a  
17 tornado in Italy.

18 The model simulates very high values for the instability parameters/indices usually employed to  
19 diagnose the possibility of severe convection. Specific sensitivity tests confirm the important role of  
20 the SST in the tornado development, while the orography determines the area where convection was  
21 triggered; thus, their accurate representation permits to reproduce properly the structure of the  
22 convective system.

23 The satisfactory simulation of the EF2 tornado studied in the present paper confirms the potential  
24 benefit of an opportunely tuned mesoscale numerical modeling system, hopefully integrated with  
25 advanced observational tools, both for the identification of the environmental conditions that favor  
26 severe convection and for the development of a warning system dedicated to the prediction of such  
27 severe events (Miglietta and Rotunno, 2016). This is a relevant issue due to the high impact of these  
28 phenomena, which will be further exacerbated as a consequence of the climate change (e.g., Seeley  
29 and Romps, 2015; Púčik et al., 2017).

### 36 37 38 **Acknowledgments**

39 The Italian Department of Civil Protection is acknowledged for the radar images (derived by the  
40 automatic system Dewetra). LINET data were granted by Nowcast GmbH, within a scientific  
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43  
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47 *commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.*  
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## Figure captions

**Fig. 1.** The main locations cited in the text. On the right: 1 km grid spacing WRF model inner domain and terrain height (m).

**Fig. 2.** Position of the 93 tornadoes during the 30-years period in the CT regions; the different colors refer to the different seasons.

**Fig. 3.** Composite Skew-T diagrams and hodographs at Pratica di Mare from RAOB sounding (a,c) and from ERA5 reanalysis (b,d). (RAOB data Source: Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming).

**Fig. 4.** Boxplots for CAPE (a), KI (b), TT (c), DLS (d), WMAXSHEAR (e) and SRH03 (f), for both ERA5 (box on the left) and RAOB (box on the right) data, related to the 63 selected proximity soundings. The 25th, the 50th (median) and the 75th percentiles are shown, as well as the extremes. Mean values are also reported on x-axis.

**Fig. 5.** Anomalies of the ERA5 fields of geopotential height at 500 hPa (m; (a)), mean sea level pressure (hPa; (b)), temperature at 850 hPa (K; (c)). Anomalies are calculated considering the mean values of the selected 72 tornado cases with respect to a 30-year period average (1990–2021). The 10-m wind (vector and speed; m/s) are reported for the 30-years average (d) and for the 72-tornado cases average (e). (*For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, and all the others in the manuscript, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.*)

**Fig. 6.** Convective available potential energy ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ; (a)) and deep layer wind shear ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (b)) for the 72-tornado cases average.

**Fig. 7.** (a) surface map (sea level pressure [hPa] and weather fronts) at 00:00 UTC, 28-07-2019 (source: metoffice.gov.uk). (b) daily Multi-Scale Ultra High Resolution (MUR) Sea Surface Temperature (SST) anomaly field for the 27-07-2019, computed considering a 2003-2014 climatological mean (JPL Mur MEaSURES Project, 2015).

**Fig. 8.** WRF-outer grid (9 km resolution): temperature (colours,  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), geopotential height (blue-contours, m) and wind vectors at 500 hPa (a,b) and 850 hPa (c,d), on 12:00 UTC, 27-07-2019 (left column) and 00:00 UTC, 28-07-2019 (right column).

**Fig. 9.** a) WRF-outer grid (9 km resolution) Potential Vorticity (PV) (colours, PVU) and wind vectors at 300 hPa; b) WRF 3 km grid spacing MUCAPE ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ); c) WRF 3 km grid spacing Equivalent Potential Temperature difference 925-500 hPa ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). All maps refer to 00:00 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location.

**Fig. 10.** Skew-T diagrams and hodographs at Pratica di Mare from 1 km grid spacing WRF CTL run (a) and from RAOB sounding (b,c); the maps refer to 12:00 UTC, 27-07-2019. (RAOB data Source: Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming).

**Fig. 11.** Lightning activity (cloud-to-ground and intra-cloud data recorded by the LINET network; Betz et al., 2009. The electric discharges are grouped within a 10 km radius and the maps shows the sum of the strokes over 10 min) at 00:00 (a) and 01:00 UTC (b); composite radar reflectivity (dBZ; second row. Data from the automatic system “Dewetra” of the Italian Department of Civil Protection, www.mydewetra.org); WRF maximum reflectivity (dBZ; third row); WRF vertical velocity at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; fourth row); WRF Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; fifth row). All WRF maps refer to the CTL configuration (1 km grid spacing) at 00:00 (first column), 00:30 (second column) and 01:00 (third column) UTC. In the lower left panel, a black dotted square identifies a 40x40 km box around the tornado location (black dot).

**Fig. 12.** 950 hPa divergence (positive values; red) / convergence (negative values; blue) ( $10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) fields and wind vectors at 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location; the yellow line identifies the convergence line.

**Fig. 13.** Time series of the maximum simulated values of UH ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; (a)), vertical wind speed at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (b)), SRH03 ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; (c)), DLS ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; (d)), maximum composite reflectivity (MAX DBZ) (dBZ; (e)) and SCP (f) in the 40x40 km box for the CTL (black solid lines), MUR\_SST (black dotted line), SST+1 (red), SST-1 (blue), NOFLUX (yellow), and HALFTOPO (grey) tests, during the selected time interval reported on the x-axis.

**Fig. B1** Position of the 445 tornadoes during the 30-years period in Italy; the different colors refer to the different seasons.

**Fig. C1** WRF maximum reflectivity (dBZ; first row); WRF vertical velocity at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; second row); WRF Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; third row), for the HALFTOPO (first column) and NOFLUX (second column) tests. All maps refer to the 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location.

**Fig. C2** WRF Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; third row), for the SST-1 (left), CTL (center) and SST+1 (right) tests. All maps refer to the 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019.

## APPENDIX A

In this Appendix, the equations for some calculated parameters considered in the manuscript are shown (Table A1).

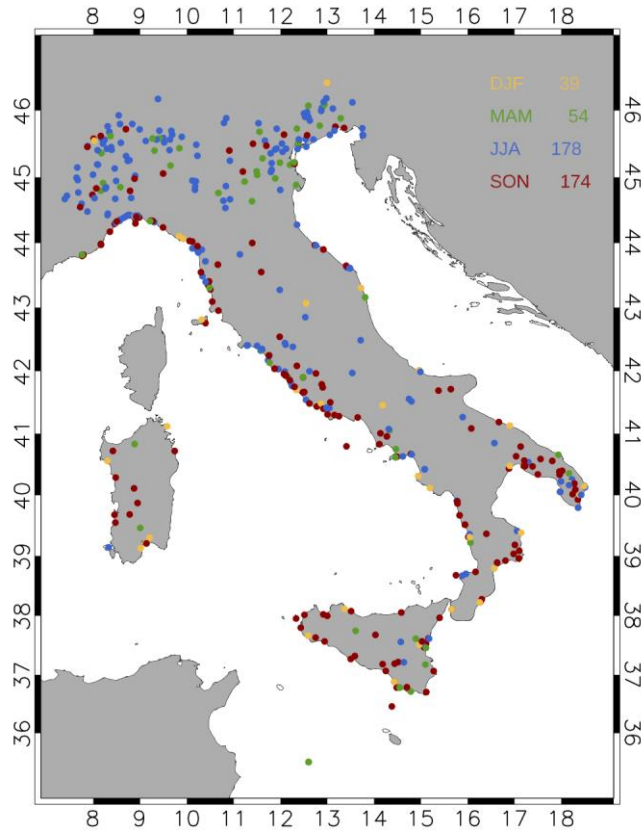
Parameter Equation	Long Name	Units	References
$DLS =  \mathbf{v}_{500} - \mathbf{v}_{1000} $	<i>Deep Layer Shear</i>	$m\ s^{-1}$	<i>Weisman and Klemp (1982)</i>
$SRH03 = -\int_{1000}^{700} \mathbf{k} \cdot \left[ (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{c}) \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial z} \right] dz$	<i>Storm Relative Helicity (0-3 km)</i>	$m^2\ s^{-2}$	<i>Davies-Jones et al. (1990)</i>
$WMAXSHEAR = \sqrt{2 \cdot CAPE} \cdot DSL$	-	$m^2\ s^{-2}$	<i>Taszarek et al. (2017)</i>
$UH = \int_{2\ km}^{5\ km} (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{k}) \cdot \zeta dz$	<i>Updraft Helicity</i>	$m^2\ s^{-2}$	<i>Kain et al. (2008)</i>
$KI = (T_{850} - T_{500}) + Td_{850} - (T_{700} - Td_{700})$	<i>K index</i>	K	<i>George (1960)</i>
$TT = (T_{850} - T_{500}) + (Td_{850} - T_{500})$	<i>Total Totals index</i>	K	<i>Miller (1972)</i>
$SCP = (CAPE / 1000) \cdot (SRH03 / 50) \cdot (DLS / 20)$	<i>Supercell Composite Parameter</i>	-	<i>Thompson et al. (2004, 2012) (modified formulation)</i>
$STP = (sbCAPE / 1500) \cdot (2000 - sbLCL) / 1000 \cdot (SRH01 / 150) \cdot (DLS / 20)$	<i>Significant Tornado Parameter</i>	-	<i>Thompson et al. (2004, 2012) (modified formulation)</i>
$EHI = (CAPE \cdot SRH03) / (160000)$	<i>Energy Helicity Index</i>	-	<i>Davies and Johns (1993)</i>

**Table A1.** Equations, units and references for the calculated parameters.  $\mathbf{v}$  is the horizontal wind vector (the numbers, when no units appear, refer to the vertical pressure level);  $\mathbf{k}$  is the upward unit vector;  $\mathbf{c}$  is the storm motion vector;  $\zeta$  is the vertical component of vorticity;  $T$  is the temperature;  $Td$  is the dew point temperature; CAPE is the Convective Available Potential Energy; LCL is the Lifted Condensation Level; the prefix “sb” means “Surface Based”.

## APPENDIX B

In this Appendix, the figure B1 shows the positions of the 445 tornadoes during the 30-years period; the different colors refer to the different seasons. This update climatology of EF1+ tornadoes confirms that the Italian most affected areas by tornadoes are: The Po Valley, the Central Italy Tyrrhenian coasts (CT in the following) (Lazio in particular) and the South-Eastern Italy (SE in the following) (Apulia in particular) (see Fig. 1 for the locations).

About the 80% of EF1+ tornadoes in Italy occur, more or less equally, during the summer (178 events) and the autumn (174 events).



**Fig. B1** Position of the 445 tornadoes during the 30-years period in Italy; the different colors refer to the different seasons.

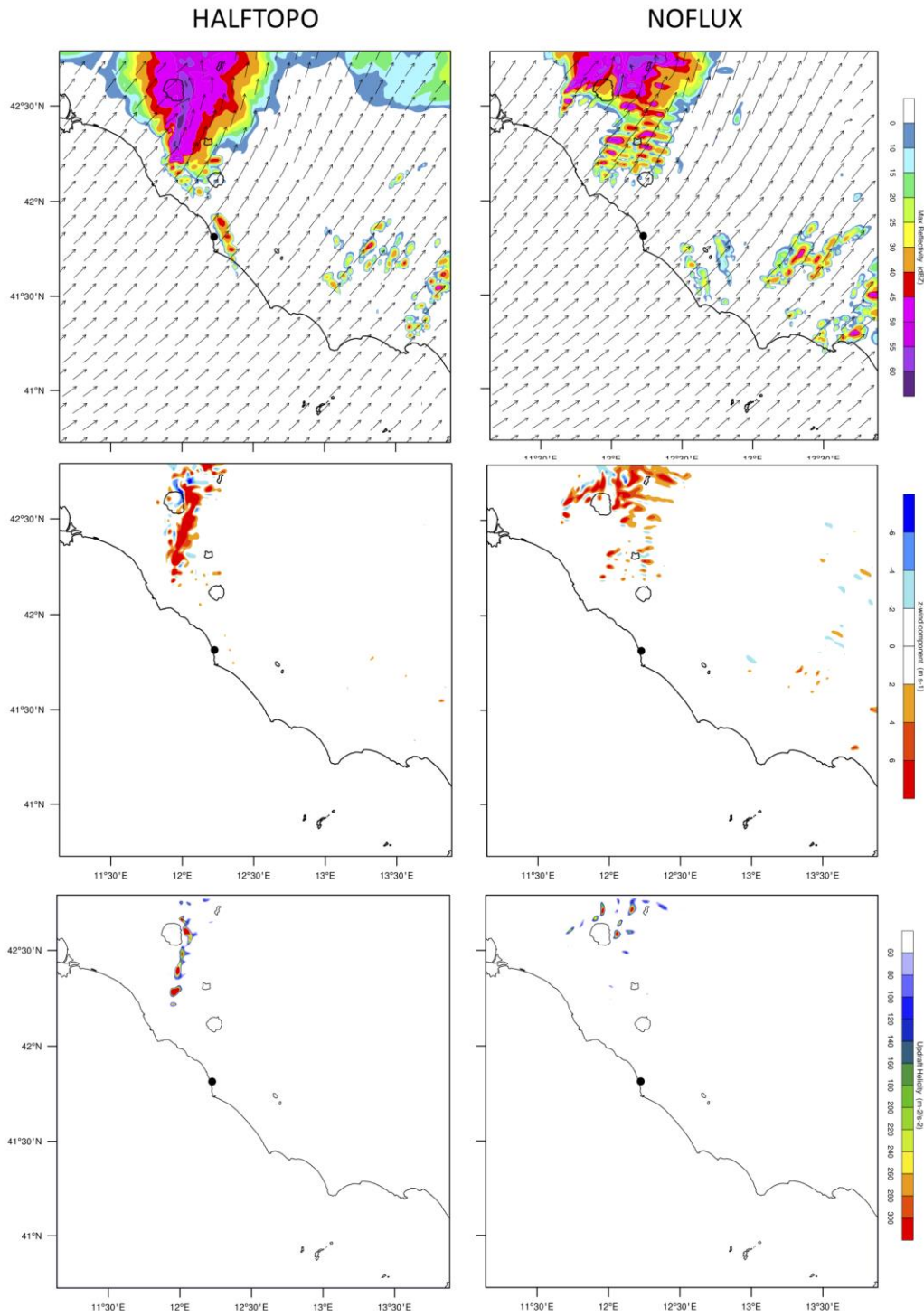
## APPENDIX C

In this Appendix, a graphical – qualitative comparison between the sensitivity runs SST-1, SST+1, HALFTOPO and NOFLUX, discussed in section 3.2.3.1, are reported.

In figure C1 are reported the MAX\_DBZ (first row), W700 (second row) and UH (third row) fields, valid at the 00:30 UTC, for the HALFTOPO and NOFLUX tests.

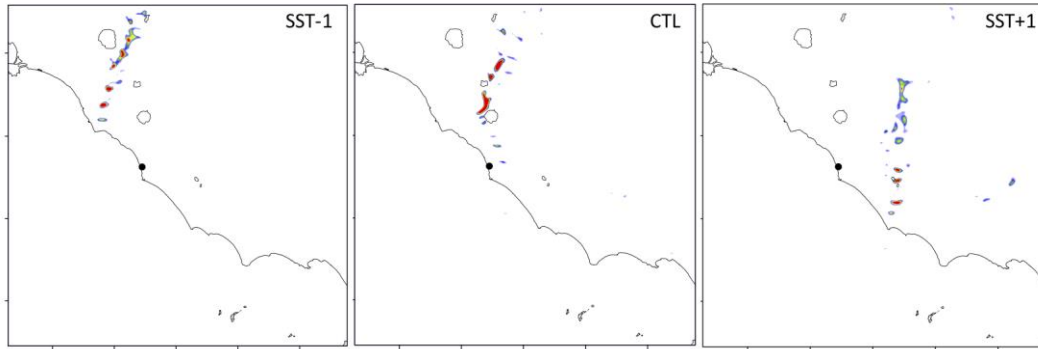
In figure C2 is reported the UH, valid at the 00:30 UTC, for the SST-1, CTL and SST+1 tests.

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**Fig. C1** WRF maximum reflectivity (dBZ; first row); WRF vertical velocity at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ; second row); WRF Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; third row), for the HALFTOPO (first column) and NOFLUX (second column) tests. All maps refer to the 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019. The black dot indicates the tornado location.





**Fig. C2** WRF Updraft Helicity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ; third row), for the SST-1 (left), CTL (center) and SST+1 (right) tests. All maps refer to the 00:30 UTC, 28-07-2019.

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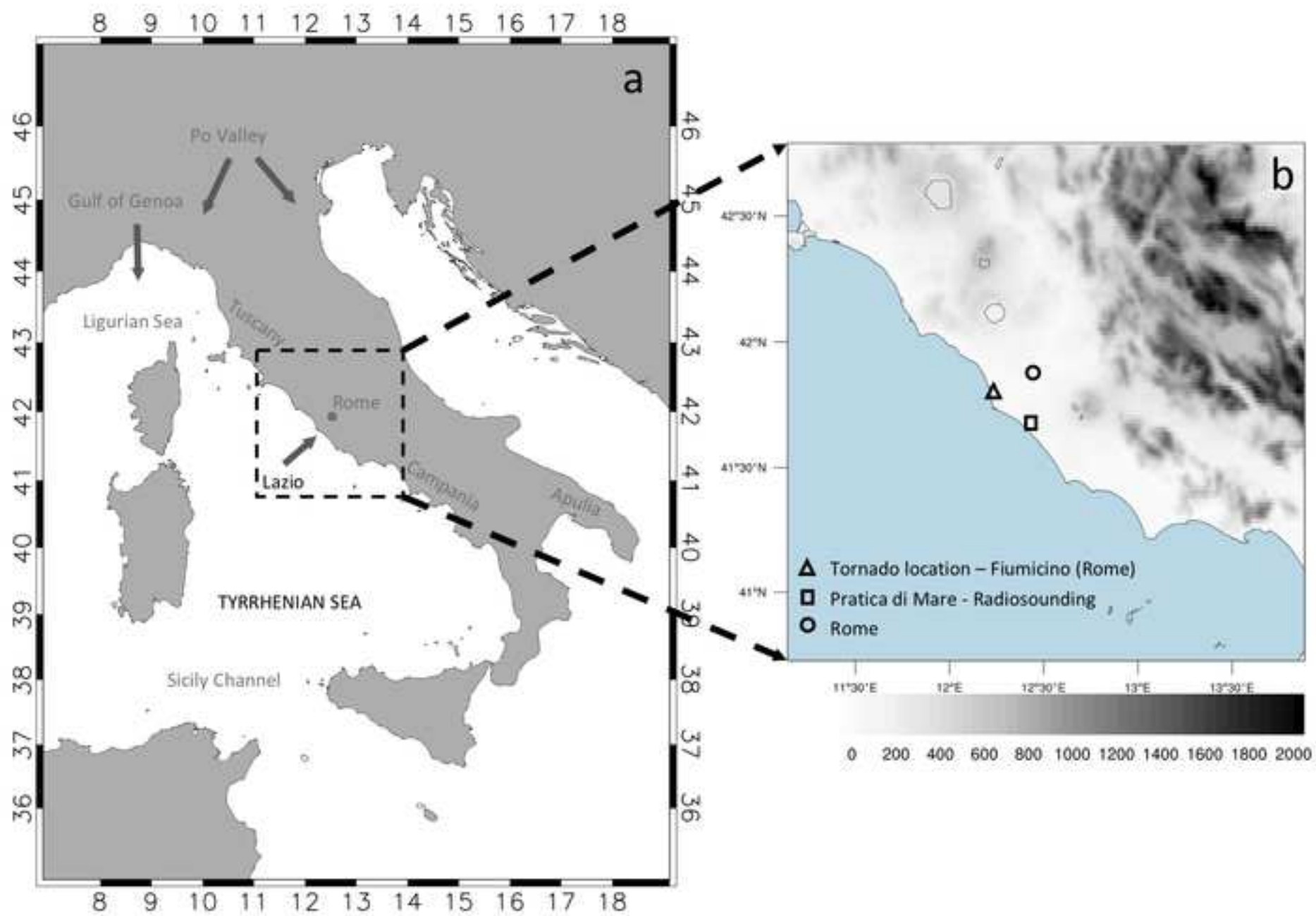
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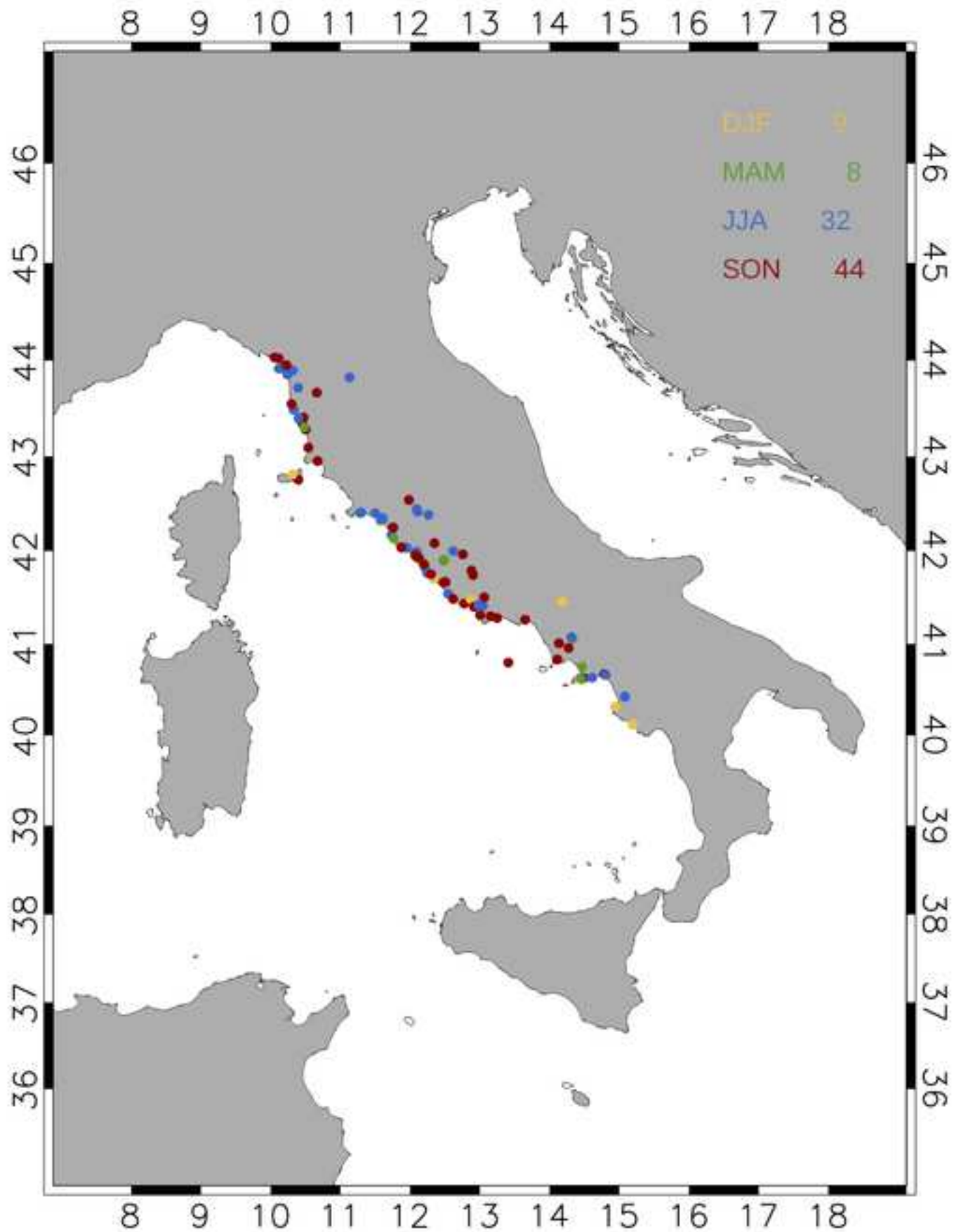
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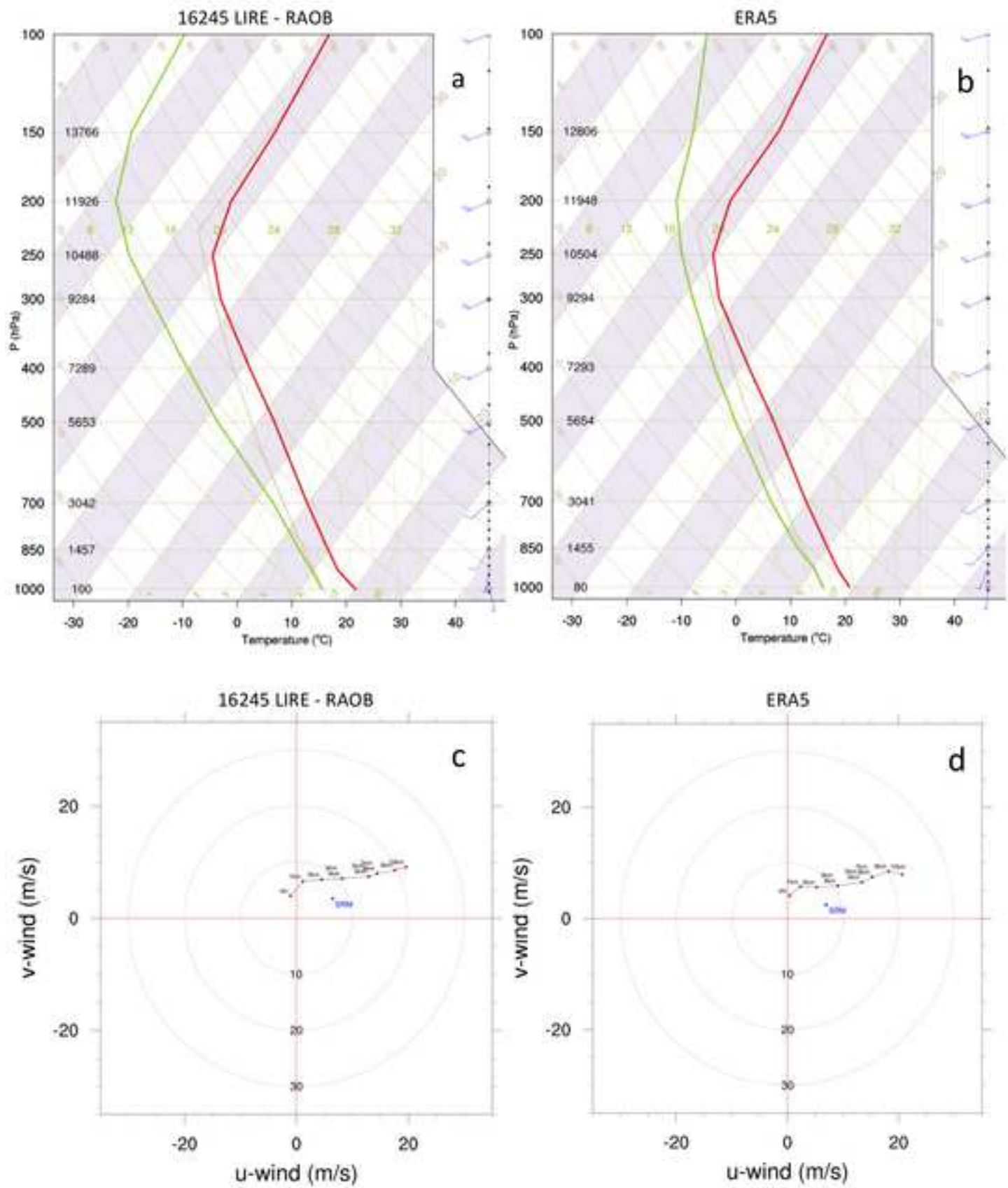
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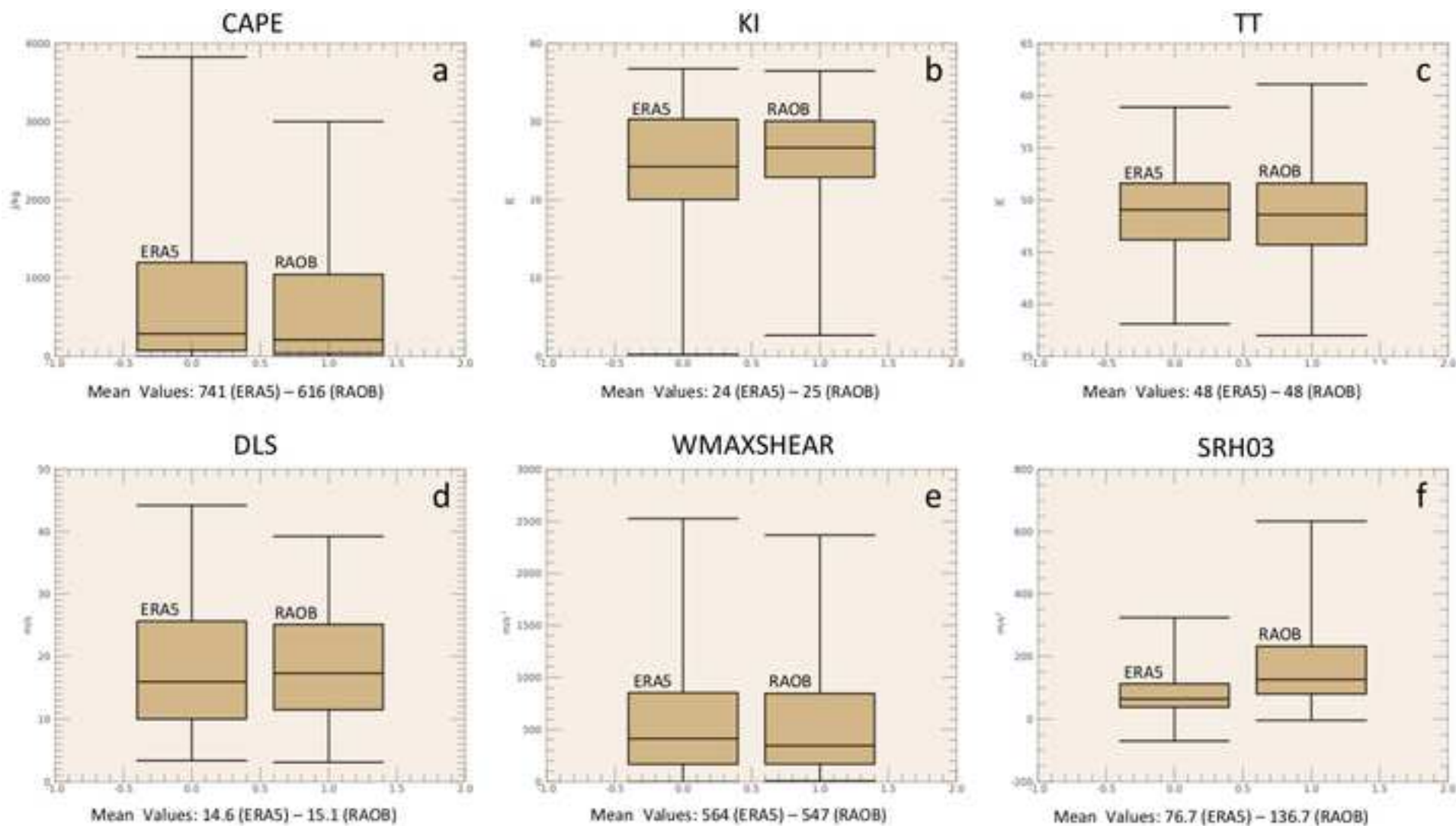
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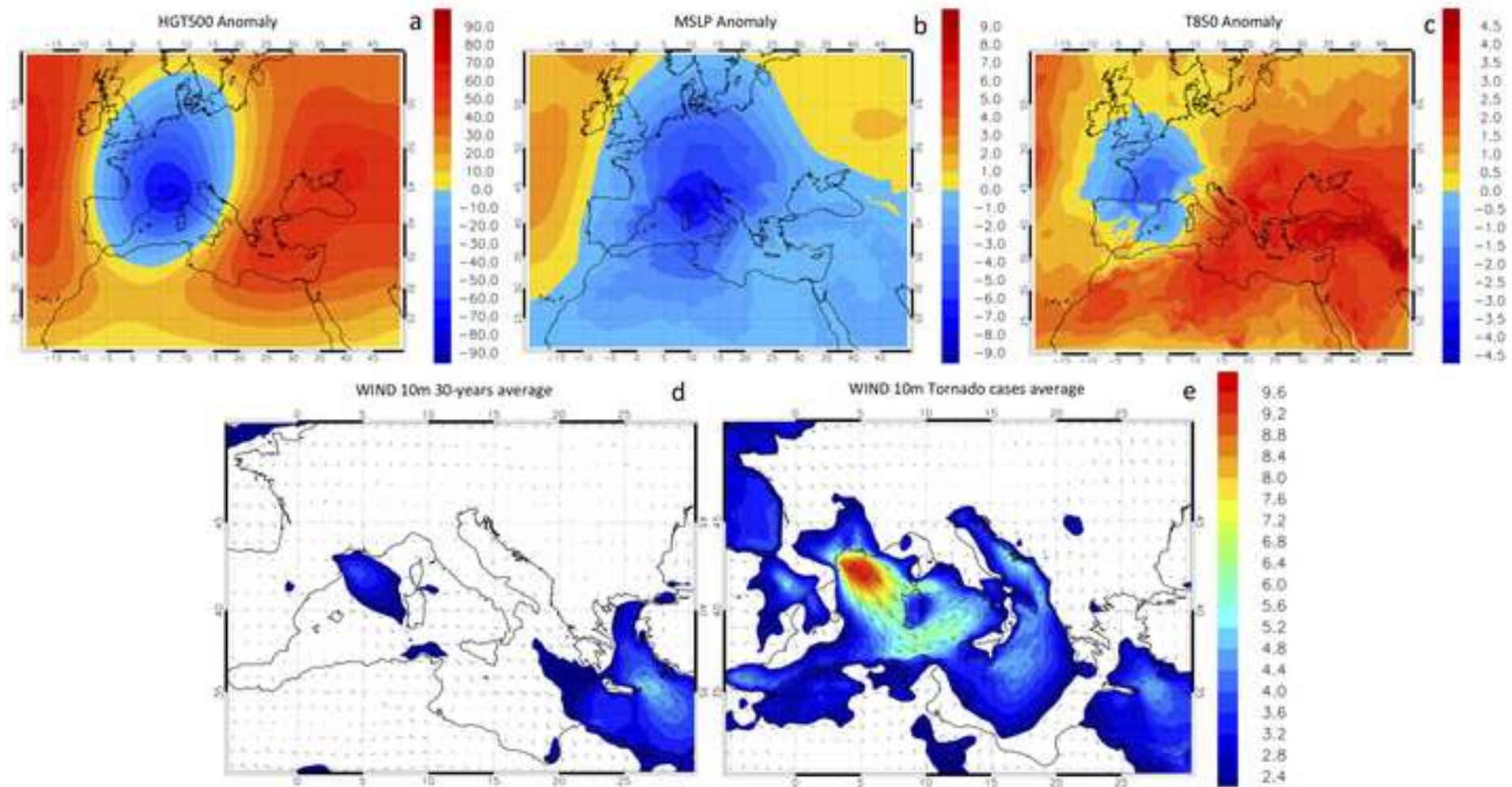


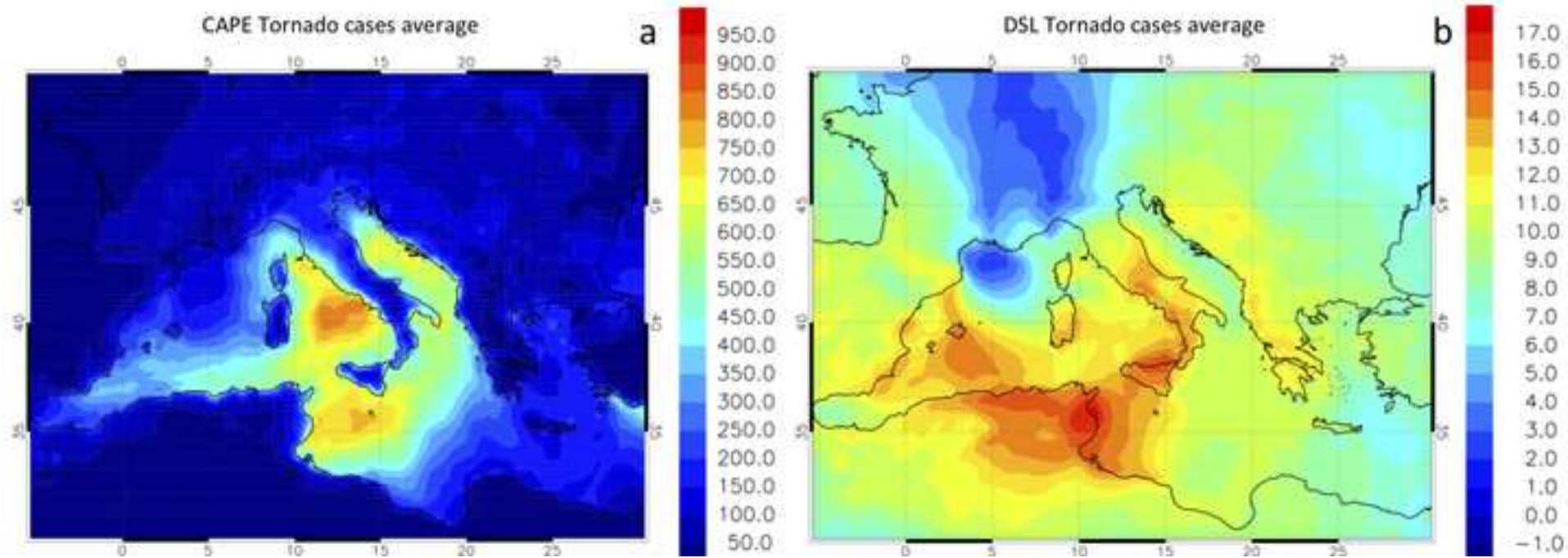


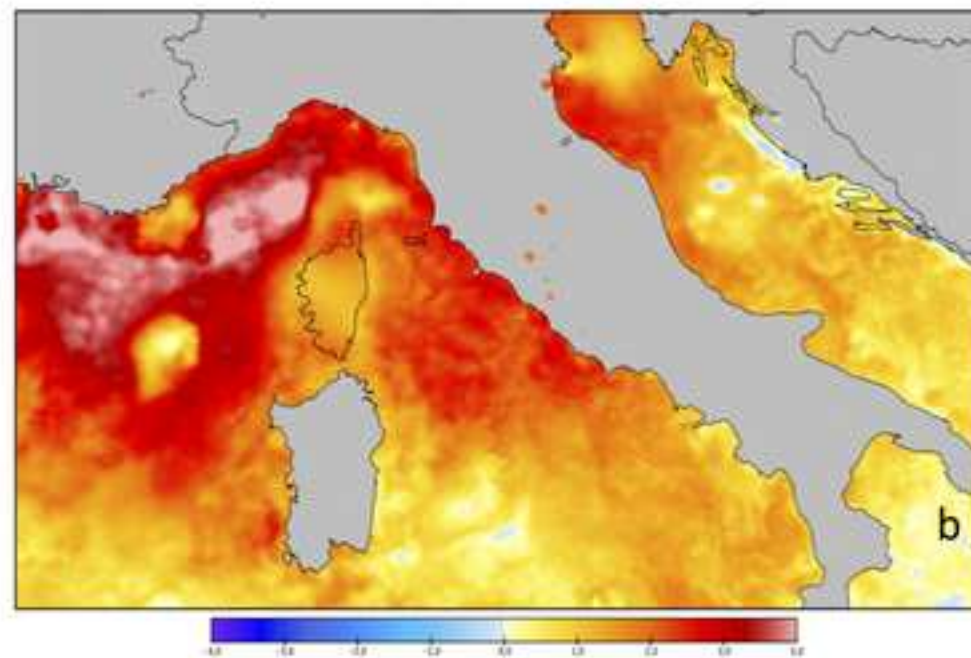
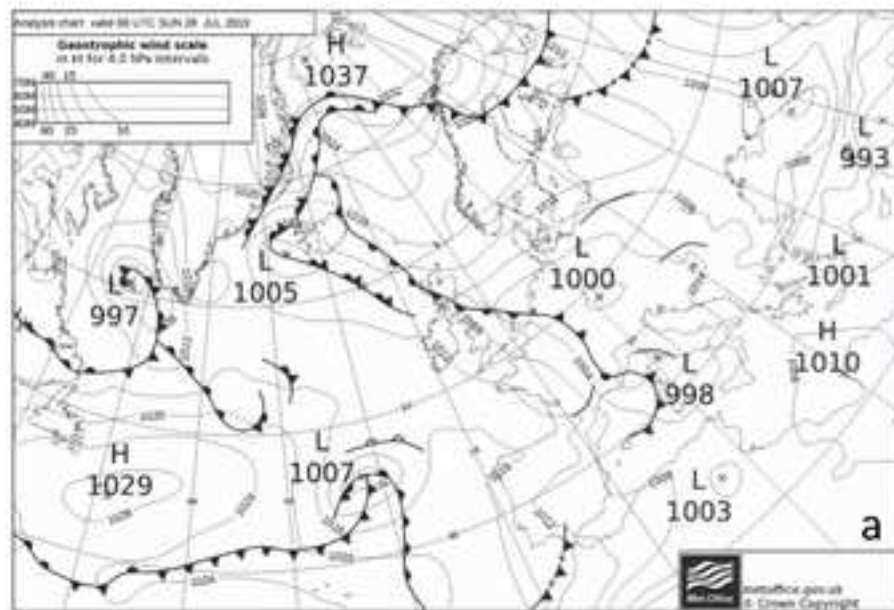


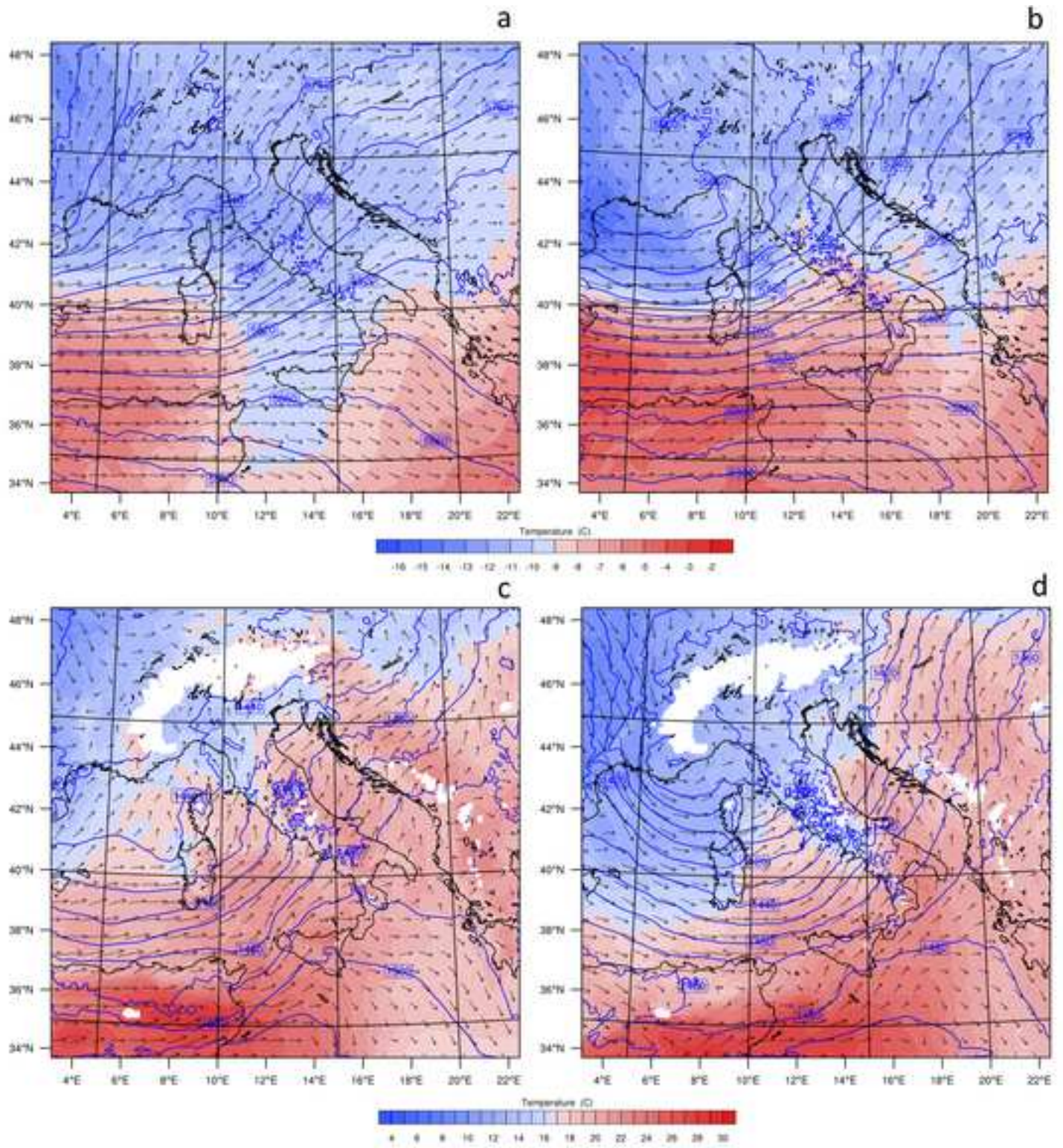


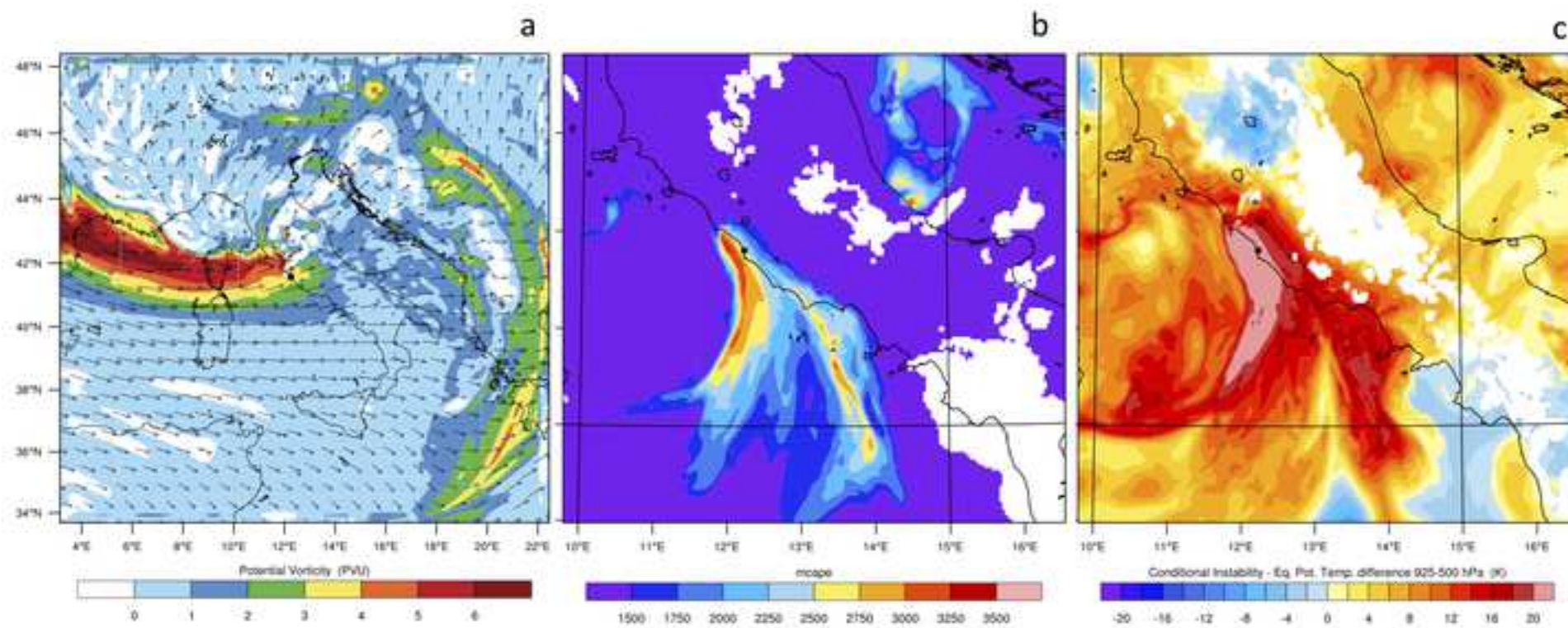


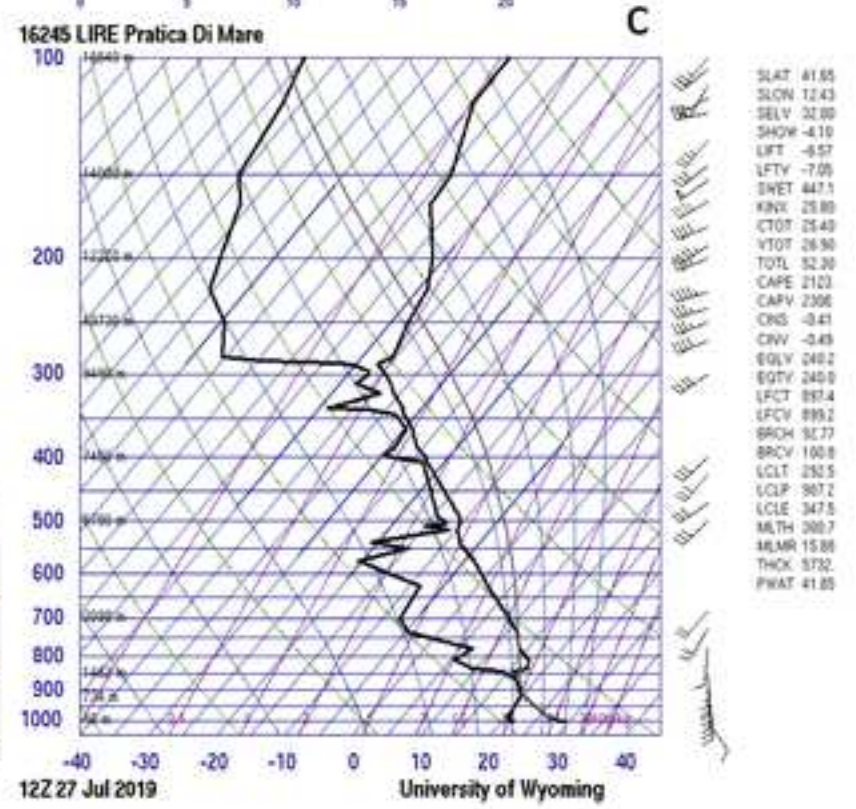
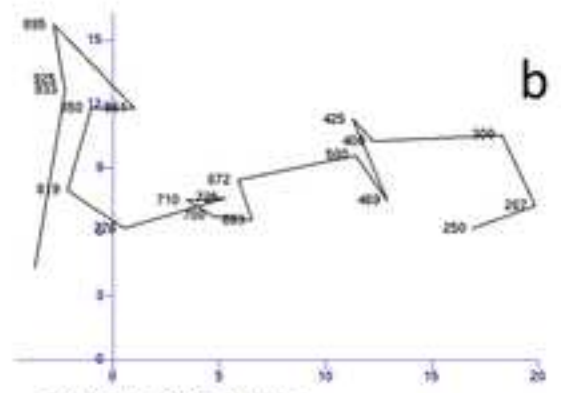
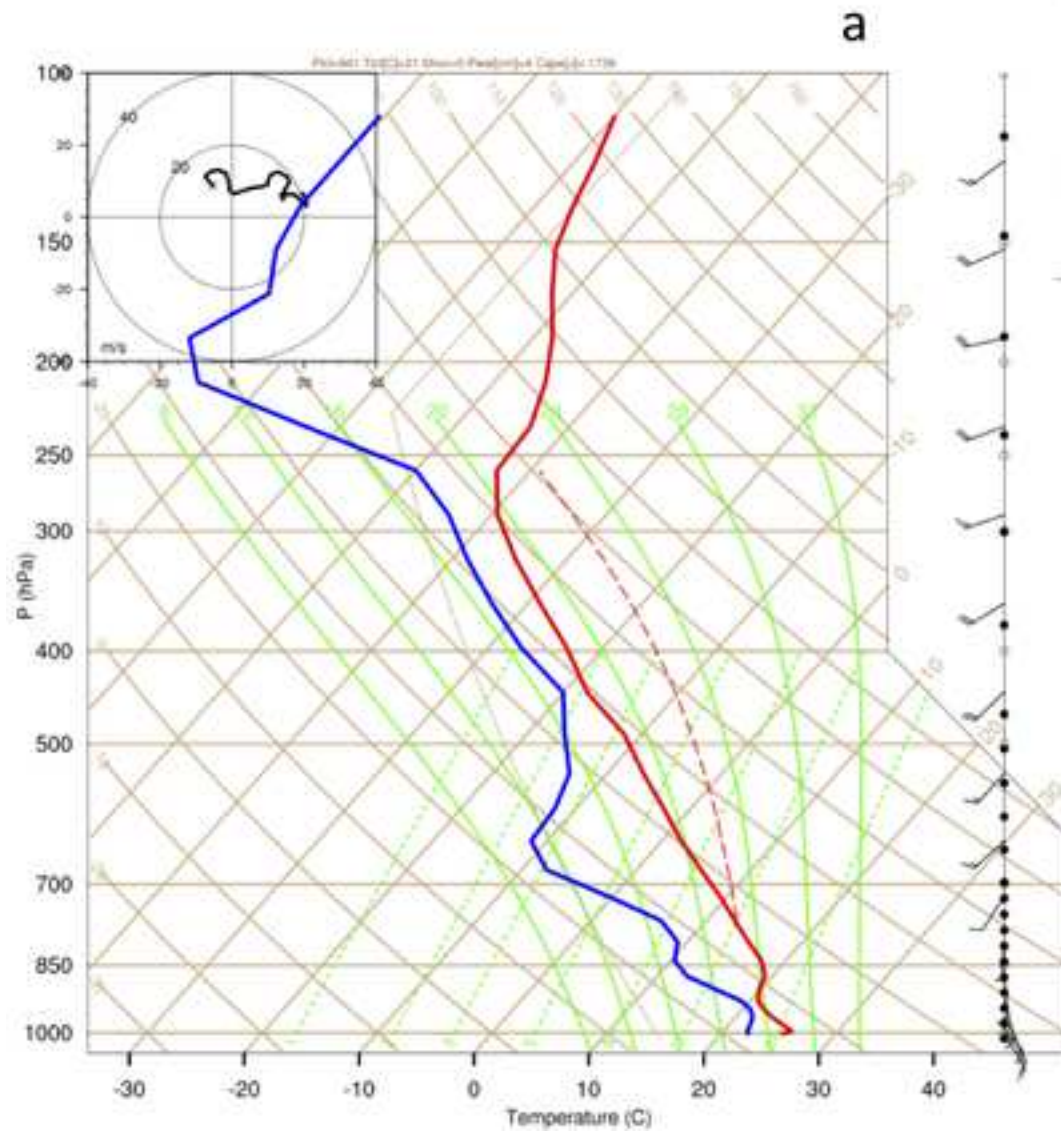


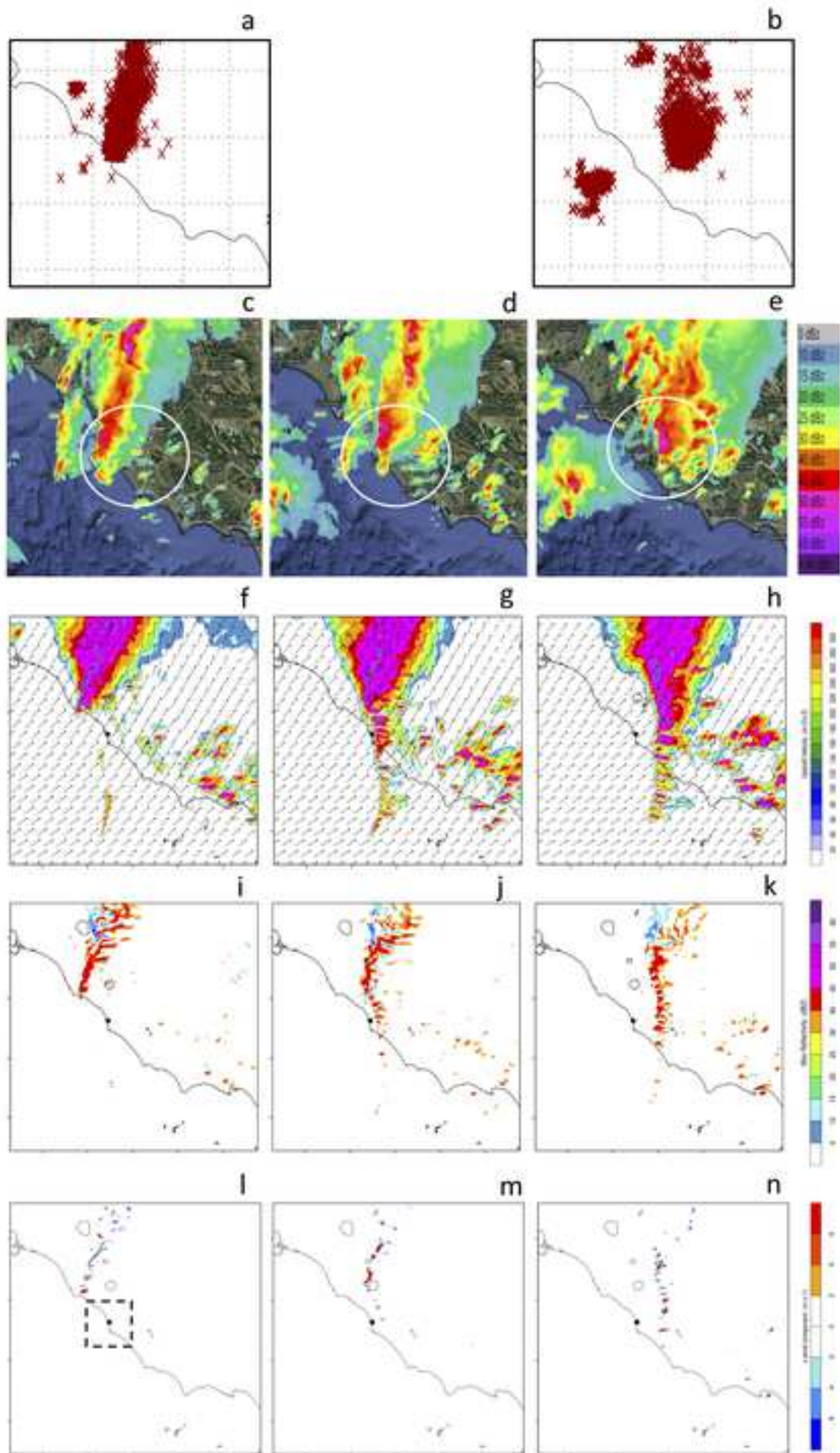




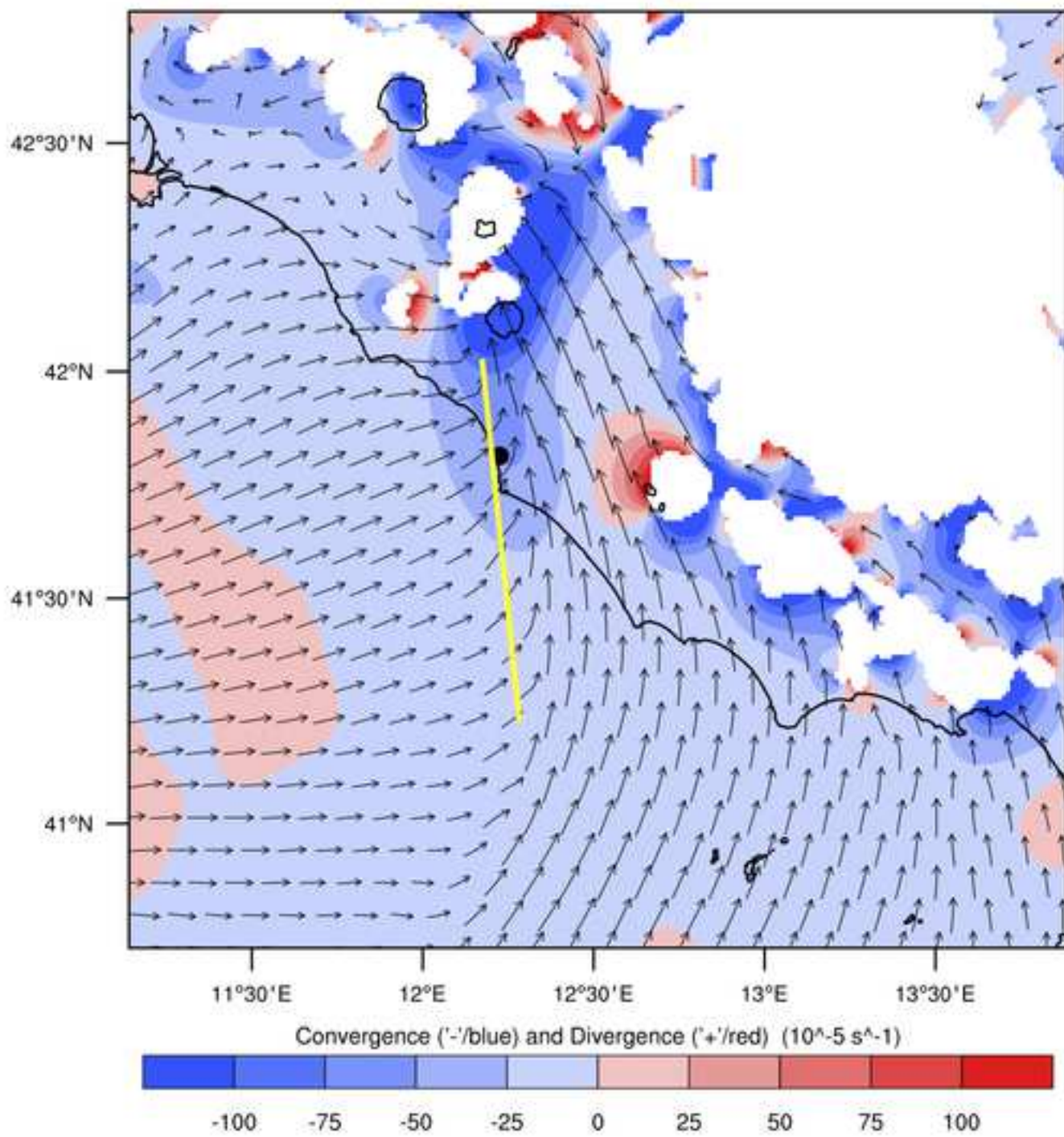


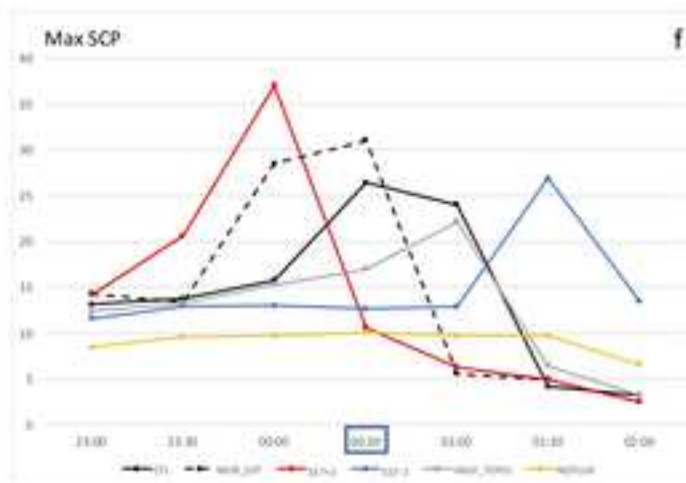
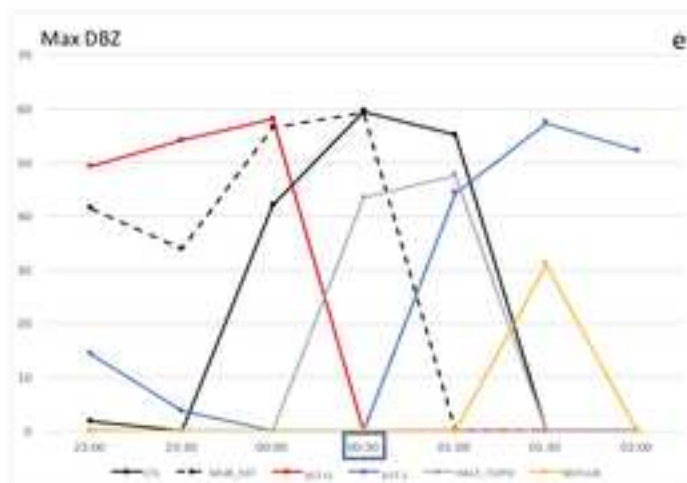
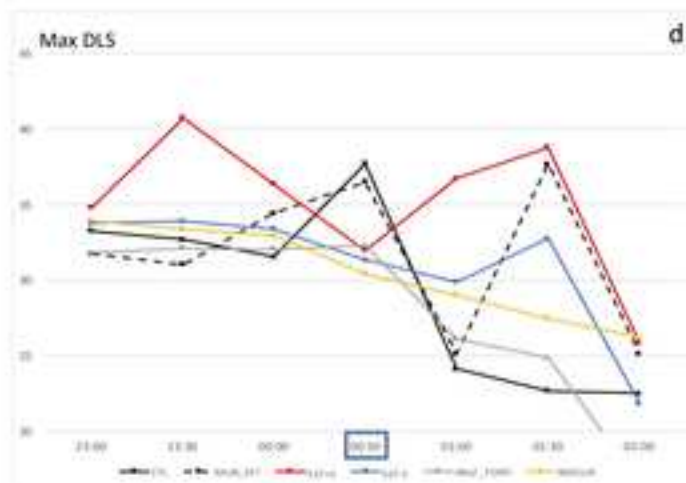
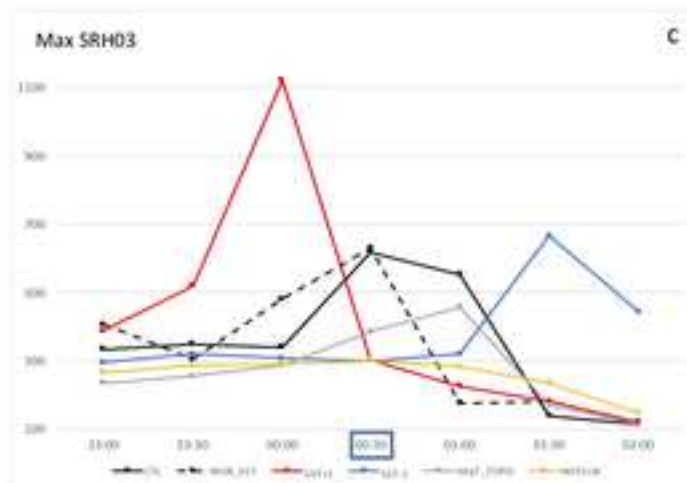
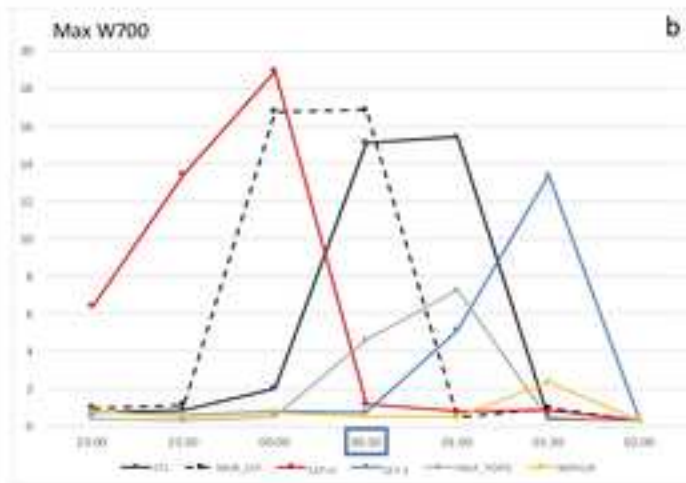
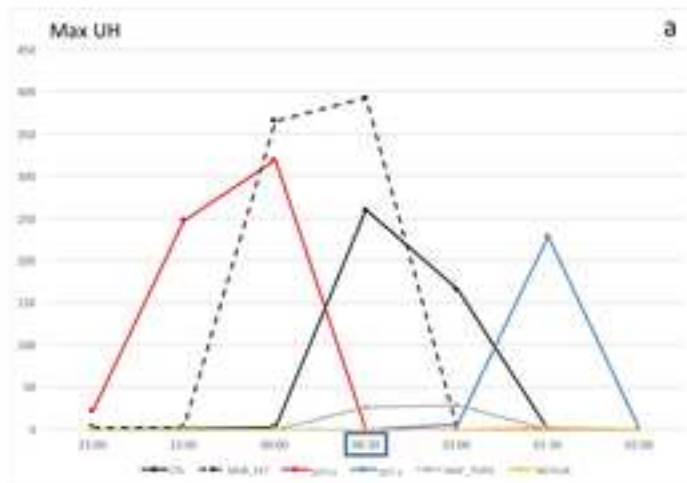


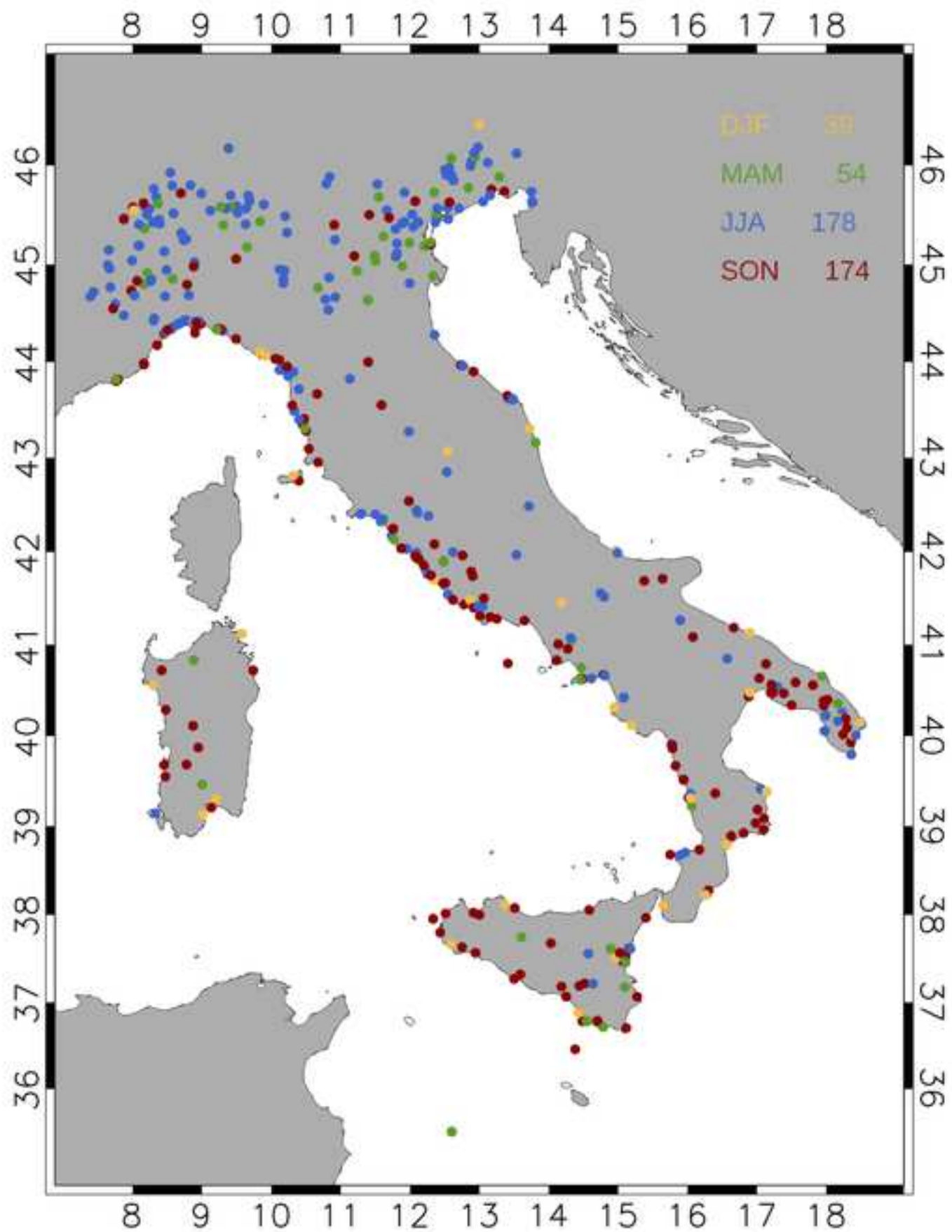




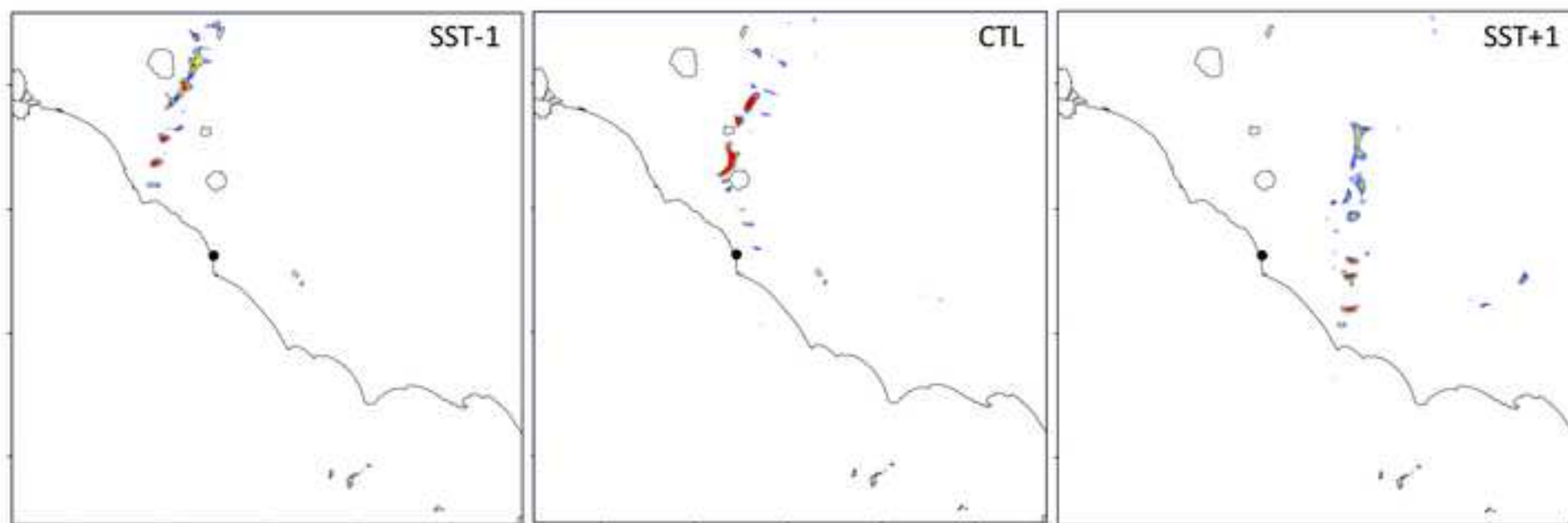












**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: