

# Traffic Bottlenecks: Predicting Atmospheric Blocking with a Diminishing Flow Capacity

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## Key Points:

- Flow capacity exceedance events, predictors of blocking onset in the traffic jam theory, are defined and evaluated in reanalysis products.
- A downstream reduction in flow capacity is ubiquitous for both exceedance and blocking events: lane closures favor traffic jams.
- Blocks are co-located with exceedance events in space but not in time, limiting the utility of the traffic jam theory for prediction.

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**Abstract**

Atmospheric blocking is characterized by persistent anticyclones that “block” the mid-latitude jet stream, causing temperature and precipitation extremes. The traffic jam theory posits that blocking events occur when the Local Wave Activity flux, a measure of storm activity, exceeds the carrying capacity of the jet stream, leading to a pile up. The theory’s efficacy for prediction is tested with atmospheric reanalysis by defining “exceedance events”, the time and location where wave activity first exceeds flow capacity. The theory captures the Northern Hemisphere winter blocking climatology, with strong spatial correlation between exceedance and blocking events. Both events are favored not only by low carrying capacity (narrow roads), but also a downstream reduction in capacity (lane closures causing a bottleneck). The theory fails, however, to accurately predict blocking events in time. Exceedance events are not a useful predictor of an imminent block, suggesting that confounding factors explain their shared climatological structure.

**Plain Language Summary**

An atmospheric block is a large, high pressure weather pattern that blocks the jet stream, affecting many regions in the midlatitudes including North America and Europe. Blocks are notable for their persistence, driving extreme weather conditions for up to a week or longer. Despite their significant societal impact, we don’t fully understand the mechanism(s) that generate blocks. A traffic jam theory was proposed, which suggested that the onset of a block is caused by having too much “storm activity flux”, which leads to a pile up of storm activity, just as a traffic jam is precipitated by conditions where the vehicular flux exceeding the road capacity, blocking traffic. We find that this analogy is useful for understanding the preferred locations of atmospheric blocks in the time mean sense, but is not predictive in terms of individual blocking events. We further propose to incorporate additional regional constraints on flux capacity, analogous to “traffic bottlenecks”, to improve our understanding of preferred blocking locations.

**1 Introduction**

An atmospheric block is a large, persistent high pressure system that “blocks” the jet stream, locally reversing the direction of the flow (Berggren et al., 1949; Rex, 1950). It causes a stagnation and re-routing of typically eastward propagating Rossby wave packets, which can lead to extreme weather events in the mid-latitudes (Kautz et al., 2022).

46 It has proven difficult to predict the onset of blocking in numerical weather forecast (Woollings  
47 et al., 2010, 2018), for example, with the ECMWF Ensemble Prediction System (Pelly  
48 & Hoskins, 2003; Ferranti et al., 2015) or the NCEP Climate Forecast System (Jia et al.,  
49 2014). Models used for climate projection generally struggle to capture the frequency  
50 and duration of blocking events (Davini & D’Andrea, 2020). The mechanism(s) that trig-  
51 ger blocking events also remain an open question in the field. A better understanding  
52 of the dynamics behind blocking would help focus efforts to improve weather and climate  
53 prediction systems, and provide insight into potential changes in blocking in response  
54 to global warming.

55 Nakamura and Huang (2018, hereafter NH18) proposed a novel hypothesis to pre-  
56 dict the onset of blocking. They argued that the jet stream has a maximum carrying ca-  
57 pacity for storm activity. When this capacity is exceeded, wave activity rapidly backs  
58 up, in analogy to a traffic jam, leading to a block. They quantified the storm activity  
59 using the Local Wave Activity (hereafter LWA) of Huang and Nakamura (2016), and,  
60 after several simplifying approximations of the LWA budget equation, derived an equa-  
61 tion that is a close relative of the classical traffic density equation. Thus NH18 suggested  
62 that jet stream possesses a capacity for LWA fluxes, and predicted that an exceedance  
63 of this capacity results in blocking onset. This result advanced the pioneering work of  
64 Swanson (2000, 2001), who argued that the accumulation of wave activity leads to a van-  
65 ishing group velocity (i.e., a blocked state) in a simpler, barotropic system governed by  
66 a single potential vorticity jump.

67 NH18 provided a formula to compute the spatial pattern of the flux capacity, and  
68 argued that blocks are most likely to occur in regions with minimal capacity, which co-  
69 incide with the exit regions of the Pacific and Atlantic storm tracks. The goal of this study  
70 is to explore the predictive ability of the traffic jam hypothesis in the Northern Hemi-  
71 sphere. We ask two specific questions. First, how well does the flux capacity predict the  
72 spatial climatology of blocking in the atmosphere? Second, can the theory be used to  
73 predict blocking onset in a forecasting context?

74 The first question is motivated in particular by further development and applica-  
75 tion of the traffic jam hypothesis by Paradise et al. (2019), who investigated a one-dimensional  
76 idealized traffic jam model forced with noise. This allowed them to examine blocking statis-  
77 tics with varying parameters (such as stationary wave amplitude, transient eddy forc-

ing, and jet speed), exploring how the blocking climatology changed with modulation of the capacity. They found that blocking consistently maximized in regions of minimum capacity. Here, we take a complementary approach, computing the flux capacity directly from atmospheric reanalysis, and comparing its structure with that of blocking statistics. While we find that blocking is favored in regions of minimum capacity, there is an upstream shift in blocks relative to the (inverse) capacity. This suggests that blocking is favored not just in regions of low capacity, but regions where the capacity decreases downstream. In analogy with a traffic jam, we argue that lane closure causes a “traffic bottleneck”, where merging causes a pile up before the road is most narrow. Our work emphasizes that not just a low LWA capacity, but also a reduction in the flux capacity contribute to exceedance formation and atmospheric blocking.

The second question is motivated by case studies in NH18, where they showed that events of excessive zonal wave activity flux preceded blocking development (its Fig. 5). A case study was performed by Polster and Wirth (2023), where ensemble sensitivity analysis of a 2016 winter European block through the lens of the traffic jam mechanism identified a collocation between target blocking and enhanced upstream flux two and half days prior to onset. To determine whether an exceedance of the jet’s carry capacity can be used as a predictor for imminent blocking, we define objective criteria for “exceedance events” to quantify the time and location when the LWA exceeds the flux capacity. We adopt a flexible definition, governed by an adjustable threshold to mark exceedance events of varying levels. We find that blocking is indeed often preceded by a minor exceedance of the flow capacity, but such minor exceedance events happen on a near daily basis, and so cannot be used to flag blocking: the false positive rate is prohibitively high. If we look for major exceedance events, defined so that they are similarly as rare as blocking events, the relationship between exceedance and blocking is lost. We conclude that while flow exceedance and blocking share the same spatial climatology, the former cannot effectively be used as a harbinger of the latter.

## 2 Data and Methodology

NH18 argued that an exceedance of carrying capacity of the jet stream precipitate blocking events. To define exceedance events, we need to compute the local wave activity flux capacity, a climatological property of the atmosphere, and the time varying local wave activity flux, an instantaneous measure of storm activity movement. We fol-

low the methodology of NH18 exactly to calculate wave activity (Fig 1a), flux (Fig 1b),  
and capacity of the flux (Fig 1c). See supplemental materials for more details.

The traffic jam theory predicts the onset of a blocking event when the LWA flux value exceeds the flux capacity, i.e.,  $F(x, y, t) > F_C(x, y)$ . Figure 1d shows the fraction of time when this criterion is met over the northern midlatitudes in winter. We note immediately that the fraction of the time that the flux exceeds the capacity is quite large, often above 30%. On average, the flow is exceeded somewhere in the Northern hemisphere at any given time. Clearly a point wise exceedance of the flow isn't a useful predictor of a block, a fairly rare event. We therefore require criteria to identify the times and locations when the flux capacity is *meaningfully* overwhelmed: an exceedance event.

We require that flux exceeds the capacity by a tunable threshold,  $\Delta F$  over a synoptic scale region:

$$\overline{F(x, y, t) - F_C(x, y)} > \Delta F, \quad (1)$$

where the overbar denotes an average over a  $12^\circ$  by  $12^\circ$  patch of the midlatitudes. We experimented heavily with choice of the bounding box and threshold  $\Delta F$ , and found the results to be robust, provided the two parameters were varied together: when the bounding box is increased, the threshold needs to be decreased to keep the same frequency of events. In the results to follow, we highlight two thresholds,  $\Delta F = 100 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^2$  and  $1200 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^2$ . The low threshold was chosen to capture the nearly daily events where the LWA flux exceeded the jet capacity over a storm sized patch of the atmosphere. The high threshold was chosen to limit the number of exceedance events to a number comparable to blocking events.

### 3 Results

Figure 1 shows winter climatologies of the key quantities in the traffic jam theory of blocking onset. The time-mean Local Wave Activity  $A$ , panel (a), reveals key features of the storm tracks. A maximum in LWA over the eastern North Atlantic and Europe is associated with the Atlantic storm track, while a more diffuse maximum over the North Pacific, flanked by peaks in wave activity over East Asia and the Western US, is associated with the Pacific storm track. The climatological LWA flux  $F$ , panel (b), even more closely matches traditional storm track measures, highlighting the regions storms travel across the North Pacific and North Atlantic. The direct-regressed flux capacity  $F_C$ , shown

138 in Figure 1c, is more strongly associated with the jet streams, and peaks upstream of  
139 the storm tracks where the zonal winds are strongest off the coast of East Asia and di-  
140 agonally across the western North Atlantic. We compared the direct-regressed flux ca-  
141 pacity with that approximated in NH18 (see supplementary materials) and find both meth-  
142 ods agree with each other qualitatively. The regions of low flux capacity are associated  
143 with a higher frequency of times when the LWA flux exceeds the capacity (Fig. 1d). Re-  
144 gions where the flow capacity is often exceeded are co-located with regions where the flow  
145 is most often blocked (Fig. 1e), although note the nearly order of magnitude difference  
146 in the rates.

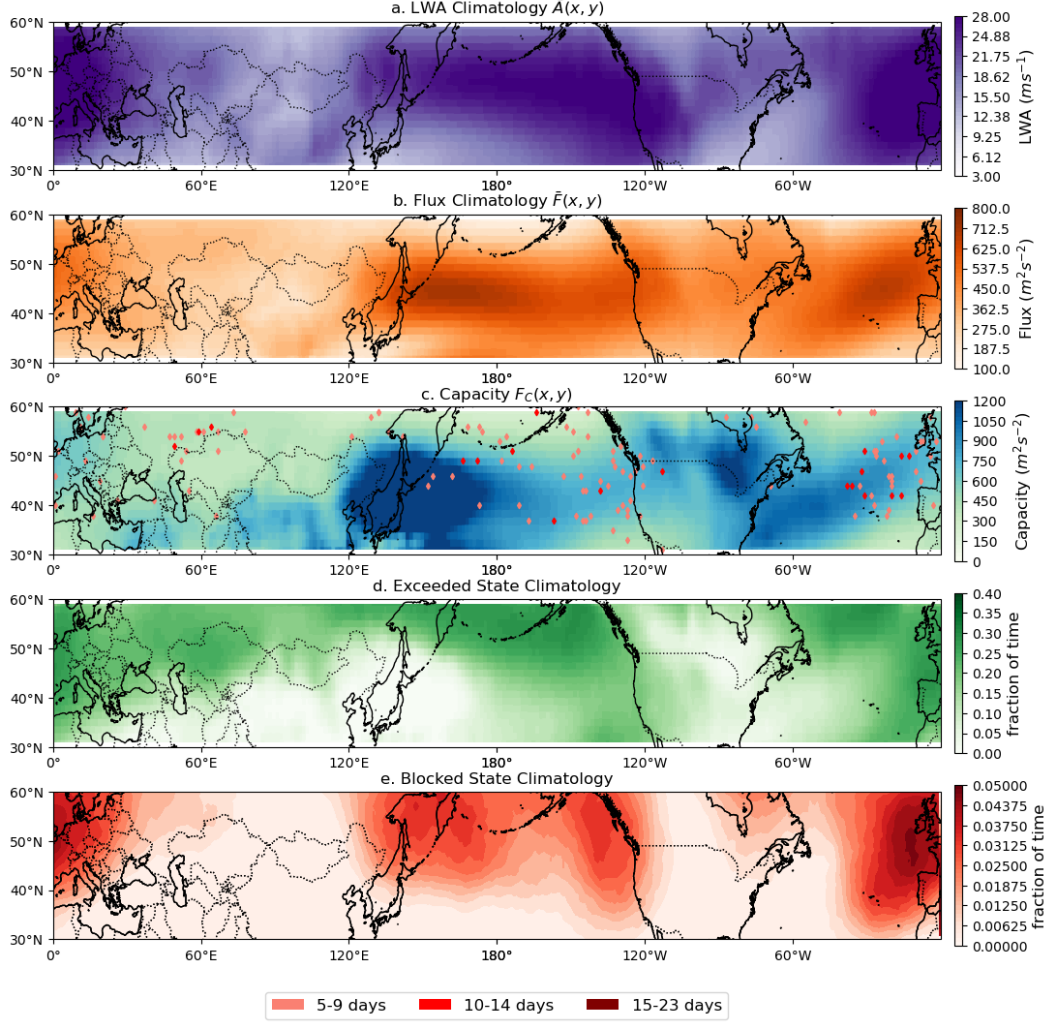


Figure 1: Key quantities in traffic jam theory for 1979 - 2016 boreal winter 30°N to 60°N based on ERA Interim. (a) the climatology of local wave activity  $A$ . (b) the climatology of LWA flux  $F$ . (c) the boreal winter LWA direct-regressed flux capacity  $F_C$ . (d) the climatological exceedance frequency, computed as the time fraction that the LWA flux of a grid point exceeds  $F_C$  by any amount,  $\Delta F = 0$  in equation (1). (e) the blocking frequency, computed as the time fraction that a grid point experiences a blocking event.

147 Figure 2a shows a more quantitative comparison where meridional averages of the  
148 exceedance and blocking frequency are compared against the inverse of the flux capac-  
149 ity  $-F_C$ . We find a robust anticorrelation between the exceedance and blocking frequency  
150 with the flux capacity, but also identify an upstream shift of exceedance and blocking  
151 frequency relative to minima in the flux capacity, particularly in the Atlantic region. While  
152 North Pacific blocks are more frequent in terms of events, North Atlantic blocks are more  
153 persistent (Fig. 2b).

154 While the lowest flux capacity is found over Eurasia (from the prime meridian to  
155 approximately 120°E), the exceedance and blocking frequency peak slightly west of the  
156 prime meridian. The upstream shift in the maximum in exceedance events suggests that  
157 it is not just a minimum in the carrying capacity that increases the likelihood of a traf-  
158 fic jam, but also its zonal gradient. Exceedance of the jet capacity is not only favored  
159 by low carrying capacity, but also a downstream reduction in the capacity. In analogy  
160 with a traffic jam, we argue that lane closures lead to a bottleneck in traffic. In addi-  
161 tion, the carrying capacity of the jet is rarely exceeded over Eurasia, despite the low car-  
162 rying capacity of the jet. The dearth of exceedance and blocking over Eurasia is consis-  
163 tent with low wave activity (Fig. 1a) in this region. A traffic jam analogous interpreta-  
164 tion is that the chance of traffic congestion on a narrow but little used roadway are low.



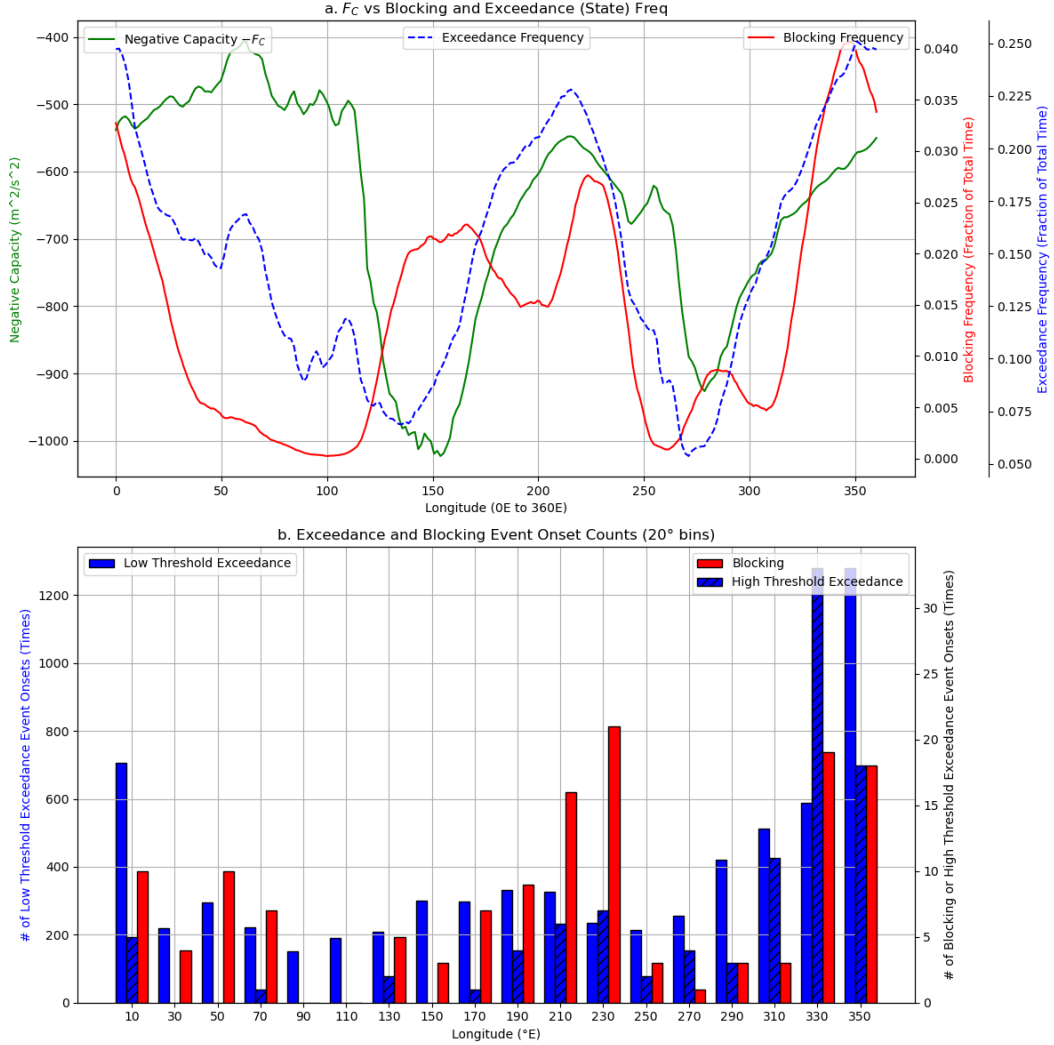


Figure 2: (a) the meridional average flux capacity (inverted for comparison) against the blocking frequency and exceedance frequency in the boreal midlatitudes during winter. Each quantity is meridionally averaged from 30 to 60° N. The exceedance frequency is defined as the pointwise LWA flux capacity exceedance satisfying inequality (1) with  $\Delta F \geq 100m^2s^{-2}$ . (b) event onsets of low threshold exceedance (in solid blue, left axis scaling,  $\Delta F \geq 100m^2s^{-2}$ ), high threshold exceedance (in striped blue, right axis scaling,  $\Delta F \geq 1200m^2s^{-2}$ ), and blocking onsets (in red, right axis scaling).

165 Despite the upstream shift, the climatological structures of capacity, exceedance,  
166 and blocking strongly support the NH18 traffic mechanism. Blocking is indeed found where  
167 the flow is most likely to exceed the carrying capacity.

168 There is, however, a significant mismatch in the magnitude of the exceedance fre-  
169 quency compared with blocking frequency. In the North Atlantic peak, the LWA flux ex-  
170 ceeds the flux capacity about a quarter of the time, while the flow in this region is only  
171 blocked about 1/25th of the time. To use exceedance as a predictor of blocking onset,  
172 we require an event-based definition, a measure to quantify when the flow sufficiently  
173 exceeds the capacity to forecast an imminent blocking event.

174 To motivate our event definitions, Figure 3 shows the evolution of daily averaged  
175 LWA flux  $F$  for three winters. The climatological tendency for exceedance events and  
176 blocks to occur in the storm tracks, especially the North Atlantic, shows up clearly in  
177 these 3 years, as seen in Figures 1 and 2. The temporal connection between these events,  
178 however, is muddier.

179 The block on 13 Feb 1984 supports the NH18 mechanism. An exceedance anomaly  
180 (black contour) begins near  $120^\circ\text{W}$  on 7 Feb, building up and propagating eastward through  
181 12 Feb, just before the block occurs on the 13th. A second block, just a week later on  
182 19 Feb, however, does not appear to be associated with any preceding exceedance anoma-  
183 lies. Indeed, many of the blocks in these three years are not readily associated with a  
184 significant exceedance anomaly.

185 The LWA flux exceeds the capacity by  $100\text{ m}^2\text{s}^2$  quite often, particularly in the North  
186 Atlantic region. While some blocks are associated with them, clearly a minor level of ex-  
187 ceedance cannot be used to forecast blocking onset. Major anomalies where  $F$  exceeds  
188  $F_C$  by  $1200\text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ , such as that in the North Atlantic on 25 Dec 1983 or in the North  
189 Pacific on 24 January 1986, occur less frequently. In these three years, however, none of  
190 these major exceedance events led to a block.

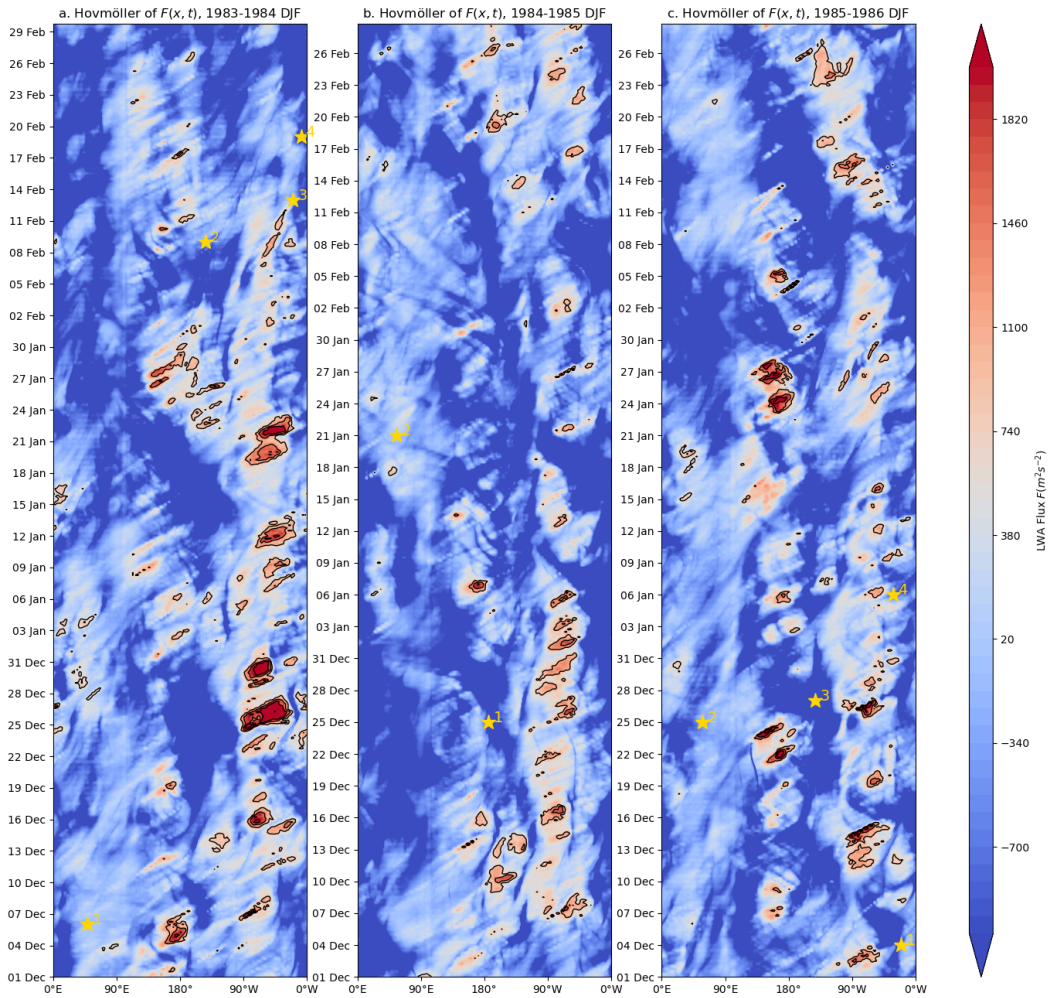


Figure 3: Hovmöller evolution of meridionally averaged (from 30°N to 60°N) LWA flux  $F$  overlaid by flux exceedance contours ( $F - F_C$ ) for three winters. The contour levels represent  $\Delta F$  levels of 100, 650, 1200  $m^2s^{-2}$ , respectively. All solid contours indicate minor exceedance events, with earliest contour date being the exceedance event onset. Blocking events are marked by gold stars at the onset location and time. (a) the Hovmöller from 1 Dec 1983 to 29 Feb 1984, with 4 blocking events, (b) 1 Dec 1984 to 28 Feb 1985 with 2 blocking events, and (c) 1 Dec 1985 to 28 Feb 1986 with 4 blocking events.

191 To provide statistical evidence behind these anecdotal observations, we consider  
 192 all events where the LWA flux exceeded the capacity in the ERA-Interim record. We iden-  
 193 tified and tracked 8842 minor events and 98 major events that exceeded  $\Delta F = 100$  and  
 194  $1200 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^2$ . Their longitudinal distribution is shown in Figure 2b, alongside that of 139  
 195 blocking events. All event distributions have pronounced longitudinal structure, peak-  
 196 ing in the exit regions of the north Pacific and Atlantic storm tracks. Minor and major  
 197 exceedance events, however, are more strongly preferred in the North Atlantic relative  
 198 to blocking, especially the major events. Minor exceedance events are more uniformly  
 199 distributed in longitude, occurring all around the globe, while blocks and major exceedance  
 200 events have never been observed at some longitudes over eastern Asia. The largest dif-  
 201 ference, however, is reflected by the different y-axis scale; over the North Atlantic, mi-  
 202 nor events are as much as 60 times more frequency than blocking. All of these differences  
 203 have implications for prediction.

204 To assess the ability of exceedance events to predict blocks, we classify three cases,  
 205 (i) a flux exceedance event preceded by blocking onset: a true positive prediction, (ii)  
 206 an exceedance event that is not followed by a blocking onset: a false positive, and (iii)  
 207 a blocking event despite no flux exceedance occurrence: a false negative prediction. All  
 208 three types of events are observed in Figure 3a. In the 1983-84 winter alone, the 7 Feb  
 209 exceedance event preceded a block on 13 Feb, the 25 Dec exceedance event did not pre-  
 210 cipitate a block, and the 19 Feb block materialized without any prior exceedance event,  
 211 demonstrating the three cases, respectively. A systematic comparison requires an objec-  
 212 tive threshold that a block be associated with a exceedance event. We experimented with  
 213 many criteria, and here use a fairly loose rule that a block must occur within the range  
 214 of between 1 day ahead to 5 days after the onset of the exceedance event, anywhere within  
 215 the latitude and longitude range of the exceedance patch throughout its entire lifetime.

216 For minor events, there are 60 true positives and 79 false negatives: not quite half  
 217 of the blocks fit the traffic jam mechanism. 8,782 false negative predictions, however, lim-  
 218 its the utility of these forecast. For major exceedance events, the number of false neg-  
 219 atives drops to 95, but at the expense of being able to predict true positives (only 3) or  
 220 avoid false negatives (136). We experimented with a range of thresholds, in addition to  
 221 modifying the spatial scale of the exceedance, and found this trade off unavoidable. Up  
 222 to half of blocks are associated with very minor flux capacity exceedance, but at these  
 223 low thresholds, the false positive rate is unacceptably high (by an orders of magnitude).

224 When we require a more substantial exceedance of the flux capacity to avoid all the false  
 225 positives, we lose the connection to blocks.

226 These statistics suggest that the spatial correlation between exceedance events and  
 227 blocking in Figures 1 and 2 reflects a confounding link between the two, one that gives  
 228 them very similar climatological structure, but not temporal coherence. To probe this  
 229 spatial structure further, we explore composites of the LWA flux  $F$  and flux capacity  $F_C$   
 230 associated with these blocks in Figure 4. Comparing (a) and (c), the  $450 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$  contours  
 231 distinguish the high LWA flux structure between blocking events and minor exceedance  
 232 events (nearly all false positives): the former exhibits a extended upstream pattern, whereas  
 233 the latter is localized around the event. In (b) and (f), the  $700 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$  contour reveals  
 234 the bottleneck shape (rapid downstream decrease in zonal capacity) for blocking and ma-  
 235 jor exceedance events, in contrast to homogeneous spatial distribution for minor exceedance  
 236 events in (d).

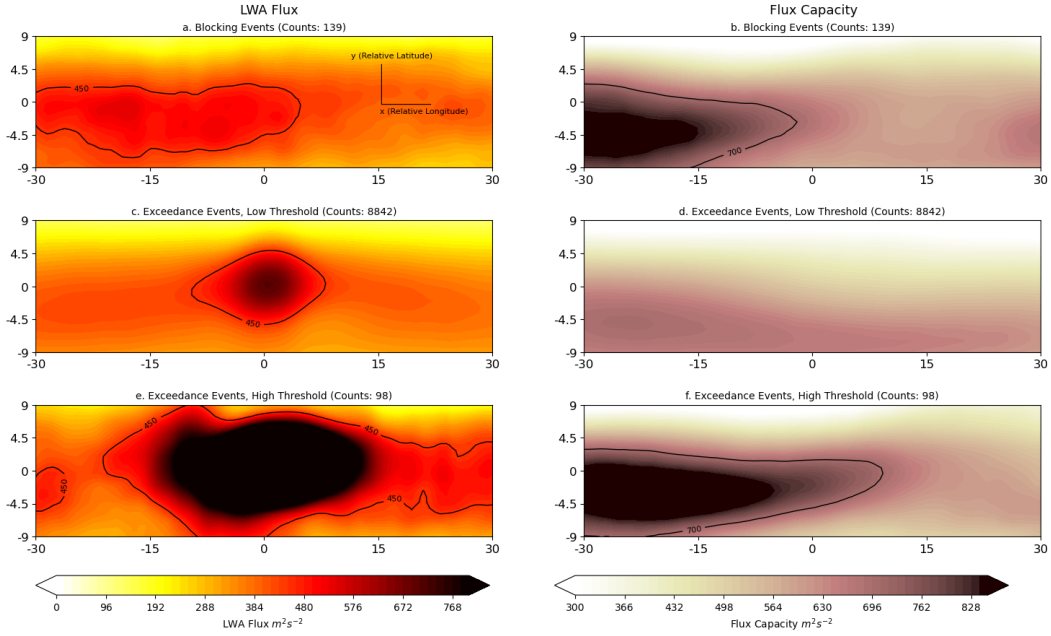


Figure 4: Composites of (left) LWA flux and (right) direct-regressed flux capacity around blocking and exceedance events. The upper row shows composites from all blocking events, centered around the onset location  $(0^\circ, 0^\circ)$ . The middle row shows composites based on minor exceedance events ( $\Delta F \geq 100 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ). The bottom column shows major exceedance events ( $\Delta F \geq 1200 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ ).

237 The spatial structure of the LWA flux  $F$  (Figure 4 left column) captures the syn-  
238 optic conditions associated with events. Blocks are associated with elevated flux over a  
239 wide region upstream, extending more than  $30^\circ$  of latitude. This is consistent with the  
240 hypothesis that a pile up wave activity upstream of the block favors a large, stationary  
241 pattern Swanson (2000). Exceedance events, on the other hand, are associated with el-  
242 evated fluxes centered about the event. This could be anticipated from their definition:  
243 a larger flux  $F$  helps overcome  $F_C$ . Major events are naturally associated with larger anoma-  
244 lies.

245 The spatial structure of the flux capacity  $F_C$  (Figure 4 right column) reflects the  
246 background jet state around the events. Blocks and major flux exceedance events are  
247 favored in regions with decreasing flux capacity, near, but upstream of a local minimum  
248 in capacity. This bottleneck structure of the flux capacity permits a large upstream flux,  
249 which runs up against the diminishing jet capacity, generating both exceedance events  
250 and blocking events – but generally not at the same time. Minor exceedance events, on  
251 the other hand, are more uniformly distributed around the globe, and therefore less sen-  
252 sitive to flux capacity.

## 253 4 Conclusions

254 We have performed a critical assessment of the flux-exceedance, or “traffic jam”  
255 hypothesis of Nakamura and Huang (2018), exploring the utility of the local wave ac-  
256 tivity flux and flux capacity as predictors for the onset of atmospheric blocking. To test  
257 this mechanistic model for prediction, we introduced the concept of exceedance events,  
258 synoptic scale developments where the LWA flux exceeds the carrying capacity of the  
259 jet. In support of the traffic jam theory, we find that the climatology of the LWA flux  
260 capacity is consistent with blocking climatology: low capacity regions correlate with high  
261 blocking frequencies. Predicting individual blocks using the flux-exceedance hypothe-  
262 sis, however, is not practical, as the temporal relationship between exceedance events and  
263 blocking onsets is tenuous.

264 Case studies, such as Polster and Wirth (2023), suggest enhanced zonal LWA fluxes  
265 are present 2-3 days ahead of some for North America blocking events. Yet, when we look  
266 at statistics across the full ERA-Interim record, we find that false positive predictions,  
267 i.e., exceedance without blocking events, to be orders of magnitude more frequent than

268 true positives. If one waits for a more significant level of flux exceedance, however, to  
269 reduce the false positives, the connection to blocking effectively vanishes. Major flux ex-  
270 ceedance events share the same climatological distribution as blocks, but do not lead to  
271 blocking onset.

272 While blocking and flux exceedance events appear to be distinct processes, the sim-  
273 ilarity of their spatial structure suggests shared dynamics. They are favored in regions  
274 of low capacity in the exit region of storm tracks. This structure suggests the importance  
275 of both a ready supply of storm activity and a decrease in jet strength (flow capacity)  
276 to the dynamics. We liken it to a “traffic bottleneck”, as visualized in Figure 4, to em-  
277 phasize the importance of downstream reduction in flow capacity to both phenomenon.  
278 Just as a small road doesn’t precipitate a traffic jam in a sparsely traveled region, over-  
279 whelming the flow capacity of the jet requires both a constriction of the capacity and  
280 a strong inflow of wave activity. Blocking requires similar dynamics, the slowing of the  
281 flow encouraging a stalling of eddies, while the ready upstream supply fuels the magni-  
282 tude of the block.

283 Once a block is formed, how does it persist, and ultimately dissipate? Consistent  
284 with Liu and Wang (2024), our results confirms that regional features of climatological  
285 basic state. Could the periodic behavior of the baroclinic annular mode, as argued in Liu  
286 and Wang (2024), give us even further predictability using the temporal variation of the  
287 regional structure of the flux capacity? More work is needed to connect the intraseasonal  
288 variation of the LWA flux capacity with the 20-30 day periodicity in the midlatitude at-  
289 mosphere. Lastly, to better understand the observed regional climate change, as discussed  
290 by Shaw et al. (2024), future work will explore a wide range of spatial and temporal fea-  
291 tures of fluxes, blocks, and flow capacities, and how their interactions change in a warm-  
292 ing climate.

## 293 **5 Open Research**

294 The authors acknowledge the use of codes in Huang et al. (2024) which uses ERA-  
295 Interim reanalysis dataset (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, 2009),  
296 and the use of ERA5 reanalysis dataset (Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2023). Codes  
297 can be downloaded from the open repository (Yan, 2024).

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