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THE LAS VEGAS McCARRAN INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT MICROBURST OF AUGUST 8, 1989

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I. INTRODUCTION

On August 8, 1989, the Las Vegas area experienced at least two severe microbursts. The first occurred at the Henderson Sky Harbor Airport south of the city (Figure 1), with the second at McCarran International Airport minutes afterward. Wind gusts of 46 m sec⁻¹ (90 kt) were measured at McCarran International Airport by the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) wind indicator at midfield. In addition, an abrupt wind shift near the end of the microburst event resulted in an approximate net change of over 67 m sec⁻¹ (130 kt) down the active runway over a period of about five minutes.

Total damage at both airports was estimated to be 14 million dollars. Approximately 82 damaged aircraft were included in this estimate. Fortunately, there were no injuries or deaths reported with either microburst. However, two aircraft did experience extreme difficulty during takeoff and landing operations during the initial phase of the McCarran microburst.

II. DEFINITIONS

The downburst, a concentrated downdraft that can occasionally be produced by a thunderstorm, has been the object of meteorological research for several The most severe form of the decades. downburst, the microburst, has been identified as a contributing factor in a number of commercial aircraft accidents (Caracena et al. 1989). The accidents are usually the result of a loss of lift during takeoff or landing, when the aircraft enters a region of rapid change in both wind speed and direction (Figure 2). The danger to aircraft is the severe lowlevel wind shear associated with the microburst over small spatial scales (4 km or less).

Downbursts have been categorized according to their spatial and temporal scales (Fujita, 1985) (Table 1). In the context of the planetary scale, я macroburst is defined as a mesoscale downburst. The leading edge of the macroburst outflow at the earth's surface, labeled the gust front, is often detected by radar or is analyzed as a mesoscale feature on synoptic scale surface charts. The gust front is usually the product of downbursts from multiple thunderstorm cells.

The microburst, however, is defined as a misoscale downburst. The localized spatial and temporal nature of the microburst renders it nearly impossible to using present meteorological detect remote sensing tools; e.g., incoherent satellite imagery, radar, etc. Furthermore, microbursts quite often are products of innocuous-looking clouds (Mielke et al. 1987 and Brown et al. 1982), especially in the western United States.

III. PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE MICROBURST

Though the actual structure of the microburst may be quite complex, a general description of the microburst life cycle is depicted in Figure 3 (after Fujita, 1985). The intense, jet-like downdraft strikes the ground much like the model of steady fluid flow impacting a solid flat plate. An impact pressure field causes the downflow component to decelerate as air approaches the surface, and the horizontal component of the wind to accelerate outward from the impact center (Caracena, 1989).

Notice in Figure 4 the vortex ring structure of the microburst surrounding the downdraft core. This feature is believed to be caused by vortex instability generated at the edges of the microburst by the return updraft (Caracena, 1982).

As the microburst strikes the surface of the earth, theory indicates that the vortex ring spins up at the periphery (Figure 5). The dynamics of this expanding ring in the deformation field at the base of a strong downdraft in the vortex ring model may explain why a microburst is observed to strengthen as it expands after surface impact (Wilson et al. 1984). Recent photographs of visible dust generated by microbursts in the Denver area have confirmed the ring structure (Fujita, 1985).

One or more vortex rings may be initiated in a microburst. The vortex ring, or rings can continue to expand, and spread outward near the ground until the downdraft ceases supplying mass. At this point the microburst usually dissipates rapidly. The sequence of events described above typically lasts about five minutes.

IV. MICROBURST ENVIRONMENT

Microbursts have been broken down into three categories (Caracena et al. 1989) according to the environments that produce them: extreme wet, extreme dry, and intermediate environment. The dry convective environment and the intermediate environment produce the vast majority of microbursts in the western United States.

The dry convective environment (Figure 6), where moist convection is typically high-based, is distinguished in plots of atmospheric soundings by the "inverted V" formed by the temperature and dew-point

curves. Characteristic of this profile is a deep, dry mixed layer (with a dryadiabatic lapse rate) topped by a moist, cloud-bearing layer. The dry layer frequently exceeds 3 km in depth in the desert southwest, such that cloud bases tend to be above the 600 mb level. The dry sub-cloud laver usually deep, evaporates most of the precipitation in the microburst before the precipitation reaches the earth's surface. The evaporative cooling is the source of most of the negative buoyancy for the downward acceleration in the sub-cloud portion of the downdraft. Thus, the dry microburst is most often identified with virga, or thin rainshafts where measurable precipitation is unlikely to occur.

Dry microbursts have been studied by Brown et al. (1982), Fujita (1986),Wakimoto (1985) and others. These authors have recognized the importance of the steep sub-cloud layer lapse rate (for evaporation), and the intensity of rainfall for the production of dry microbursts. In addition, these authors focus on the importance a weak updraft plays in the eventual formation of a dry microburst. A weak updraft produces the most favorable precipitation type--the lightly rimmed snowflake--that evaporates rapidly and completely during descent (Brown et al. 1982).

Forecasting schemes based on the model of the "extreme dry" environment have been developed by Wakimoto (1985), Wilson et al. (1984), and MacDonald (1976). All of the methods depend on the existence of a moist, convectively unstable layer in the vicinity of 500 mb, and a dry, lower layer with a dry-adiabatic lapse rate.

The "intermediate environment" is similar to the "extreme dry" except that the moist, mid-level layer is deeper, and the cloud bases are lower (Figure 7). The shallower, sub-cloud layer often produces heavy rains normally associated with the "extreme wet" microburst. It is believed some of the processes important in the "extreme wet" regime are also present in the "intermediate environment."

Charba (1974) noted that the source of downdraft air in Oklahoma thunderstorms (intermediate, extreme wet or environment) was environmental air located between 3 km and 8 km above level (based ground on values of equivalent potential temperature). The drier, mid-level air from the near-storm environment is entrained into the cloud (Kessler, 1986), carrying the horizontal momentum of the environment. The accompanying evaporative cooling due to with drier mixing air into the thunderstorm also contributes to the negative buoyancy of the downdraft. In addition, the kinetic energy of the downdraft may be intensified by the weight of the condensation products accumulated in the warm, moist updraft. The net result of all these processes can produce wind speeds of 50 m sec⁻¹, or more at the earth's surface.

Variations of the parcel theory (Fawbush and Miller, 1954 and Foster, 1958) have been utilized as gust forecasting tools in environment" the "wet where the downdraft is assumed to remain saturated on descent to the surface. This assumption is questionable in both the dry extreme, and intermediate environment where evaporation in the sub-cloud layer enhances the downdraft.

The studies cited above indicate that meteorologists do have a reasonable of understanding the types of environments that <u>can</u> produce microbursts. However, as Caracena et al. (1989) states, "there is no simple index for estimating the potential downdraft strengths from conventional sounding and surface data."

V. CASE STUDY

A. The Synoptic Situation

Flow aloft over southern Nevada was dominated by a 500 mb anticyclone (Figures 8, 9, and 10) centered over the Arizona/Utah border at 1200 UTC on 8 August 1989.

The sounding from Desert Rock, Nevada (DRA) at 1200 UTC (Figure 11) showed a nearly saturated layer of air at about 630 mb, and another layer from 520 mb to 420 mb. Drier air existed from the surface to approximately 630 mb, and above the 420 mb level. The sounding is representative of the "intermediate environment" (Figure 7), where multiple processes may effect the strength of the microburst. This "hybrid" sounding is similar to the conditions Ellrod (1989) found in the Dallas microburst that led to a commercial airline disaster in 1985.

The Showalter and Lifted Index (Figure 12) were both zero or less, and the K Index was greater than 30 across much of the desert southwest. The layer stability analysis (Figure 13) also indicated an unstable air mass (layer stability is defined as the difference in the mean potential temperature between the 850-500 mb layer and the 700-300 mb layer. Small values imply instability while large values imply stability). These conditions were suggestive of a large area of midlevel potential instability.

1200 UTC satellite images and At lightning detection maps (Figures 14 and revealed areas of dissipating 15) convection across south-central Nevada, and in the Sierra Nevadas. Another line of convection, apparently initiated earlier that day at about 0300 UTC (Figures 16, 17, and 18) in the vicinity of Prescott, Arizona, from the outflow boundary of a mesoscale convective system (MCS) to the south, was evident over northwestern Arizona. This line was drifting northwestward at 3 to 4 m \sec^{-1} as it Surface dew points slowly dissipated. remained unusually high (13°C to 18°C) throughout the day across the desert

southwest at least partly due to the precipitation from the nocturnal thunderstorm activity.

The dissipating area of convection moved out of northwest Arizona and into the Las Vegas area by 1700 UTC (Figure 19). The dissipating line of towering cumulus and cumulonimbus arched from about Mesquite, Nevada to Las Vegas, southwestward to near Twentynine Palms, California.

Thunderstorms began forming over the high terrain of southern California by 1900 UTC, along the old instability line (Figure 20). The convection grew steadily in areal extent as it moved northeast into the California-Nevada border area at 2330 UTC (Figure 21).

Cloud-top temperatures were near -50°C (Ellrod, personal communication), indicating cloud-top heights near 12 km (40 kft). Also evident in the 2330 UTC imagery was the extent that the convective area had developed eastward, as it moved toward the northeast.

Sounding data from DRA at 0000 UTC (Figure 22) displayed very little change from the 1200 UTC measurements. Apparent, though, was a slight increase in precipitable water (from 0.97 to 1.09 inches) due to slightly higher mixing ratios through the sounding, and a deeper mid-level moisture layer. Low-level winds (below 2.5 km) had also changed from west to southwest.

The 0000 UTC (Figure 23) surface analysis exhibited few unusual features, other than the high dew points. Pressure tendencies across all of the southwest were typical of the semi-diurnal effect. Also evident was the usual surface thermal low, centered in the Las Vegas area, providing a region of low-level mass convergence.

The 0000 UTC 500 mb analyses (Figures 24 and 25) revealed a weak, short-wave evident in the trough wind field stretching from near Winnemucca, Nevada into central Nevada. Also evident was a slight eastward shift of the long-wave trough along the West Coast and the ridge across the intermountain region. This shift in the synoptic pattern allowed the winds to become more southwesterly across central California into southern Nevada. However, wind speeds at 500 mb were less than 15 m sec⁻¹ across the entire southwestern United States.

Analysis of the 850 mb moisture convergence field (Figure 26) revealed strong moisture flux convergence persisting in the Four Corners area. An area of moisture flux divergence had, developed from near Las Vegas, south along the Colorado River in northwest Arizona.

At 500 mb moisture flux convergence (Figure 27) was apparent in a band from the San Diego, California area across Las Vegas into southern Utah. It should be noted that the 500 mb moisture flux convergence corresponded closely with the convective activity, and short-term development on the 0030-0430 UTC satellite imagery (Figures 28 and 29).

B. The Microburst Event

Between 1931 UTC (Figure 20) and 2330 UTC (Figure 21) thunderstorm activity developed rapidly along the California/Nevada border and to the east of Desert Rock. Α region of thunderstorm activity had moved as far north and east as the Spring Mountains and the McCullough Range to the west and southwest of Las Vegas (Figure 28) by 0030 UTC. WSO Las Vegas radar observed the thunderstorm activity as mainly VIP level 2 cells, occasionally reaching VIP level 3. The activity was moving northward at about 5 m sec⁻¹.

At approximately 0045 UTC, an observer in the McCarran control tower reported a thunderstorm 4 to 6 km wide, about 12 km south of the airport (Figure 1). A single, narrow rain shaft was observed to be reaching the ground at the Sky Harbor-Henderson Airport, raising a dust cloud that was moving fast enough to permit the motion to be perceived. Upon noticing the dust cloud, the controllers immediately issued a wind advisory for McCarran International Airport, switched the active runway, and began rerouting air traffic. At this time, a strong microburst struck the Sky Harbor Airport (Figure 1), destroying numerous aircraft in the process. Within a couple of minutes, the rain shaft and dust cloud were observed by the controllers to dissipate. Consequently, the controllers reopened runway 19 and cancelled the wind advisory for McCarran International Airport.

The thunderstorm continued to approach McCarran International Airport from the south. The National Weather Service observer reported thunder, with a light rain shower, beginning at 0049 UTC. Southeast winds had increased and were 10 m sec⁻¹ gusting to 22 m sec⁻¹ (Appendix A).

Cloud-to-ground (CG) lightning had also begun to increase in the thunderstorm cluster from one CG flash every four to five minutes to about one per minute by 0050 UTC. In the ensuing eight minutes, CG flash frequency increased to three per minute and peaked at six flashes per minute within the cluster at 0101 UTC (Appendix B).

At approximately 0100 UTC, the control tower observer reported the rapid formation and northward movement of a dust cloud just to the south of the active runway 19. A commercial airliner was in the process of taking off and reported extreme turbulence flying through the cloud. It was at this time the Low-Level Windshear Alert System (LLWAS) sensor at the end of runway 19 activated an alarm in the control tower (Figure 30).

The dust cloud moved rapidly toward the control tower arriving at approximately 0103 UTC. Heavy rain and zero visibility were reported from the tower within seconds of the arrival of the wind and dust. FAA wind equipment, located at mid-field, registered a wind gust to 46 m sec⁻¹ from the south-southeast. Tower personnel reported pronounced swaying of the tower due to the strong wind. Reliable eyewitnesses near the airport observed the "boiling" sand cloud near the ground as it moved through the airport.

NWS wind equipment, collocated with FAA mid-field equipment, registered a gust to 40 m sec⁻¹ before losing power at approximately 0105 UTC. A lightning bolt struck near the back-up power generator, knocking out all power and telephones to the WSO at the Hughes Air Terminal on the west side of the airport (Figure 30).

At the height of the event, tower personnel observed the wind direction from the LLWAS equipment around the airport. The wind pattern at that time (Figure 31) indicated the characteristic footprint of a microburst.

At approximately 0107 UTC, wind gusts decreased to about 26 m sec⁻¹, and abruptly switched to the north. After another two to three minutes, winds diminished to about 2 m sec⁻¹, and switched to southerly again. The entire episode lasted no more than 10 minutes. Rainfall during the brief event was quite heavy for the desert, totaling .41 inches.

The temperature dropped dramatically between 0050 UTC and 0106 UTC from 31.5°C to 19.5°C. The maximum temperature at the airport was 38.0°C prior to the arrival of the thunderstorm activity. Utilizing the Fawbush and Miller (1967) graphical technique for "wet" microbursts, results in a forecast peak gust of 39.6 m sec⁻¹ ± 3 m sec⁻¹. Utilizing Randerson's technique (1982) developed for estimating gusts in desert thunderstorms yields a peak gust of 25 m sec⁻¹ ± 6 m sec⁻¹.

A barograph trace (Figure 32) was also available during the episode and showed a very strong pressure jump of about 0.20 inches (6.7 mb) associated with the microburst. Employing Bernoulli's equation, a maximum wind estimate of 33.1 m sec^1 is obtained due to the negative buoyancy in the downdraft (for an explanation of Bernoulli's equation, see Appendix C). Unfortunately, due to the coarse time resolution on the graph, it is impossible to know exactly when the peak pressure occurred.

C. Damage Report

Reports from the Sky Harbor Airport revealed that numerous aircraft were damaged in the microburst. However, ground reports <u>between</u> the two airports show no evidence of damage or severe winds (Figure 1).

The second microburst was also fairly limited in areal extent, extending from near the south end of runway 19 along Sunset Road to just northeast of the airport on Maryland Parkway (Figure 30). A commercial pilot who lives just to the southwest of the airport (Figure 33) observed the entire episode and reported only a sprinkle of rain with winds under 5 m sec¹. This report is similar to the one from an airport employee who witnessed the event from approximately 7 km south of the McCarran International Airport (Figure 33).

The microburst did considerable damage to several aircraft hangars on the west side of the McCarran International Airport. Numerous small aircraft were either damaged or destroyed by the winds. The microburst apparently dissipated just to the northeast of the airport. However, this was not before knocking down 12 power poles (Figure 30) along Maryland Parkway. Power service was disrupted at the airport, a few businesses, and numerous residential customers due to the downed power lines.

Approximately 14 million dollars in damages resulted from these two microbursts. This estimate includes severe damage to several hangars, 80 aircraft (that were reportedly tied down), and power lines. Fortunately, there were no reported deaths or injuries.

VI. SUMMARY

Atmospheric stability and moisture content over southern Nevada on this day (Figures 11 and 22) were very similar to that observed near Dallas-Fort Worth (Figure 7) on the day a severe microburst occurred there. However, at the present, time, there is no simple index to accurately forecast the maximum wind gust in a microburst from a sounding. The indices require a forecast of the storm environment, e.g., surface potential temperature, in order to be of much use. Alert, accurate, and timely observations remain the most vital tool in forecasting and nowcasting of microburst events.

Suggestive of microburst potential may have been the strong moisture flux <u>divergence</u> at 850 mb across southern Nevada. This was coupled with the moisture flux convergence band at 500 mb across southern Nevada. Further study will be required to determine the viability of these as indicators of microburst potential.

Unfortunately, there is no evidence to establish that the thunderstorm which produced the microbursts in Las Vegas manifested any meteorologically significant radar signatures; e.g., an intense reflectivity return, a hail spike, or an extraordinary radar top. The WSO Las Vegas WSR-74C is a <u>local</u> radar, and therefore, was not manned at the time of The network radar watch the event. (WSO Palmdale) responsible for the Las Vegas area (Figure 34) is not suited for short-fused, monitoring small-scale eventsmeteorological such as ล microburst. The sensitivity-time control (STC) curves, and the wide vertical beam width (6 to 7 degrees) of FAA radars are inadequate for short-range observations. In any event, neither radar archives data with sufficient frequency to be of use in the post-storm reconstruction of this event.

As stated previously, investigators have pointed out microbursts spawned by the "dry extreme" and the "intermediate" environment are often the products of parent clouds that are not severe. The thunderstorm that produced the microburst resulting in a commercial airliner disaster at the Dallas-Fort Worth Airport was observed as a small shower (approximately 30 dBZ) with a radar top of only 7 km (Fujita, 1986), minutes before the event. Rapid intensification to approximately 45 dBZ (a VIP level 4) occurred only four minutes before the microburst (Caracena et al. 1986).

Recent work by Williams and Orville (1988) and Beuchler et al. (1988), point to a relationship between intracloud (IC) lightning and microbursts in the "extreme wet" environment. IC activity maximizes four to 10 minutes prior to the time of maximum outflow at the surface due to charge separation processes occurring in the thunderstorm updraft. It is unknown if this technique would be useful in either the "dry extreme" or the "intermediate" environments. A potentially, inexpensive procedure to test this principle would be to combine output from an optical detector (Scott, 1989) with real-time CG lightning flash data. A simple algorithm could be programmed into a personal computer that would subtract the CG lightning data set from the full lightning spectrum collected by the optical device. The product would be an estimate of the real-time IC lightning frequency in the vicinity of the optical detector.

There is sufficient knowledge of the microburst in dry and intermediate environments to issue an "area-wide microburst alert" based on vertical moisture and temperature profiles (Wilson et al. 1984 and Caracena et al. 1989). The microburst alerts would heighten the level of awareness in the aviation community, both FAA and pilots.

Numerous authors have cited the tendency for microbursts to occur in families. Wilson et al. (1984) found in a study of the Denver Airport area that in 71 microbursts examined, 70 percent occurred on days when three or more were observed on the same day. The lesson is that when <u>one</u> microburst is observed, vigilance levels \mathbf{for} other occurrences should be increased. Thus, upon the occurrence of a microburst event, an "area-wide microburst alert" could be upgraded to an "area-specific warning".

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

- As Smith (1986) asserted, classify microbursts as an observable phenomena. Visual identification of microbursts may be the final line of defense in avoiding a microburst-related accident or disaster.

- Further investigation of a costeffective, "total lightning rate" detector is vital. Unknown is the effectiveness of the IC lightning rate observation in the western states as a microburst precursor.

- More emphasis should be placed on microburst identification and forecasting techniques in both FAA and NWS training courses. SP #238 E128 BKN 158 BKN 15T 1416/988/TB25 CB OVHD NOVE NW FRT LIECCIECE (HCB) SA 8258 E188 OVC STRW 896/79/63/2226637/991/R825 CB OVHD MOVE NW FRT LIGICCCCG DCNL RW+ (HCB) SA COR #258 E188 DVC &TRW #96/79/63/2226637/991/RB25 CB DVHD NOV6 NW FRT LTGCCICCB DCNL RW+ PK NND 2237/46 (HCB) RS 8352 E188 BKN 158 BKN 258 BKN 15 895/88/61/2418/991/TE45 HOVE N OCNL LTGICIC RE45/ 12435 1963 78 26835 (JNS) 72386 11974 62418 18267 20161 39353 48895 51824 68891 72992 85963 333 18428 28256 78889 98551 555 98812= (JNS) RS CDR 0352 E100 BKN 150 BKN 250 BKN 15 095/80/61/2410/991/TE45 NOVG N OCHL LTGICCG RE45/ 12435 1963 78 20035 (JWS) 72386 11974 62418 18267 20161 39353 40895 51824 68891 72992 85963 333 18428 20256 78989 98551 555 98812= (COR) (JWS) SA 8458 E100 BKN 150 BKN 250 BKN 50 102/80/62/2710/992/CB N-N-E HOVG N FOT LIGCCCG (JWS) SA 8558 188 SCT E158 BKN 258 BKN 58 199/88/64/3288/994/CB N DSIPTE RWU NH-E (JWS) SA 8658 128 SCT E158 BKN 258 BKN 25 115/81/65/1489/996/ 217 1273 (HCB) SA 9758 E158 BKN 258 BKN 35 114/86/63/3685/996/RWU NE-SE (JWS) SA 0858 E138 BKN 258 OVC 35 115/86/64/0385/996/NDT CU ONTNS N-NE RWU DSNT E (FDT) SA 8958 E138 BKN 258 DVC 35 118/88/66/8989/995/TCU S-N BINDVC/ 883 1271 78 (JWS) 72386 32985 88989 18311 28189 39367 48118 58883 81271 333 18358 28256 78889 555 98818= (JWS) SA 1859 E138 BKN 258 DVC 35 186/91/63/8589/994/TCU 5 AND NW BINDVC (JWS) SA 1158 130 SCT E250 OVC 35 897/93/68/8989/991/NDT CU N DINOVC (JWS) SA 1258 98 SCT 138 SCT E258 BKN 35 884/99/61/8985/988/TCU S-N/ 722 1268 (JWS) SA 1358 98 SCT 138 SCT E258 BKH 35 875/98/61/8987/985/CB DSNT NE TCU ALODS (FDT) SA 1458 98 SCT E258 BKN 35 865/108/59/2186/982/CB DHTWS N-NE RNU DSNT W (FDT) SA 1552 100 SCT 148 SCT E250 DVC 35 060/99/56/1811/980/CB NN AND NE/ 725 1358 00 (LED) 72386 32985 81811 10372 20133 39319 40068 57025 82358 333 10378 20256 70889 555 90988= (LED) SA 1658 E198 BKH 148 OVC 35TRM- 867/89/61/1428642/981/TB49 SE MOVE N RB49 (LED) SA COR 1650 E100 BKN 148 OVC 35TRW- 867/87/61/1428642/981/ T849 SE NOVE N R849 PEAK NND 1442/33 (LED) RS COR 1658 E188 BKN 148 OVC 35TRW- 867/89/61/1428642/981/T849 SE MOVG N R849 PEAK WND 1442/33 (CHS) SP 1785 WE X #T+RW+ 1435678/981/T ALROS CONT LIGCE ALROS (CHS) SP 1715 E98 OVC 35TRM- 00001/08 ALROS T N MOVE N OCHL LTECE N (CHS) SP 1734 E98 BKN 158 BKN 258 DVC 35 8888/981/CB ALQDS TE38 NOVD N RE38 BCNL LTGCG N (CHS) SA 1750 98 SCT E150 BKN 258 DVC 35 872/76/78/0008/981/CB ALQDS HDVG N RWU N DCNL LTBCG N TRE30 PK NND 1478/03 (CHS) 58 1853 98 SCT 158 SCT E258 DVC 35 888/84/69/8888/984/CB RWU N HOVE N/ 31441 1963 (CHS) SA 1955 150 SCT E258 BKN 15 085/83/66/2405/986/CB OCNL LIGIC DSNT W (CHS) SA 2055 150 SCT 258 SCT 15 876/83/64/2385/983/C8 OCNL LTCCCG DENT NE (CHS) SA COR 2855 158 SCT 258 SCT 15 876/83/64/2385/983/CB OCNL LTECCCE DENT NE (CHS) SA 2151 CLR 15 896/83/66/1983/989/C8 DENL LIGIC DENT W/ 21741 1381 88 (CHS) 72386 11974 11983 10283 20189 39358 40896 52817 60101 76101 81381 333 10378 20194 70193 90550 555 90986= (CHS) SA 2254 158 SCT E258 BKN 15 893/82/65/8584/989/CB OCML LIGCCIC DSNT W (CHS) SA 2358 90 SCT E158 DVC 15 896/82/64/8311621/998/CB DCWL LTGCCIC DSNT W/ 98513 (CHS)

VIII. APPENDICES

54 8858 E158 BKN 258 BKN 15 866/93/49/3489/983/ 187 1872 (HCB)

SA 8158 E159 BKN 258 BKN 15 876/93/49/1488/986/CB D9NT SE OCNL LTGCCIC (HCB)

Appendix A - Summary of Las Vegas McCarran Airport Observations on August 8, 1989



Appendix B - Summary of Cloud-to-Ground Lightning Flashes from 0000 UTC - 0130 UTC on August 9, 1989

APPENDIX C.

The generalized form of the equation for steady, nonviscous, incompressible fluid flow (Lamb, 1945) can be written as:

(1) $\int Dp/P + \Omega + \frac{1}{2}v^2 = \text{constant}$

where,

p = pressure P = density $\Omega = velocity potential$ v = velocity.

This equation, called *Bernoulli's equation*, shows that the pressure varies inversely to the velocity of the fluid along any one streamline.

Bernoulli's equation can be simplified for application in a microburst (Fujita, 1985) as:

(2)
$$p = \frac{1}{2}Pv^2$$

where,

p = static pressure change P = density v = velocity.

This equation (Figure 34) expresses the measured pressure change at any point as a simple function of the wind speed.

The total pressure, a sum of the static and velocity pressure, remains constant during a frictionless outflow from the microburst (Figure 34). Barometers measure static pressure, which varies as a function of wind velocity.

For the event at McCarran International Airport on August 8, 1989, the measured static pressure change at the barograph was approximately 6.7 mb. Using equation (2), with a range of densities appropriate for the ambient temperature and elevation, the maximum wind speed expected would be about 33 m sec¹.

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Table 1

Temporal and Spatial Scales of the Microburst and the Gust Front/Macroburst

Type	Dimension	Spatial Scale	Temporal Scale
Microburst	4 km or less	Misoscale	10 minutes or less
Macroburst/ Gust Front	Greater than 4 km	Mesoscale	5 minutes to 2 hours

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FLIGHT PATH AND INDICATED AIRSPEED OF PAA 759 AT THE NEW ORLEANS AIRPORT ON 9 JULY 1982. ACCORDING TO THE AUTHOR'S RECONSTRUCTION, THE AIRCRAFT REACHED 163 FT. (50 m) AGL. THEREAFTER, IT DESCENDED TO 52 FT. (16 m), CONTACTING A TREE ON THE EAST SIDE OF WILLIAMS BLVD. (FUJITA, 1985)



THREE STAGES OF A DESCENDING MICROBURST. A MID-AIR MICROBURST MAY OR MAY NOT DESCEND TO THE SURFACE. IF IT DOES, THE OUTBURST WINDS DEVELOP IMMEDIATELY AFTER ITS TOUCHDOWN. (FUJITA, 1985)



FIGURE 4 OUTFLOW MICROBURSTS ARE THE MOST COMMONLY OBSERVED TYPE OF MICROBURSTS (FUJITA, 1985)



CROSS SECTION OF A CONCEPTUAL VORTEX RING MODEL OF A MICROBURST (CARACENA, 1982; 1987). THE SHADED PORTION IS THE FRICTION BOUNDARY LAYER THAT CONTAINS VORTICITY OPPOSITE TO THAT OF THE DESCENDING RING.



A COMPOSITE OF FIVE AFTERNOON (0000 UTC) SOUNDINGS BY BROWN et al. (1982) FOR CONVECTIVE EVENTS THAT PRODUCED DAMAGING SURFACE WINDS ASSOCIATED WITH HIGH-BASED CUMULONIMBI IN THE FRONT RANGE AREA OF COLORADO



RECONSTRUCTED SOUNDING FOR DALLAS-FORT WORTH INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT FOR A TIME WHEN A MICROBURST-RELATED ACCIDENT HAPPENED (CARACENA et al, 1986)



FIGURE 8 500-mb DATA PLT WITH CONTOUR ANALYSIS VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 9 500-mb CONTOURED VORTICITY ANALYSIS VALID AT 1200 UTC (THE SOLID LINES ARE HEIGHT CONTOURS; THE DASHED LINES REPRESENT VORTICITY ISOPLETHS) AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 10 500-mb WIND FIELD ANALYSIS VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 11 DRA SOUNDING VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 12 ANALYSIS OF THE LIFT INDEX (TOP NUMBER) AND K-INDEX (BOTTOM NUMBER) VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 13 ANALYSIS OF THE LAYER STABILITY VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989

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FIGURE 14 ENHANCED IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 1200 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 15 ANALYSIS OF THE CG LIGHTNING DATA VALID AT 1215 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989

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FIGURE 16 IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 0331 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 17 IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 0431 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 18 IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 0531 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 19 VISIBLE SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 1731 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 20 ENHANCED VISIBLE SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 1931 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



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FIGURE 21 ENHANCED VISIBLE SAT IMAGERY VALID AT 2331 UTC AUGUST 8, 1989



FIGURE 22 DRA SOUNDING VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989



FIGURE 23 SURFACE PRESSURE ANALYSIS (4 mb INTERVAL) AND DATA PLOT VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989



FIGURE 24 500-mb CONTOUR ANALYSIS AND DATA PLOT VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989

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FIGURE 25 500-mb WIND FIELD ANALYSIS VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989

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FIGURE 26 850-mb MOISTURE FLUX CONVERGENCE ANALYSIS VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989



FIGURE 27 500-mb MOISTURE FLUX CONVERGENCE ANALYSIS VALID AT 0000 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989



FIGURE 28 ENHANCED IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 0031 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989

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FIGURE 29 ENHANCED IR SATELLITE IMAGERY VALID AT 0431 UTC AUGUST 9, 1989



FIGURE 30 APPROXIMATE GROUND LOCATIONS OF DAMAGE IN THE McCARRAN AIRPORT VICINITY



AT THE HEIGHT MICROBURST EVENT

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FIGURE 32 BARAGRAPH TRACE FROM WSO - LAS VEGAS



FIGURE 33 APPROXIMATE GROUND LOCATIONS OF MICROBURST WITNESSES



BERNOULLI'S THEOREM INDICATING THAT THE TOTAL PRESSURE, A SUM OF THE STATIC PRESSURE AND THE VELOCITY PRESSURE OR THE DYNAMIC PRESSURE, REMAINS CONSTANT DURING A FRICTIONLESS OUTFLOW FROM THE CENTER OF A MICROBURST. (FUJITA, 1985)

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