

**THERMAL AND DYNAMICAL FEATURES OF A THUNDERSTORM
WITH A TILTED AXIS OF ROTATION**

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THERMAL AND DYNAMICAL FEATURES OF A THUNDERSTORM
WITH A TILTED AXIS OF ROTATION

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1. INTRODUCTION

The first sequence of radar pictures of a rotating thunderstorm in the shape of a rotating hook were obtained by the Illinois State Water Survey. [Refer to reports by Huff et al. (1954) and Fujita (1958).] Since then a large number of cloud photographs of the parent or mother clouds of tornadoes were obtained. One of the best examples of early storms is the Fargo tornado cloud of June 20, 1957. [Refer to Fujita (1960).] Recent developments in Doppler radar now permit one to scan the entire volume of a thunderstorm in an attempt to establish velocity vectors of hydrometeors. [Refer to Brown et al. (1973).]

It is a well-established concept that a thunderstorm, or a portion thereof, rotates when an intense tornado forms. In other words, strong tornadoes tend to spawn from rotating thunderstorms. Despite an early presumption that the rotational axis is more or less vertical, observational evidence indicates a significant tilt. One of the best examples is the April 21, 1961 cloud photographed by Fujita from the Weather Bureau's DC-6 in a research flight mission. Although a sequence of pictures showing an apparent tilt was available, no research on the tilt was attempted until Dr. Robert Costen (1972) of NASA's Langley Research Center pointed out the importance of such

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a study. Thus, the data collected some 12 years ago were re-analyzed in an attempt to reconstruct the cloud features based on new ideas and assumptions.

2. TILT OF STORM AXIS

The three-dimensional tilt vector of a rotating thunderstorm can be determined by taking cloud pictures from different directions. An aircraft platform provides us with quickly changing views which can be used in the tilt computations.

The true tilt is defined as the direction of the cloud axis measured from the local vertical through the cloud. The tilt measured on a horizontal image may be called the apparent tilt, which is different from the true tilt. They can be related by an equation

$$\tan \tau_a = \tan \tau \sin (\alpha - \beta) \quad (1)$$

where τ_a is the apparent tilt, τ is the true tilt, α is the azimuth of the cloud axis, and β is the azimuth of the cloud viewed from the aircraft.

The apparent tilt of the rotating thunderstorm of April 21, 1961, measured from six directions, is plotted in Fig. 1 as a function of the cloud azimuth β . As

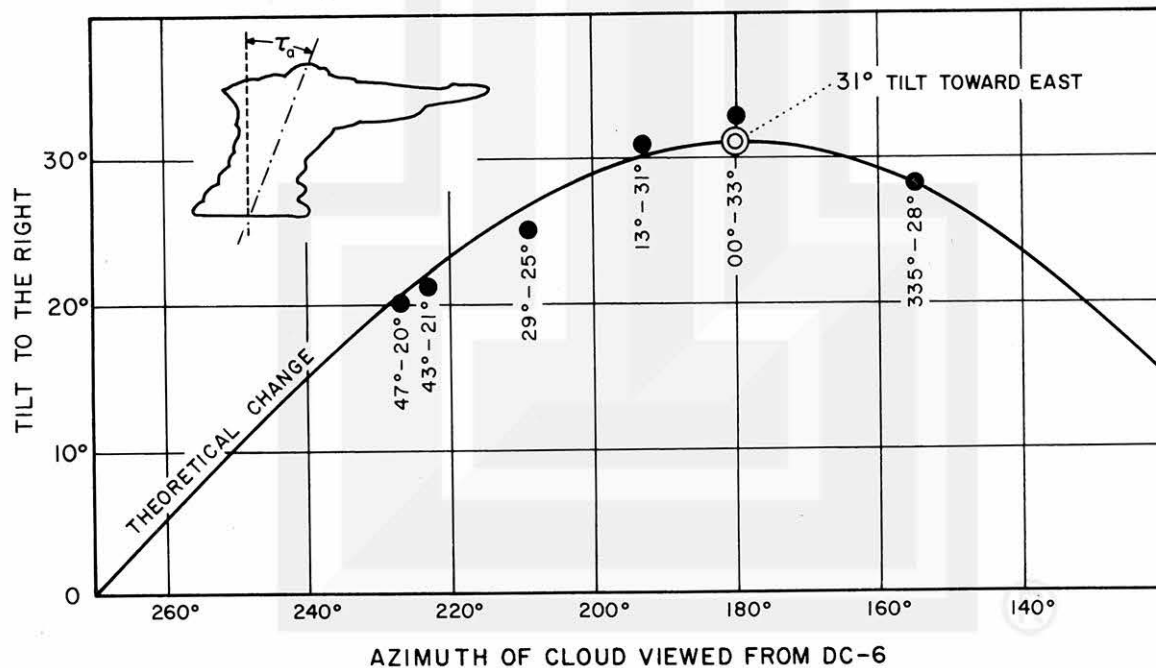


Fig. 1. Variation in the apparent tilt of a rotating thunderstorm.

shown in Eq. (1), the apparent tilt coincides with the true tilt when $\alpha - \beta = 90^\circ$. In this case, the azimuth of the cloud was 0° when the apparent tilt reached the maximum value. This means that the cloud was tilted due eastward.

The variation of the apparent tilt due to the change in the viewing direction is shown in Figs. 2 and 3. Fig. 2 represents a view of the cloud toward the 43° azimuth;

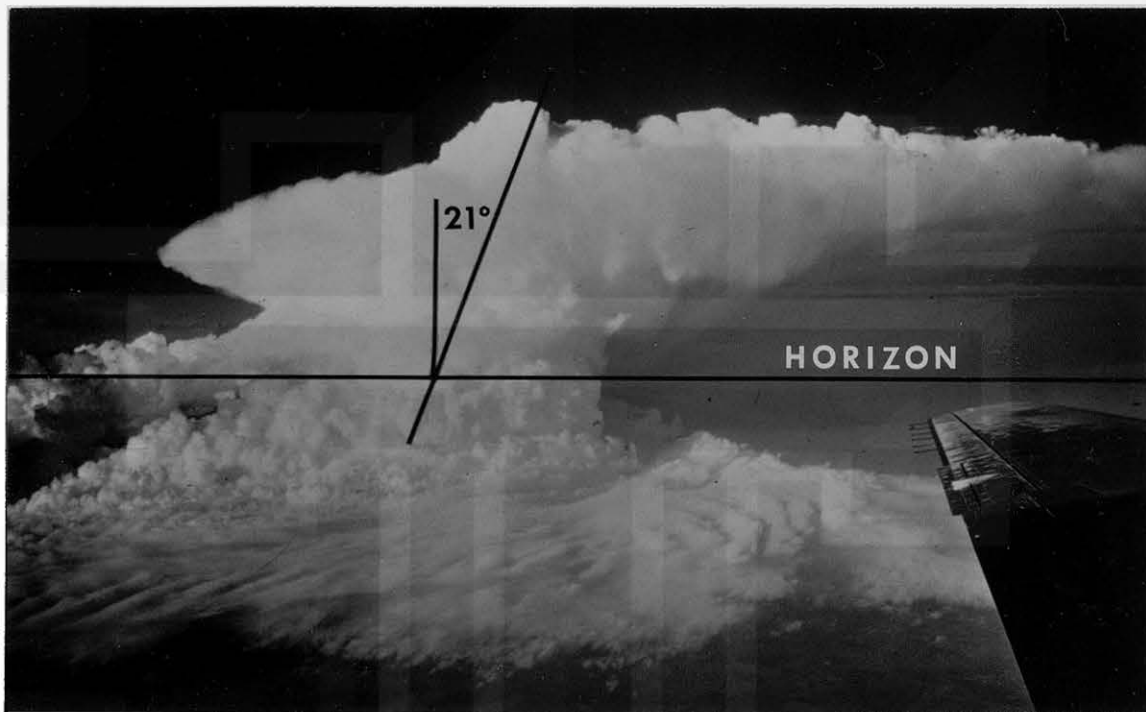


Fig. 2. A view toward the 43° azimuth.



Fig. 3. A view toward the 00° azimuth or due north.

the apparent tilt is 21° . The cloud shows a cyclonic rotation at least near the cloud base. Fig. 3 is a view of the cloud with a 00° azimuth when the apparent tilt reached the maximum value of 33° . These figures clearly show the variation in the cloud tilt. The true tilt of 31° was obtained after smoothing the six values in Fig. 1.

3. ENVIRONMENTAL WINDS

The environmental flow must be known accurately in order to interpret the reasons for a tilt of 31° . This value appears to be rather large for such a large rotating thunderstorm. Unfortunately, no radiosonde station was located close enough to permit us to estimate the environmental wind from data of a single station. In order to estimate the best possible upper winds in the immediate vicinity of the cloud, a 6-layer analysis was performed as shown in Fig. 4.

The 850-mb wind at the cloud location was estimated to be 220° -32 kt. The flow at this level appears to be rather straight. As the height increases to 700 mb, the environmental flow started showing a definite anticyclonic curvature. The wind speed increased toward the north, resulting in a definite anticyclonic vorticity around the cloud. The 700 mb flow was 240° -40 kt.

At 500 mb, the flow became straight again with the velocity 250° -50 kt. At this level the streamlines diverged with a decreasing wind speed toward the east. A 275° -75 kt wind is seen at 300 mb where a definite anticyclonic flow is apparent. A jetstream flow was located near the 200 mb level with the 280° -105 kt wind. The jet axis was, however, seen far to the south, over central Oklahoma. The 100 mb level is located above the level of the maximum wind. At this level the wind speed decreased to only 55 kt from the west.

The environmental flow determined through the mandatory-level analyses is put together in the hodograph of Fig. 5. The surface, 900-mb, and 400-mb winds were estimated from other sources. The effective inflow wind is approximately 190° -40 kt located within a 3000-ft layer above the surface. The mean wind averaged between the cloud base at 4000 ft MSL and the 300 mb level was 240° -45 kt, and the cloud motion estimated to be 270° -22 kt was 30° to the right of the mean wind. This cloud was certainly a right-deviating storm. For further definition refer to Browning (1965) and Fujita (1965).

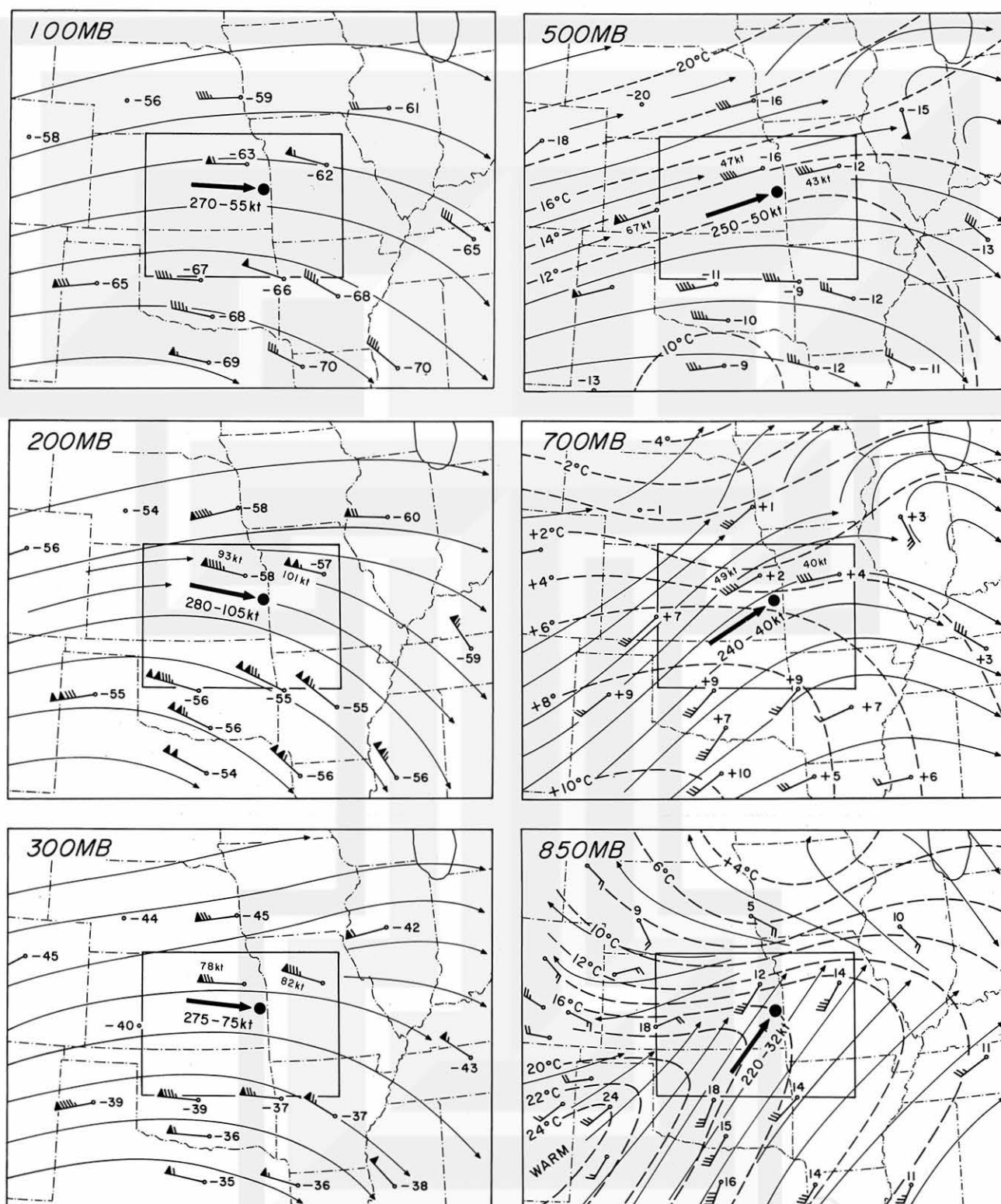


Fig. 4. Multi-level analysis of wind and temperature fields around the rotating thunderstorm of April 21, 1961. The map time is 1800 CST, when the storm was in the mature stage. Hourly surface maps within the boxed area appear in Fig. 8.

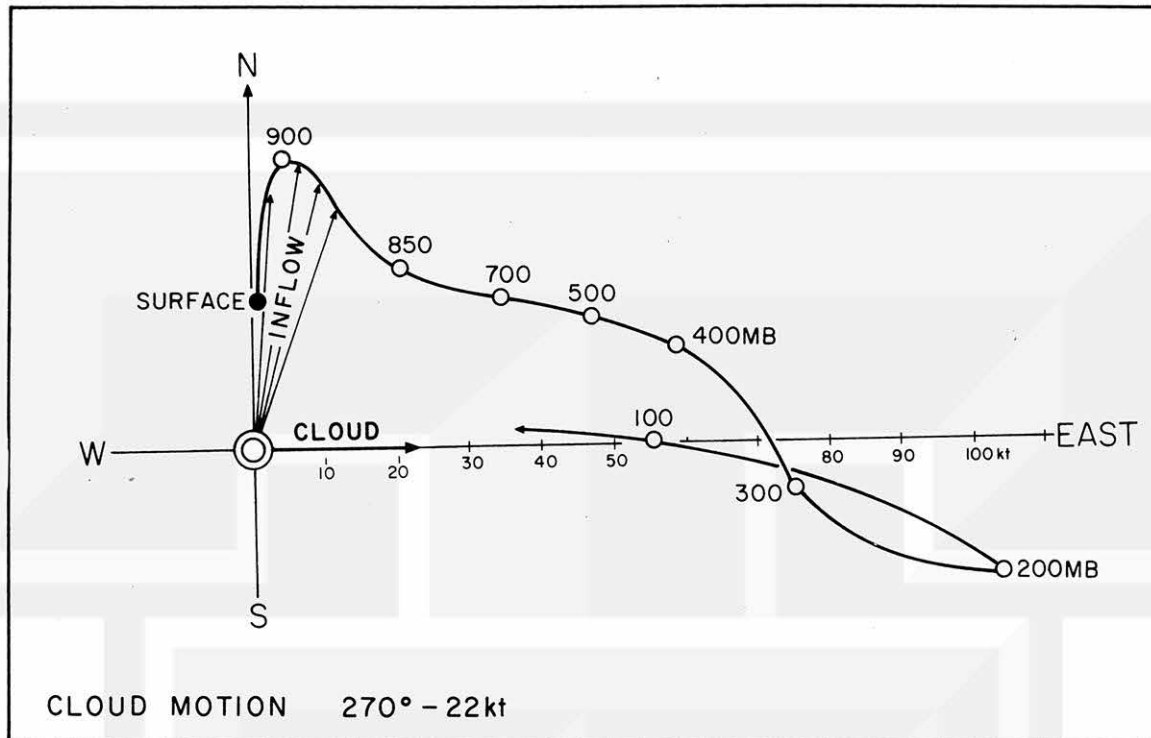


Fig. 5. Hodograph of environmental winds aloft.

4. SURFACE PARAMETERS

The rotating cloud of April 21, 1961 was isolated, while developing very rapidly. The cloud was located near the north end of a warm tongue (see Fig. 6) accompanied by a well-defined moist tongue (see Fig. 7). When such a synoptic situation arises, it is usual to observe a rapid development of thunderstorms in lines. Fortunately, an isolated thunderstorm formed and started rotating shortly afterward. Such a development gave us a golden opportunity for the measurements including multi-directional photographic work. Shown in Fig. 8 are the hourly surface charts including winds, isobars, and stream lines. Note that wind barbs are plotted after doubling the speed; that is, one full barb represents a 5-kt wind. Radar echoes are shown in painted areas. In fact, PPI images from Oklahoma City, Wichita, and Kansas City were used in composite presentations.

A very interesting and important aspect of the storm formation is the existence of a mesoscale field of cyclonic vorticity. At 1600 CST when the cloud just started to precipitate, a significant vorticity and convergence field was in existence. The 1008-mb isobar shows a well defined pressure "pocket". Within one hour, the

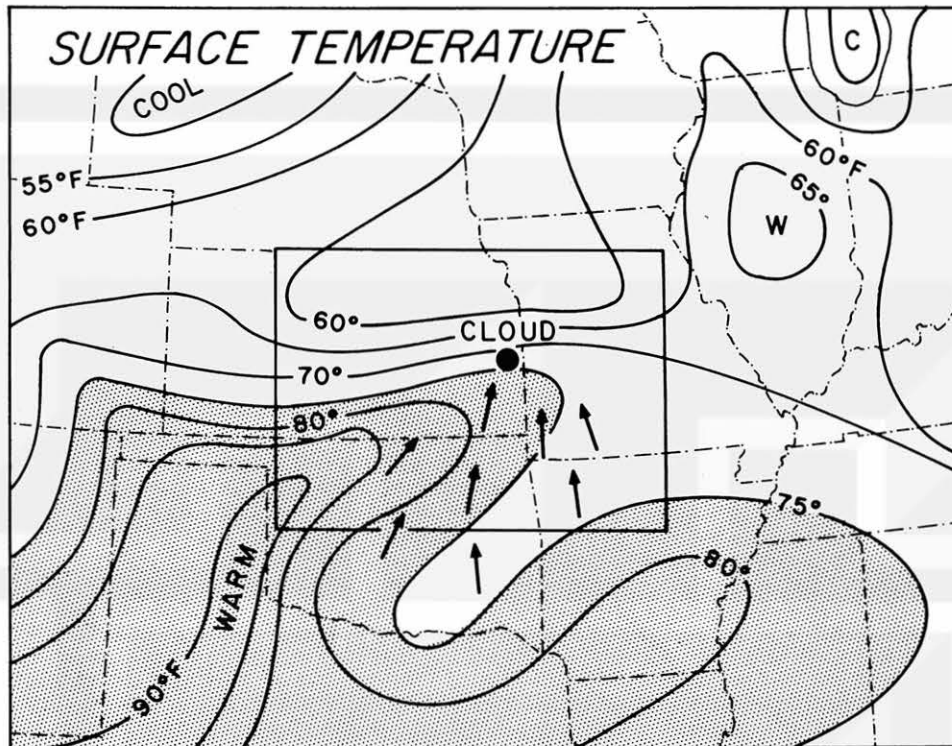


Fig. 6. Distribution of surface temperature. Arrows indicate the inflow directions.

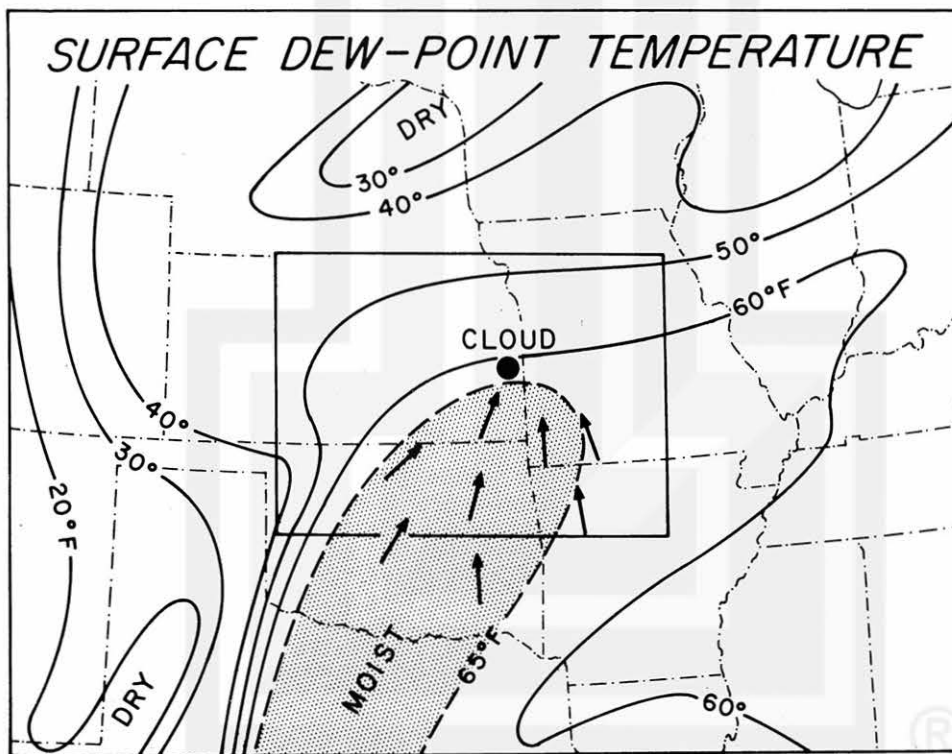


Fig. 7. Distribution of surface dew-point temperature. Hourly surface maps of the boxed area appear in Fig. 8.

pressure pocket deepened considerably, accompanied by a cyclonic flow. The development of a mesocyclone is apparent. The cloud indicated by letter "A" has been growing within the rotating wind field. There were no thunderstorm developments in the vicinity of this cloud.

At 1800, a sudden development of a squall line started to the southwest of the rotating thunderstorm. The development of the line was very fast, thus changing into a full-grown squall line by 1900 CST. As the squall line developed, the isolated cloud "A" weakened very rapidly. The 1900 CST map reveals the major squall-line activities accompanied by a significant convergence extending 300 miles.

This sequence of surface analysis shows that a rotating thunderstorm developed in an area of significant vorticity and convergence. A favorable situation, such as this case, is rather rare because activities usually start in the form of a line, rather than an isolated convection. Moreover, a chance of sending aircraft to such an activity area is often rare, if not remote. The situation used and reported herein occurred in April 1961, about one year after TIROS I. In view of the latest development

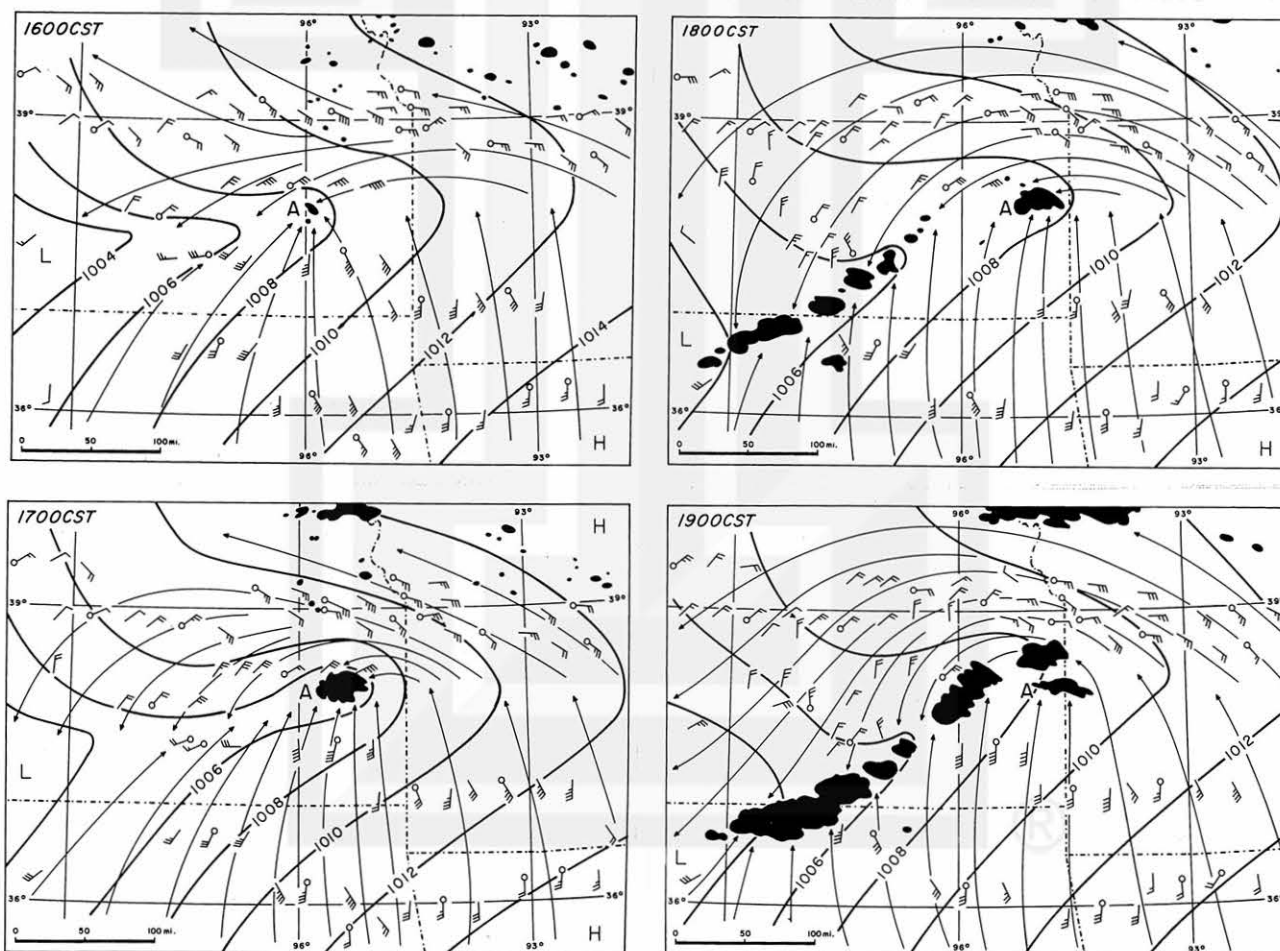


Fig. 8. Hourly surface maps, 1600-1900 CST, April 21, 1961.

of ATS and SMS geostationary satellites, it is expected that research aircraft can be sent to the key spot prior to the development of a rotating cloud.

5. CIRCULATION AROUND THE CLOUD

It is quite unusual to find airborne wind measurement around a rotating cloud. Fortunately, two airplanes were performing research flights beneath and around the cloud under discussion. A B-57, at 45,000 ft, was also in the research mission. However, the wind data were found to be misleading due to an instrument malfunction. For further detail, refer to Fujita and Arnold (1963).

A low-level flight, to obtain Fig. 9, was made by a B-26 with Dr. Chester W. Newton on board. The distribution of 20,000 ft winds presented in Fig. 10 was obtained by the Weather Bureau's DC-6 with Fujita on board. These two charts are the re-analyses of the two-layer flow charts appearing in the original article cited above.

In computing the circulation, both north-south and east-west lines were drawn through the estimated center of the cloud. A system of polar coordinates with 10-km ranges and 10-degree azimuths was used to compute the circulation from

$$\Gamma = \int_0^{360} V \cos \theta \quad r \, d\phi$$

where Γ is the circulation around a circle of radius r , V is the wind velocity at coordinates r, ϕ . To compute the circulation by adding the values for each 10-degree arc, the equation was changed into

$$\Gamma = \frac{\pi r}{18} \sum_{n=1}^{n=36} V_n \cos \theta_n$$

where V_n denotes the wind speed at the n th point and θ_n is the crossing angle.

Such a calculation is very sensitive to the accuracy and smoothing of the field of motion, because the crossing angle reverses the sign of the tangential wind. In order to evaluate the validity of the calculation, the circulation was divided into positive and negative parts,

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma &= \Gamma^+ + \Gamma^- \\ &= \frac{\pi r}{18} \left(\sum V_n \cos \theta_n^+ + \sum V_n \cos \theta_n^- \right) \end{aligned}$$

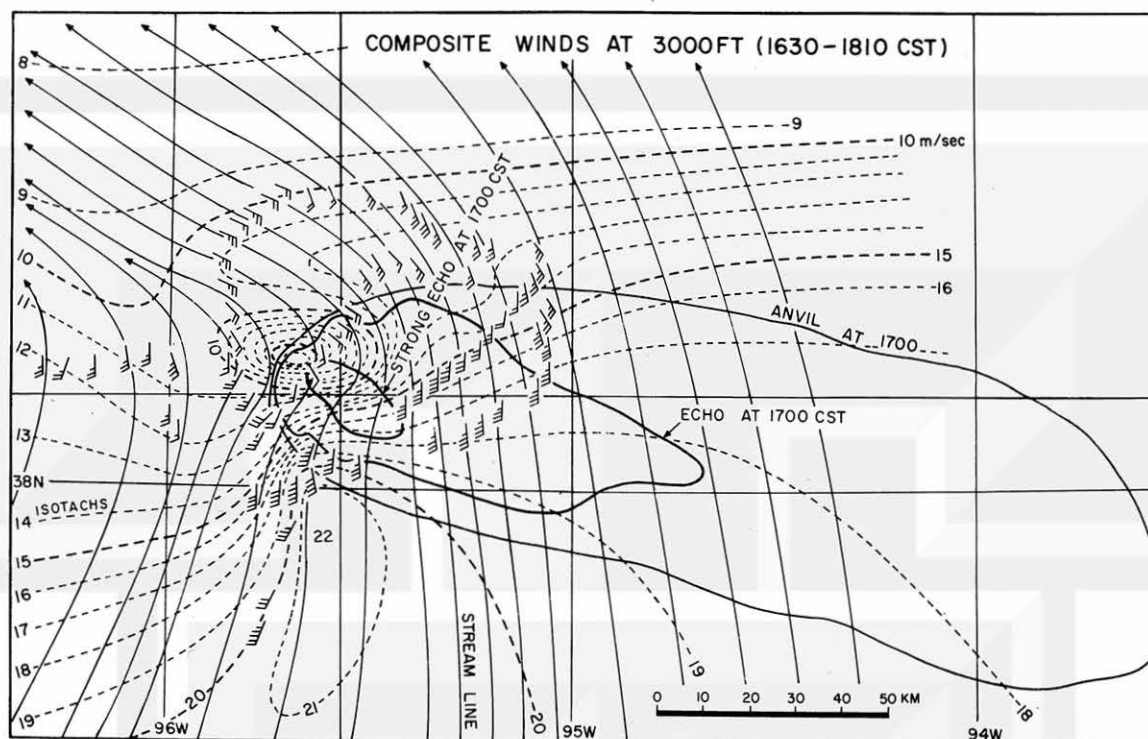


Fig. 9. Streamlines and isotachs at 3,000 ft.

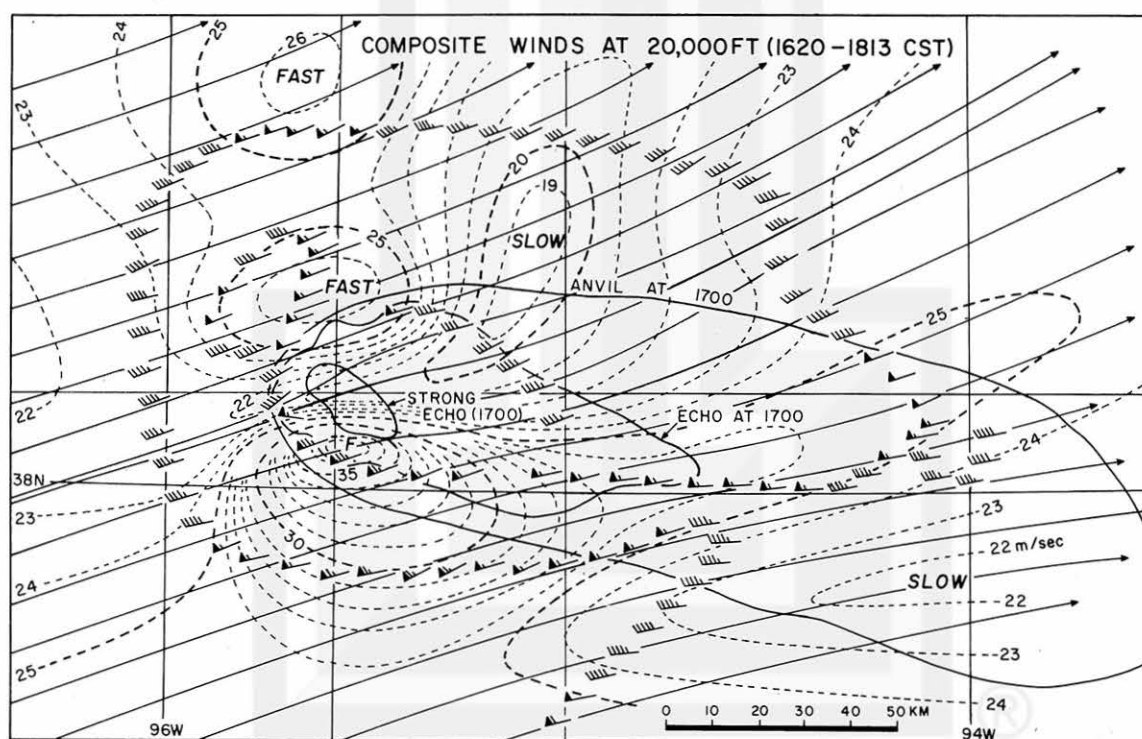


Fig. 10. Streamlines and isotachs at 20,000 ft.

where Γ^+ is the contribution of all the positive tangential velocities while Γ^- is that of all the negative tangential velocities. Since the total circulation is the difference of the absolute values of Γ^+ and Γ^- , the accuracy of the total circulation should be judged by the individual quantities.

For this purpose the positive and negative circulations are tabulated hereunder. Table I reveals that the circulation at 3000 ft is not a small difference of large quantities; hence this calculation of Γ should be accurate. The positive part appears to be more than twice the negative part. The cloud, therefore, must be collecting the cyclonic circulation at the inflow level in order to maintain its rotation.

Table 1. Circulation at 3,000 ft. Unit in 1000 km² per hour.

Radius (km)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Positive Γ	0	+1.18	+2.88	+4.61	+6.13	+7.47	+8.72	+9.82	+10.91
Negative	0	-0.52	-1.18	-1.78	-2.15	-2.64	-3.12	-3.60	-4.02
Total Γ	0	+0.66	+1.70	+2.83	+3.98	+4.83	+5.60	+6.22	+6.89
$-\Gamma^+/\Gamma^-$	Unknown	2.27	2.44	2.59	2.85	2.83	2.79	2.72	2.72

The circulation at the higher level may be larger or smaller than that at the 3,000 ft level. If the upper layer is resisting the cloud rotation through viscous coupling, the circulation will decrease upward. If the cloud is fed its rotation from the higher level, while the lower level acts as dissipating media, the circulation will increase upward. Consequently, the evaluation of the circulation at 20,000 ft is of extreme interest.

Table 2. Circulation at 20,000 ft. Unit in 1000 km² per hour.

Radius (km)	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Positive Γ	0	+2.12	+4.42	+6.25	+7.97	+9.35	+10.97	+12.40	+14.05
Negative Γ	0	-1.74	-3.74	-5.41	-6.82	-8.26	-9.76	-11.36	-12.80
Total Γ	0	+0.38	+0.68	+0.84	+1.15	+1.09	+1.21	+1.04	+1.25
$-\Gamma^+/\Gamma^-$	Unknown	1.22	1.18	1.15	1.17	1.13	1.12	1.09	1.09

The nature of the circulation at 20,000 ft appears to be quite different from that at 3,000 ft. There, the absolute values of positive and negative circulations are very close to each other, especially when the distance from the cloud is large. This would mean that the cloud is losing its circulation against the irrotational flow. Since the absolute ratio of the circulations is close to 1.00 the accuracy of the computed values could be low for large radii.

The values of the circulation in Tables 1 and 2 are plotted in Fig. 11. It is obvious that the circulation around the cloud at all distances up to 80 km decreases rapidly as the height increases to the 20,000-ft level.

The fact that the circulation increases outward at the 3,000-ft level implies that the inflow field is rotational. Thus the converging air will be maintaining the rotation despite the fact that the frictional dissipation does exist. At the 20,000-ft level, however, there is no rotation within the basic flow in which the cloud is imbedded. The circulation beyond the 40-km radius remains practically the same, meaning that no vorticity exists in the distant environment.

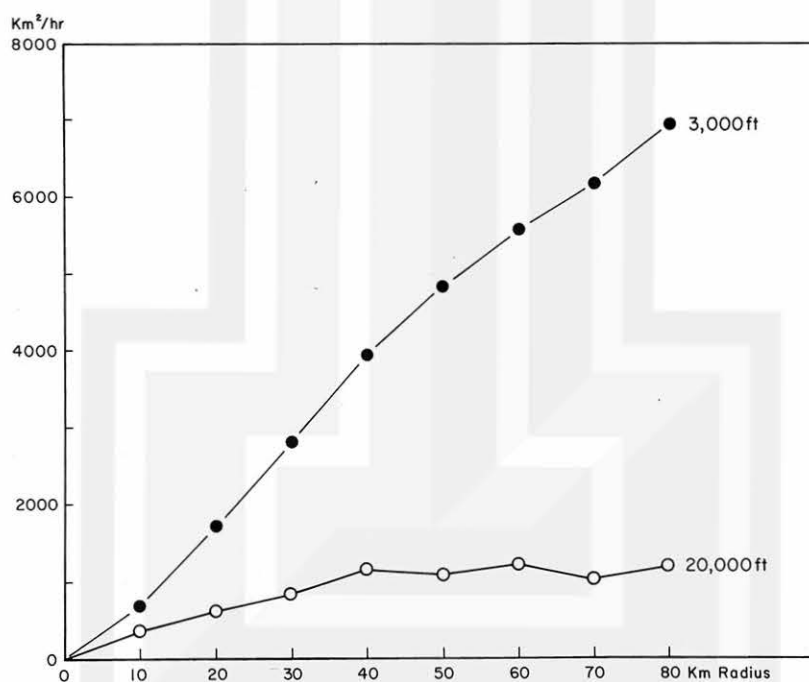


Fig. 11. Circulation around the rotating thunderstorm of April 21, 1961, at the 3,000 and 20,000 ft levels.

6. TEMPERATURE OF CLOUD

Since the strong echo region of the rotating cloud of April 21, 1961 was not penetrated by any research aircraft, it is very difficult to establish the in-cloud temperature through direct measurements.

One of the indirect means is to assume the moist-adiabatic ascent without entrainment. Such an assumption is entirely wrong for small cumulus-type clouds. For a rotating thunderstorm of this size, however, the no-entrainment assumption is not too far from being realistic, because the entrainment is in the order of several per cent.

The moist adiabat of the incloud updraft can be determined from the air temperature and the dew-point temperature of the inflow air. Figures 6 and 7 are, thus, used to obtain

Inflow air temperature	75°F (24°C)
Inflow dew-point temperature ...	65°F (18°C)
Station pressure	950 mb

When the inflow air is lifted adiabatically, condensation will take place at the 900-mb level. The temperature distributions computed from the moist-adiabatic assumption and the environmental temperature from Fig. 4 are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Vertical distribution of in-cloud and environmental temperature. Temperature difference denotes the in-cloud temperature less the environmental temperature.

Height	Pressure	In-cloud Temp.	Env. Temp.	Difference
SFC	980 mb	--	+23.7° C	--
1 km	900	+17.0° C	+19.0	-2.0° C
2	810	+12.7	+13.0	-0.3
3	710	+ 7.8	+ 5.9	+1.9
4	630	+ 2.6	- 0.3	+2.9
5	560	- 2.7	- 6.7	+4.0
6	490	- 8.5	-12.8	+4.3
7	430	-14.8	-20.4	+5.6
8	370	-23.0	-29.0	+6.0
9	320	-31.0	-37.7	+6.7
10	280	-40.0	-47.2	+7.2
11	240	-49.2	-54.0	+4.8
12	205	-58.6	-55.7	-2.9

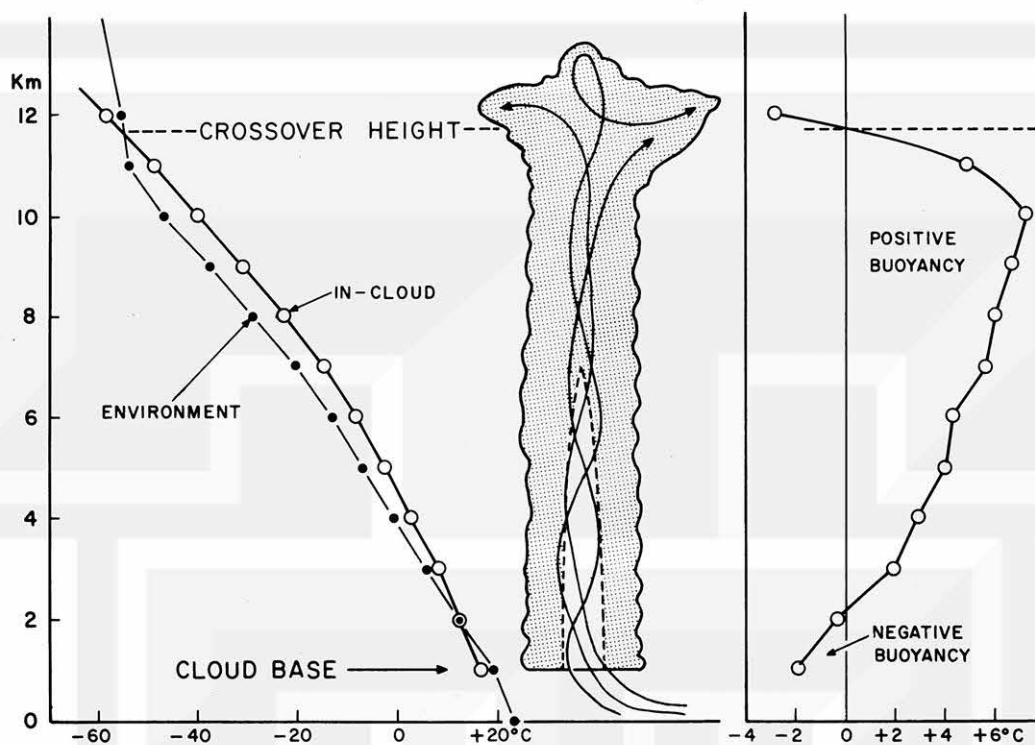


Fig. 12. Vertical distribution of temperature. In-cloud temperatures were computed from the moist adiabat.

A schematic diagram of the rotating cloud and the temperature distribution is shown in Fig. 12. The temperature difference, which is an indicator of the buoyancy, appears to be negative to about the 2-km level. Such negative buoyancy is a common feature of large convective clouds over the Midwest.

The updraft in its first phase will have to receive the dynamical forces necessary to penetrate through the layer of negative buoyancy. One of the forces is provided by frictional convergence within the mesoscale pressure field, which may be called the pressure pocket. Another possible force is the vertical gradient of the non-hydrostatic pressure created by the rising mass of the rotating cloud.

The hen-and-egg problem exists when the non-hydrostatic pressure is examined in detail. In reality, however, the frictional convergence is the initial force giving rise to the formation of a group of small convective clouds within the pressure pocket. When and if these small clouds amalgamate into a large, tall cloud, the upper-level buoyancy will result in a mass deficit inside the lower parts of the cloud. The deficit naturally results in the vertical and horizontal gradient of the non-hydrostatic pressure.

7. CONCLUSIONS

Rotating thunderstorms have been thought to be a rare form of severe convection. Recent studies indicate, however, that thunderstorms as a whole, or a small portion thereof, rotate more often than one would expect.

Dynamical and thermodynamical aspects of thunderstorms in rotation must be studied in detail. An important aspect of this investigation is the tilt of the axis of rotation which has been assumed to be vertical for most practical purposes. The evidence of tilt as reported in this paper is useful in developing a physical model of a rotating thunderstorm imbedded inside a veering and shearing wind environment. Meanwhile, intensive observations and measurements should be encouraged in an attempt to learn more about the nature of these rotating thunderstorms.

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