

Rapid Environmental Changes Accompanying Tornadogenesis

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Key Points

- Rapid destabilization and increasing shear occurred prior to tornadogenesis
- Local changes revealed by microwave radiometer and wind profiler

1 **Abstract**

2
3 This study documents the rapid evolution in convective instability and wind shear
4 parameters in the mesoscale environment shortly before the development of a highly
5 unusual tornado that struck Windsor, Colorado. These changes were seen by a ground-
6 based microwave radiometer, a microwave wind profiler, and in a 1-km resolution
7 variational mesoanalysis system, which assimilated data from these observing systems,
8 in addition to conventional data including WSR-88D Doppler radar data. Merged wind
9 profiler-mesoanalysis data revealed that the storm-relative helicity in the lower
10 troposphere jumped to very large values about 90 min prior to tornado touchdown.
11 This change was due to the descent of a mid tropospheric layer of strong vertical wind
12 shear, which was associated with radiometer-detected pronounced decrease in
13 equivalent potential temperature and erosion of the capping inversion. Over the five
14 hours prior to tornadogenesis, the radiometer showed a steady increase of convective
15 instability and reduction of the Convective Inhibition to zero values. The radiometer
16 also revealed a sudden surge in convective instability in the lowest 300 m of the
17 atmosphere in the 90 min prior to development of the tornadic supercell storm, which
18 happened concurrently with explosive increases in storm-relative helicity. The
19 confluence of these local changes at low levels in such a short period of time was likely
20 critical in explaining how this rare tornadic event could have happened so suddenly.
21 This study suggests that two temporal scales were operative – the near-storm
22 environment (90 min) and the storm-scale (30 min).

23
24 **Index Terms and Keywords**

25
26 3307 Boundary layer processes
27 3314 Convective processes
28 3329 Mesoscale meteorology
29 3360 Remote sensing

30 1. Introduction

31

32 Forecasting the initiation and evolution of severe local storms is challenged by the
33 need to monitor mesoscale fields of potential instability, moisture availability, vertical
34 wind shear, and vertical circulations at temporal and spatial scales important to
35 nowcasting convection [Weckwerth and Parsons, 2004]. Nowcasting is a blend of
36 extrapolation, statistical, heuristic, and numerical prediction techniques for forecasting
37 with local detail over a period from the present to a few hours ahead. Although rapid
38 advances in nowcasting capabilities have been demonstrated with numerical modeling
39 over the past couple of decades, according to Dabberdt *et al.* [2005], “the full benefit of
40 enhanced forecast model resolution has not been and will not be realized without
41 commensurate improvements in high-resolution meteorological observations, as well
42 as improvements in data assimilation, model physics, parameterizations, and user-
43 specific analyses and forecast products.” National Research Council [2009] argued for
44 the creation of a nationwide mesoscale network comprised of a variety of ground-based
45 sensor systems to address severe limitations in both horizontal and vertical sampling of
46 the atmosphere; specifically, 50–200 km spacing was suggested to capture mesoscale
47 processes important for monitoring and predicting severe thunderstorms. In a follow-
48 on report [National Research Council [2010], it was further recommended that profiles
49 of wind, temperature, and moisture should extend to 3 km above ground level (AGL). In
50 a comprehensive assessment of thermodynamic profiling systems for forecasting
51 convection, Hardesty *et al.* [2012] stipulated temperature and moisture profile
52 measurements with at least 1°C and 1 g kg⁻¹ accuracy, respectively, a vertical resolution
53 of at least 100 m, and that these measurements should be attended by wind profiling
54 systems for maximum impact. Currently, the spatial coverage of ground-based sensors
55 is much poorer than recommended in these comprehensive reports. The potential
56 positive impacts of assimilating thermodynamic profiler observations from such
57 networks with sufficient density and coverage have been illustrated in numerical data
58 sensitivity experiments [Ziegler *et al.*, 2010; Otkin *et al.*, 2011; Hartung *et al.*, 2011].

59 For prediction of convection initiation, even stronger requirements are needed: a
60 time resolution of 15 min, vertical resolution of <300m (30m close to the surface),
61 horizontal resolution of <10km, and bias error <5% for moisture and wind in the lower
62 troposphere. The reason for such strict demands on observing systems for severe
63 storm applications can be understood as follows. Moist boundary layer air may be
64 capped by a strong inversion, particularly in “Tornado Alley” in the central U.S.,
65 allowing the buildup with diurnal heating of substantial convective available potential
66 energy (CAPE). Once the cap is broken, the ensuing thunderstorms may quickly
67 become severe, as an explosive situation is created where the triggering of storms and
68 accurate knowledge of the moisture distribution become critical. In this region, there
69 can exist very large horizontal gradients (>1 g/kg/km) in water vapor mixing ratio
70 across the “dryline”, a well-known phenomenon associated with explosive development
71 of severe local storms. A strong association between the dryline location and
72 convection initiation (CI) is easily understood because the dryline is also located within
73 a horizontal gradient of virtual potential temperature and flow deformation, which
74 promotes a solenoidal vertical circulation via frontogenesis [McCarthy and Koch, 1982;
75 Ziegler *et al.*, 1995; Buban *et al.*, 2007]. Mesoscale fluctuations in the moisture

76 gradients *along* the dryline also can be very important in CI [Koch and McCarthy, 1982;
77 Atkins et al., 1998]. Storms may also form at a “triple point” where a baroclinic
78 boundary and the dryline intersect [Weiss and Bluestein 2002; Wakimoto et al. 2006].
79 The magnitude and depth of lifting (i.e., vertical circulations) at boundaries such as the
80 dryline, fronts, and outflow boundaries are important factors in thunderstorm
81 development and character, as is the manner in which the ambient wind shear profile
82 interacts with the thermodynamic fields near the boundaries [Wilson et al., 1998]. Also,
83 areas of small-scale vertical vorticity referred to as “misocyclones” found along drylines
84 and other boundaries are suspected to play a role in CI [Buban et al., 2012].

85 Rasmussen and Blanchard [1998] found that vertical wind shear and CAPE
86 parameters assessed from proximity soundings discriminated strongly between
87 nonsupercell thunderstorms, supercells without significant tornadoes, and supercells
88 with significant tornadoes. Thompson et al. [2003] determined that vertical wind shear
89 and moisture within 1 km of the ground could discriminate between nontornadic and
90 significant tornadic supercell storms. Feltz and Mecicalski [2002] used 10-min sampled
91 Atmospheric Emitted Radiance Interferometer (AERI) data to illustrate how large
92 changes in the strength of the capping inversion, boundary layer moisture, and trends
93 in bulk atmospheric stability can occur in the few hours prior to the rapid development
94 of severe convection. In another study using AERI data, Wagner et al. [2008] found that
95 CAPE *gradually* increases in the 6 h prior to CI, reaching a peak roughly 1 h before a
96 tornado or large hail forms, whereas for nontornadic storms, CAPE reaches a maximum
97 nearly 3h before CI. Coincident wind profiler data showed that wind shear and storm-
98 relative helicity [SRH] for both tornadic and nontornadic storms started to increase
99 roughly 3h before an event. The value of SRH [Droegemeier et al., 1993] has been
100 shown in numerous studies to be one of the most useful parameters governing the
101 likelihood of supercell storms capable of producing large hail, damaging winds, and
102 tornadoes. Environments with large levels of SRH support longer-lived storms than
103 those that form in atmospheres with lesser levels of SRH.

104 The above-cited studies have illustrated the value of special ground-based
105 observations to monitor the mesoscale severe storm environment. Observing systems
106 that are capable of sampling the boundary layer with at least moderate vertical detail
107 include radars; commercial aircraft on ascent and descent; rawinsondes; and ground-
108 based infrared and microwave radiometric soundings, wind profilers, sodars, and
109 lidars. Among these observing systems, microwave radiometric profilers (MWRP) and
110 wind profilers appear to have the greatest potential for *continuous* monitoring even in
111 the presence of precipitation throughout the *entire* depth of the boundary layer with at
112 least moderate vertical resolution. Ware et al. [2014] and Xu et al. [2014] showed that
113 MWRP are able to provide useful, though somewhat degraded, information even in the
114 presence of heavy precipitation (>25 mm/h) by use of neural network methods to
115 retrieve temperature, humidity and liquid profiles from off-zenith (15° elevation)
116 observations. Generally, the vertical resolution of both microwave and infrared passive
117 remote sensors is best close to the surface and degrades rapidly with height (though
118 less rapidly for infrared). Lidars provide higher resolution and greater accuracy than
119 passive remote sensing systems, but are limited to the clear air or optically thin clouds.

120 MWRP and radar wind profilers have been utilized before in studies of the local
121 storm environment and mesoscale triggering phenomena such as cold fronts, drylines,

122 gust fronts, bores and gravity waves [Koch and Clark, 1999; Benjamin, et al., 2004;
123 Knupp et al., 2009; Madhulatha, et al. 2013]. Large changes in thermodynamics and
124 integrated water vapor have been observed to occur within a few hours prior to
125 thunderstorm formation from such systems [Güldner and Spänkuch, 2001], and
126 occasionally just 30 min when associated directly with the trigger mechanism's vertical
127 circulation [Koch and Clark, 1999]. The present study demonstrates the tremendous
128 value offered by the use of MWRP and wind profilers in capturing very rapid and
129 important changes in the local environment of a strong tornado that developed near the
130 intersection of a dryline and warm front.

131
132

133 2. Data and Methodology

134

135 This study is of an unusual tornadic event that occurred near Windsor, Colorado
136 (about 80 km north of Denver) on 22 May 2008. Special observations available for this
137 study included a ground-based microwave radiometer and radar wind profiler that
138 detected temporal changes in convective parameters with 5-6 min sampling. Also, a
139 very high-resolution mesoanalysis and prediction system was used to relate the rapid
140 changes detected by the profilers to the mesoscale environment of the tornado. The
141 radiometer was located 53 km southwest of Windsor in Boulder, whereas the wind
142 profiler was about 30 km south of Windsor at Platteville. The tornado touched down
143 within 2 km of the Platteville Wind Profiler, damaging the profiler and other
144 instrumentation at the site and causing some loss of data as discussed below. The
145 mesoanalysis domain and the positions of Windsor, the Boulder radiometer, the
146 Platteville wind profiler, and the local NWS-Denver rawinsonde are shown in Fig. 1.

147

148 2.1. Microwave radiometer

149

150 Microwave radiometers can obtain vertical profiles of temperature and water vapor
151 density under all weather conditions at time intervals of a few minutes or even faster
152 [Hardesty et al., 2012]. Two radiometers were used in this study: a 12-channel
153 Radiometrics MP-3000 and an uncalibrated 35-channel version of this instrument (MP-
154 3000A) [Ware et al., 2003; Güldner and Spänkuch, 2001; Cimini et al., 2006, 2011]. The
155 MP-3000 observes brightness temperatures related to atmospheric moisture in 5
156 frequency bands from 22–30 GHz and atmospheric temperature in 7 bands from 51 to
157 59 GHz. Cloud base height is automatically determined by mapping zenith infrared
158 temperature observations from a 9.6-11.5 μ radiometer to the retrieved temperature
159 profile. The radiometer has automated elevation and (an optional) azimuth scanning
160 capability. In situ surface temperature, humidity, and pressure sensors provide surface
161 conditions used in the retrievals. Although the sampling rate of this radiometer can be
162 as short as 10 s, we used filtered 5-min data for this study for maximum accuracy.
163 Typical RMS errors associated with temperature and humidity retrievals from this
164 radiometer [Güldner and Spänkuch, 2001; Liljegren, et al., 2004; Cimini et al., 2011] are
165 0.6 K near the surface, increasing to 1.6 K at 7 km, and 0.25 g m⁻³ error near the surface,
166 increasing to 0.90 g m⁻³ at 2 km, respectively (these are smaller than radiosonde
167 representativeness errors). The effective vertical resolution of the MWRP degrades

168 with height, being best near the surface (~50 m) and decreasing to ~ 250 m at 2 km,
169 allowing mixing layer height measurements [Cimini et al, 2013], but making the
170 detection of mid-tropospheric inversions difficult. The off-zenith correction technique
171 mentioned earlier was applied in the current study.

172 The “inverse problem” in radiative transfer (determination of profiles of
173 temperature and water vapor from multi-channel radiances) is ill posed, meaning that
174 its solution is neither unique nor stable. Accordingly, *a priori* knowledge of the
175 atmospheric variable (temperature and water vapor) is needed to constrain the
176 solution to obtain those variables from the measured brightness temperatures. A
177 popular method, used herein, is to employ a neural network retrieval technique trained
178 with several years of historical radiosonde soundings from a location with similar
179 altitude and climatology to the radiometer site (Ware et al., 2003; Cimini et al. 2006;
180 Knupp et al. 2009; Madhulatha et al. 2013). Alternatively, one-dimensional Variational
181 Retrieval (1DVAR) can optimally couple MWRP observations with numerical weather
182 prediction (NWP) model analyses or forecasts to obtain temperature, humidity and
183 liquid water content retrievals [Hewison, 2006; Cimini et al., 2011]. The 1DVAR
184 retrievals retain the information from the NWP system in the upper troposphere
185 (where it is typically more representative of the actual atmospheric state than from the
186 radiometer), while being able to correct inaccurate model analyses in the lower
187 troposphere (within 2 km of the surface) where the MWRP has the greatest value.

188 Accurate surface temperature data (with representativeness error < ±1.8 C) are
189 needed for optimum radiometer retrieval accuracy. Regrettably, since the Radiometrics
190 systems were engaged in manufacturing and engineering testing on 22 May 2008, they
191 were operating with less than optimal accuracy. Specifically, the fan that aspirated the
192 surface temperature and relative humidity sensors on the 12-channel MP-3000 was not
193 operating to specification; consequently, early results of performing radiative retrievals
194 using the bad infrared sensor showed significant warm biases and unrealistically large
195 superadiabatic lapse rates. Hence, we substituted the aspirated surface data from the
196 infrared sensor attached to the MP-3000A for that on the well-calibrated MP-3000 even
197 though the former microwave sensors were not validated by recent calibration.
198 Further discussion of this matter and cross-validation results appear in section 3.

199
200

201 2.2. Radar Wind Profiler

202

203 Another ground-based observing system used in this study was a NOAA Wind
204 Profiler [Chadwick and Hassel, 1987] operating at a frequency of 404.37 MHz. The
205 Profiler has a fixed phased-array, coaxial-collinear grid antenna with three beams (at
206 zenith and 16.3° off-zenith). By observing refractivity gradients in the clear air, these
207 wind profilers are able to generate a profile of winds every 6 min except in the presence
208 of heavy precipitation, when the assumption of horizontal homogeneity of the wind
209 field across the three beams may be violated. The radar profiler samples in two modes
210 with differing vertical resolutions; however, since no observations higher than 6 km in
211 altitude are used in this study, all observations here have a 250-m vertical resolution.

212 Radar wind profilers exhibit excellent agreement with rawinsonde observations,
213 and have been shown to be of tremendous value in forecasting the likelihood of

214 supercell storm occurrence and attendant severe weather [Benjamin et al., 2004].
215 Vertical wind shear and helicity were calculated at 6-min intervals from the Wind
216 Profiler in combination with the 15-min analyses produced by a variational version of
217 the Local Analysis and Prediction System (vLAPS) following application of a method
218 (described below) to fill several Profiler data gaps, and to replace nonexistent Profiler
219 data after 1600 UTC by the vLAPS analyses.

220

221 *2.3. Variational mesoanalysis and prediction system*

222

223 A 1-km version of vLAPS coupled with the Weather Research and Forecasting
224 (WRF) model was used in this study to relate the excellent temporal details provided by
225 the ground-based profiling observations to the mesoscale environment of the tornado.
226 The first guess fields for a 3-km version of vLAPS came from the 12-km resolution
227 NAM212. The vLAPS analyses acted as initialization fields for the WRF/ARW to
228 generate 3 km forecasts. The model was initialized at 1200 UTC and forecasts were
229 produced out to 0000 UTC 23 May 2008. These 3-km WRF model forecasts were then
230 used as the first guess (background) to create the 1-km vLAPS analyses from bilinear
231 interpolation beginning at 1230 UTC. It is these fields that are shown in this paper.

232 The vLAPS assimilated data from the wind profiler and radiometer; reflectivity and
233 radial wind data from National Weather Service WSR-88D radars; soundings, cloud-
234 track winds and total precipitable water from geostationary satellite; aircraft data;
235 ground GPS-Met sensors; and other conventional data. Only the lowest 1 (2) km of
236 temperature (water vapor) data retrieved from the radiometer were used by vLAPS,
237 but the entire 16 km of wind profiler data was assimilated into vLAPS.

238 Basically, vLAPS is a variational extension of the original LAPS [Albers et al., 1996;
239 Hiemstra et al., 2006], which for years used a simple two-pass, distance-weighting
240 objective analysis scheme [Koch, et al., 1983] with dynamic balancing. LAPS pioneered
241 an approach called “hot start”, whereby variables strongly affected by deep, moist
242 convection such as vertical velocity, temperature, moisture, and cloud microphysical
243 properties are analyzed and mutually adjusted to fully capture moist diabatic processes.
244 In the variational version of LAPS developed recently [Xie et al., 2011], a multigrid
245 technique is adapted to efficiently solve the variational minimization problem, and a
246 Laplacian filter is used to approximate the scale-dependent background error
247 covariance and apply dynamic constraints applicable at different multigrid scales. The
248 hot start cloud analysis has been favorably tested at spatial resolution down to 1 km,
249 which is the grid size used in the present application.

250 Table 1 summarizes the data availability for this study. The microwave radiometer
251 produced data over the entire 24-h period. The wind profiler produced nearly
252 continuous data until 1600 UTC, when it was shut down as a precaution because of the
253 expectation of severe weather. The vLAPS system was initialized at 1300 UTC and was
254 used in conjunction with the other data through 0000 UTC 23 August 2008.

255

256 **3. Case Overview and Analysis Verification**

257

258 The event to be discussed herein was a strong EF3 tornado that occurred at
259 Windsor, Colorado just before noon on 22 May 2008. This event was unusual for a

260 number of reasons. First, the Front Range of the Rocky Mountains is unaccustomed to
261 strong tornadoes, particularly ones that occur in the morning. The tornado then took a
262 very uncommon track to the northwest, displaying the longest track of any recorded
263 tornado with a westward component in this region, and in fact, the only EF3 tornado
264 ever recorded near the Front Range with such a track.

265 *Schumacher et al.* [2010], hereafter S10, provide a good overview of this case,
266 including synoptic- and mesoscale factors that may have played important roles in the
267 development of the tornadic storms. Briefly summarizing their findings, this event
268 included a southerly upper level jet streak exceeding 40 m s^{-1} , a pronounced low
269 pressure center located just east of Denver, a strengthening warm front to the east-
270 northeast of the low and a dryline to its south. Dry, gusty, southerly winds developed to
271 the west of the dryline, while southeasterly winds advected warm, moist air to the east
272 of the dryline, and cool, northeasterly flow conditions existed north of the warm front.
273 S10 estimated CAPE values $> 2000 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ and storm-relative helicity of $219 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the
274 0–1 km layer using a Denver 1800 UTC sounding (released $\sim 100 \text{ km}$ to the south of the
275 warm front) that was modified to account for the surface conditions in the local vicinity
276 of Windsor. These CAPE and helicity values are consistent with supercell thunderstorm
277 environs [*Thompson et al.* 2003]. As will be shown, local destabilization and increasing
278 vertical wind shear occurred much more rapidly than estimated in the S10 study,
279 reaching considerably higher values than they reported.

280 S10 reported a lifting condensation level of $\sim 1.0 \text{ km}$ AGL, which is an unusually low
281 altitude for eastern Colorado. This value was determined for a cloud-covered region
282 just north of the warm front. The stratus clouds immediately to the south of the front
283 rapidly dissipated by 1600 UTC, allowing substantial solar radiation to warm the
284 surface. In summary, the air entering the Windsor storm at cloud base was exceedingly
285 moist, unstable, and containing plentiful vertical wind shear. The mesoscale lifting
286 mechanism needed to “trigger” the formation of deep convection was indeterminate.

287 The first severe thunderstorm warning was issued at 1109 LT (1709 UTC), the
288 tornado warning was issued just 9 minutes later, and the first tornado touchdown was
289 reported at 1126 LT 25 km southeast of Windsor (within 2 km of the location of the
290 wind profiler used in this study). Both warnings were issued before the Storm
291 Prediction Center had issued a tornado watch (at 1125 LT). S10 surmised that the
292 early initiation of the storms and their very rapid development in such an unusual
293 setting as this may have played a role in the tornado watch not being issued until after
294 the first warning was issued.

295 The Windsor storm is shown from radar and satellite perspectives in Fig. 2. The
296 warm front is barely discernible in Fig. 2c as a short curved arc of low reflectivity
297 stretching east of the storm. Note the northwesterly motion of the storm. The unusual
298 location and orientation of the “hook echo” in Fig. 2a, which was located on the
299 southeastern side of the storm and turned 90° counterclockwise from a normal
300 alignment, and the existence of a crisp anvil edge to the cumulonimbus cloud on this
301 same side, reveal that the deep tropospheric wind shear was from the south-southeast.
302 The Windsor tornadic storm actually reinvigorated after crossing over the warm front
303 and headed northwestward to Laramie, Wyoming, where it spawned a second tornado
304 that has been examined by *Geerts et al.* [2009].

305 Before discussing the results of our analyses, the accuracy of the radiometer and
306 wind profiler observations should be established. Profiles of thermodynamic retrievals
307 (using the surface IR data from the MP-3000A) from the calibrated 12-channel
308 radiometer are compared to the NWS-Denver rawinsondes at 1800 UTC 22 May and
309 0000 UTC 23 May in Figs. 3a and 3b, respectively. The temperature profiles from the
310 MWRP are in excellent agreement with those measured by the two rawinsondes
311 throughout the entire atmosphere below the tropopause (350 hPa), though as
312 discussed earlier, the weak mid-tropospheric inversions are not detected by the
313 radiometer. The water vapor profiles at 0000 UTC are in overall good agreement, but
314 there are systematic differences in moisture profiles between the radiosonde and
315 radiometer at 1800 UTC. We believe those differences are real, a reflection of the
316 significant difference in moisture across the warm front, with the radiometer being
317 located within the deep clouds to its north, whereas the drier Denver radiosonde was
318 taken within partly sunny conditions south of the front. This disparity is not present 6h
319 later, by which time the dryline had passed through the area. The cloud base levels
320 measured by the radiometer at 1800 UTC (not shown) indicated that clouds descended
321 to the surface in the pre-dawn hours and that low clouds and fog continued through
322 1600 UTC. This is consistent with the available surface reports and satellite imagery.

323 A sample radiometer-derived sounding for 1706 UTC (Fig. 4) – selected because it
324 was the time at which the radiometer exhibited the highest value of Surface-Based
325 CAPE (SBCAPE) – shows a substantial amount of “positive area” for a parcel lifted from
326 the surface. The computed Lifting Condensation Level (LCL) of 605 m AGL matches the
327 Level of Free Convection (LFC), i.e., no Convective Inhibition (CIN) existed at all at this
328 time. The inset in this figure shows that the combination of 0–4 km wind shear (from
329 the Denver sounding) of 30 m s^{-1} and SBCAPE of 2866 J kg^{-1} (from the radiometer)
330 places this sounding solidly into the supercell category. Furthermore, strong veering of
331 the winds from an easterly direction in the lowest 1 km above the surface to very strong
332 south-southeasterly at 5 km MSL (3.5 km GL) results in a Storm-Relative Helicity (SRH)
333 value of $134 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the 0–1 km layer, though as is shown below, even this special
334 rawinsonde greatly underestimated the SRH present in the near-storm environment
335 near Windsor. These thermodynamic and shear parameters are all consistent with the
336 single-sounding estimates provided by S10 as mentioned earlier, though notably
337 stronger given the greatly improved temporal sampling by the radiometer, and its
338 closer proximity to the genesis of the storm cloud that spawned the tornado.

339 Time series of 0–1 km storm-relative helicity (SRH) from the Wind Profiler and the
340 vLAPS analysis over the period 1310–1550 UTC are compared in Fig. 5. Despite a minor
341 offset of $\leq 50 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$, the two traces show a similar slow upward trend in helicity values
342 with time, as depicted by the lines of regression. We judge this comparison (as well as a
343 direct comparison of the wind profiles (not shown)) to provide sufficient justification
344 for merging the two datasets by inserting the vLAPS winds interpolated to the
345 Platteville Profiler site after 1600 UTC.

346

347 **4. Results and Discussion**

348

349 *4.1. Radiometer-derived thermodynamics*

350

351 The radiometer provided excellent temporal and vertical continuity in retrieved
352 water vapor mixing ratio and equivalent potential temperature over the altitude range
353 from the surface to 5 km AGL (Fig. 6a, b). A number of features of considerable
354 meteorological interest can be seen. First is the sudden increase in the depth and
355 magnitude of water vapor at 0530 UTC reflecting the passage of the pronounced warm
356 front over the region the night before the tornado outbreak. The radiometer revealed
357 that the depth of the surface-based layer of rich moisture >8 g/kg increased for the next
358 several hours, but then remained relatively constant until just before the tornado
359 occurred at ~ 1726 UTC at the Platteville wind profiler site (47 km northeast of the
360 radiometer). Dryline passage occurred at 1815 UTC, causing a sudden drastic reduction
361 of moisture content.

362 Of particular interest is the pronounced surge in low-level moisture appearing from
363 1730–1800 UTC during nearby passage of the tornado. The sudden increase in very
364 low-level moisture during tornadogenesis also occurred in association with rapid
365 destabilization, as may be inferred from the rapid decrease of equivalent potential
366 temperature θ_e with height in the lowest 1 km layer at 1730 UTC (Fig. 6b). A better
367 understanding of this lower tropospheric process is provided by Fig. 7, which displays
368 the temporal variation of θ_e (Fig. 7a) and potential instability (decrease of θ_e with
369 height, or a negative θ_e gradient) derived from the radiometer in the 1000m layer
370 immediately above the ground. This analysis reveals that the extremely rapid
371 destabilization (Fig. 7b) actually occurred in a very thin layer near the ground,
372 beginning at 1630 UTC and ending at 1730 UTC, with a strong maximum near the time
373 of nearby tornado passage. The cause of this destabilization was that, as the clouds
374 began breaking up in the Windsor-Platteville-Boulder triangle region precisely at this
375 time, solar heating could warm the surface layer.

376 Closer inspection reveals that a slightly elevated layer of strong, localized instability
377 began two hours earlier (at 1430 UTC), and that this layer ~ 200 m above ground
378 occurred because of decreasing θ_e centered at the 350 m level (Fig. 7a). In fact, a
379 comparison of this detailed display of θ_e in the lowest 1 km with that in Fig. 6b for the
380 lowest 5 km of the atmosphere reveals that this layer of decreasing θ_e appearing in the
381 hour between 1600 and 1700 UTC was the lowermost extension of a much deeper layer
382 of decreasing θ_e extending to at least 600 hPa. The cause of this feature is still under
383 investigation using the vLAPS analysis, and will be reported on in a future paper. One
384 possibility being examined is that this low θ_e air had its source in adiabatic cooling as
385 air was advected from the southeast and lifted over the Palmer Lake Divide, a plateau-
386 like region of higher terrain just south of Denver, which has been noted in other studies
387 to be important for convection initiation in the Denver region [Szoke *et al.* 1988].

388 The combination of surface-based and lower-tropospheric destabilization processes
389 resulted in extremely rapid increase of CAPE in a short period of <60 min before the
390 tornado appeared. CAPE calculated from the radiometer reached a peak at 1706 UTC of
391 2866 J kg^{-1} , just 20 min before the tornado made its appearance (Fig. 8a). It is apparent
392 that this value was attained quite suddenly between then and 1615 UTC, when a
393 relative minimum occurred following several hours of gradual increases. Finally, an
394 abrupt decrease of CAPE denotes the passage of the dryline at 1800 UTC. During the
395 several hours when θ_e was increasing, CIN was gradually declining, and actually

396 reached zero values just minutes before the onset of rapid CAPE increases that began at
397 1615 UTC (Fig. 8b). The combination of no perceptible inhibition to air parcels
398 reaching their Level of Free Convection (cf. Fig. 4) and suddenly abundant CAPE
399 resulted in explosive convective initiation beginning at 1630 ± 15 min, and the very
400 rapid evolution of the Windsor storm into a tornadic supercell. Of course, sufficient
401 vertical wind shear is a necessary ingredient for that to happen, to which we turn next.
402

403 *4.2. Profiler and vLAPS-derived winds and vertical shear*

404

405 A time-height display of raw data obtained from the Platteville wind profiler is
406 displayed in Fig. 9. Only data in the lowest 8 km AGL is shown, since the focus of this
407 study is on processes in the low-to-mid troposphere, though profiler data did extend to
408 16 km. This plot shows 6-min horizontal wind vectors from 1300 through 1600 UTC,
409 which unfortunately is the last time data was produced prior to the instrument being
410 shut down in preparation for expected severe weather. Calculation of the horizontal
411 winds from the radial velocities along each beam was accomplished trigonometrically,
412 assuming horizontal homogeneity of the wind field across all beams [*Chadwick and*
413 *Hassel, 1987*]. While this assumption is nearly always reasonable for long averaging
414 periods on the order of an hour, it may be violated for averaging periods on the scale of
415 minutes when variations in instantaneous wind exist from beam to beam. The
416 assumption of homogeneity is typically violated, and accurate wind measurements are
417 impossible to obtain, in the presence of convective precipitation. There are several data
418 dropouts in Fig. 9 due to low signal-to-noise, primarily at some of the upper data gates
419 because this assumption was violated. In order to provide a continuous, uniform
420 display of the data, the quality control and analysis techniques developed by *Trexler and*
421 *Koch [2000]* were adapted to this data. Their technique includes a two-pass Barnes
422 objective analysis application to the wind components to interpolate the data to a
423 regularly spaced grid in order to fill small gaps in the data. The resulting wind analysis
424 was then directly merged with the vLAPS analyzed winds interpolated in time and
425 space to the Platteville profiler location after 1600 UTC.

426 The resulting analysis is displayed in Fig. 10a. The continuity in the wind analysis
427 across the “profiler-vLAPS” interface at 1600 UTC is excellent, lending support to this
428 analysis approach. Several important conclusions can be drawn from this analysis. In
429 the broadest sense, vertical wind shear increases over time, primarily in speed, though
430 the winds at most levels back with time up to when the tornado happened as the upper-
431 level trough was approaching. At low levels, the presence of easterlies after 1000 UTC
432 is associated with the southward sagging of the warm front. The fact that this wind
433 shift occurred 5h later than the first abrupt increase in low-level moisture seen in the
434 radiometer moisture time-height cross section suggests that formation of the warm
435 front occurred in stages; in fact, another look at Fig. 6 reveals a second moisture surge
436 at 0900 UTC that corresponds better with the wind shift. Pronounced increase in wind
437 speeds in the lower troposphere below 3 km occurs after 1600 UTC (note the descent of
438 the 50-kt isotach) in association with the previously discussed thermodynamic changes.
439 A dramatic increase in the low-level easterlies appears in the lowest 1–2 km after 1730.
440 However, the evidence suggests that most of the latter changes were related directly to
441 the passage of the tornadic supercell storm and the subsequent dryline momentum

442 surge, not to near-storm environmental changes. This conclusion is based on the
443 zoomed-in display of the winds in the lowest 3 km over a 2-h period (Fig. 10b) showing
444 that the increasing winds actually occurred immediately after 1800 UTC, or 30 min
445 following the tornado appearance at the profiler. Since the analyses after 1600 UTC are
446 produced by the vLAPS and are not based on wind profiler data, we interpret this
447 disparity to reflect a small temporal error in the analysis/forecast system.

448 The results of these two pronounced events – the increasing vertical wind shear in
449 the mid-troposphere after 1600 UTC and the dramatic, small-scale increase in low-level
450 shear appearing at 1730–1800 UTC, are that the SRH for 0–1 km, 0–3 km, and 0–6 km
451 layers all displayed sudden jumps at these two times (Fig. 11). Another measure of the
452 validity of the computations from the vLAPS-Profiler merged dataset is that the 0–1 km
453 SRH value of $219 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ estimated by S10 using a modified 1800 UTC Denver sounding
454 (the black cross in Fig. 11) is in excellent agreement with that from our analysis at that
455 time. These conclusions are further supported with a time-height plot of vertical wind
456 shear from the merged dataset (Fig. 12): the rapid increase in shear in the 2.0–2.5 km
457 layer after 1600 UTC, and the sudden appearance of impressive low-level shear after
458 1800 UTC associated with the strong winds from an easterly direction at and
459 immediately following the tornado. We conjecture that the loss of Profiler data after
460 1600 UTC likely means that the extreme shear present as the tornado passed over the
461 Profiler was under sampled, even in the vLAPS analysis.

462 We conclude from these analyses that two primary time scales were involved in the
463 Windsor event. First, about 90 min before tornadogenesis, deep tropospheric shear
464 increases occurred in conjunction with the aforementioned mid-to-lower tropospheric
465 decreases in equivalent potential temperature and gradual erosion of the capping
466 inversion and CIN. Then, within ± 30 min of the tornado, a second surge of SRH
467 occurred in association with the rapid increases in CAPE. We refer to these scales as
468 the “near-storm environment” and “storm-induced” fields, respectively. To our
469 knowledge, this is the first study that has been able to clearly elucidate these important
470 distinctions with ground-based remote sensing observations and detailed
471 mesoanalysis.

472

473 **5. Conclusions**

474

475 The combined availability of a microwave radiometer and a wind profiler in the
476 immediate vicinity of a very powerful tornado, in conjunction with a 1-km resolution
477 variational mesoanalysis/prediction system (vLAPS), provided unprecedented
478 observations of the near-storm environment and storm feedbacks. The loss of wind
479 profiler data ~ 90 min prior to the tornado required its replacement with vLAPS fields,
480 but this data merger did not produce any noticeable discontinuity in the wind profiles.
481 The vLAPS did utilize WSR-88D Doppler radial winds, subjected to dynamical balancing
482 constraints, so the later evolution of the near-storm environment was mostly
483 attributable to the influence of those data. Inaccurate experimental radiometer surface
484 temperature and humidity sensors did not affect the interpretation of the results
485 focusing on meteorologically important temporal changes, as alternative surface
486 temperature and humidity data were available for the retrievals.

487 The radiometer provided excellent temporal and vertical continuity in retrieved
488 water vapor mixing ratio and potential instability up to 6 km AGL and revealed that a
489 pronounced surge in rich low-level moisture occurred just before and during passage of
490 the tornado. While the radiometer showed a continuous increase of CAPE throughout
491 the morning leading to the development of the tornadic supercell storm, more
492 interestingly, in the hour before tornadogenesis, it revealed a sudden surge in potential
493 instability in the lowest 300 m of the atmosphere as the cloud cover broke and low-
494 level heating and moistening occurred in conjunction with decreases in derived
495 equivalent potential temperatures over a much deeper layer. CAPE calculated from the
496 radiometer reached a peak of 2866 J kg^{-1} just 20 min before the tornado passed nearby.

497 The combined wind profiler-vLAPS analysis revealed that wind shear rapidly
498 increased just prior to tornado formation in a two-stage process: first, about 90 min
499 prior to tornadogenesis, large increases in mid-lower tropospheric wind shear
500 occurred, which was associated with a downward penetration of low equivalent
501 potential air detected by the radiometer. Storm-relative helicity in the lowest 1 km of
502 the atmosphere jumped from 50 to $350 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the 1.5 h prior to tornado touchdown.
503 Following that, deeper layer 0–3 km helicity values abruptly increased to phenomenal
504 values in excess of $750 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ at the time of the tornado in response to both the
505 strengthening of deep-layer vertical wind shear (and associated mid-tropospheric
506 cooling seen by the radiometer) over the previous two hours and very rapid increases
507 in low-level shear within 30 min of tornadogenesis.

508 Rapid destabilization worked in concert with the impressive increases in vertical
509 wind shear and storm-relative helicity in the lowest 2 km of the troposphere to create
510 conditions highly conducive to generation of strong tornadoes in a region and at a time
511 when such events rarely occur. These results point to the tremendous value added by
512 the temporal sampling unavailable with normal NWS rawinsonde releases, and the
513 enhanced understanding that can be gained by having collocated thermodynamic and
514 wind information available in such a manner.

515

516 **6. Acknowledgements**

517

518 The MP-3000A radiometer data is available from Radiometrics, Inc. at this website:
519 <http://radiometrics.com/data/uploads/2015/01/MP-12ch-auxTVsurface.csv>. Raw and
520 processed wind profiler and vLAPS data are available from the NOAA Global Systems
521 Division of the Earth System Research Laboratory in Boulder, Colorado by anonymous
522 ftp at: ftp aftp.fsl.noaa.gov (use your email address for the password) at the following
523 directory: cd /divisions/fab/windsor_case. Interested parties can obtain assistance for
524 data inquiries by contacting Hongli Jiang at hongli.jiang@noaa.gov. Most of the
525 radiometer thermodynamic plots were produced using the RAOB software
526 (www.raob.com). The authors wish to express their appreciation to Steve Albers and
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532 **7. References**

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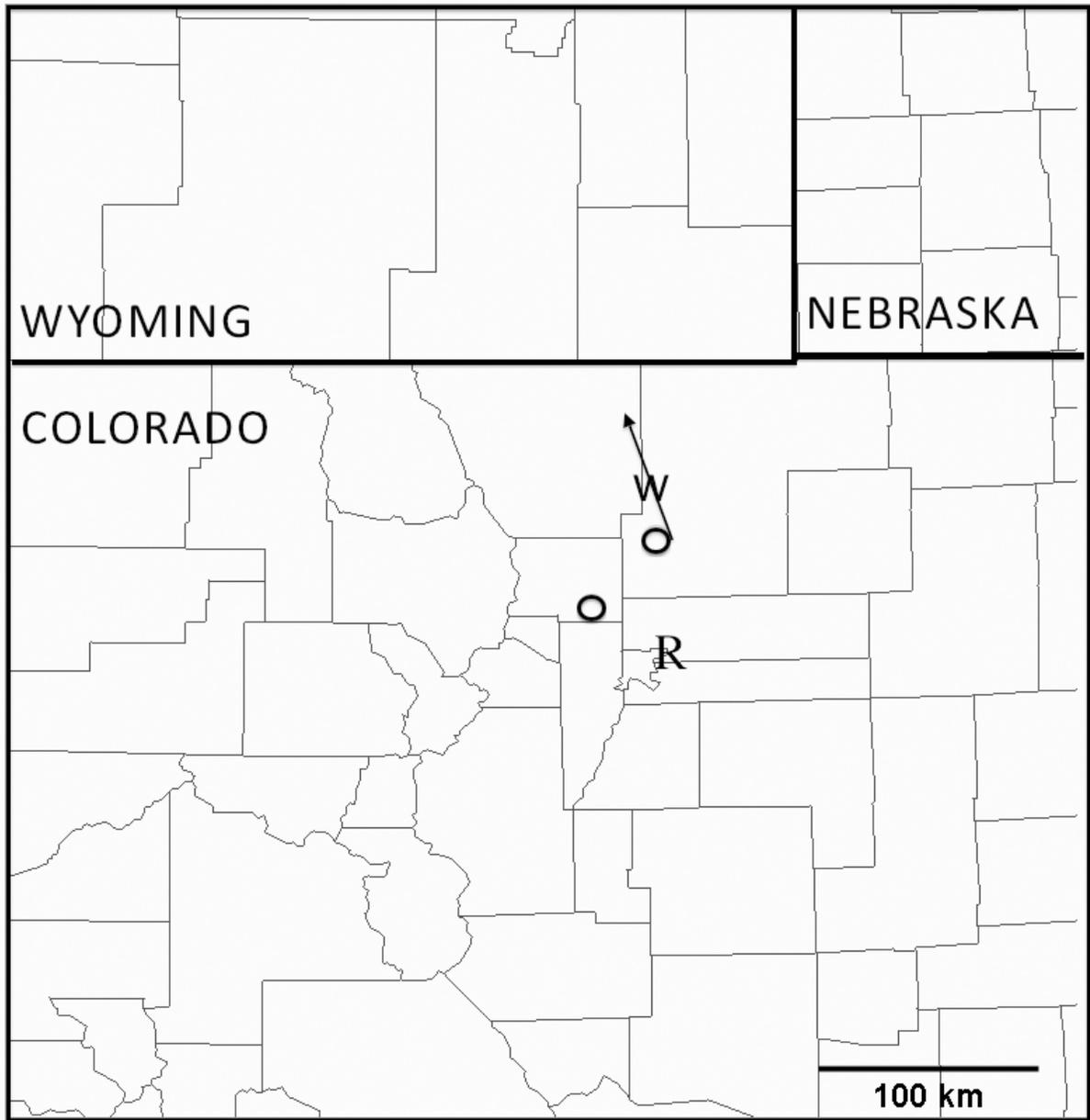
646 8. Table 1

Data availability over 24 h from 21 – 22 May 2008

Data Sources	Availability (0 – 24 h)
Microwave Radiometer	 0000 UTC – 2359 UTC
Wind Profiler	 0000 UTC – 1600 UTC
vLAPS	 1300 UTC – 2359 UTC

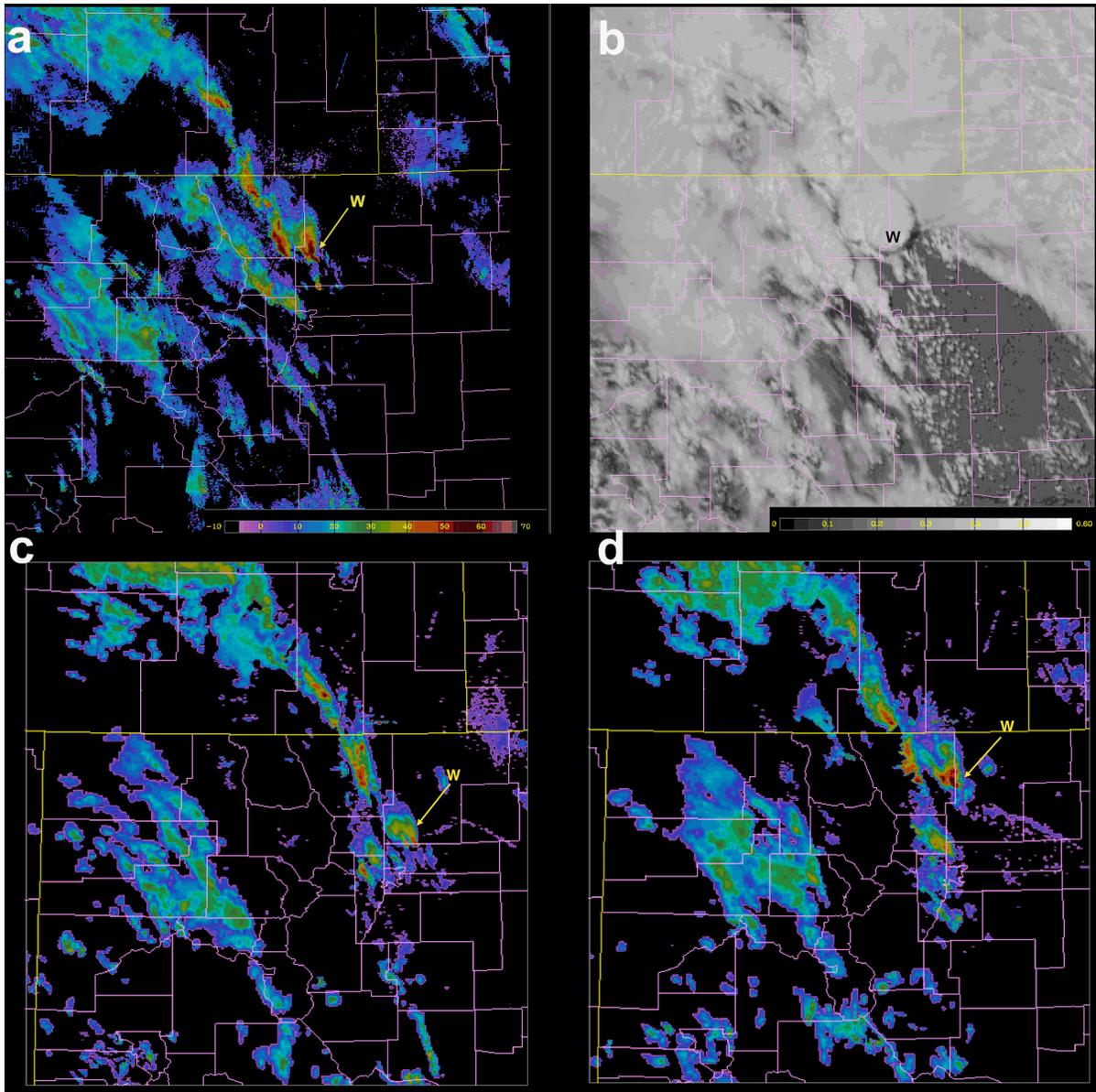
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649 9. Figures
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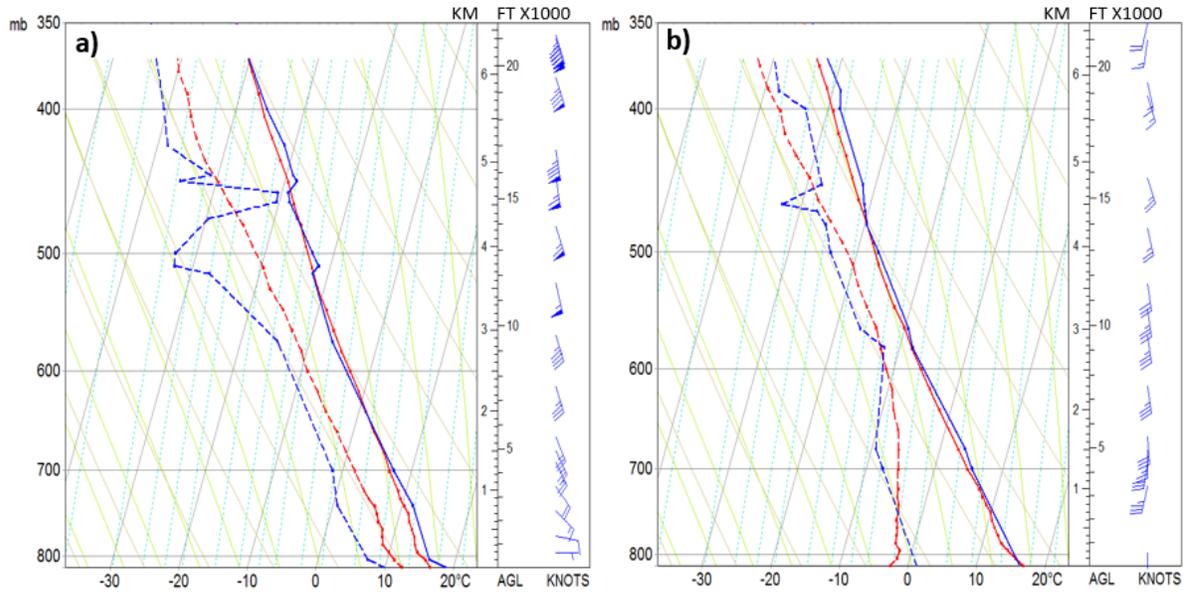
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Figure 1. Map depicting domain of the vLAPS analyses, the locations of the microwave radiometer near Boulder, the wind profiler near Platteville, Colorado (the two small circles, with the profiler being the one farther northeast), the Denver NWS rawinsonde (“R”), and Windsor (“W”). The arrow indicates the general path of the Windsor tornado. The tornado touched down within 2 km of the wind profiler.



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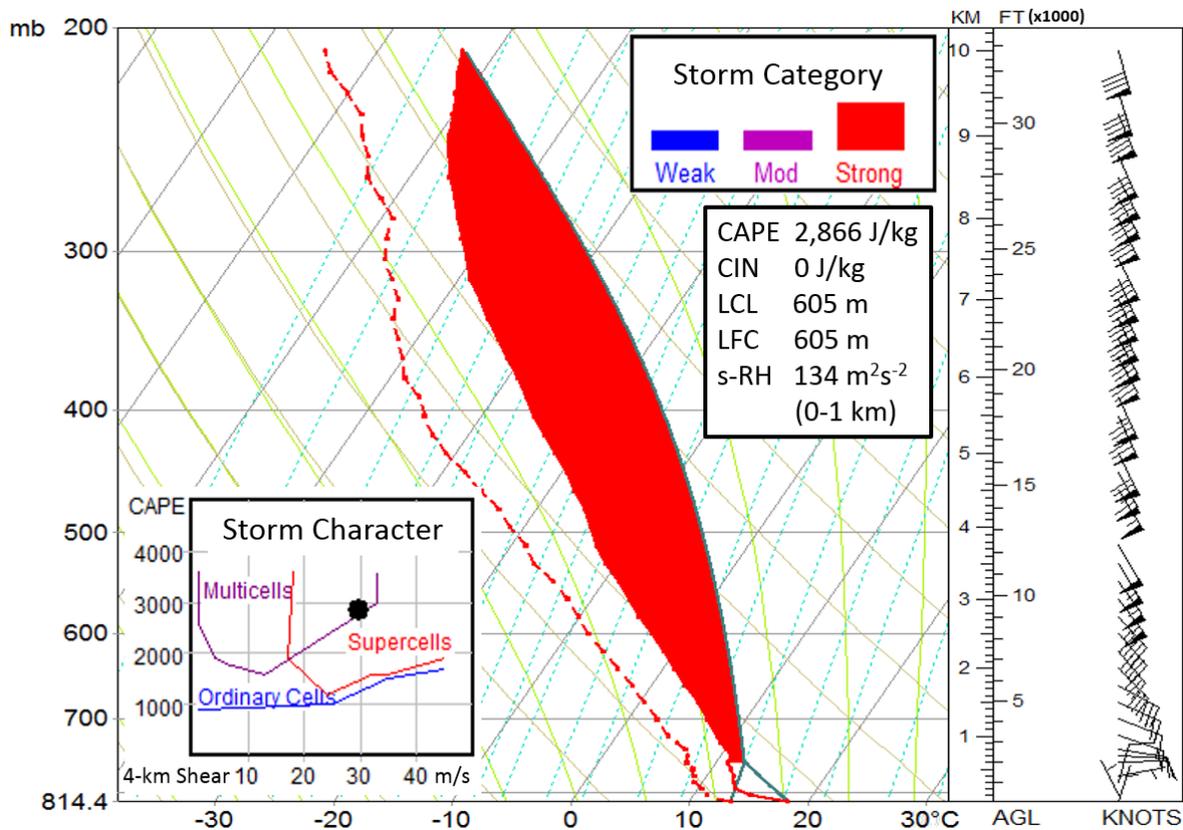
Figure 2. a) Radar reflectivity analysis from vLAPS multiple radar analysis and b) GOES visible albedo satellite imagery derived from vLAPS hydrometeor analysis at 1730 UTC 22 May 2008, c) vLAPS radar reflectivity analysis 30 min earlier (at 1700 UTC), and d) at 1800 UTC. The Windsor storm is shown with “W”. Also noticeable to the west of Windsor are several other flow-parallel bands of deep convection (oriented northwest-southeast).



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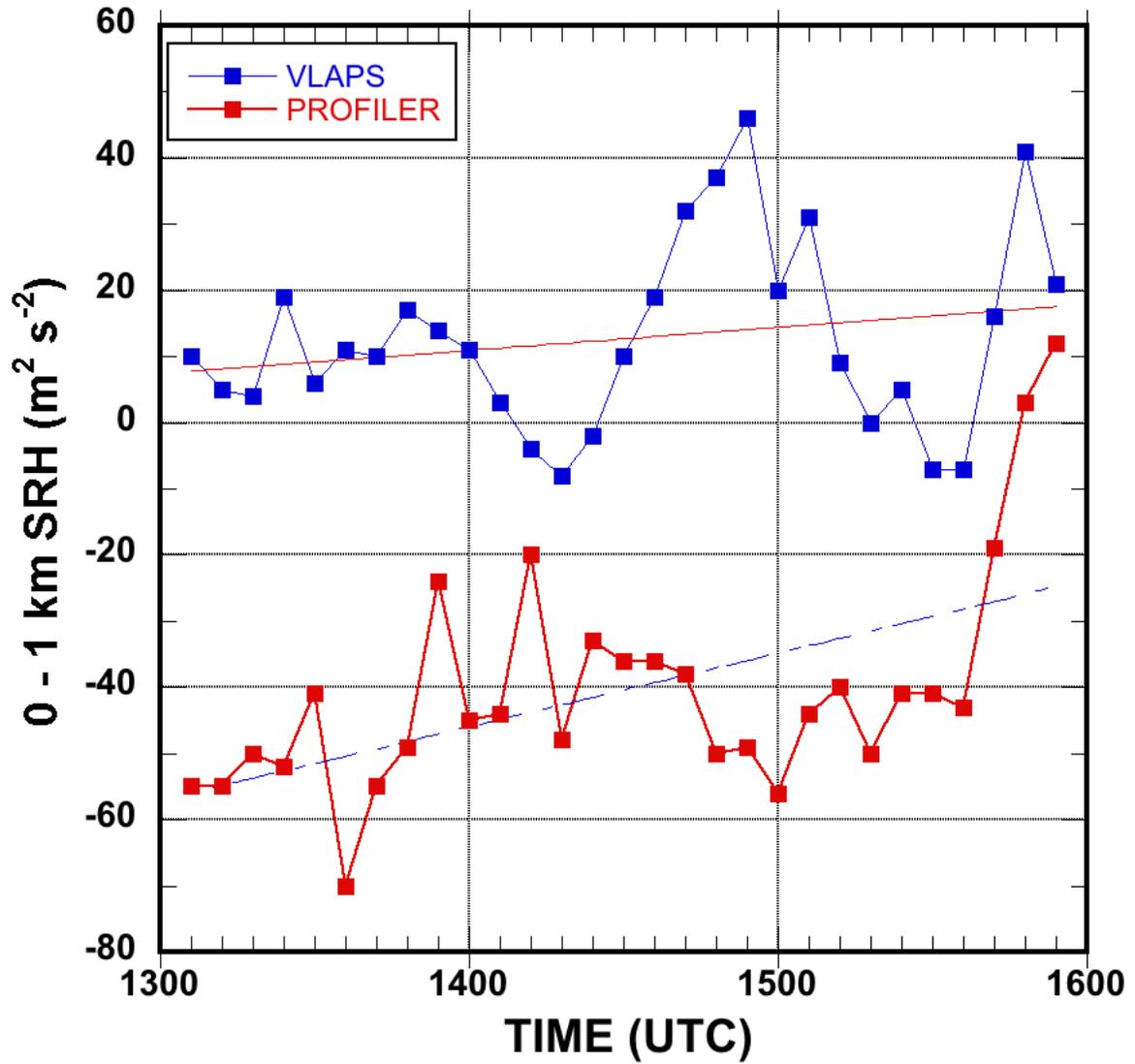
Figure 3. Skew-T plots of radiometer thermodynamic retrievals (red lines) and NWS-Denver (KDNR) soundings (blue lines) at a) 1800 UTC 22 May, and b) 0000 UTC 23 May from the 12-channel version of the radiometer. Displayed winds (kt) are from KDNR.

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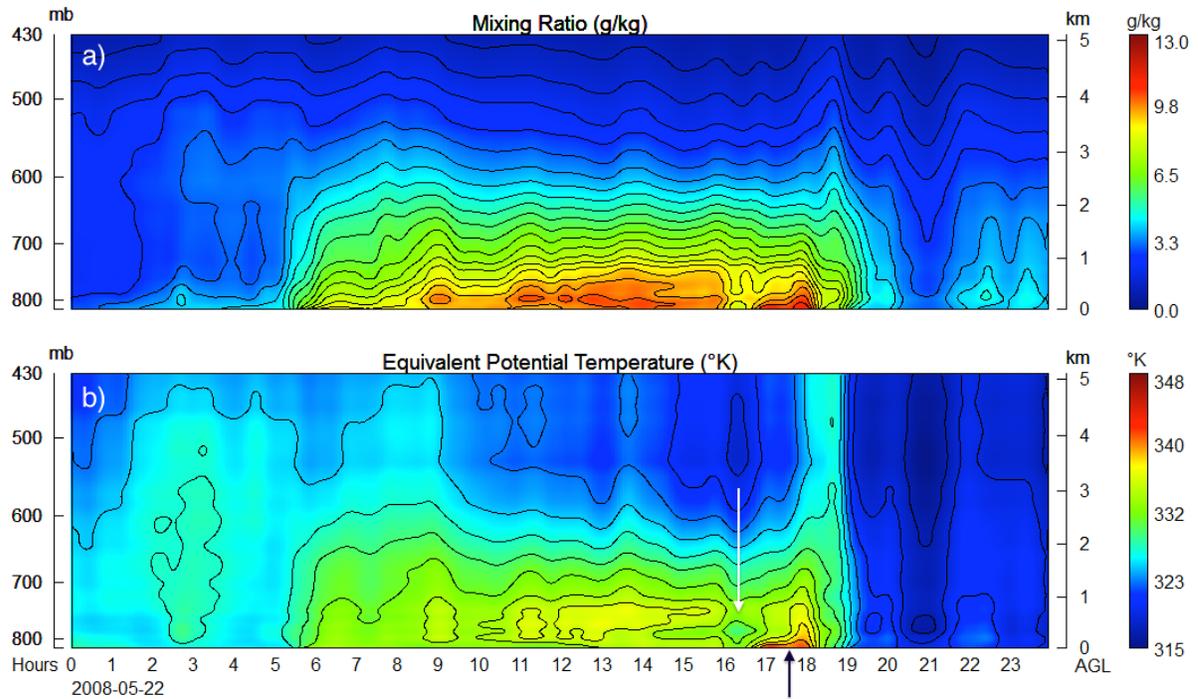
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677 **Figure 4.** Sample radiometer sounding at 1706 UT showing lifted parcel positive area
678 (red) to the right of the temperature profile. Computed Lifting Condensation Level
679 (LCL) of 605 m matches the Level of Free Convection (LFC); thus there was no
680 Convective Inhibition (CIN=0). Winds are taken from the 1800 UT Denver rawinsonde.
681 Inset shows that the combination of 0–4 km wind shear (30 m s^{-1}) and Surface-Based
682 CAPE (2866 J kg^{-1}) classifies this sounding as being indicative of supercell storm
683 character. Storm-relative helicity is $134 (430) \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ in the 0–1 km (0–3 km) layer. Plot
684 was produced using the RAOB software analysis and display system (www.raob.com).
685 RAOB “Storm Category” parameters indicate strong probability for severe convection.



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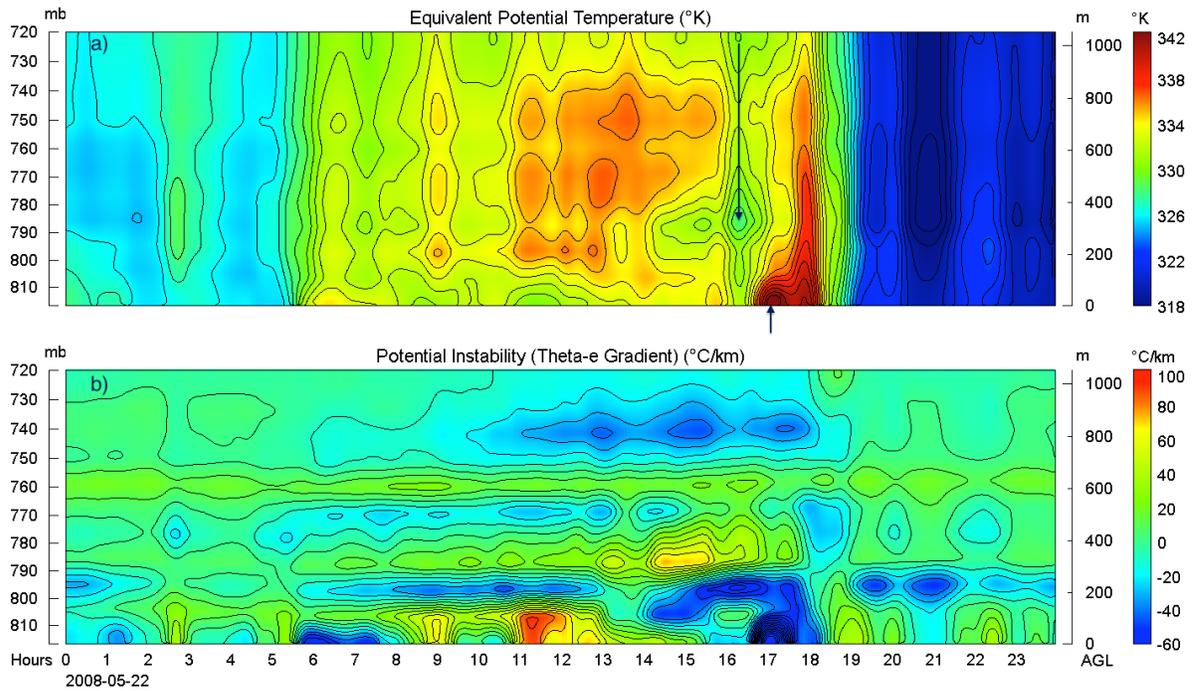
Figure 5. Comparison of time series of 0–1 km storm-relative helicity (SRH, $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) from Wind Profiler and vLAPS over the period 1310–1550 UTC. Linear lines of regression depict gradual upward trends in helicity values with time.



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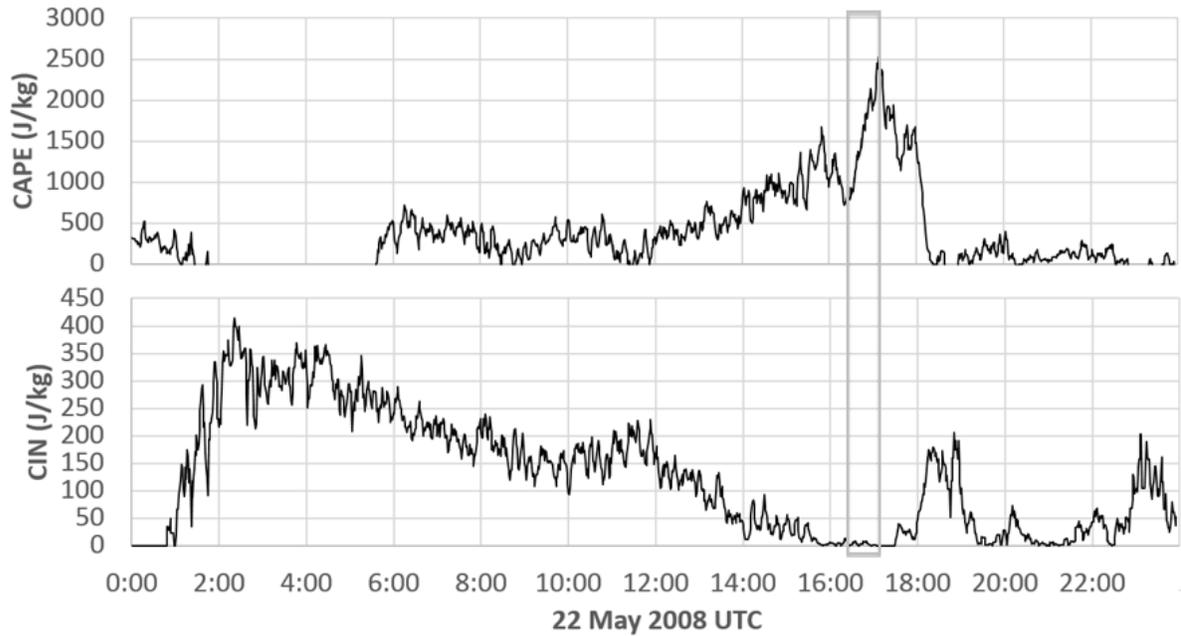
693 **Figure 6.** Time-height 24-h display beginning at 0000 UTC 22 May 2008 of a) water
694 vapor mixing ratio (g kg^{-1}) and b) equivalent potential temperature (K) over the altitude
695 range from the surface to 5 km AGL derived from the MP-3000 radiometer. Tornado
696 touchdown occurs near the Platteville wind profiler site 30 km southeast of Windsor
697 (47 km northeast of the radiometer) at approximately 1726 UTC, essentially at the time
698 of occurrence of pronounced low-level moistening and destabilization. Dryline passes
699 radiometer at 1840 UTC. White arrow denotes deep layer of destabilization resulting
700 from mid-to-lower tropospheric decreases in equivalent potential temperature. Black
701 arrow depicts rapid destabilization resulting from near-surface processes.

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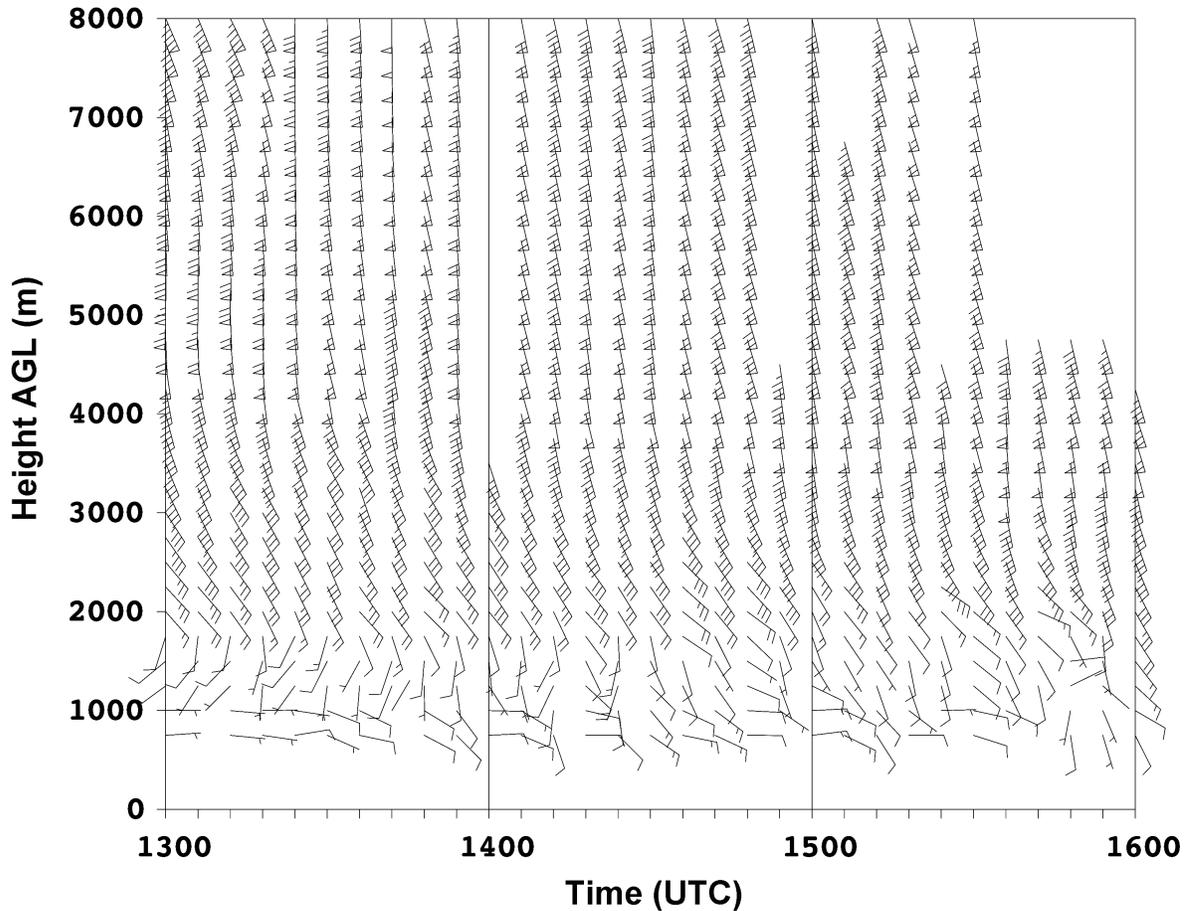
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706 **Figure 7.** Variation over a 24 h period ending at 0000 UTC 23 May 2008 of potential
707 instability (deg/km) calculated from the vertical gradient of equivalent potential
708 temperature as derived from the radiometer over the 1000m layer immediately above
709 the ground. Note the rapid destabilization in lowest 200 m after 1600 UTC with a
710 strong maximum near the time of nearby tornado passage (1726 UTC). Black
711 descending arrow denotes deep layer of destabilization resulting from mid-to-lower
712 tropospheric decreases in equivalent potential temperature. Short black ascending
713 arrow depicts rapid destabilization resulting from near-surface processes. Compare to
714 equivalent potential temperature display in Fig. 6b.
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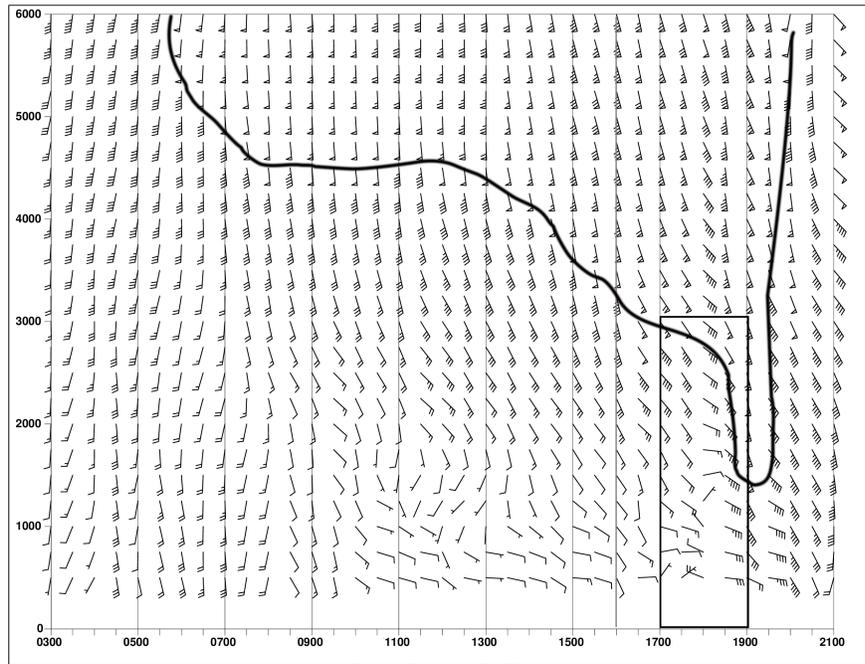
Figure 8. (top) 5-min filtered CAPE time series derived from radiometer showing gradual increase from 1200 to 1600 UTC, followed by a temporary decrease, a very pronounced increase just before tornado passage (1726 UTC), and a sudden decrease with passage of the dryline after 1800 UTC. The light gray box highlights the 45-min period during which the rapid increase in CAPE to its maximum value of 2550 J/kg occurred in conjunction with CIN = 0 (bottom). Actual peak value from unfiltered data was 2886 J/kg (Fig. 4).



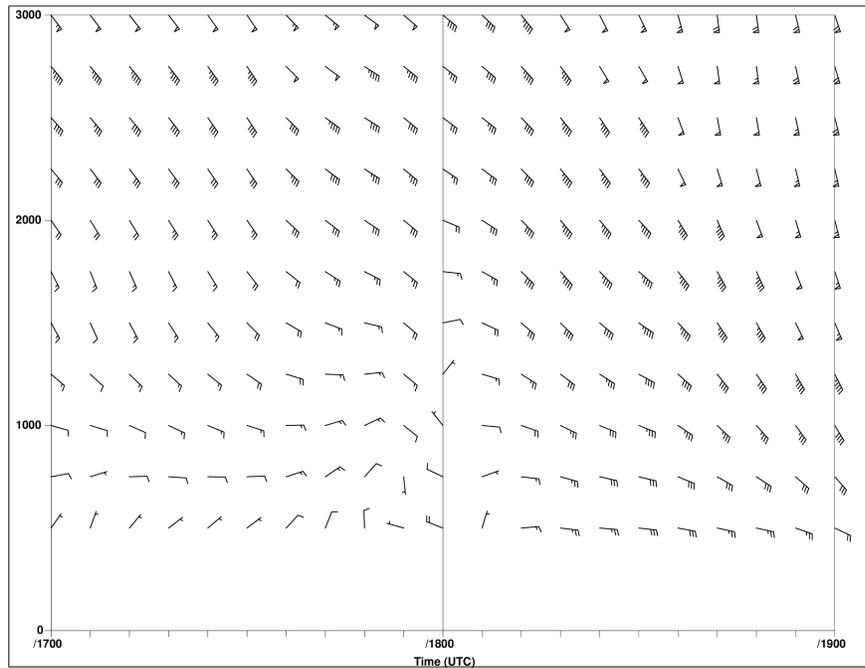
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Figure 9. Time-height display of raw wind profiler data prior to quality control and objective analysis. Plot shows 6-min sampled horizontal wind vectors over the 0–8 km layer from 1300–1600 UTC, which is the last time data was available as the instrument was shut down in preparation for expected severe weather. Note this 3-h interval displayed is a subset of the 18h shown in Fig. 10a, and covers a different height range.

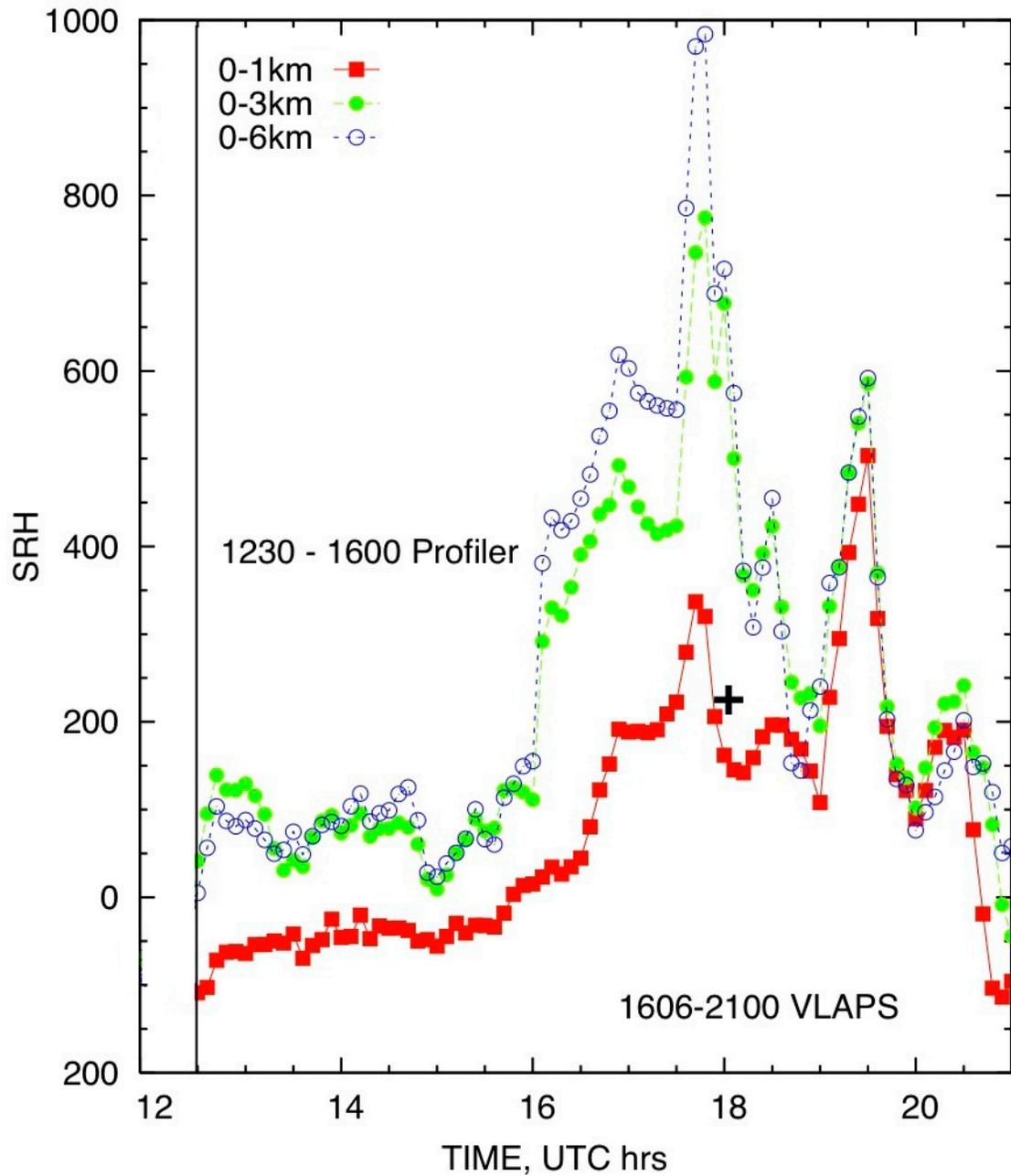
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736 b)

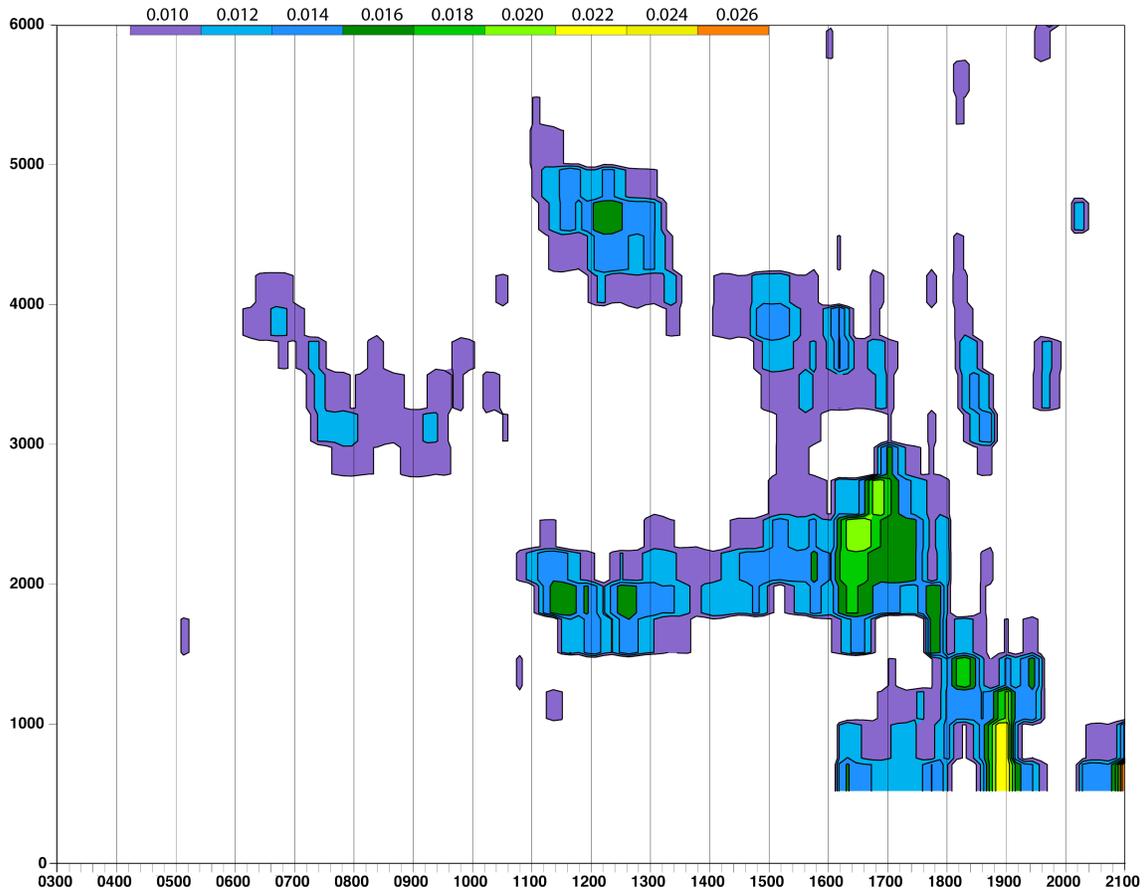


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738 **Figure 10.** a) Merged time-height plot of horizontal winds following quality control
739 and Barnes two-pass objective analysis of the wind profiler data, and merging of
740 profiler winds before 1600 UTC with those from vLAPS afterwards through 2100 UTC
741 (note light vertical line at the merger time). Data have been decimated to 30-min
742 intervals. Curve represents subjectively analyzed 50-kt isotach; b) inset showing
743 details within ± 1 h of 1800 UTC in the lowest 3 km of full 6-min resolution data.



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Figure 11. Time series of storm-relative helicity (SRH, $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) for 0–1 km (red squares), 0–3 km (green circles), and 0–6 km layers (blue circles) computed from merged Wind Profiler and vLAPS datasets (Profiler from 1230–1600, vLAPS for 1606–2100 UTC). Black cross denotes 0–1 km helicity ($219 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) estimated by *Schumacher et al.* [2010] upon modifying the 1800 UTC Denver sounding to account for the local conditions at Windsor.



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Figure 12. Time-height plot of vertical wind shear from merged profiler-vLAPS winds for the period 0300–2100 UTC at 12-min intervals. Note the descent of strong shear layer after 1300 UTC, rapid increase in shear in the 2.0–2.5 km layer after 1600 UTC, and sudden appearance of strong low-level shear at 1830 UTC associated with the appearance of strong winds from an east-southeasterly direction (cf. Fig. 10) immediately following the tornado. The extreme shear present as the tornado passed over the Profiler went undetected because of loss of Profiler data after 1600 UTC.