Docket No. SA- 516

Exhibit No. 5-B

NATIONAL TRANSPORTATION SAFETY BOARD

Washington D.C.

Attachments

Meteorological Factual Report [DCA96MA070] (46 Pages)

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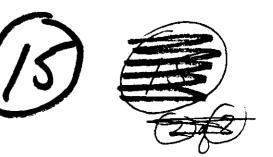
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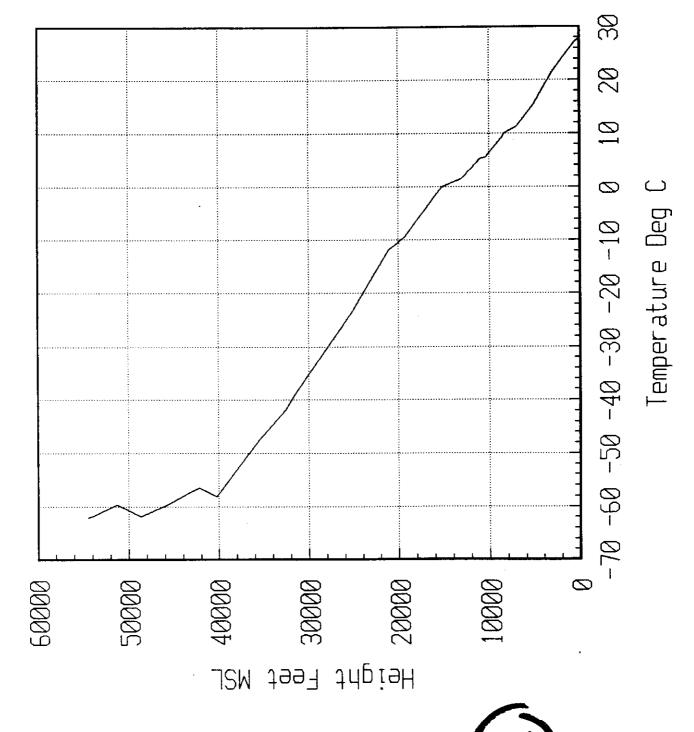


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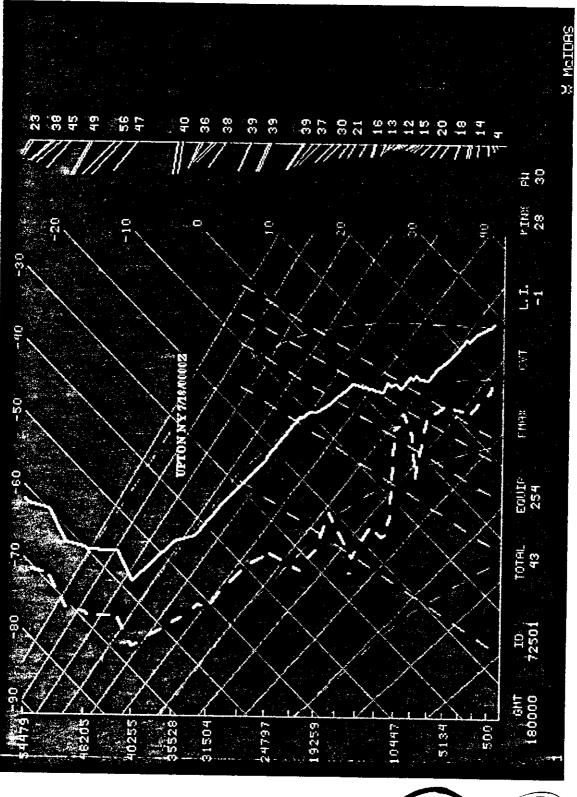


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Robert D. Gallagher

1 Fairbanks Road, Chelmsford, MA, 01824, (508) 256-0794

23 October 1996

Mr. Robert Francis, Vice Chairman U. S. National Transportation Safety Board 490 L'Enfant Plaza, SW Washington, D.C. 20594

Dear Mr. Francis:

With regard to the TWA Flight 800 crash have you considered that a possible cause of the ignition of the explosion might have been a lightning discharge?

Professional pilots reported a "flash of light " in the sky just before the explosion. Is there some reason that lightning has been ruled out?

Mr. Mark Malone of The National Lightning Detection Network (NLDN) reports that no lightning was detected within 100 miles of the crash site on their network. However, the NLDN only records cloud-to-ground discharges and filters out cloud-to-cloud discharges from their database. If lightning did occur at 13,700 ft. it might have been a cloud-to-cloud discharge. Also, the NLDN detection efficiency for off-shore events is only 60%.

Normally a perfectly conducting enclosure acts as a "Faraday shield" and protects internal occupants and equipment from harm of high voltage discharges. This is demonstrated by the Van deGraff Generator operator who sits in a conducting screened enclosure surrounded by spectacular high voltage arcs. One might thus dismiss lightning as causing any problem to an aircraft enclosed with a perfectly conducting skin.

However, early newspaper accounts reported that Boeing 747's of the vintage of TWA/800 had developed fatigue cracks in the aircraft skin at the junction of the wings and the body of these aircraft. This same article indicated that residual jet fuel might be associated with these cracks. These cracks were described as being adjacent to the main fuel tank compartment that exploded.

If a lightning discharge occurred from wing-to-wing (or nose, or tail to wing) the flow of current in the aircraft skin might cause arcing/sparking at such a crack. If jet fuel was present at the crack "ignition" of the fuel might have occurred. If the fuel-air ratio in the enclosed area behind the crack was just right a minor explosion might have occurred. That minor explosion could have ruptured the main fuel tank causing the major explosion that ripped the plane apart.



Early newspaper articles reported a small initial explosion then a major explosion. More recent articles report a low energy explosion (more indicative of jet fuel) rather than "high explosives". The recent article also reported that the main fuel tank debris examined showed deformation indicating both an external and an internal explosion with respect to the fuel tank. These accounts would tend to support the above theory.

One might ask, why should the lightning current jump the crack and make a spark if there was conducting metal surrounding the crack? Just as the wings flexed during flight causing the crack by metal fatigue that same flexure during flight will open and close that crack alternately causing contact and non-contact. If lightning current was passing across the crack when it was closed the associated magnetic field (inductance) will tend to cause the current to continue flowing when the crack opens thus causing a spark. Much the same as opening the contacts of a high power switch under load results in arcing.

A second scenario to consider might be if lightning caused ignition of jet fuel at a crack but no explosion occurred immediately but that a 320 kt. wind whipped flame burned in the crack with fuel wicked up the inside surface of the aircraft skin in a blow torch effect. Such a hot flame might have burned through the nearby fuel tank thus causing the fatal explosion.

Proving that lightning was the cause of this tragedy may be very difficult but perhaps a case built on circumstantial evidence might be persuasive.

If TWA/800 was hit by lightning the "black-box" recorders may have picked up electromagnetic "noise" (static) on their recordings. Perhaps the mysterious "noise" at the end of the recording is not acoustic "noise" caused by aircraft breakup picked up by the cockpit microphone but instead an electromagnetic pulse picked up in the aircraft wiring caused by the lightning current flowing through the aircraft skin. A very high current flowing along an aircraft skin punctured with cracks, windows, radio and radar radomes might admit enough radiation to be recorded on the "black-box" tape.

Perhaps a time-spectrum analysis of the "noise" on the TWA/800 tape could be compared with "noise" pulses on tapes of other aircraft known to have been hit with lightning discharges to prove or disprove the lightning theory. There should be adequate data of this type available due to the large number of military and commercial aircraft reported damaged each year by lightning. Also, any "noise" pulses detected on the tape from takeoff to the end of the recording should be examined in case the second scenario described above was the way it happened.

The recovered aircraft skin could be examined for signs of "lightning strike damage". I would assume that the FAA has a large database of information describing this type of effect due to the reported large cost of damage to aircraft from lightning strikes each year.

If the crack area has been recovered it might be examined to see if any electrical arc or burn marks can be found. Pitting may also be observed on metal at an electrical arc due to electron erosion effects.

Also, if any structural metal near the crack shows signs of high temperature deformation the blow torch theory might be explored further.



Finally, Mr. Mark Malone, of Global Atmospherics, Inc., NLDN, has suggested that "PIREPS (Pilot REPortS)" for the evening of July 17, 1996 might be examined to see if any other pilots reported "lightning discharges" in the accident area. He also raises the issue of "bolt out of the blue" lightning phenomena which occur on clear days.

I have attached illustrative sketches, pertinent e-mail messages and the Global Atmospherics "FaultFinder" report for your information.

I am <u>not</u> an expert in any of the above areas and I offer these theories "**only as** suggestions" by a concerned citizen who has done a lot of flying as a passenger. If I can be of any help to your investigation please feel free to call on me, however, I feel that at this time I have told you all that I know.

> Yours truly, CONT DOMONI Robert D. Gallagrer

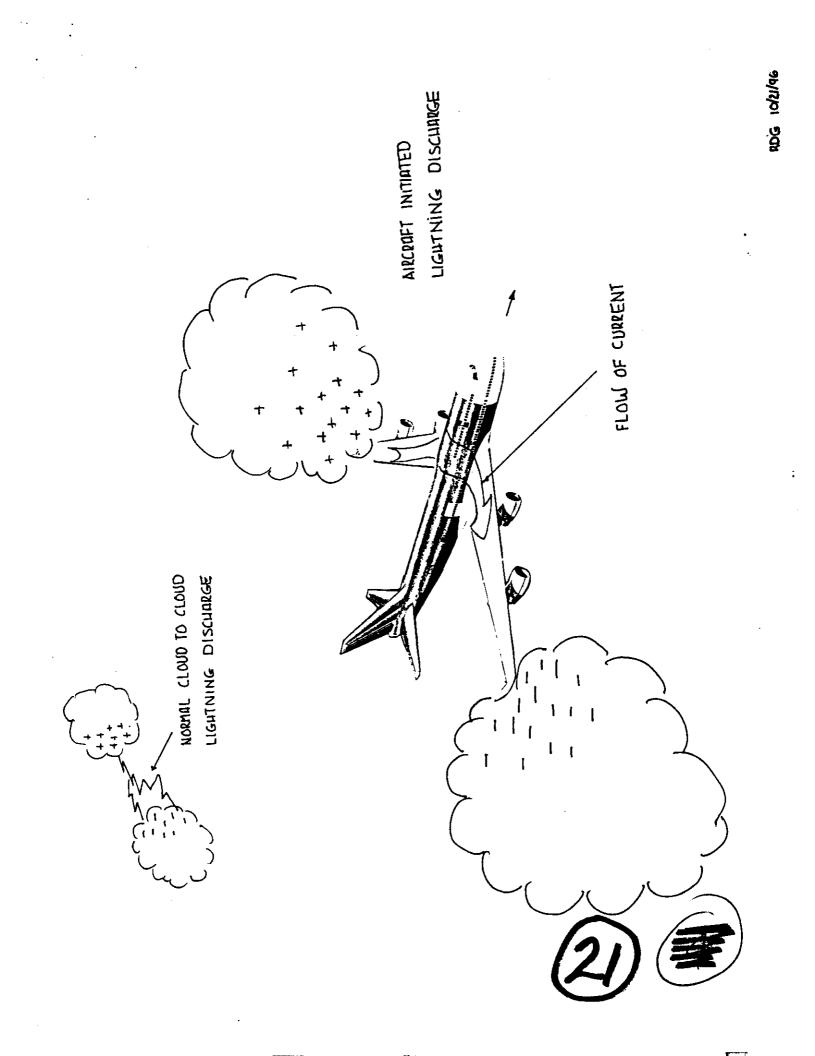
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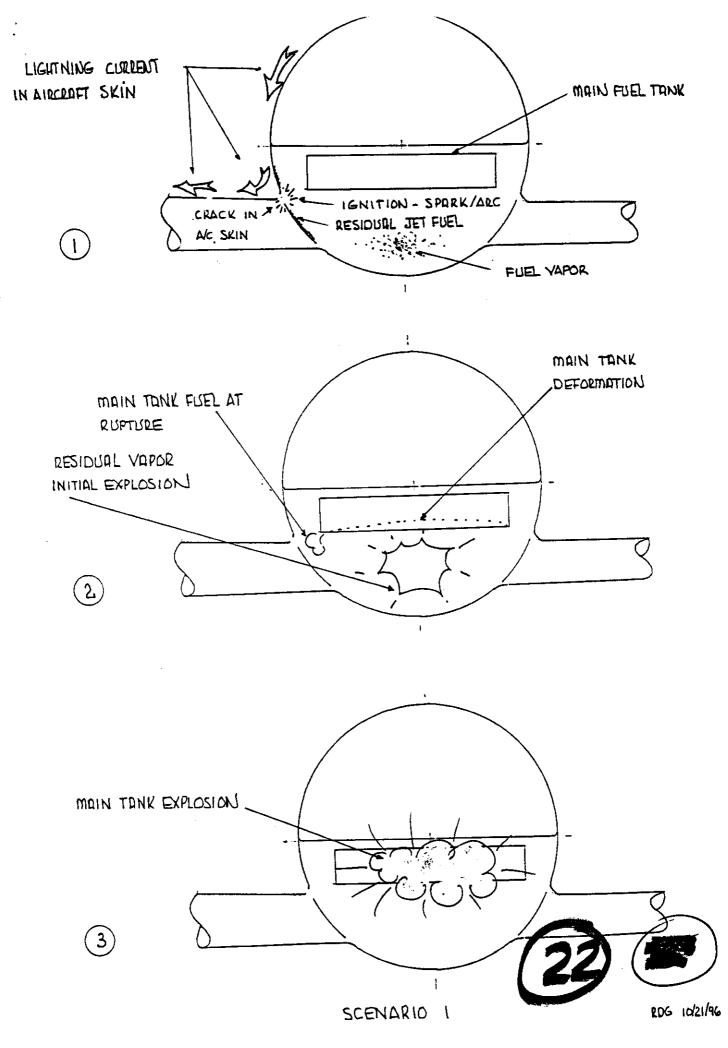
Mark Malone, Global Atmospherics, Inc.

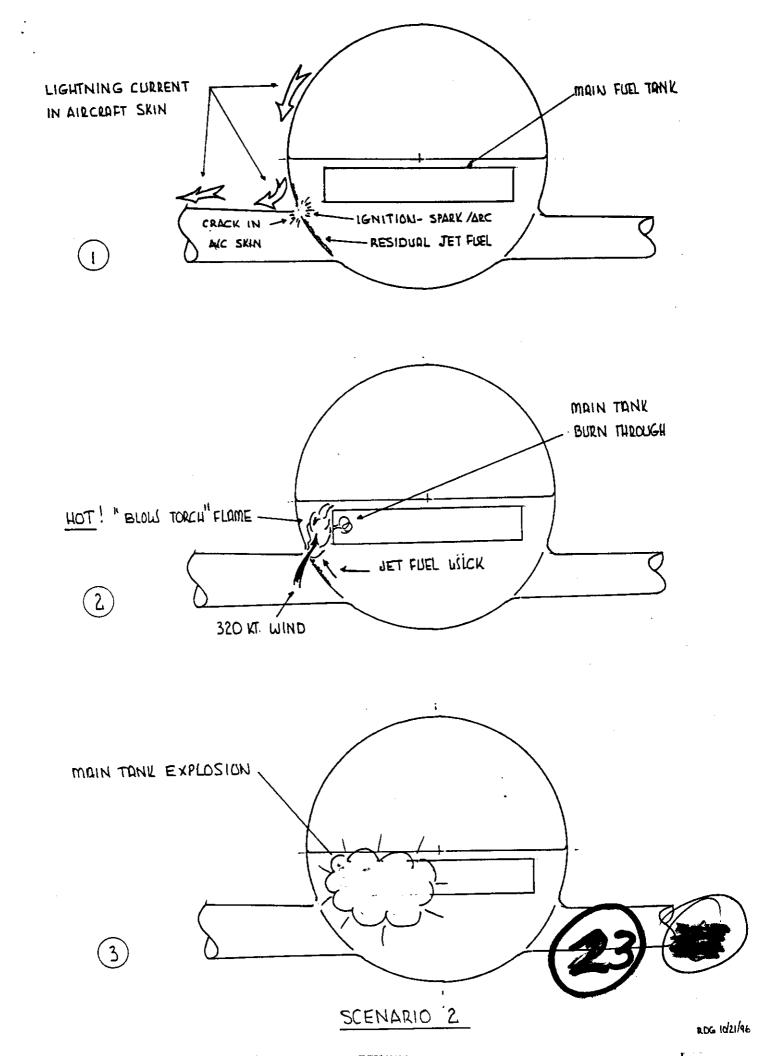
ATTACHMENTS:

- 1. Cloud to Aircraft Discharge
- 2. Scenario 1
- 3. Scenario 2
- 4. E-mail Mark Malone 9/27/96
- 5. E-mail Mark Malone 10/16/96
- 6. FaultFinder Cover Letter
- 7. FaultFinder Report
- 8. FaultFinder Map/Plot









Mark Malone, 9/27/96 8:51 PM, Re: Lightning Data - response to your inquiry

Date: Fri, 27 Sep 1996 15:51:58 GMT From: mdm@gds.com (Mark Malone) To: rdginc@tiac.net Subject: Re: Lightning Data - response to your inquiry X-Sun-Charset: US-ASCII

Mr. Gallagher:

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Glad to help, we'll do a lightning data report (on a map printout) referencing that lat and lon. Be aware of some things:

1. The National Network provides cloud-to-ground information only (both pos/neg polarities). Intra-cloud lightning we filter out.

2. Detection efficiencies off the coast probably drop to 60% (sensors are land based., although we have very long range capability - 1000's of kilometers). NWS uses our long range stuff for over water severe storm detection. I'll see about checking both data bases (US and Long range).

3. If there is no lightning detected for that time period, we'll show where nearest lightning was occurring.

Also...who do I send this report to? I'll need an address.

Thanks

Mark Malone Global Atmospherics, Inc.

mdm@gds.com



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Printed for rdginc@tiac.net (Bob Gallagher)

....

Mark Malone, 10/16/96 12:54 AM, Re: Lightning Data July 17, 1996

Date: Tue, 15 Oct 1996 19:54:31 GMT From: mdm@gds.com (Mark Malone) To: rdginc@tiac.net Subject: Re: Lightning Data July 17, 1996 X-Sun-Charset: US-ASCII

> From rdginc@tiac.net Tue Oct 15 00:18 GMT 1996 > X-Sender: rdginc@pop.tiac.net > Mime-Version: 1.0 > Date: Mon, 14 Oct 1996 20:20:13 +0500 > To: mdm@gds.com (Mark Malone) > From: rdginc@tiac.net (Bob Gallagher) > Subject: Re: Lightning Data July 17, 1996 > Mark, > Thank you for your help! Can you estimate the probability that there was a > lightning discharge in that area and your network did not record it? (i.e. > one in a million???) > > I will forward your report to the NTSB with a note when I receive it. > > Thanks again! > > Bob Gallagher > Bob,

Without knowing a lot of other things, like was there convection in that area? Satellite imagery showed clouds? surface observation reports. etc. I can only state that our chances of missing an entire storm is pretty low, almost nil. However, if there was a "bolt out of the blue", yes there is a chance we missed it, especially if it were a cloud to cloud strike, which we do not measure. I would check NWS surface reports and archived satellite and radar data too. Also, other pilots may have filed "PIREPS (PILot REPorts)" which are in-flight updates as observed by aircrews as they fly through areas. The NWS or FAA should have that data.

For more precise quantification, you may want to contact some of our academic affiliates like Dr. Phil Krider at the University of Arizona Atmospheric Science Dept. Or, Dr. Martin Uman at the University of Florida Electrical Eng. Dept. Or, Dr. Richard Orville, at Texas A&M College Station, TX. Phil and Martin founded our company, and Dr. Orville designed the National Lightning Detection Network (when he was at S.U.N.Y. - Albany, I worked under him there). Finally, another scientist I recommend is Dr. Vince Idone at S.U.N.Y. - Albany Atmospheric Science Dept.

here's some phone numbers:

Krider: (520) 621-6831
Uman: (904) 392-4038
Idone: (518) 442-3300 (I think this is SUNYA's main number...not sure)

Another excellent scientist that we work with is Mr. Ron Holle at the National Severe Storms Lab in Norman Oklahoma, he is real adept at quantifying this sort of thing. (He and I and others co-authored a short paper on a "bolt out of the blue" lightning phenomena that occurred in Connecticut during the Winter. Ron can be reached by e-mailing: holle@nssla.nssl.uoknor.edu

Oh, NASA also has OTD's in space (Optical Transient Detectors) that pick up lightning from space platforms. Check the NASA.GOV web site or contact them directly. there is a gentleman named Otha Vaughn that does some pretty incredible reserach in that area and supports the NASA mission. It is located at the Marshall Space Flight Center, I don't have his number.

Hope this helps.



Global Atmospherics, Inc. 2705 East Medina Road, Tucson, Arizona 85706-7155 Telephone (520) 741-2838 Fax (520) 741-2848

FaultFinder™ Report

October 18, 1996

Robert Gallagher 1 Fairbanks Road Chelmsford, MA 01824

Dear Mr. Gallagher:

Thank you for using Global Atmospheric's FaultFinder^MLightning Report to validate your event. Data from the National Lightning Detection NetworkTM was analyzed for your requested search time and region.

Reference	e Number:	SO-819					
Report D	etails:						
Re	equested By:	Robert Gallagher					
Se	earch period:	July 17, 1996 20:20:00 EDT					
		То:					
		July 17, 1996 20:35:00 EDT					
Lo	ocation Region:	Latitude: 40.5833 Longitude: -72.7167					
Results:							
St	trokes Detected:	0 (within 100 miles)					
St	uspect Strokes:	0 detected on centerpoint (nearest stroke detected at 361.0 miles)					

If you have any other questions about your report, please call me at (800) 283-4557.

Sincerely,

With From

William Brooks



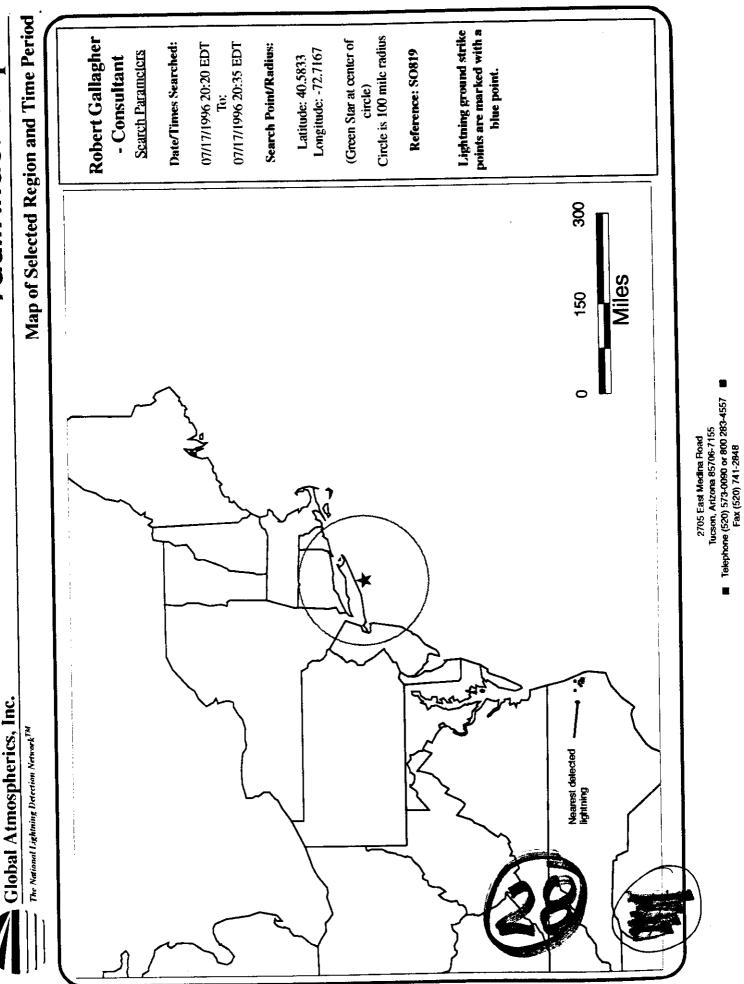
Lightning Location and Protection Tucson, Arizona

GeoMet Data Services Tucson, Arizona

Atmospheric Research Systems Palm Bay, Florida

Global Atmospherics, Inc.	FaultFinder Report
The National Lightening Detection Network ¹⁸	Individual Stroke Print-Out
FoullFinder Report Pobert Gallagher - Consultant Robert Gallagher - Consultant ASCII Data ASCII Data Dates and Times Below are in GMT (EDT + 4 hours) Dates and Times Below are in GMT (EDT + 4 hours) No detected lightning within the 100 mile buffer radius. Nearest stroke detected at 361.0 miles.	
Image: Second se Second second	

2705 East Medhre Road Tucson, Arizona 85706-7155 Telephone 602 573-0090 or 600 263-4557 Fax 602 741-2948



FaultFinder Report



Background

The Optical Transient Detector (OTD), the world's first space-based sensor capable of detecting and locating lightning events in the daytime as well as during the nighttime with high detection efficiency was designed and built at Marshall Space Flight Center (MSFC). The concept for this instrument was developed at NASA's Marshall Space Flight Center in the 1980's, and was selected for development as part of NASA's Earth Observing System (EOS). The purpose of the sensor is to detect the full spectrum of lightning flashes, including cloud to ground, cloud to cloud, and intra-cloud (within cloud) lightning events. Ground-based techniques detect only cloud-to-ground lightning events which are believed to comprise 25% of the total lightning activity. In addition, these techniques generally detect lightning activity near land masses; very little information is provided regarding lightning events over the Earth's oceans. OTD is designed to aid scientists in determining the global distribution of lightning activity and thunderstorms and the characteristics of the Earth's electric circuit.

The OTD was launched on 3 April 1995 into a <u>near polar orbit at an inclination of 70 degrees</u> with respect to the equator, at an altitude of 740 km. At any given instant, this <u>views a 1300 by 1300 km</u> region of the earth.

The OTD development team adopted a fast-track, low-cost approach, making maximum use of engineering model hardware configured for flight on a small satellite. Launch on the Orbital Sciences Corporation <u>Pegasus rocket</u> was provided free via a data buy arrangement providing low cost access to space with a shared government-industry risk factor. The instrument was designed, fabricated, space qualified, calibrated, and delivered within a period of nine months. It is designed to observe lightning for a period of two years or more.

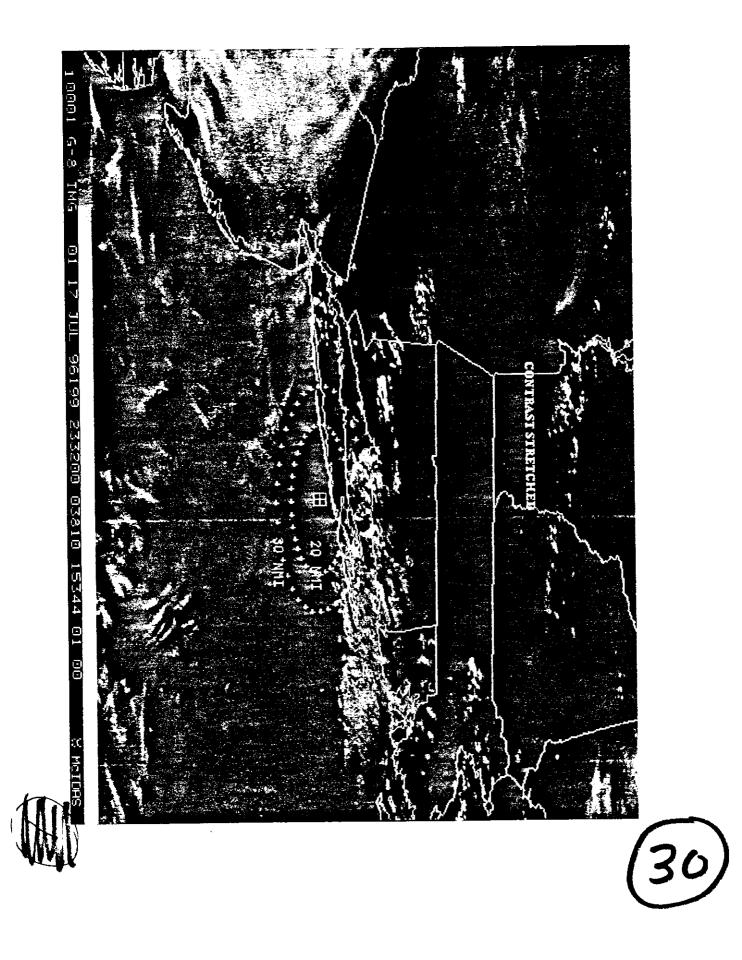
The <u>Microlab satellite</u> carrying the <u>OTD (silver canister)</u> shared the launch with two commercial communications satellites called Orbcoms.

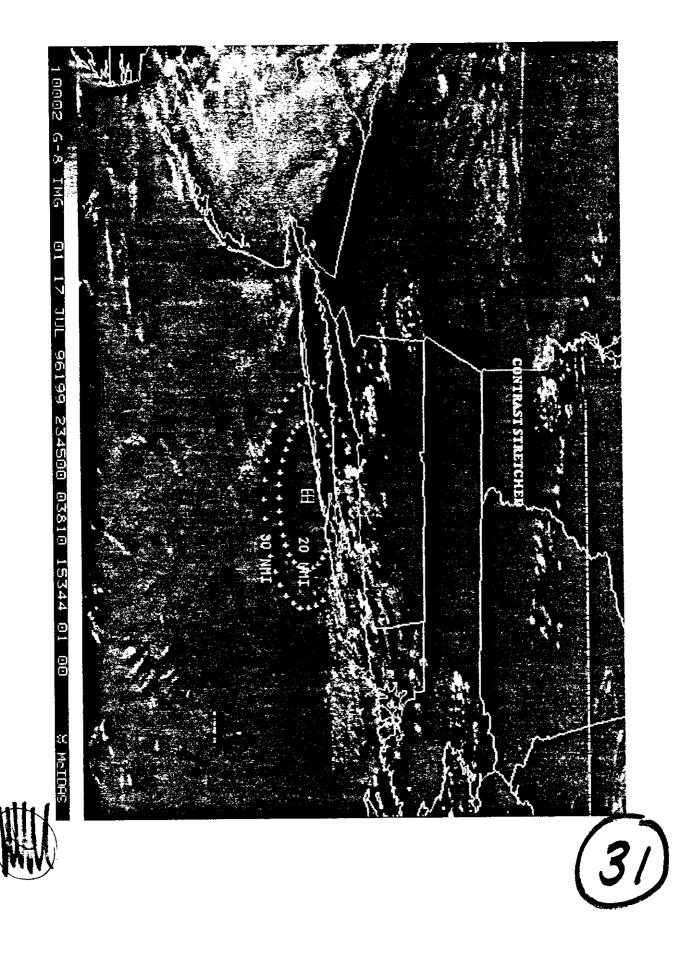
Scientific Objectives

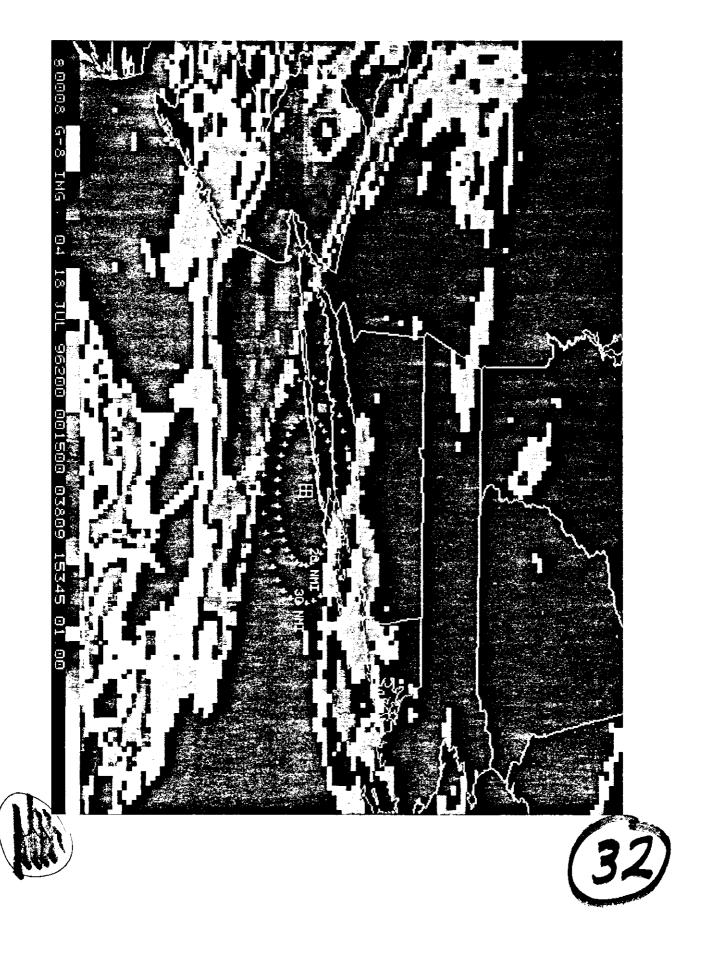
OTD is designed to detect, locate and measure the intensity of lightning for scientific investigation of the distribution and variability of total lightning over the Earth and to increase our understanding of the Earth's atmosphere system. Lightning is closely coupled to storm convection dynamics, and can be correlated to the global rates, amounts and distribution of convective precipitation. The <u>Optical Transient</u> <u>Detector</u> contributes to studies of Earth's water cycle, sea-surface temperature variations, electrical coupling of thunderstorms with the ionosphere and magnetosphere, and modeling of the global distribution of electrical fields and currents in the Earth's atmosphere. In addition, it begins the development of a global lightning climatological database for use in NACAS distinct to Planet Earth

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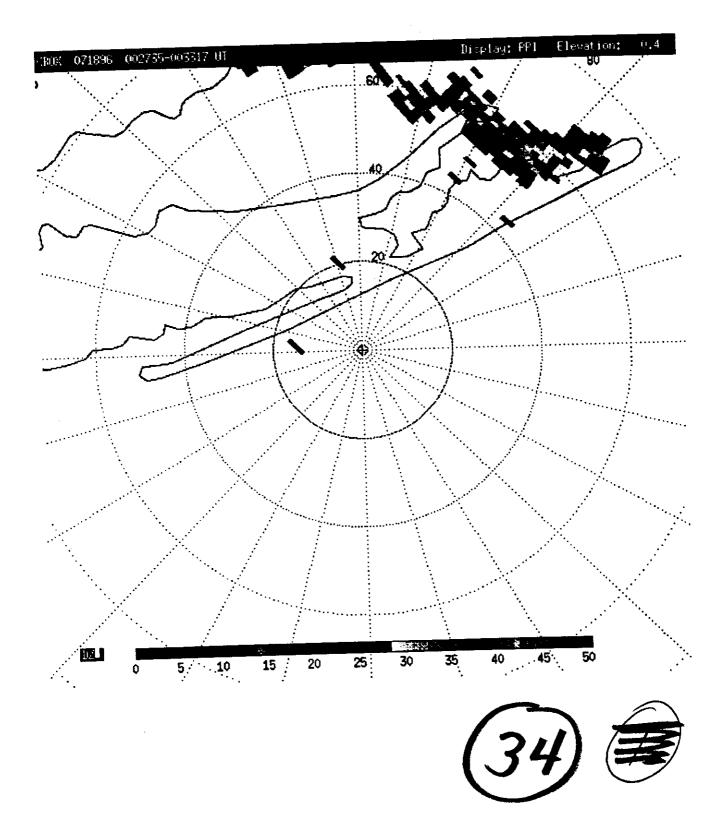


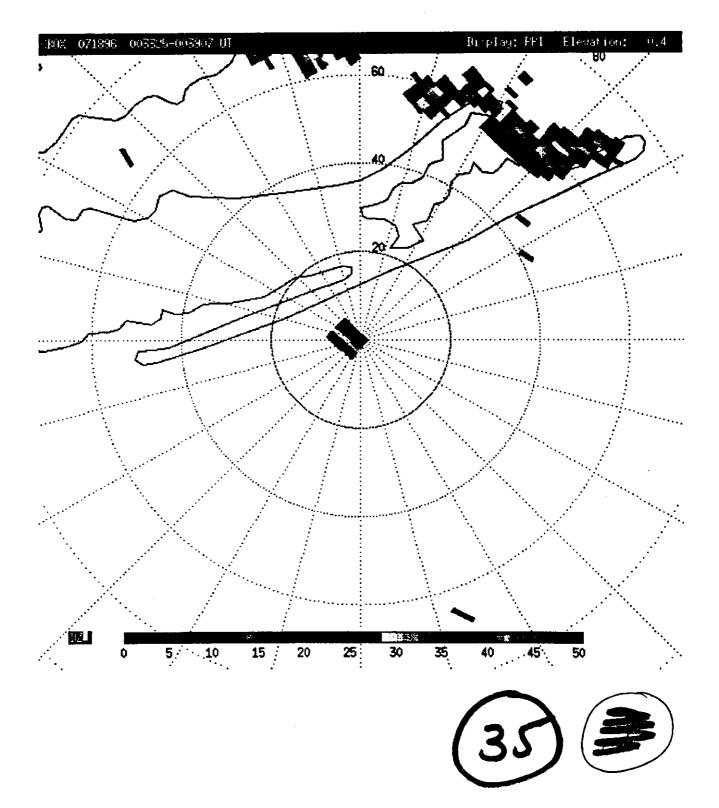


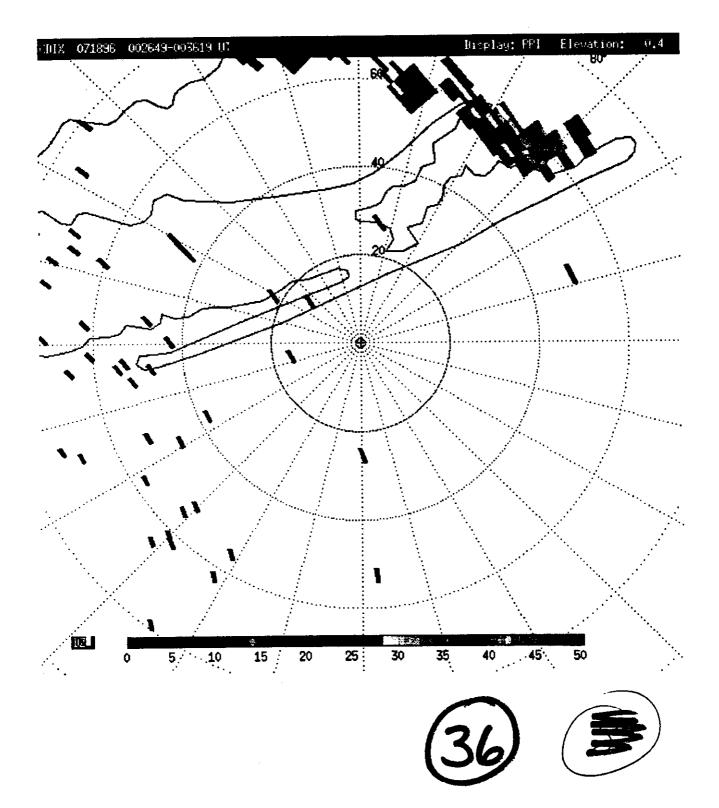




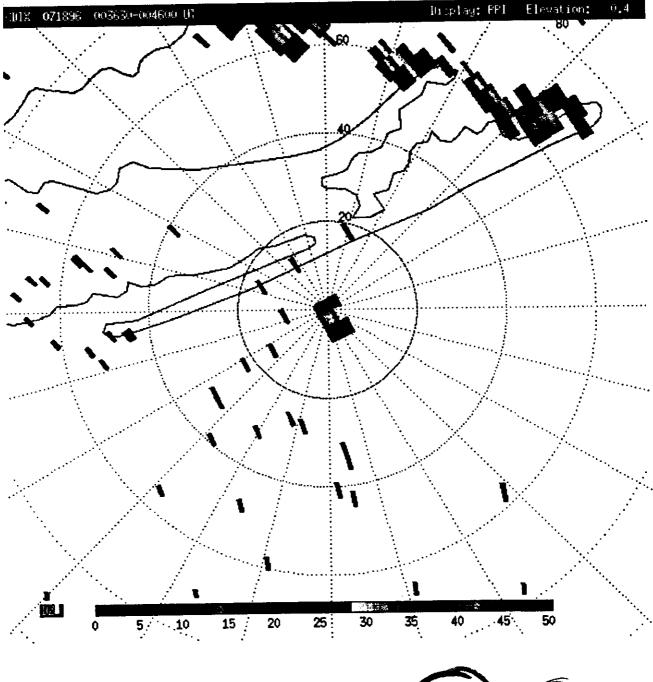




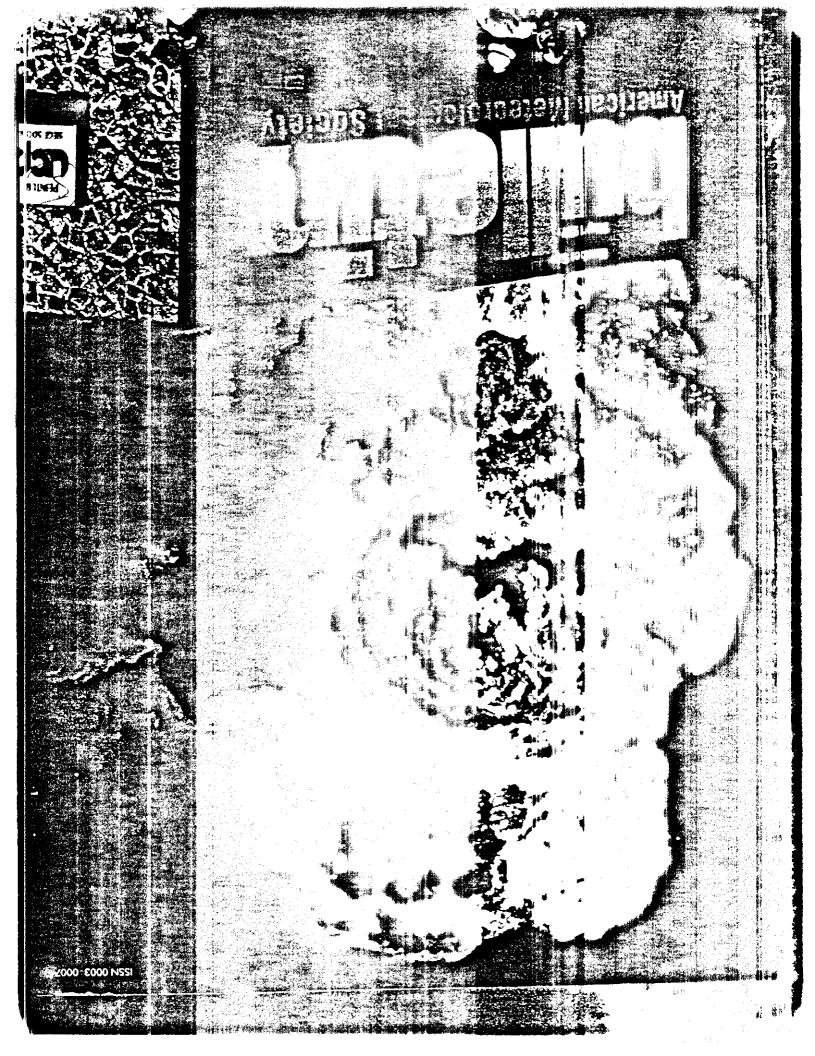




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Radar Observations of a Major Industrial Fire



R. R. Rogers and W. O. J. Brown Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada

ABSTRACT

On 23 May 1996, a Montreal suburban paint factory containing several hundred thousand gallons of paints, solvents, and other chemicals burned to the ground in a spectacular fire. The smoke plume from the fire was readily detected by three radars operated by McGill University for routine observations of the atmosphere. An S-band (10-cm wavelength) scanning radar provided a plan view of the plume from the time of its initial appearance over the plant until the fire was finally extinguished. These data reveal the history of the plume, showing how it meandered and spread as it was advected downwind. The plume passed directly over the site of two vertically pointing radars, one a highresolution X-band radar (3-cm wavelength) and the other a UHF (33-cm wavelength) wind profiler. Doppler spectra of the smoke echoes in the vertical beam of the profiler indicated predominantly downward velocities, but it was not possible to distinguish in the spectra between scattering by settling particles and scattering by the refractively perturbed air. The reflectivity of the plume in the vertical beam of the wind profiler, expressed in terms of the rain-equivalent reflectivity factor, had values up to 40 dBZ. At the shorter wavelength of the X-band radar, the reflectivity factors were less by amounts ranging from 20 to more than 30 dBZ. The difference in reflectivity can probably be accounted for by a combination of 1) the presence in the plume of particles on the order of 10 mm in diameter, which are too large to satisfy the Rayleigh scattering approximation at the shorter wavelength, and 2) a strongly perturbed structure of atmospheric refractivity, caused by the heating and turbulent mixing generated by the fire and creating a strong echo at the longer wavelength.

1.Introduction

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On 23 May 1996, a spectacular fire destroyed a paint factory in the Montreal, Canada, suburb of Laval, located approximately 10 km northwest of the McGill University campus in the center of the city. The blaze leveled three buildings filled with paint, wood stain, and preservatives; solvents; and other chemicals used in the manufacturing of paint. A column of black smoke rising from the fire was clearly visible from the McGill campus. It appeared to reach a height of at least a kilometer and then to spread southeastward, toward the campus and downtown Montreal. By the time the smoke trail was overhead

1-mail: rogers@zephyr.meteo.mcgill.ca

In final form 12 November 1996.

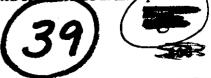
+ 1947 American Meteorological Society

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at the campus, it was no longer black and was only barely perceptible as a kind of haze that caused an increase in the amount of diffuse light from directions near the sun.

The smoke trail was readily detected by three radars operated by McGill that are used for continuous atmospheric observations. Data from an S-band surveillance radar located 30 km west of the downtown site show the plume as it first appeared over the paint factory and as it grew and was advected toward the southeast. A vertically pointing X-band radar on the downtown campus provided high-resolution measurements of the reflectivity of the plume as it passed overhead. At the same site, a UHF wind profiling radar measured the reflectivity and the Doppler spectra of the plume overhead. Curiously, in spite of the strong radar echoes from the plume, it was optically too thin to give more than a brief detectable signal on our laser ceilometer, and that signal might actually have been caused by a patch of thingloud at the top of the

boundary layer.



Corresponding author address: R. R. Rogers, Dept. of Atmospheric Sciences, McGill University, 805 Sherbrooke St. West, Montreal H3A 2K6, Canada.

This paper describes 2.6 January smoke plume. The data provide tion of the way in which such the helpful in monitoring plume because of the reflectivities at wavelength, indicates a strong deviation from the The wavelength dependence is provide a combination of Bragg scattering fluctuations and the existence of the plume that are too large for the Radiation tion at the shorter wavelength, because favor the longer wavelength.

2.The fire

time). Workers returning from turn a shooting from a large mixing machinar is speculated that the fire may have be an overheated bearing in the mixer design and tion of the plant was so complete that the second may never be known for sure. The β arrive tried to contain the blaze but were forced and of the building by the extreme heat and the streng of explosions. The fire spread quickly due agreed the factory complex, causing roofs and external walks w collapse. The buildings were shaken to determine it small explosions, which shot fireballs, ct. macais and debris high into the air. Three cars parsed at a 191 beside the plant were destroyed. Although r-0 firefighters and a half dozen pumper trucks were onthe scene, the fire did not come under control untar the

TABLE I. Characteristics of the three radars

X band	UHF
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	eraure soundings, which copically	.∔´ + IJ

4.5 moke plume observed by the scanning radar

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Figure show the plume as it was observed by the scarning S-band radar at the time when it had spread to the McGill rampus. This is a 1.5-km constant altitude plar position indicator (CAPPI) display with a spatial resolution of t km, which is a composite plot assembled from more fundamental slant—Plan Position Indicator data and the form of the archival records of the S-band radar. The plume is plotted or a map indi-

react above MK of These instruments work all the

time, and so other space. On the Macdona c campus is

weather subsetflance, similar to Next Generation Ra-

dar to see the rating characteristics. It runs continuous y, but data at 1 only archived for weather situations

or surfaces of principality precipitation events. The main characteristics of the radars are listed in Table 1

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ed by the spread to nt altitude ith a spate plot asposition records of map indicating the large islands of Montreal and Laval, and several smaller islands lying in the St. Lawrence River. The letter Fis centered on the location of the fire on the island of Laval, P on the profiler and VPR, and R on the scanning radar.

The radar reflectivity of the plume is plotted in terms of its rain-equivalent reflectivity factor. These quantities are related by

$$Z = \frac{\lambda^4}{\pi^5 |K|^2} \eta, \qquad (1)$$

where Z is the reflectivity factor (dimensions L³), η is the reflectivity (dimensions L⁻¹), λ is the wavelength, and K $= (m^2 - 1)/(m^2 + 2)$, where m is the complex index of refraction of the scattering material (Battan 1973). For water, the dielectric factor $|K|^2$ for wavelengths in the centimeter range and temperatures around 0°C equals approximately 0.93, and that is the value used in (1) for converting η to Z. [The reflectivity factor defined by (1) is usually denoted by Z to emphasize that it is the rainequivalent reflectivity factor, but for notational simplicity we have omitted the subscript.] Basically, the property of a

target that a radar is able to sense and measure is η ; Z is a computed quantity proportional to η , with a constant of proportionality that depends on the wavelength. For rain, Z is related to the the drop size distribution by

$$Z = \int_{0}^{\infty} D^{6} N(D) dD, \qquad (2)$$

where N(D)dD is the number of drops per unit volume of space whose diameters are between D and D+ dD. Although Z has a physical significance only for radar targets consisting of precipitation, it can be useful for rescaling the reflectivity of radar targets in general. For any targets consisting of a cloud of scattering elements such as raindrops that are small compared with the wavelength, it follows from the Rayleigh scattering approximation that $\eta \propto \lambda^{-4}$, and hence Z is independent of wavelength.

By convention, the reflectivity factor is often measured on a logarithmic scale in units of decibels of

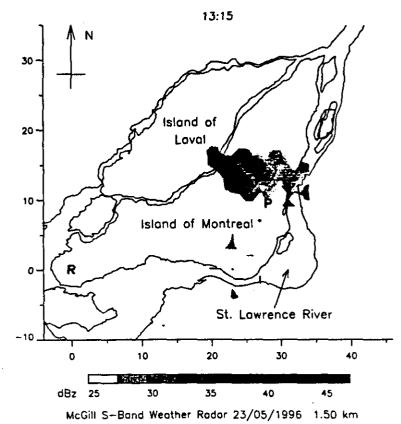


Fig. 1. Reflectivity pattern of the smoke plume observed by S-band scanning radar at 1315 EST 23 May 1996. This is a 1.5-km CAPPI map, with scales indicating the distance from the scanning radar in kilometers. The letters F, P, and R indicate, respectively, locations of the fire, the profiler and VPR, and the scanning radar.

reflectivity (dBZ), defined by

$$\zeta = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{Z}{Z_0} \right), \tag{3}$$

where $Z_0 = 1 \text{ mm}^6 \text{ m}^{-3}$. The outer contour of the smoke plume in Fig. 1 has a reflectivity factor of 25 dBZ, and the maximum reflectivities within the plume are about 45 dBZ. These are substantial reflectivities, which, for precipitation, would correspond to moderate rain.

Figure 2 shows a sequence of CAPPI displays at 10-min intervals from the time the smoke echo first appeared until the worst of the fire was over and the plume was dissipating. Here, the base map is simplified to show principally the main islands of Laval and Montreal, separated by Rivière des Prairies. The first three frames suggest that there may have been an initial explosion, followed after a short delay by the major fire. The map at 1315 EST is the same as the shown in Fig. 1, when the plum that just mached the

Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society

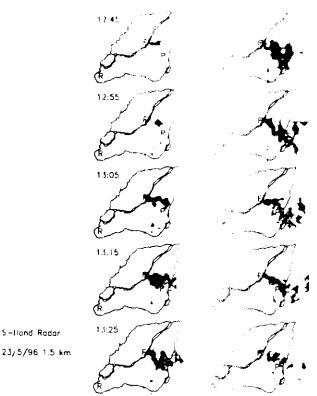


FIG. 2. Sequence of CAPPI maps at 10-min intervals showing the evolution of the smoke plume. The base map is simplified, indicating only the islands of Montreal and Laval. Some of the small, faint echoes south of the profiler site (letter P) are ground clutter, not echoes from the plume.

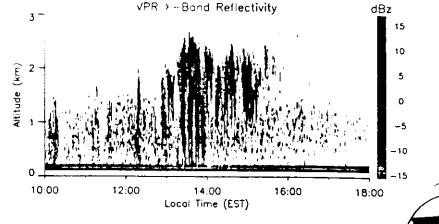
site of the profiler and the VPR. Hourly winds measured by the profiler indicated a northwesterly flow of approximately 8 m s⁻¹ at 1.5 km. Although the plume meanders, its overall displacement is consistent with the profiler winds.

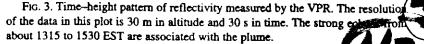
reflectively in hese columns exceed 10 dBZ. The stronger echoes are clearly associated with the smoke plume as it passed over the McGill campus.

Figure a cocuses on the period 1300-1500 EST which includes the strongest echoes from the smoke plume, and compares the VPR data with the reflectivities measured in the vertical beam of the wind profiler. The high-resolution VPR data indicate an extremely grainy pattern of reflectivity, much rougher than the patterns observed in precipitation, showing that the smoke plume is a highly irregular scattering medium. Although the resolution of the profiler in height and time is coarser than the VPR, there is nevertheless are obvious similarity between the two patterns. However, the profiler-measured reflectivity factors in the echo cores are stronger than those measured by the VPR by as much as 20 dBZ or more. Collocated with the profiler and VPR is a laser ceilometer (Vaisala model CT-12K). The only detectable echo on the ceilometer during this time period was one at 2.1 km of about a 2-min duration at 1332 EST. This falls within the time and height interval of the strong radar echoes and might be an indication of the smoke plume. On the other hand, there were a few wisps of cloud in the sky, and the ceilometer echo may only indicate a passing cloud. Right away it should be noted as curious that a smoke trail, ordinarily thought of as consisting of particles with sizes on the order of micrometers, would be detectable by radars with wavelengths of 3, 10, and 33 cm, but not by the ceilometer with a wavelength of 0.9 μ m. A possible explanation of the observations is that the radar plume was composed of rather large particles, presumably ash, debris, and other products of incomplete combustion, all

5.The plume overhead

Figure 3 is an 8-h time-height record of reflectivity measured by the VPR. The reflectivity is expressed in terms of the rain-equivalent reflectivity factor using (1). The minimum value plotted is -15 dBZ. The weak and spotty echoes up to about 2 km are believed to be primarily due to insects. Unmistakable are the stronger echoes starting just after 1300 EST and sometimes extending from nearly 3 km down to the ground. The core





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	916.8	21.5	11.9	285.0	9.2	914.0			
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	586.0	0.0	-20.4	300.0	10.9	4620.7	<u> </u>	upm	e Hes SE
	567.3	-1.9	-23.0	305.0	11.8	4878.0	0,0	-	
	545.9	-4.2	-21.8	315.0	15.9	5182 0	24		
	530.0	-5.9	-20.9	315.0	17.1	5416.5	<u> </u>		
	500.0	-9.3	-28.3	315.0	19.5	5870.1	20		
	485.5	-10.4	-30.2	310.0	20.0	6097.0	141	-	
	466.6	-11.8	-32.7	305.0	20.5	6402.0	14	<u>\</u>	
	465.0	-11.9	-32.9	304.8	20.5	6428.6	31		
	<u>400.0</u> 396.5	<u>-22.5</u> -23.0	-35.5	<u>295.0</u> 295.0	20.5	7558.2			
	363.9	-23.0	-30.0	295.0	20.5	8231.0	30		
	319.9	-35.2	-47.5	305.0	20.0	9146.0			
	306.5	-37.7	-49.8	315.0	19.0	9451.0			
	300.0	-38.9	-50.9	315.0	19.0	9602.3	29		
	286.0	-41.9	-51.9	300.8	18.6	9928.2			
	280.4	-42.7	-52.9	295.0	18.5	10060.0	20		
	256.0	-46.5	-57.3	280.0	21.0	10670.0	30		
	250.0	-47.5	-58.5	280.0	21.6 24.6	10828.8 12269.6	<u>3</u> 3		
	<u> 200.0</u> 182.0	<u>-58.1</u> -56.5	<u>-67.1</u> -65.5	<u>310.0</u> 313.6	29.0	12866.1			
	175.1	-57.2	-66.2	315.0	30.8	13109.0	34		
	151.4	-59.9	-68.9	300.0	25.7	14024.0			
_	150.0	-60.1	-69.1	300.0	25.7	14083.4	33		
	133.0	-61.9	-70.9	312.9	23.4	14831.2			
	124.5	-60.8	-69.8	320.0	22.1	15243.0			
	118.5	-59.9	-68.9	320.0	20.0	15548.0			
	117.0	-59.7	-68.7	318.7	19.3	15628.7	4.		
	102.3 100.0	-61.8 -62.1	-70.8 -71.1	305.0 305.0	12.3 11.3	16463.0 16605.1	80		
	93.3	-62.5	-71.5	505.0	<u> </u>	17033.6			<u>, </u>
	25.9	-49.7	-62.7			25184.4	KA		7
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