

1 **Examining the Relative Motion of Derecho- and Non-Derecho-Producing QLCs with**
2 **Respect to the Mean Wind**

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Abstract

1
2 Since the term “derecho” was defined, vast technological and societal changes have taken place.
3 Impactful developments include (1) the implementation of the WSR-88D radar network
4 nationwide, which helps provide a structural view of mesoscale convective systems (MCSs), and
5 (2) modern reporting practices which now provide substantially more severe-wind reports than in
6 the past. These changes have caused the term “derecho” to become misapplied over the years,
7 which has led to recent endeavors to refine the definition. This study aims to help clarify the term
8 “derecho” by investigating relationships between radar-implied structural features of MCSs and
9 the mean wind and propagation components of MCS motion. Results show that there is a
10 correlation; specifically, well-organized MCSs move faster and have more propagation in the
11 direction of mean wind than less organized systems. By understanding the relationship between
12 MCS structure and motion, the process of MCS and derecho classification can incorporate
13 physical features and motion of MCSs, in addition to wind-damage swaths, into the classification
14 process.

15

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Organized clusters of thunderstorms with specific structural, thermodynamic, and
3 kinematic characteristics can be classified as mesoscale convective systems (MCSs, e.g.,
4 Maddox et al. 1980; Parker 2000). MCSs produce a large amount of the annual summer rainfall
5 in the middle latitudes of the United States, and their associated precipitation is often
6 accompanied by a wide range of severe weather threats, including flooding, tornadoes and
7 damaging winds (Jirak and Cotton, 2007). On top of contributing a large amount of warm-season
8 rainfall throughout the central United States, MCSs also are responsible for a large portion of the
9 severe weather cases in the central United States (Corfidi 2003, Fritsch et al. 1986), the most
10 destructive and impactful of which can be severe straight-line winds that can reach hurricane
11 force (Ashley and Mote, 2005).

12 The highest-impact and strongest severe-wind-producing MCSs are often classified as
13 derechos (e.g., Cohen et al. 2007; Ashley and Mote 2005). These systems comprise up to forty
14 percent of thunderstorm wind casualties caused by MCSs (Metz and Bosart 2010), while only
15 compromising a small percentage of total MCSs. However, classification requirement issues,
16 such as minimum damage swath length and wind strength, arise in the modern-day classification
17 scheme for severe MCSs and derechos, which relies heavily on damage reports and surface
18 observations that, in the past, tended to be relatively low in number. In modern times, the number
19 of daily damage reports has grown significantly, which carries inherent drawbacks. Modern
20 reports often have questionable reliability caused by unequal population distribution, inconsistent
21 reporting and lack of measured observations due to gaps in the United States observation
22 network (Weiss et al. 2002; Trapp 2006, Cohen et al. 2007). Due to these issues associated with
23 modern reporting, combined with the large growth of reports (Weiss et al. 2002), the term

1 derecho has become outdated, as the definition was created when only the most severe MCSs
2 received large amounts of damaging-wind reports. Nowadays, larger percentages of MCSs are
3 associated with numerous reports, which can be misleading when trying to determine the true
4 societal impact. Because of this, a joint effort between the National Severe Storms Laboratory
5 and the Storm Prediction Center has begun in order to revise the definition of derecho to account
6 for modern data. The updates include incorporating MCS structure and motion into the MCS-
7 classification process. This paper specifically focuses on MCS motion, in terms of mean wind
8 and propagation, and its relation to MCS organization/structure.

9 The physical structures of MCSs examined in this paper are features associated with
10 severe-wind-producing MCSs. Key features include: the continuity/organization of the line of
11 organized convection, which can gauge the strength of the cold pool associated with an MCS; the
12 presence, or absence, of a mesoscale convective vortex (MCV), which has been associated with
13 derecho-producing MCSs (Wheatley and Trapp 2006; Metz and Bosart 2010); the appearance of
14 the transition zone between the organized line of convection and the stratiform rain region; the
15 angle between line orientation and mean wind, which can help provide insight as to the severe-
16 weather threat (wind, flood, or both) associated with an MCS.

17 In this study, MCS motion is analyzed with a focus on mean wind, which is used as the
18 advection component of motion, and propagation, which is any motion not accounted for by the
19 mean wind. The focus is on mean wind and propagation because MCS motion is comprised of an
20 advection component, which we calculated using mean wind, and a propagation component
21 (Corfidi et al. 1996, Corfidi et al. 2003).

22 Mean wind has been determined in past MCS studies using the 850-300-mb winds. This
23 approach gives equal weight to each pressure level in the atmosphere (Corfidi et al. 1996) and

1 results in a high correlation between MCS motion and the advection component of motion. The
2 present study specifically investigates whether surface-6-kilometer mean winds or lifted
3 condensation level (LCL) to equilibrium level (EL) mean winds best represent MCS motion. The
4 mean wind values in this study, unlike in the 850-300 millibar (mb) calculation, are pressure
5 weighted, which means that areas of the cloud with more mass make up a larger percentage of
6 the mean wind calculation than layers with less mass.

7 Section 2 focuses on MCS case selection, how each MCS was classified, and the
8 mathematical calculations performed. Section 3 focuses on the results and implications of the
9 study, presented attribute by attribute, and section 4 summarizes the results of the study.

10

11 **2. Methodology**

12 *a) Data collection*

13 Using Storm Prediction Center (SPC) severe-wind reports, a collection of 357 severe-
14 wind-producing warm-season (May-August) MCSs was created for the years 2010 to 2014. After
15 the list of MCSs was compiled, each MCS was manually classified and tracked using NCDC
16 national radar composite radar data (<http://gis.ncdc.noaa.gov/map/viewer/#app=cdo>). Each MCS
17 was tracked 30-90 minutes within the mature phase along the organized line of convection.

18 Features that were tracked varied depending on the shape and size of the MCS.

19 At the beginning of the tracking period, each MCS component was classified as meso-
20 alpha scale (200-2000 km) or meso-beta scale (20-200 km) (Fig. 1) based on the spatial extent of
21 the linear convection. If an MCS contained meso-alpha and meso-beta features, both features
22 were tracked independently during an overlapping time period. Features tracked on the meso-
23 alpha scale included areas of organized convection, middle of line segments, and the apex of

1 single arcing bows. Meso-beta scale features of interest included areas of organized convection,
2 embedded bow echoes within a larger quasi-linear convective system (QLCS), small single-
3 arcing bows and the middle of line segments. Start and end points were recorded for each meso-
4 alpha or meso-beta feature via longitude and latitude coordinate documentation along with a
5 corresponding start time and end time so that direction of movement, distance traveled and speed
6 could be obtained for each MCS feature tracked. The direction of movement and speed are used
7 to comprise the MCS motion vector for use in mathematical calculations.

8 Line orientation was tracked for each MCS during the mature phase and was measured at
9 the angle relative to the meridian with no angle being greater than 90 degrees, clockwise rotation
10 being positive and counterclockwise rotation being negative. This angle was measured precisely
11 by taking two latitude and longitude points along the line orientation and calculating the angle
12 between the line generated by the two points and a meridian intersecting that line. Each set of
13 points were taken on a line tangent to the apex of a bow, parallel to the line segment, or line
14 along the average orientation of a line segment with multiple large bow echoes within it.

15 The advection component of motion was determined at the beginning time and location
16 of each MCS's starting point and included data of the pressure weighted mean wind in the
17 surface-6-km layer and LCL-EL layer. The mean wind vector data came from the RUC/RAP
18 data archived in the SPC Mesoanalysis data at the nearest grid point to the start point of each
19 MCS at the beginning of closest hour to the start time. The winds before the start time are used
20 since this best represents the near-storm environment prior to convective overturning.

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1 *b) Classification scheme*

2 A subjective four-class scheme was created to group MCSs exhibiting similar structural
3 characteristics. By grouping MCSs based on physical structures, it is possible to determine the
4 relationship between the physical structure of MCSs and MCS motion, broken up by mean winds
5 and propagation. The MCSs were all classified at the time of peak organization, with neither
6 time period nor swath-length being considered.

7 Each class of MCS was based on differing physical features and levels of organization
8 (Fig. 2). These different physical features can be attributed to strength of the cold pool, extent of
9 large scale ascent in the synoptic environment, synoptic boundaries, remnant outflow boundaries,
10 wind shear, as well as thermodynamic features such as the horizontal and vertical distribution of
11 CAPE (Cohen et al. 2007).

12 “Class one” is composed of MCSs that are the best organized, contain a single arcing
13 bow, have a well-defined mesoscale convective vortex (MCV) where the 40+dbz region coils at
14 least 180 degrees from the leading convection to the stratiform rain region, and has a well
15 formed transition zone between leading line of convection and the stratiform rain. The total
16 number of class one systems is 15, for an average of three per year.

17 “Class two” is composed of MCSs that contain a single arcing bow, but do not exhibit a
18 well-defined MCV. Class two is less organized than Class one. The total number of Class two
19 systems is 88.

20 “Class three” is composed of MCSs that are not single arcing bows and may exhibit
21 multiple arcing bows within the meso-alpha scale system, non-arcing line segments, and multiple
22 large arcing bows. The total number of Class three systems is 201.

1 “Class four” is composed of MCSs that exhibit discontinuous 40-dBz reflectivity regions
2 along the leading edge of convection and are the least organized of all MCSs. The total number
3 of Class four systems is 53.

4

5 *c) Calculations and statistical methods*

6 The boxes used throughout the study represent the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles with
7 the whiskers extend up to 1.5*IQR (inter-quartile range). Each whisker may extend up to
8 1.5*IQR, with outliers plotted beyond 1.5*IQR. All conclusions drawn from the box-and-
9 whisker plots are from visual inspection of the distribution of data.

10 The box-and-whisker plots in this study that are broken up by class and distance and are
11 color coded, with light grey representing “short” damage swath producing MCSs with damaging
12 wind swaths less than 650 km. The medium grey represents MCSs with “long” swaths greater
13 than or equal to 650 km. The dark grey represents all MCSs, short and long, for each class. The
14 values given below each box-and-whisker plot represent the sample size in each plot.

15 As discussed earlier, surface-6-km winds and LCL-EL pressure-weighted mean winds
16 were considered for use as the advection component for calculations used in this study. The
17 analysis performed to determine which layer best represented MCS motion involved comparison
18 of means, medians, interquartile ranges, and overall distributions by visual inspection. Two
19 scatterplots were also used to help determine the layer of mean wind best represented MCS
20 motion where MCS speed is plotted on the y-axis and the mean wind speed on the x-axis for
21 each scatterplot. The corresponding correlation coefficients between mean wind speed and MCS
22 speed are displayed below each graph in the results section.

1 Following the creation of the MCS motion vector, and determination of the advection
2 component of motion vector, calculations were performed in order to calculate how speed of
3 MCS motion differed from mean wind speed without taking direction into account. This was
4 achieved by computing the magnitudes of the mean wind vector and MCS motion vector. The
5 calculation in equation 1 provides the difference between mean wind speed (\vec{A}) and MCS speed
6 (\vec{M}):

$$7 \quad \text{Difference} = |\vec{M}| - |\vec{A}|. \quad (1)$$

8 We attribute MCS motion not associated with mean wind to a residual propagation
9 vector. The propagation vector was calculated using equation 2 in Corfidi et al. (1995). The
10 formula symbols used are as follows: " \vec{M} " represents MCS motion observed by radar, " \vec{A} "
11 represents the advection component of MCS motion (mean wind) and " \vec{P} " represents the
12 propagation vector:

$$13 \quad \vec{M} = \vec{A} + \vec{P}. \quad (2)$$

14 Propagation, in the present study, is found by subtracting the mean wind vector from the
15 MCS motion vector in equation 3:

$$16 \quad \vec{P} = \vec{M} - \vec{A}. \quad (3)$$

17 Following the calculation of the propagation vector, the propagation vector was projected
18 onto the mean wind vector in order to evaluate the amount of propagation in the direction of the
19 mean wind in equation 4. This calculation is important due the magnitude of propagation being
20 relatively large for strongly forced and back building MCSs, but not necessarily large in the
21 direction of the mean wind. Using the projected component of the propagation vector onto the
22 mean wind vector provides a better sense of how much additive motion along the mean wind is
23 associated with propagation:

1
$$\text{Comp}_{\vec{A}} \vec{P} = \frac{\vec{A} \cdot \vec{P}}{|\vec{A}|}. \quad (4)$$

2 Lastly, the angle between line orientation and mean flow was determined. The angle was
3 computed by measuring the acute angle between the intersection of the mean wind vector and the
4 line orientation. This results in angles being no greater than 90 degrees.

5
6 **3. Results**

7 *a) Surface-6-km mean winds vs LCL-EL mean winds*

8 As stated earlier, two different layers of the atmosphere were considered for use as the
9 mean wind vector. Previous MCS studies have used 850-300-mb non-pressure-weighted winds
10 as the mean wind vector (Corfidi et al 1995; Corfidi et al 2003). However, this study investigated
11 the layers surface-6 km and LCL-EL since these layers represent a comprehensive coverage of
12 the cloud layer.

13 After analyzing Fig. 3, a connection between mean wind magnitude and MCS motion
14 magnitude can be made. Surface-6-km mean wind magnitude was found to have a correlation
15 coefficient of 0.52 when compared with magnitude of MCS motion, while LCL-EL has a
16 coefficient of over 0.54. After the correlation between MCS motion and mean wind is made,
17 results presented in Fig. 4 then show the LCL-EL mean wind speed better represents MCS speed
18 as the distribution of data resembles MCS alpha and beta speed much closer than the surface-6-
19 km distribution.

20 Although the findings in this study show LCL-EL to be a more accurate representation of
21 MCS speed than the surface-6-km layer, it has not been determined whether the LCL-EL layer
22 best represents MCS motion compared to other layers. In previous studies, the mean wind was
23 taken from 850-300 mb and was found to have a higher correlation coefficient than LCL-EL in

1 this study, however none of the previous studies have compared the 850-300-mb layer to the
2 layers used in this study. To determine whether 850-300 mb is truly a better representation of
3 MCS motion a study would need to compare the layer directly to the LCL-EL layer with the
4 same test group of MCS speed values to make such a conclusion.

5
6 *b) Magnitude of MCS motion*

7 After determining the mean wind vector used for the rest of the calculations to be LCL-
8 EL pressure weighted mean winds, the speed of each class of MCS was plotted (Fig. 5). This was
9 calculated by taking the magnitude of the MCS motion vector, which represents the speed of
10 each MCS.

11 It was found that Class one systems generally moved at a higher speed than any other
12 class of MCS. It also can be noted that Class two systems generally moved faster than Class
13 three and Class four systems as well. This signals that MCS organization may be related to MCS
14 speed, with this especially being true for MCSs with single arcing bows.

15
16 *c) Mean wind speed by class*

17 Observing that each class of MCS differs in speed, it was inspected whether the
18 difference in speed could be associated with mean wind variations between classes or
19 propagation differences between classes, knowing that MCS motion is comprised of an
20 advection component and a propagation component. Using the LCL-EL mean winds as the
21 advection component, a relationship between the magnitude of mean wind and class and length
22 was investigated. It was thought that perhaps the mean wind speed could have been a defining
23 attribute in the speed of MCS motion. However, there was no obvious relationship found

1 between mean wind speed and MCS speed. The results in Fig. 6 show a nearly identical
2 distribution of mean winds for all classes. This suggests that mean winds cannot be associated
3 with the differences in MCS speed.

4

5 *d) Difference between MCS speed and mean wind speed*

6 The difference between MCS speed and mean wind speed was calculated following the
7 mean wind distribution findings, in which mean wind speed was directly subtracted out of MCS
8 speed. The resulting distribution shown in Fig. 7 demonstrates that there is a difference between
9 mean wind speed and MCS speed, with Class one systems moving faster than any other system.

10

11 *e) Magnitude of propagation*

12 The magnitude of propagation (determined by subtracting the mean wind vector from the
13 MCS motion vector) yielded results that demonstrated the difference in motion is associated with
14 differing propagation values between classes.

15 Figure 8 indicates that the magnitude of propagation was largest for Class one MCSs
16 followed, in sequence, by the other three classes. The apparent relationship between the
17 magnitude of propagation and class ranking suggests that the level of organization and physical
18 appearance of a MCS on WSR-88D provides guidance as to the influences of propagation on
19 overall MCS motion. Class one and Class two, the most organized of all MCSs, have the most
20 propagation while Class three and Class four, are the least organized of all MCSs and have lesser
21 magnitudes of propagation.

22

23

1 *f) Projection of propagation onto the mean wind vector*

2 The propagation in the direction of mean wind was calculated by taking the component of
3 projection of the propagation vector onto the mean wind vector, with the results shown in Fig. 9.
4 The highest positive component of projection in Class one systems means that propagation is in
5 the direction of mean wind. This implies that propagation added motion in the direction of the
6 mean wind, resulting in Class one systems having higher speeds than any other class.
7 Furthermore, the fact that propagation was in the same direction as mean wind suggests that the
8 cold pool in Class one systems tended to elongate in the direction of the mean wind more so than
9 in any other class. The elongation in the same direction of the mean wind led to new cell
10 development along gust front, which increased forward motion relative to the mean flow.

11

12 *g) Angle between the mean wind vector and line orientation*

13 To investigate whether it is true that the cold pool elongated in the direction of the mean
14 winds, the angle between line orientations was computed. This calculation helps provide insight
15 as to how the mean winds could have affected MCS motion, with the expectation being that
16 faster moving systems being oriented more perpendicular to the mean wind. The results are
17 shown in Fig. 10.

18 This distribution revealed that class one systems have the largest angle between the mean
19 wind vector and line orientation. This means that in these cases the line orientation of the line of
20 convection was more perpendicular to the mean wind vector. This finding confirms that systems
21 in which the convection is oriented at a greater angle to the mean wind vector gain forward
22 speed, likely due to elongation of the cold pool in the direction of the mean winds, compared to
23 systems that align more parallel to the mean wind.

1 **4. Summary**

2 The relationship between physical structure of MCSs and MCS motion was investigated
3 with the study of 357 warm season, damaging-wind-producing MCSs between the years 2010-
4 2014. A trackable feature, such as an area of organized convection, middle of a line segment, or
5 apex of a bow, was tracked manually for 30-90 minutes within the mature phase using the
6 NCDC national mosaic radar. From the data collected, the MCS motion vector was determined,
7 then the mean winds in the layers surface-6-km and LCL-EL were investigated to determine
8 which layer best represented MCS motion. Following the mean wind layer calculation, the
9 propagation magnitude, projection of propagation onto the mean wind vector, and the angle
10 between line orientation and mean wind were calculated.

11 It was determined that the pressure-weighted winds in the LCL-EL layer best represented
12 MCS motion compared to the surface-6-km layer. From that initial finding it was determined that
13 Class one systems were the best organized consisting of a well defined MCV and transition
14 zone, and had the highest speed, highest magnitude of propagation, most propagation in the
15 direction of the mean wind, and largest angle between line orientation and the mean wind vector.

16 The findings show that the difference in speed between classes was attributed to different
17 propagation vectors, since the mean wind distribution was similar for each for class. These
18 findings suggest that the most organized MCSs tend to move the fastest, in association with
19 additive effects of propagation, and orient most orthogonally to the mean winds. This helps
20 explain the tendency for organized MCSs, specifically those in Class one, to produce damaging
21 winds. The elongation of the cold pool adds forward motion in the same direction as the mean
22 wind vector and combination results in stronger surface winds and faster forward motion.

23

1 **Appendix**

2 *Procedure for calculating advection component of motion and propagation*

3 Radar data are provided by NCDC national composite radar. Mean wind data are provided by the
4 Storm Prediction Center RUC/RAP-based Mesoanalysis system. Pressure-weighted mean winds
5 in the layers surface-6 km and LCL-EL were inspected, and LCL-EL wind speed data
6 distribution best matched MCS speed data distribution. LCL-EL mean winds were selected as
7 the advection component of motion. Propagation accounted for any residual values in the MCS
8 motion equation in Corfidi et al (1996).

9

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Figure Captions

FIG. 1. Example of (a) Meso-alpha scale MCS with leading line of convection between 200-2000 km, (b) and meso-beta scale MCS with leading line of convection between 20-200 km, and (c) and meso-alpha scale MCS with meso-beta scale features.

FIG. 2. Examples of all four class are shown: (a) “Class one” MCS, (b) “Class two” MCS, (c) “Class three” MCS, and (d) “Class four” MCS.

FIG. 3. (a) Plot of LCL-EL mean wind speed (knots) on the x-axis, MCS speed (knots) on the y-axis and correlation coefficient between mean wind speed and MCS speed. (b) Plot of the surface-6-km mean wind speed (knots) on the x-axis, MCS speed (knots) on the y-axis and correlation coefficient between mean wind speed and MCS speed.

FIG. 4. Box and whisker plots representing meso-alpha scale speed, meso-beta scale speed, surface-6-km mean wind speed, LCL-EL mean wind speed. Boxes represent 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles. Whiskers extend up to $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ (interquartile range). Pluses represents outliers in the data.

FIG. 5. Box and whisker plots broken up by class and damage swath length. The light grey represents “short” damage swaths less than 650 km, medium grey represents “long” damage swaths greater than or equal to 650 km, and dark grey represents all MCSs of each class, including both “short” and “long” damage swaths.

1 FIG. 6. The magnitude of mean wind (mean wind speed), is plotted with MCSs broken up by
2 class and distance.

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4 FIG. 7. MCS Speed minus mean wind speed for MCSs is plotted with MCSs broken up by class
5 and distance.

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7 FIG. 8. Magnitude of MCS propagation is plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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9 FIG. 9. The values for the component of the propagation vector projected onto the mean wind
10 vector are plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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12 FIG.10. The acute angle between the intersection of the mean wind vector and line orientation is
13 plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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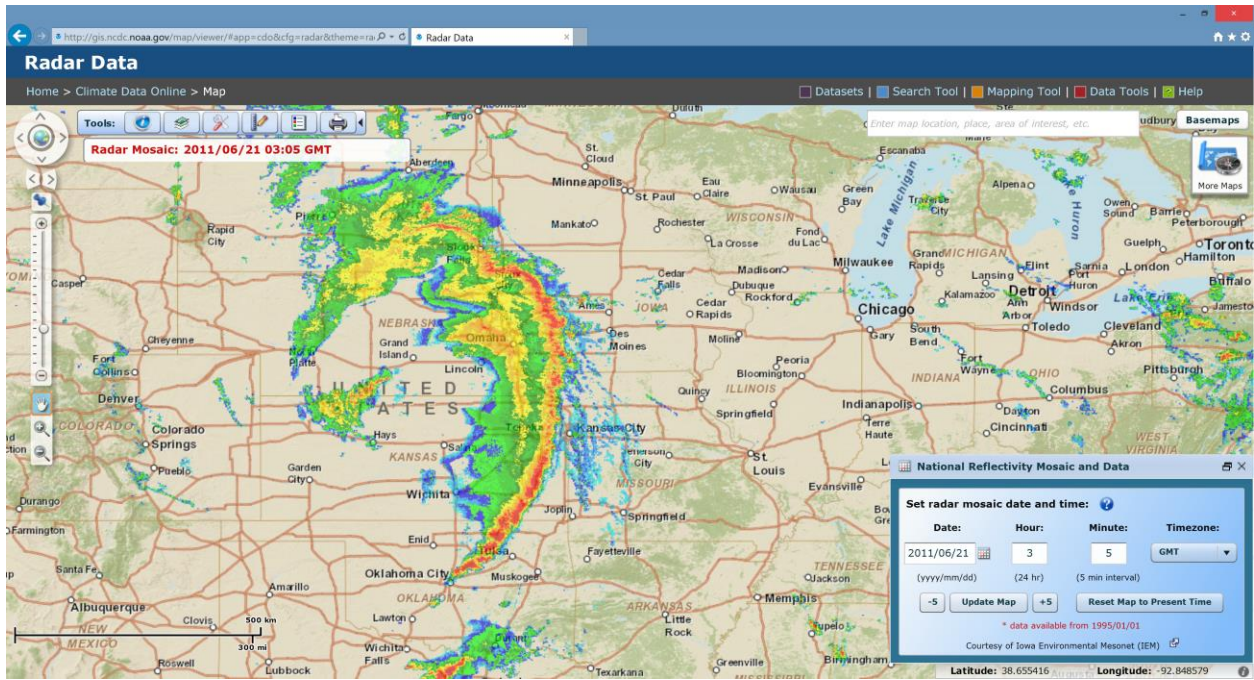
23

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Figures

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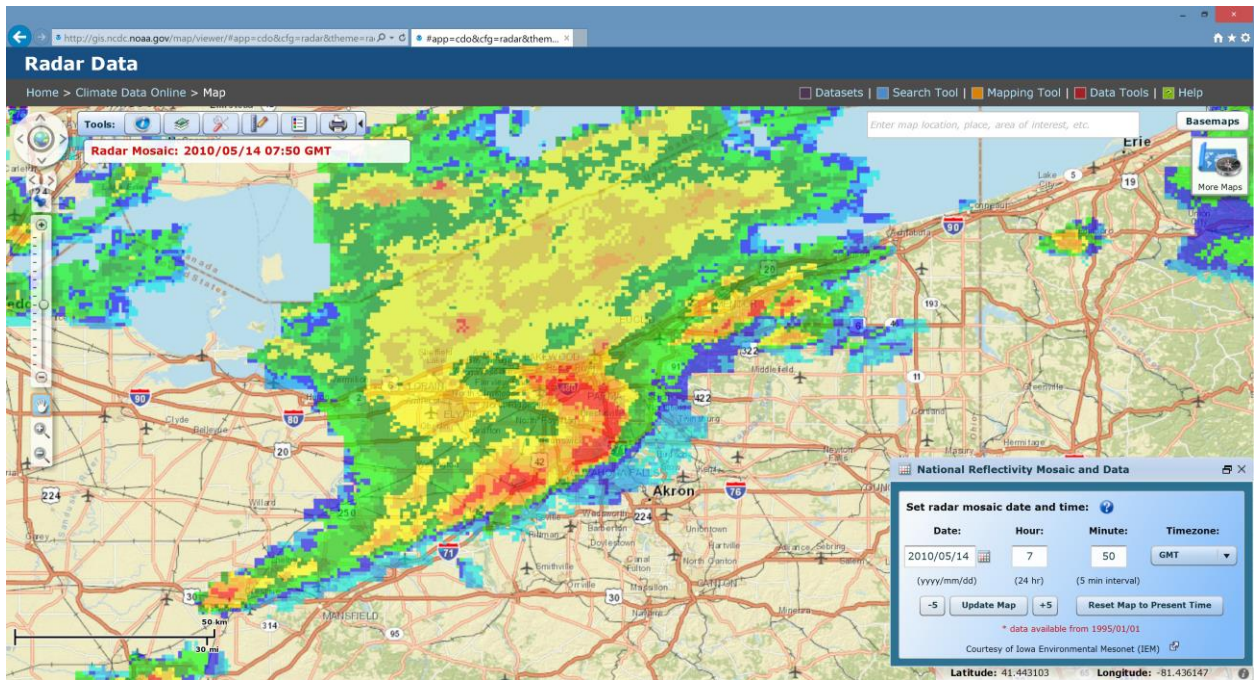
(a)



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(b)

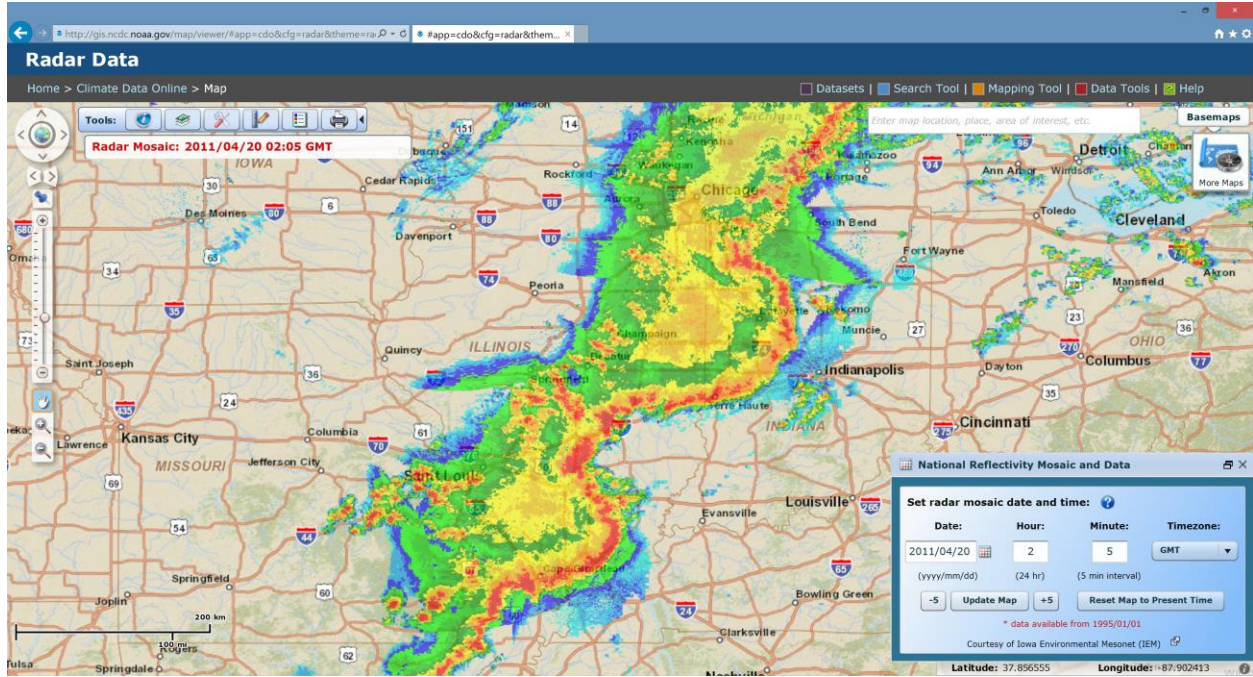


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(c)



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4 FIG. 1. Example of (a) Meso-alpha scale MCS with leading line of convection between 200-
5 2000 km, (b) and meso-beta scale MCS with leading line of convection between 20-200 km, and
6 (c) and meso-alpha scale MCS with meso-beta scale features.

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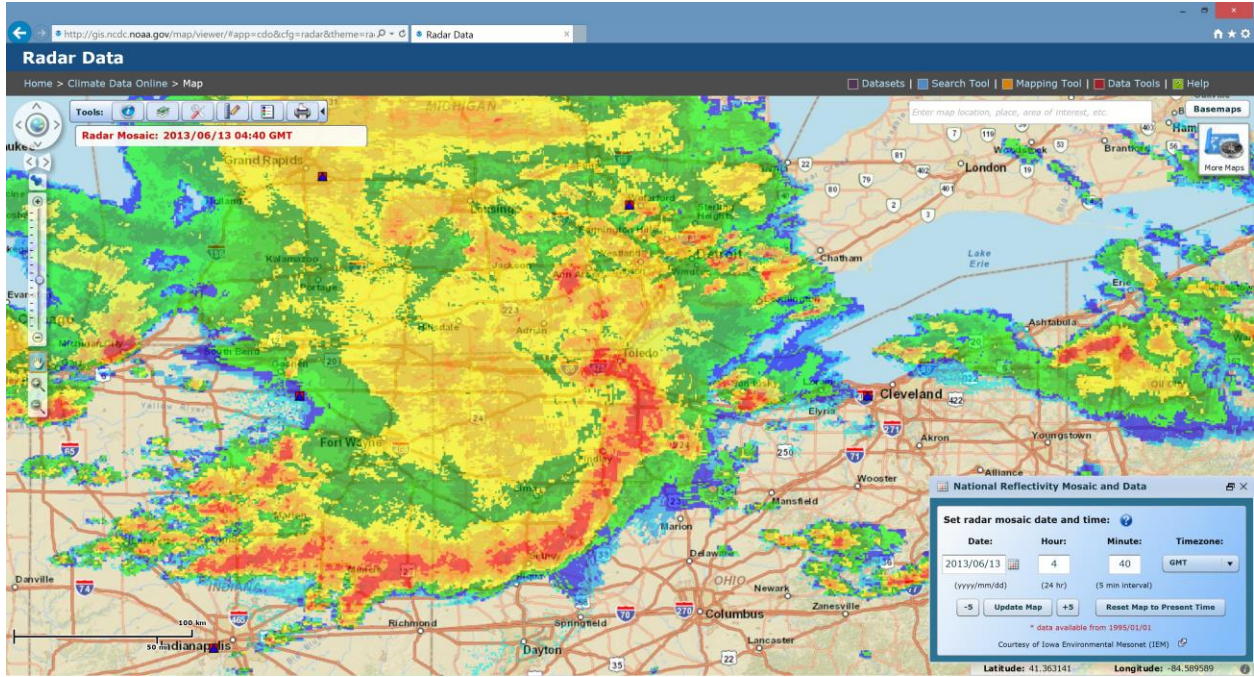
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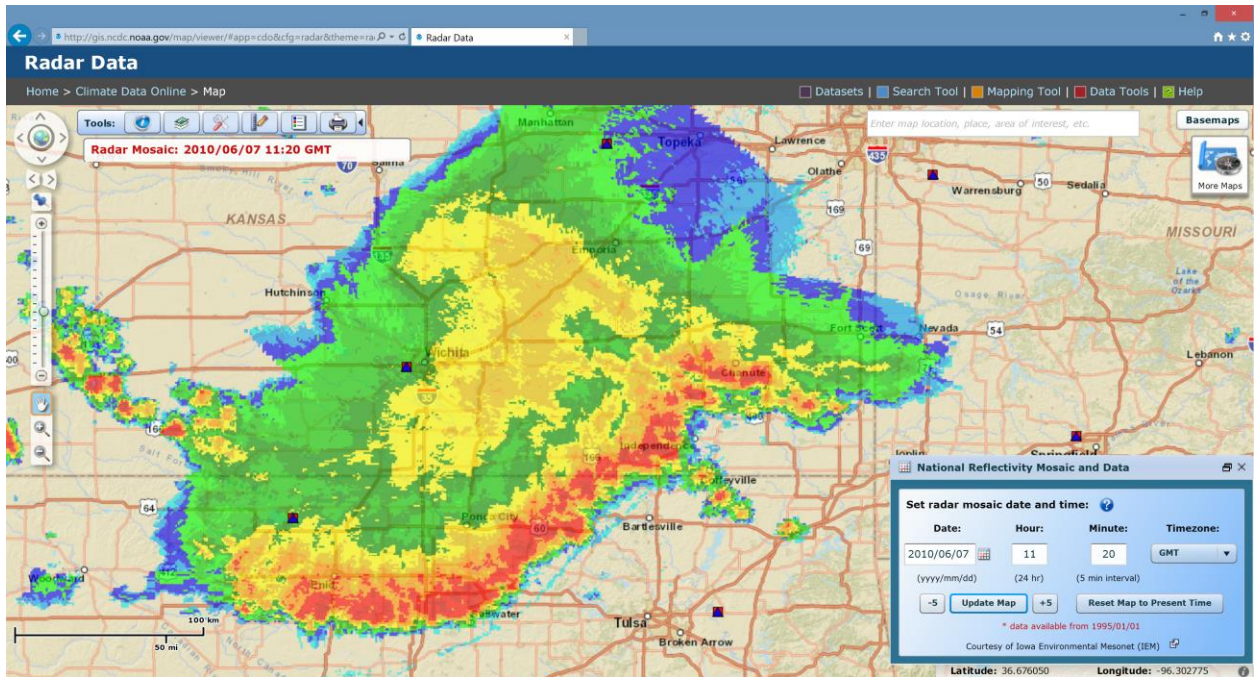
(a)



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(b)



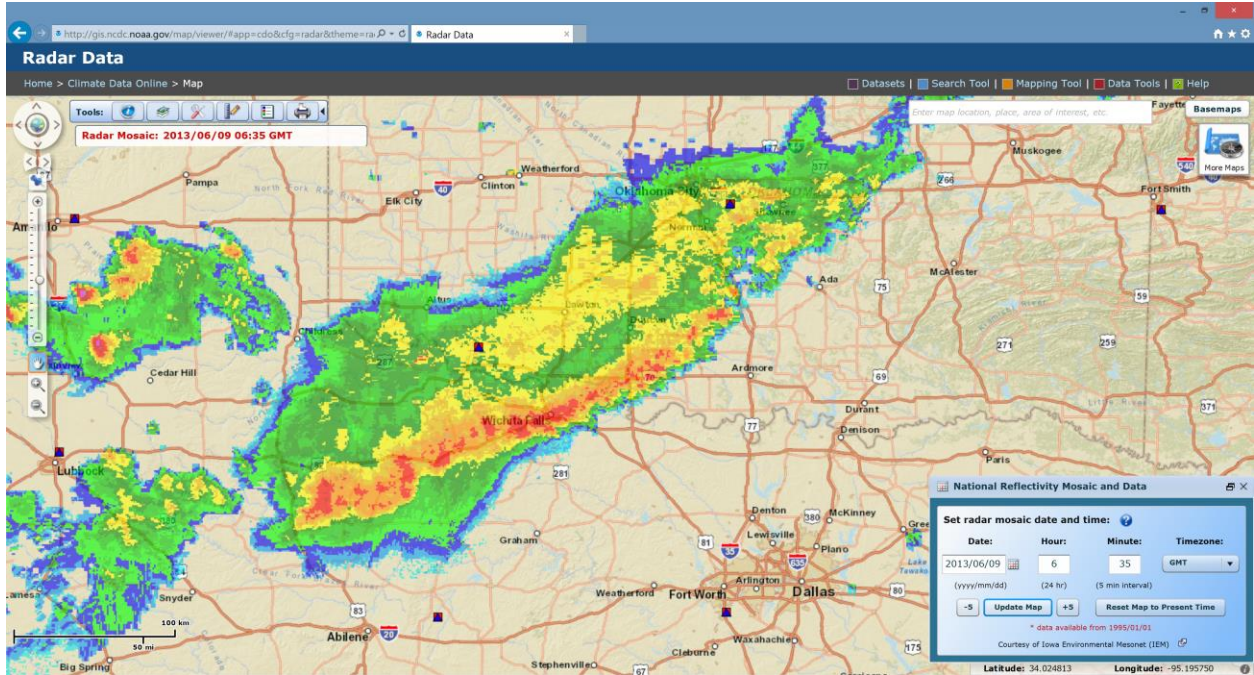
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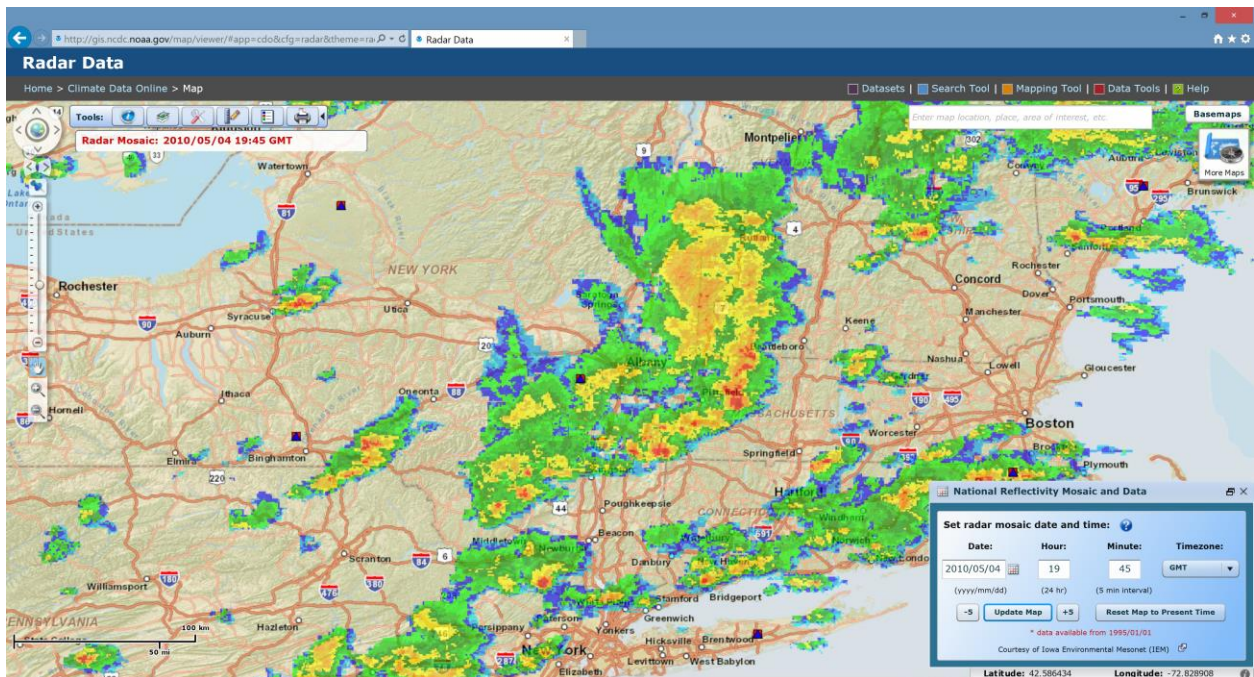
(c)



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(d)



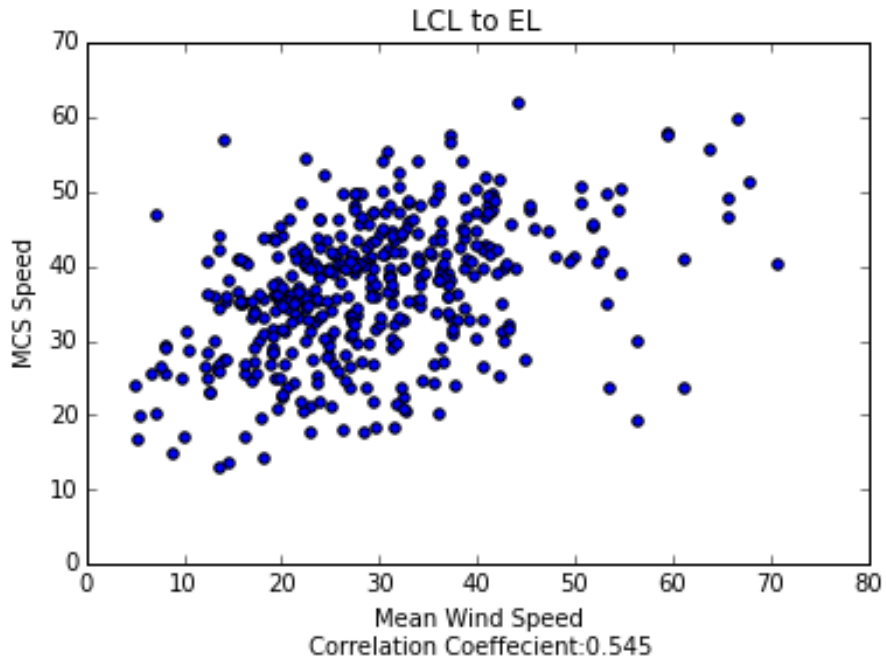
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5 FIG. 2. Examples of all four class are shown: (a) “Class one” MCS, (b) “Class two” MCS, (c)

6 “Class three” MCS, and (d) “Class four” MCS.

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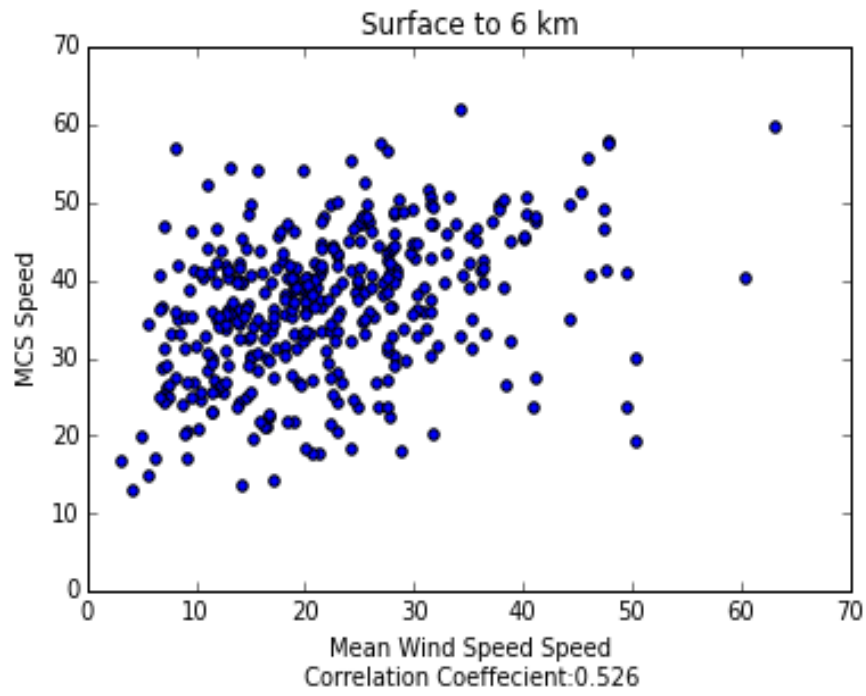
(a)



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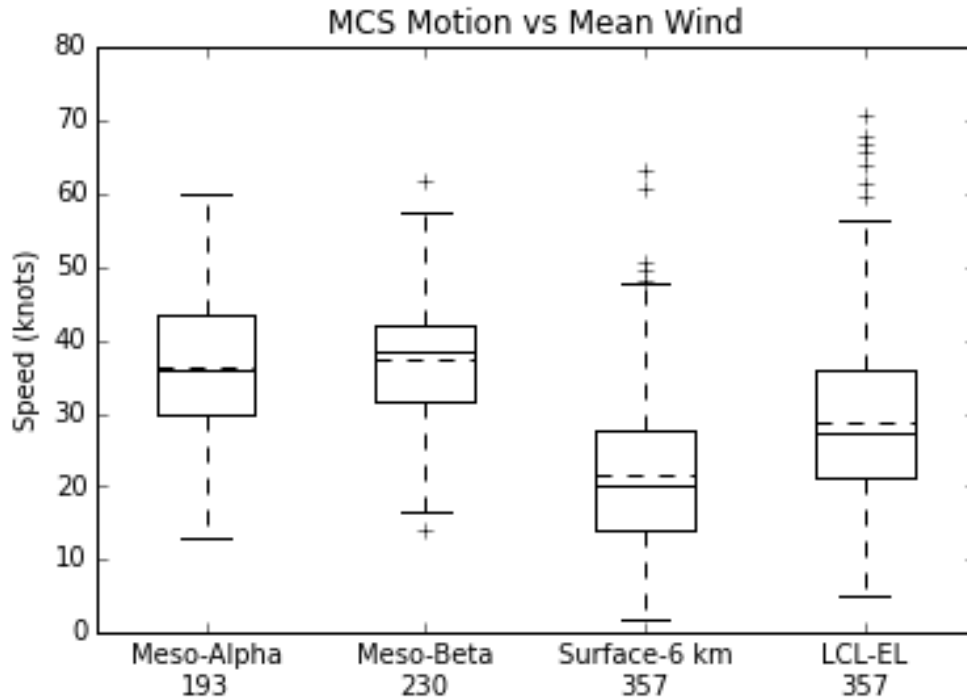
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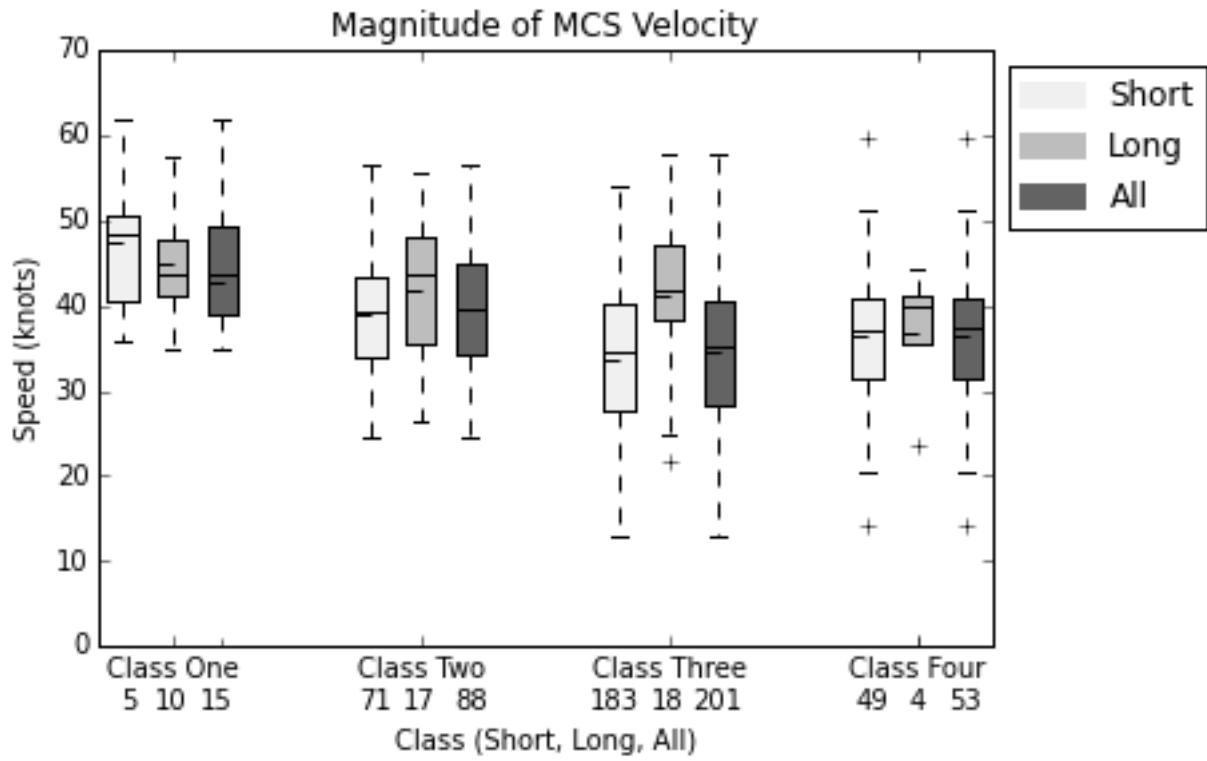
1 FIG. 3. (a) Plot of LCL-EL mean wind speed (knots) on the x-axis, MCS speed (knots) on the y-
2 axis and correlation coefficient between mean wind speed and MCS speed. (b) Plot of the
3 surface-6-km mean wind speed (knots) on the x-axis, MCS speed (knots) on the y-axis and
4 correlation coefficient between mean wind speed and MCS speed.

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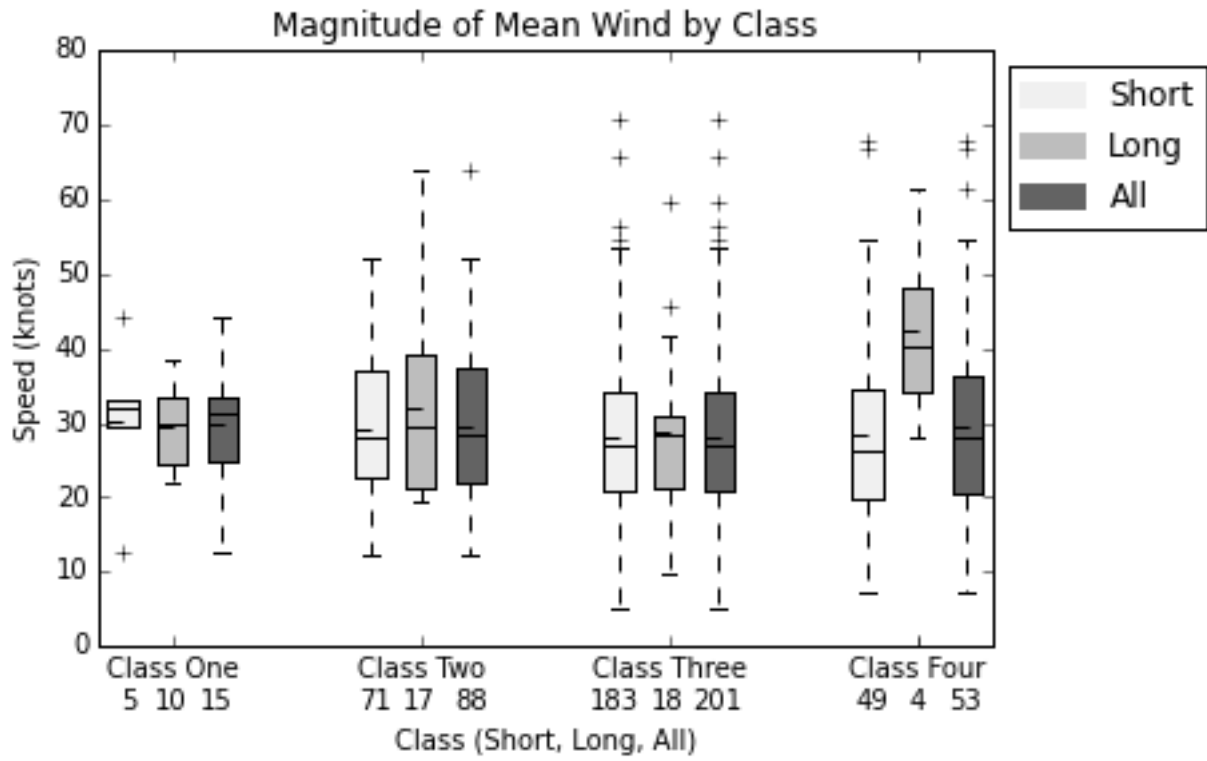
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 2 FIG. 4. Box and whisker plots representing meso-alpha scale speed, meso-beta scale speed,
 3 surface-6-km mean wind speed, LCL-EL mean wind speed. Boxes represent 25th, 50th, and 75th
 4 percentiles. Whiskers extend up to 1.5*IQR (interquartile range). Pluses represents outliers in the
 5 data.

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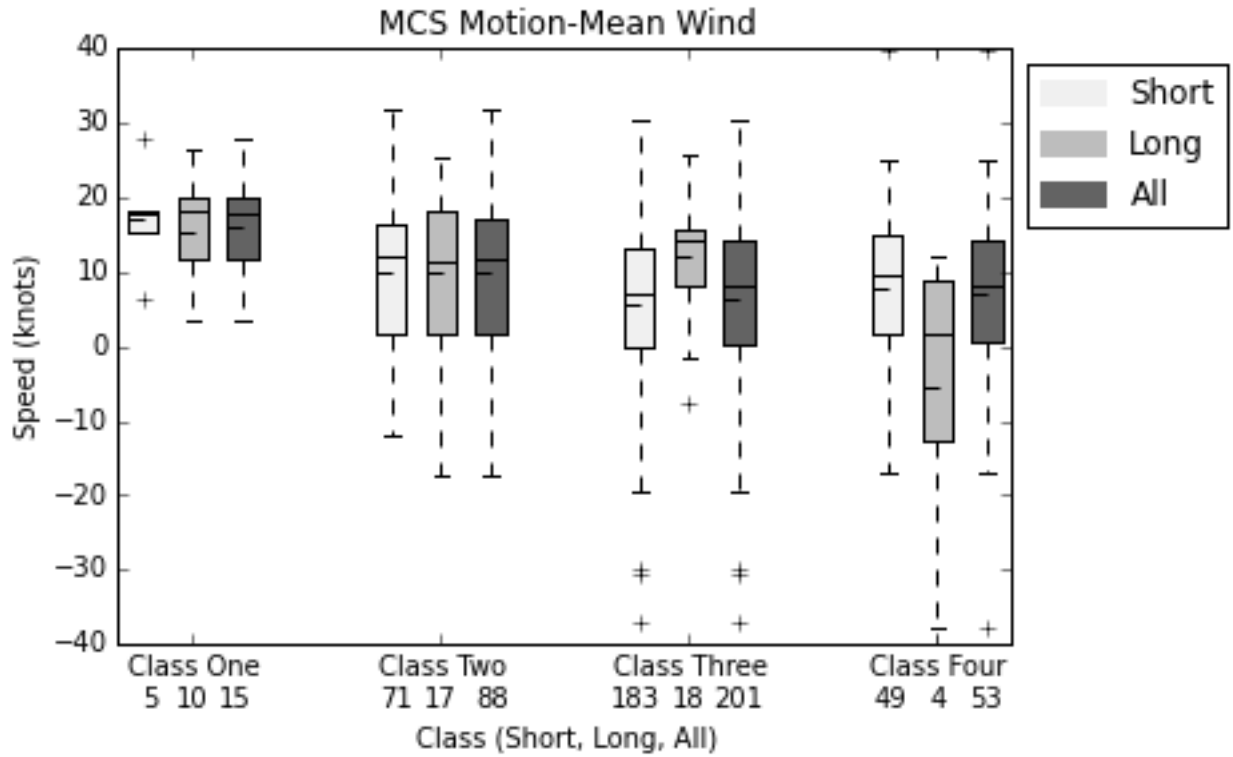
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 2 FIG. 5. Box and whisker plots broken up by class and damage swath length. The light grey
 3 represents “short” damage swaths less than 650 km, medium grey represents “long” damage
 4 swaths greater than or equal to 650 km, and dark grey represents all MCSs of each class,
 5 including both “short” and “long” damage swaths.

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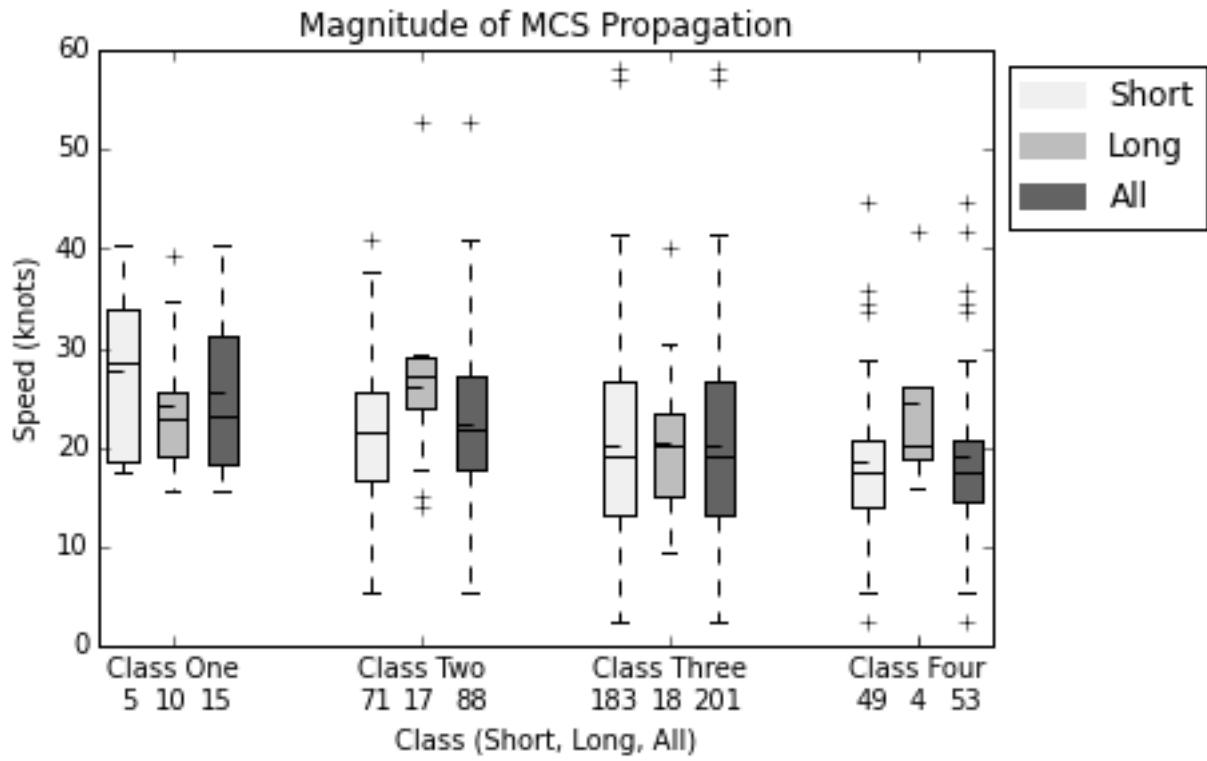
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 2 FIG. 6. The magnitude of mean wind (mean wind speed), is plotted with MCSs broken up by
 3 class and distance.

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 2 FIG. 7. MCS Speed minus mean wind speed for MCSs is plotted with MCSs broken up by class
 3 and distance.

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2 FIG. 8. Magnitude of MCS propagation is plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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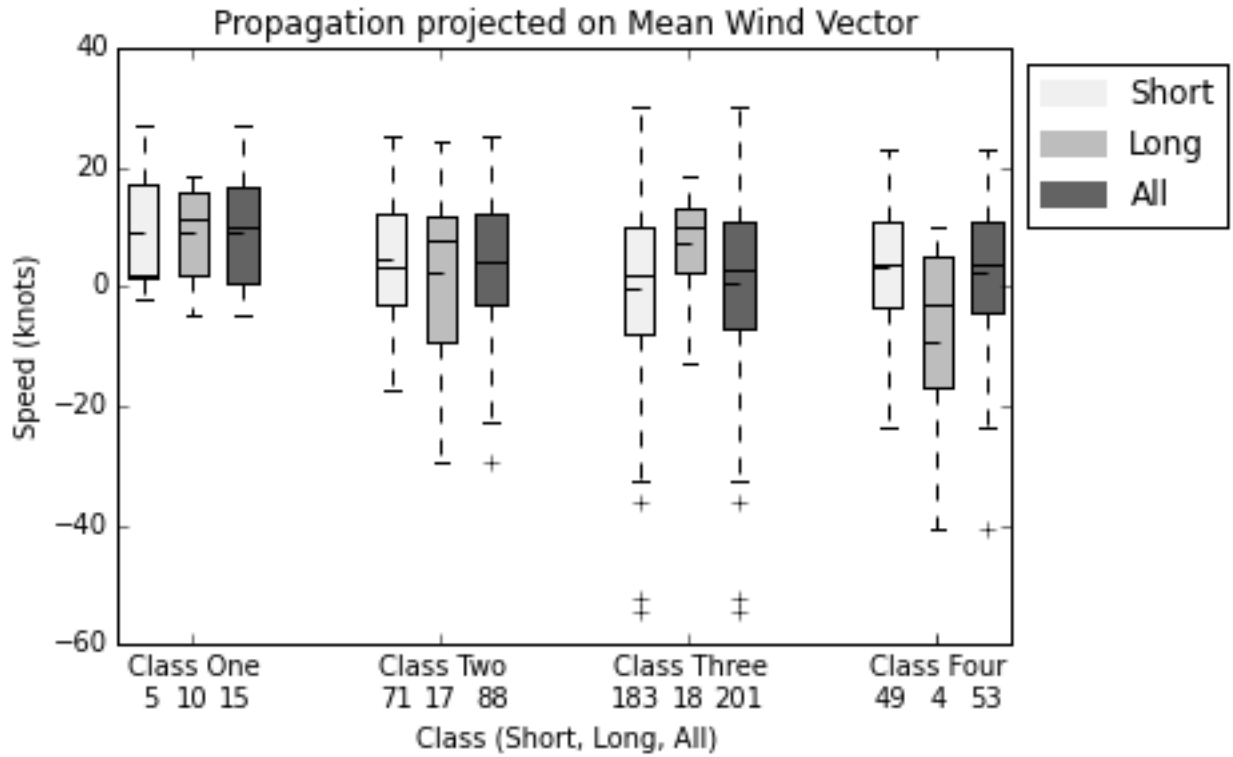
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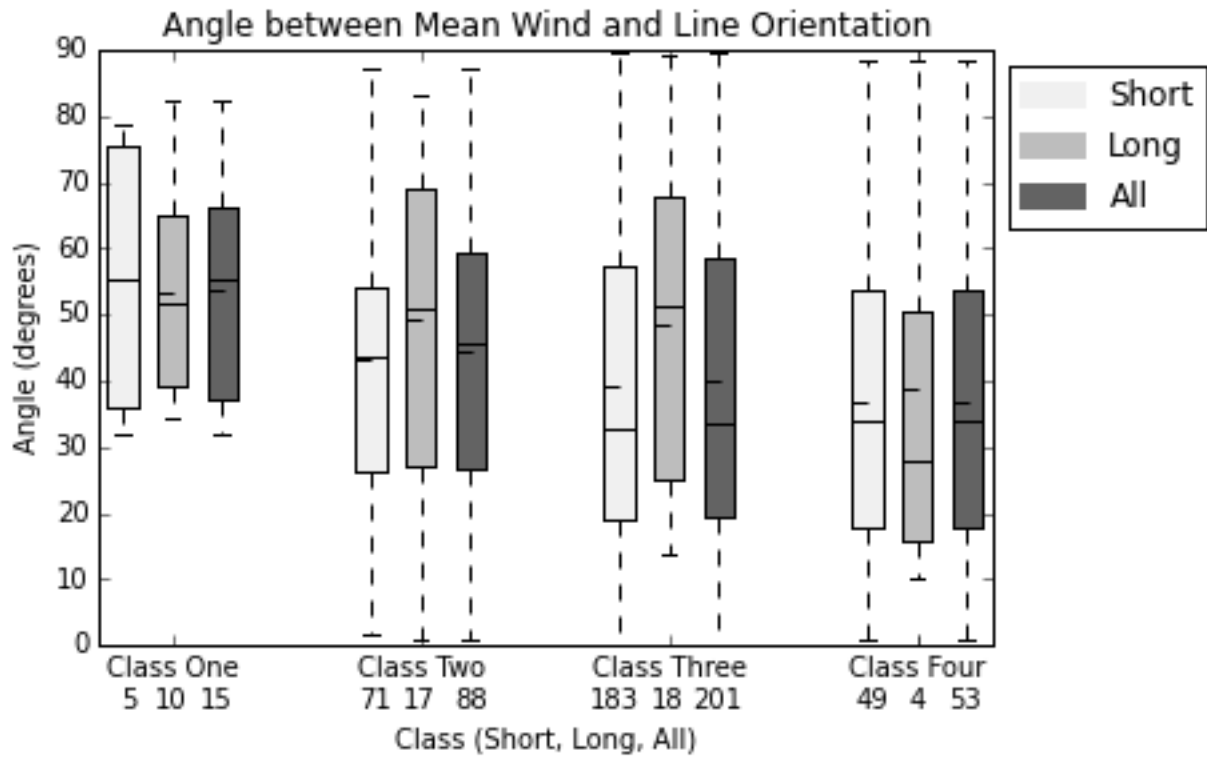
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 2 FIG. 9. The values for the component of the propagation vector projected onto the mean wind
 3 vector are plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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3 FIG.10. The acute angle between the intersection of the mean wind vector and line orientation is
4 plotted with MCSs broken up by class and distance.

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