1	Overview of Jack Rabbit II (JR II) field experiment and summary of the methods used in
2	the dispersion model comparisons
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4	Shannon Fox ¹ , Steven Hanna ^{*2} , Thomas Mazzola ³ , Thomas Spicer ⁴ , Joseph Chang ⁵ , Simon
5	Gant ⁶
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7	¹ Department of Homeland Security (DHS), Science & Technology (S&T) Chemical Security Analysis
8	Center (CSAC), MD USA
9	* ² Hanna Consultants, Kennebunkport, ME USA
10	³ SAIC, Lorton, VA USA
11	⁴ University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR USA
12	⁵ RAND Corp, Arlington, VA USA
13	⁶ Health and Safety Executive (HSE), Harper Hill, Buxton, UK
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15	Abstract This paper provides an introduction to the special Atmospheric Environment issue on
16	comparisons of 17 widely-used dense-gas dispersion models using observations from the 2015-2016 Jack
17	Rabbit II (JR II) chlorine release experiments. Other papers will describe specific aspects of the JR II
18	field experiment, results of individual dispersion model runs for the models, and comparisons of model
19	predictions with JR II observations and other models. Here we provide a general overview of the field
20	experiment and a brief summary of the model comparison goals and methods.
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22	Keywords: Jack Rabbit II, chlorine field experiment, Dugway Proving Ground,
23	*Hanna Consultants, 7 Crescent Ave., Kennebunkport, ME 04046 USA
24	hannaconsult@roadrunner.com, 207 967 4478
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26	1. Introduction and Overview of JR II
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28	The Jack Rabbit II (JR II) field experiments were the second in a series of large-scale
29	outdoor hazardous gas release trials that have been conducted at the United States Army Dugway
30	Proving Ground (DPG), Utah, over a ten year period. Jack Rabbit I took place in 2010 and
31	involved 10 trials with 1 to 2 ton releases of pressurized liquefied chlorine and anhydrous
32	ammonia (see Fox and Storwold 2011, Bauer 2013, Hanna et al. 2012 and 2016, Hearn et al.
31 32	involved 10 trials with 1 to 2 ton releases of pressurized liquefied chlorine and anhydrous ammonia (see Fox and Storwold 2011, Bauer 2013, Hanna et al. 2012 and 2016, Hearn et al.

2012 and Spicer and Miller 2018). JR I was followed, in 2015 and 2016, by a set of nine trials 33 with releases of approximately five to 20 tons of pressurized liquefied chlorine. Led by the U.S. 34 Department of Homeland Security Science & Technology (DHS S&T) Chemical Security 35 Analysis Center (CSAC) and collaborative team of partners from government, industry, and 36 37 academia, these field trials were performed to fill critical data and knowledge gaps in atmospheric transport and dispersion modeling, emergency response, industrial safety, and 38 hazard and risk mitigation. Phase 1 of the JR II testing was completed in September 2015, with 39 the execution of five chlorine release trials ranging from approximately five to 10 tons each. 40 41 Phase 2 was completed in September 2016, with four additional chlorine release trials ranging from approximately 10 to 20 tons each. The atmospheric transport and dispersion modeling gaps 42 addressed in JR II included: large-scale releases; effects of obstacles and buildings; source-term 43 mass-balance for initial conditions; validation of models beyond 0.5 km; investigation of rapid 44 phase transitions and limited soil chemical reactivity. The DPG final test report by Nicholson et 45 al. (2017) describes the characteristics of the JR II field experiments and results. Further details 46 are given in several other papers in the current JR II special issue on model comparisons. 47

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49 1.1 <u>Test Site</u>

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The field experiments were performed at the DPG testing installation located in the Utah 51 desert approximately 75 miles southwest of Salt Lake City (see Nicholson et al., 2017). DPG 52 53 consists of over 1,250 square miles of encroachment-free terrain, including nearly a half million acres of salt flats with mountain ranges on the west, east, and south edges, as shown in the 54 55 Google Earth image in Figure 1. The site selected for the JR II test grid, shown in Figure 2 as a green wedge, is an extremely isolated part of the desert playa where the salt flats extend to the 56 57 north for nearly 90 miles with a less than 1/10,000 slope. This area is completely uninhabited and 58 nearly devoid of vegetation, which made it a suitable location to release of tons of chlorine while minimizing the environmental impacts and risks to safety and health. 59



62 Figure 1 – Satellite photo (Google Earth) of western Utah including DPG. Mountains are visible as a

- 63 dark color, while the light color is the desert area, which is about 100 km wide (W-E) at its widest point.
- 64 The Jack Rabbit II Test Grid was approximately in the middle of the lower left lobe of the desert



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- 66 Figure 2. Portion of Dugway Proving Ground, Utah, showing sites used for the JR II field experiment.
- 67 The green wedge encompasses the sampling grid.

For Trials 1-5, conducted in 2015, a staggered grid of over 80 CONEX containers was set up in a square array called the "Urban Test Grid" atop a 122 m x 122 m (400 ft. x 400 ft.) gravel foundation, which was constructed to support these structures and test activities on the relatively soft desert playa. The source tank was located about 25 m inside the upwind edge of this array as depicted in Figure 3. An additional 61 m x 122 m (200 ft. x 400 ft.) portion of the gravel base was constructed upwind to mix and condition the air as it flowed from the playa to the 0.61 m (24 in.) high foundation, which had a 20 degree slope at all the edges.





Figure 3 – The Urban Test Grid (UTG) test site configuration used in JR II Trials 1-5 is shown in the
illustration (left) indicating the locations of the release tank, Conex containers, and vehicles

corresponding to the photo of the UTG (right) approximately 30 seconds after the Trial 1 release.

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Within the UTG, the release tank was positioned on top of a rebar-reinforced circular concrete pad that was 25 m (82 ft.) in diameter and 15.2 cm (6 in.) thick. The concrete pad was also constructed with a 2.5 cm (1 in.) high perimeter lip in order to contain any liquid pooling on the ground during a release. This enabled the liquid phase to be observed and quantified, and it avoided permeation of liquid chlorine into the ground where it could have persisted for days and delayed additional trials. Spicer and Tickle (2020) provide details of the release tank and the concrete pad.

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A combination of 86 Conex containers were deployed to the UTG that were between 5.48 m to 12.19 m (18 ft. to 40 ft.) long, and 2.44 m (8 ft.) high. During Trials 1 through 5, most of the Conex containers were placed on the UTG as single unstacked units. One structure, seen at

92 the far right in both panels of Figure 3, was erected using six 6.1 m (20 ft.) long containers stacked in a 2×3 configuration. This structure, along with one additional 12.2 m (40 ft.) Conex 93 container and two trailers, were modified to include installation of indoor instrumentation to 94 measure and characterize the infiltration of chlorine during the experiments (see Sohn et al. 2019 95 96 for a description of the results of the indoor measurements). The dimensions of the trailers were approximately 6.1 m \times 3 m \times 2.4 m (20 ft. \times 10 ft. \times 8 ft.). Additionally, three fire trucks, one 97 ambulance, and three cars were placed at various positions on the UTG to support several 98 experiments and objectives from partners in the Emergency Response community (see Byrnes et 99 100 al. 2017 and Byrnes and Noll 2019).

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For Trials 6 through 9, conducted in 2016, the array of Conex containers at the UTG was removed, as shown in Figure 4, leaving only two structures used for indoor infiltration studies (see Sohn et al., 2019). Two emergency response vehicles were also deployed in Trials 6 through 9 to assess the operational impact, damage, and interior survivability of exposure to a high-concentration (10,000 to 100,000 ppm) chlorine cloud.

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- 110 Figure 4 The test site configuration of the 2016 JR II release trials is shown from drone footage
- 111 captured by Utah Valley University Emergency Services partners. Conex containers were removed from
- the UTG for Trials 6-9, leaving only two vehicles and two structures.

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115 1.2 <u>Chlorine Release Tank, Mechanism, and Procedures</u>

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As described by Spicer and Tickle (2020), a purpose-built 7.70 m³ tank was used to 117 contain and disseminate the chlorine for the 5 to 10-ton (4,540 to 9,070 kg) release experiments 118 in Trials 1-8. The tank was reused for each trial, and was refilled from a 20-ton (18,100 kg) 119 chlorine tanker truck vessel between experiments. For Trial 9, the tanker truck vessel itself was 120 breached to release 20 tons (18,100 kg) of chlorine in the final experiment. Before all trials, the 121 release tank was filled with chlorine and pressurized to approximately 100 psi (6.9 barg), which 122 is consistent with the pressures used when transporting liquefied chlorine in bulk domestically 123 via rail car or tanker truck. 124

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Releases from the tank were achieved by remotely firing explosive bolts to remove a flange covering a 15.2 cm (6 in.) diameter hole at various ports on the tank. The tank was designed with four dissemination ports, each oriented differently as follows: 0 degrees (upwards), 90 degrees (horizontal), 135 degrees downwards, and 180 degrees downwards. A photo of the tank is shown in Figure 5, with the black circular ports visible as described.



Figure 5 – The tank used to disseminate chlorine in JR II Trials 1-8 is shown with four different 6-inch
circular ports (black) from which a breach could be generated to conduct a release.

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A suite of instrumentation was deployed inside and outside of the tank to capture data 137 needed to characterize mass flux and other critical source term data. The tank was mounted on a 138 139 support system that incorporated seven load cells and 14 flexors to measure the dynamic mass of chlorine as it exited the tank and also account for the forces generated by the escaping jet of 140 liquid and gas. Vertical liquid temperature profiles were dynamically measured inside the tank 141 with bare wire thermocouples on two separate arrays. Absolute and differential pressures were 142 143 measured and reported in real time during filling operations and releases. Immediately outside the tank, guided wave radar (GWR) instruments were deployed on the circular concrete pad to 144 145 measure the depth of any liquid chlorine that pooled. Additionally, 36 type K 24 American Wire Gauge (AWG) wiring thermocouple arrays were deployed to measure the temperature at three 146 locations surrounding the release tank both above and below grade (imbedded in the concrete 147 148 pad).

150 For all trials, the releases of pressurized liquefied chlorine took place in the early morning, where the field test director was aiming for about 7:30 to 8:00 am local time (Mountain 151 Daylight Time, or MDT, which is Greenwich Mean Time minus six hours). Climatological 152 153 analysis by DPG meteorologists of several years of data from routine local observations near the 154 planned release site had suggested that the dominant wind direction during the hour or two after sunrise was from the south-south-east (165°), so the sampling grid (an arc encompassing 90°) 155 156 was set up along that direction (see Figures 8, 9, and 10). On planned release days, the DPG test 157 director consulted the observed local winds and WRF model predictions, and proceeded with the 158 release only if the wind direction was "on the sampling grid" (between 120° and 210°) and the wind speed was between 2 and 6 m/s at a height of 2 m. 159

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161 1.3 *Instrumentation Grid and Data Collection*

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As part of the field experiment, chlorine concentrations were observed by over 200 point detection instruments in the near field (x < 100 m) and at sampling arcs at distances of 120 m, 200 m, 500 m, and 1 km, 2 km, 5 km, and 11 km downwind. Detectors were deployed on the outer arcs spanning 90 degrees (from 300 to 30 degrees). Chang et al. (2020) provide details of the chlorine samplers.

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Chlorine concentrations in the near field to the 200 m arc were measured primarily by 169 170 portable ultraviolet (UV) Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) instruments. This included the UV Canary (Cerex Monitoring Solutions, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia) with a 171 172 calibrated chlorine detection range of 10 to 15,000 ppm, and UV JazTM instruments (Signature Science, Inc., Houston, Texas) with a calibrated chlorine detection range of 100 to 100,000 ppm. 173 174 Concentrations at the 500 m, 1 km, and 2 km arcs were primarily measured by MiniRAE 3000 (Honeywell Analytics / RAE® Systems, San Jose, California) handheld photoionization 175 176 detectors with a detection range of 100 to 2000 ppm. At the long range sampling arcs at 5 km and 11 km, handheld ToxiRAE Pro electrochemical detectors were primarily deployed to 177 178 measure the concentration with a detection range of 0 to 50 ppm. 179

180 Chlorine concentration and chlorine cloud tracking data were also collected by several standoff detectors and instruments deployed by the testing team and partners, including portable 181 UV Sentry (Cerex Monitoring Solutions, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia) UV-DOAS instruments, and 6 182 183 different Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) instruments positioned up to 2 km away from 184 the release tank.

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Meteorological data were collected from more than 200 separate instruments deployed 186 throughout the test grid and area, and included near-surface measurements as well as vertical 187 188 profiles up to 2 km. The DPG meteorology team deployed 49 Portable Weather Information Display Systems (PWIDS) which measured wind speed, direction, temperature, humidity, and 189 pressure at multiple test site locations and elevations. PWIDS were also collocated on 32-meter 190 191 meteorological towers with ultrasonic anemometer to collect data that were processed to produce wind and turbulence statistics and fluxes of heat and momentum. Data to characterize horizontal 192 and vertical wind profiles were collected using Sonic Detection and Ranging (SODAR) 193 instruments, Doppler radar wind profilers, and weather balloons released during Trials 6 through 194 8. Hanna (2020) presents analyses of the JR II meteorological data and recommendations for 195 surface and aloft meteorological profiles for use in the dispersion model comparison that is the 196 subject of this special issue. 197

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A variety of high-definition (HD), high-speed (HS), and IR video cameras were also 199 200 deployed throughout the test grid during all trials to visualize and record the chlorine releases, and thousands of high-resolution photographs were taken before, during, and after every test to 201 202 document each trial to the greatest extent possible. In total, over 2 terabytes (TB) of data were generated and acquired, enabling analysis and characterization of multi-ton chlorine releases to 203 204 an unprecedented degree. These data have undergone rigorous quality assurance and quality 205 control measures and were archived into the JR II final data package, which is maintained in mirrored archives by DHS S&T CSAC, DTRA, and DPG. 206

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1.4 Trial Summary and Observations 209

All nine field trials took place in the early morning, with releases of about 5 to 20 tons of pressurized liquefied chlorine from a hole of about 15 cm diameter in the tank. These masses are typical of what might be released during a road tanker-truck accident, and are about 10 to 30 % of what would be released from a railcar. These field experiments are unique in that no previous field experiments have come even close to using this large of a mass release of chlorine. The chlorine release times and basic characteristics of the nine total JR II trials are listed in Table 1.

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Table 1. Basic characteristics of the nine JR II release trials.

	Date	Start Time	Release Duration	Average Emission Rate	Jet or Pool Mass	Wind Speed Near Source at z = 2 m	Wind Direction Near Source	Temp. Near Source
Trial	(MDT)	(MDT)	(s)	(kg/s)	(kg)	(m/s)	(deg)	(C)
1	8/24/2015	7:35:46 AM	20.3	224.0	4,547	1.5	147	17.5
2	8/28/2015	9:24:21 AM	32.4	252.8	8,192	4.7	176	23.0
3	8/29/2015	7:56:55 AM	20.3	225.0	4,568	3.8	170	22.9
4	9/1/2015	8:39:33 AM	28.8	243.6	7,017	1.8	196	22.6
5	9/3/2015	7:29:09 AM	33.6	248.4	8,346	1.5	242	21.5
6	8/31/2016	8:23:35 AM	32.2	260.0	8,372	2.4	147	22.3
7	9/2/2016	7:56:00 AM	33.3	259.0	8,625	4.0	150	18.7
8	9/11/2016	9:01:45 AM	30.0	78.93	2,368	2.1	120	15.8
9	9/17/2016	8:05:00 AM	132.6	133.5	17,700	2.6	162	11.2
7 dump	9/2/2016	8:11:00 AM	300	1.507	452	4.0	150	18.7
8 dump	9/11/2016	9:16:45 AM	300	22.51	6,754	2.9	129	15.8

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In all five of the 2015 trials, the chlorine was released downward through a hole in the tank, as shown in Figure 6. In two additional trials in 2016 (Trials 6 and 9), the chlorine releases were also directly downward through a hole in the bottom of the tank, which assured that all of the tank contents were evacuated rapidly during the experiment. The bottom of the tank was about 1 m above ground level.



Figure 6. Photographs of JR II 2015, showing the CONEX array, when Trials 1-5 took place. The 10 ton
release tank is visible in the top photo, 47 s after the Trial 5 release. The photo on the bottom was taken
during Trial 1, 27 s after the release, with the wind blowing towards the left of the photo.

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In Trial 7, the hole was at a 135° angle downward (relative to 0° at the top of the tank) 231 and directed downwind, and in Trial 8, the hole was in the top of the tank at 0°, which oriented 232 the release directly upwards (see Figure 7). Therefore, in these two trials, there was some liquid 233 234 chlorine left in the tank as the tank rapidly depressurized, cooling the remaining chlorine to a temperature below the boiling point. That liquid was "dumped" to the surface about 5 minutes 235 236 after the initial momentum jet ceased. The resulting liquid pool subsequently evaporated in 5 to 237 10 minutes. Thus, in Trials 7 and 8, in addition to the main release trial, there was another release, from an evaporating pool, which was detected by the concentration sampling network. 238



Trial 6: 180° downward

Trial 6: 0° upward

Figure 7. Photographs of the chlorine releases in Trials 6-9 of the JR II 2016 field experiment. Source:

drone footage captured by Utah Valley University Emergency Services partners.

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For the first 30-60 seconds of the JR II trials, the release is two-phase, with about 20 % of 244 the mass in the gas phase, and the remainder in the liquid phase in the form of small (50 to 100 245 µm) drops. About 30 to 40 % of the released mass was observed to "rain-out", or deposit on the 246 surface of the 25 m diameter concrete pad directly beneath the tank. The rained-out liquid was 247 248 observed to evaporate in approximately 20 to 25 minutes. Spicer and Tickle (2020) make 249 specific recommendations on the quantitative recommendations for mass emission rate, and 250 rainout, and liquid pool evaporation. Initially, the effective density of the two-phase mixture following the release is about 10 or 20 times that of air, and, after the drops evaporate, the 251 252 density is about 2.5 that of air. Therefore, a dense gas dispersion model is needed to assess the 253 downwind concentration variations.

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As mentioned earlier, Nicholson et al. (2017) describe JR II in their DPG Final Test Report. More details on the JR II emissions, the meteorology, the chlorine concentrations, and the cloud width and depth observations are given in other papers in this special issue (Spicer and Tickle 2020, Hanna 2020, Chang et al. 2020, Mazzola 2020, and Mazzola et al. 2020).

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1 **2. Inputs for model comparison**

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Many dense gas dispersion models exist, but not all are widely-used. For this special issue, 263 264 describing the results of comparisons of 17 dense gas dispersion models with three of the JR II 265 trials (1, 6, and 7), many members of the international community have joined together to run 266 their models and compare the results. Because most of the groups running their models are 267 doing the work as volunteers, depending on their organizations' internal funding, we tried to make the work as easy as possible. We provided some simplified model input files (emissions 268 269 and meteorology), by carrying out analyses of the extensive available data and condensing the 270 information into data sets consistent with the models' needed inputs. This initial model comparison exercise used the three trials (1, 6, and 7) that had the highest observed 271 272 concentrations. The wind direction in these trials also aligned the plume to disperse within the sampling grid. 273

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As mentioned above, the 17 models being compared with the JR II field data have slightly different requirements for inputs. Not wanting to bury the modelers in Gigabytes of JR II field data, but still provide enough information for everyone to run their models, we analyzed the complete set of field data and developed a simplified, optimized set of inputs that can be used by all models. For the three trials being modeled (1, 6, and 7), the standard recommended model inputs covered:

• Source configuration and simplified emissions (Spicer et al. 2020)

CONEX positions and all concentration and meteorological observation positions (Chang
 et al. 2020, Hanna 2020)

Meteorological inputs, such as boundary layer parameters (near surface wind speed and direction, heat flux, friction velocity, Monin-Obukhov length, etc.), surface roughness
 length z_o, CONEX morphology parameter Λ_p, and vertical profiles of temperatures and winds (Hanna 2020)

Participants were allowed to modify the above-provided inputs (e.g., run their own source emission model, or choose different meteorological inputs). All modelers were asked to submit the following outputs, where C is chlorine gas concentration:

- Arc max C (raw and 20- and 60-s averages) at 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, and 11 km
- Cloud widths and heights to 200 and 20 ppmv at same distances
- C contour plots at various times after release
- C time series at sampler locations

However, in some cases (e.g., the two RAILCAR options), the modeler provided slightly different outputs and/or used slightly different inputs, since they had run their model prior to the start of the current model comparison study, and did not have resources to rerun with the updated inputs.

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301 2.1 *Emissions Inputs*

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303 The estimated JR II emissions durations and rates and total mass released are based on analyses by Spicer and Miller (2018) and Spicer et al. (2019). In addition to summarizing 304 305 previous work, Spicer and Tickle (2020) developed simplified source specifications for the 306 purpose of making a fair comparison between atmospheric dispersion model predictions and observed concentrations. Two simplified sources were developed for Trials 1-7. In one case, a 307 single (constant) mass rate was specified based on the primary (essentially constant) aerosol 308 309 release rate. This rate was chosen because it is the fastest rate that chlorine could move 310 downwind and would represent an upper bound, especially for near field measurements. In the second case, the release was divided between an initial aerosol release and an evaporating liquid 311 release. The aerosol rate accounted for the primary release as well as rainout on and re-312 evaporation of chlorine on the concrete pad. The duration of this phase was the duration of the 313 314 primary release from the tank. The evaporating liquid release rate was taken to be the pool evaporation rate at the end of the aerosol release. This case was developed to represent the rate 315 316 chlorine was estimated to move downwind during the primary release as well as the evaporating pool. In both cases (single rate and two-period rate), the final duration was chosen so that the 317 total amount of chlorine released was included in the dispersion model simulations. 318

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321 2.2 Locations of CONEXs, concentration samplers, and meteorological instruments

The modelers were provided with locations (lat-long and elevations) of all instrumentation.

323 The 3D geometry data for the CONEXs were provided. For example, Figure 8 shows the

324 CONEX positions for the 2015 trials 1 -5. Concentration sampler positions are also shown.

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328 diameter concrete pad on which the tank was placed can be seen.

There were four types of concentration samplers (photo-ionization detectors or PiDs) used – Jaz (about 1,000 to 100,000 ppm), Canary (about 200 to 15,000 ppm), MiniRaes (about 10 to 2000 ppm), and ToxiRaes (about 1 to 50 ppm). They provided data with resolution of about 1 to 2 s. Most were located at a height of 0.3 m; they were low to the ground because a dense chlorine cloud is known to be shallow.

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In Figure 9, the sampler locations on arcs at 85, 120, and 200 m are shown on the left side. and the locations on arcs at 200 and 500 m are shown on the right side. At a few locations, vertical profiles of concentration were measured on 3 or 6 m towers.

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Figure 10 shows the sampler locations at 1, 2, 5, and 11 km. Note that the sampler arcs cover 90 degrees in Figure 7, and are centered on a wind direction from 165 degrees (or towards 345 degrees), which is the dominant wind direction in late August in the early morning at the site. The samplers were placed sufficiently close to each other so as to help assure that at least 3 or 4 samplers on each arc would be "hit" by the chlorine cloud.

To determine cloud widths and depths to the 20 ppm and 200 ppm contours, the in situ (fixed)

351 samplers were used, as well as three DPG LIDARs. The LIDARs used theoretical absorption

techniques so that a concentration could be estimated based on the signal returning to the

353 LIDARs (see Mazzola, 2020).

- The farthest arc was at 11 km, which is equal to about 7 miles.
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360 2.3 <u>Meteorological Inputs</u>

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The meteorological instruments at the JR II experiment site included a meso-network of about 35 surface wind sites, a surface energy balance site, three 32 m towers located 1 km apart, and several vertical sounding instruments. The challenge was to determine a single set of meteorological inputs for the dispersion models. The specific recommendations for meteorological inputs for the model comparison exercise are described by Hanna (2020).

368 It is assumed that the recommended meteorological conditions should be representative of the 369 flat desert about 100 m upwind of the chlorine release location. Recommendations of surface momentum and sensible heat fluxes for each field trial are based on 30 minute averages of sonic
anemometer observations at 2 m on the upwind 32 m tower and at 2.5 m on a nearby "Energy
Balance" station, for the period during which the chlorine release took place. Wind speed and
direction are 10-minute averages of aerovane observations at 2 m on the same upwind 32 m
tower and a nearby 2 m tower. Wind profiles on the same 32 m tower during nearly neutral
conditions were used to estimate that the surface roughness length, z_o, for the flat desert equals
0.5 mm.

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Some of the dispersion models can parameterize the wind flow in the "street canyons" of the CONEX array used in 2015. For this purpose, the height of the CONEXs (H = 2.6 m) and the morphology parameters λ_p (ratio of obstacle plan area to total lot area) and λ_f (ratio of obstacle frontal area facing the wind to total lot area) are often used. Since the CONEXs width and height are approximately the same, it can be assumed that $\lambda_p = \lambda_f$, which are calculated to equal 0.18.

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Single vertical profiles of wind speed, wind direction, and temperature were specified for a 385 time close to the chlorine release time, based on observations at five levels on the three 32 m 386 towers, a radiosonde, a minisodar, and two wind profilers (449 MHz and 921 MHz). A RASS 387 388 system measured temperature profiles at the 449 MHz profiler location. The nine chlorine releases began at times ranging from about 7:30 am to 9:30 am MDT (local time). The boundary 389 390 layer was stable for releases before about 8:30 and was marked by a shallow mixed layer (about 8 to 16 m) for later releases. Above the 32 m tower tops, the atmosphere was stable up to 391 elevations of a few hundred meters. Large wind direction shears were usually found in this 392 layer, since the near-surface flow was a drainage (katabatic) down-valley flow (from about 165 393 394 degrees), while the synoptic flow above 100 m was from the west.

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Another important caveat is that JR II took place in a broad flat valley where drainage winds were occurring in the early morning. There were often mesoscale variations in winds observed in time and space. For example, Trials 1, 5, and 8 were marked by variations in observed wind speeds (up to a factor of two) and/or directions (up to about 60°) with periods of about 10 to 20 400 minutes in the near field. These relatively slow trends show up as increased u* and increased

401 turbulence intensities, which also do not agree with Monin-Obukhov similarity.

- 402 2.4 *Examples of model inputs*
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404 Here we provide examples of the detailed model input specifications sent to all modelers.

405 Mazzola et al. (2020) provide details. Table 2 is a broad overview of model inputs, and Table 3

406 addresses the source emission rate details.

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408	Table 2.	Recommended mo	lel inputs for mode	l comparisons for	Trials 1, 6, and 7.
			1	1	, ,

	Trial 1	Trial 6	Trial 7 [*]			
Release Parameters						
Location, all at Dugway Proving	Northing 4445633.9 m					
Grounds; Zone 12 UTM coordinates		Easting 288109.2 m				
		Elevation 1295.5 m				
Date and Time (hh:mm:ss UTC)	24 August 2015	31 August 2016	2 September 2016			
	13:35:45	14:23:35	13:56:00			
Tank Inventory (kg of Cl ₂)	4500	8400	9100			
Pressure measured at top of tank	104.4	86.8	86.9			
(psia) ¹						
Liquid temperature (°C) ¹	15.7	16.0	15.9			
Release jet orientation (deg from	180	180	135			
tank top center)						
Release height (m)	1.0	1.0	1.48			
Hole diameter	6.0 in = 0.152 m	6.0 in = 0.152 m	6.0 in = 0.152 m			
Weather/Environment						
Atmospheric pressure (mbar)	873.7	871.1	868.5			
Initial wind speed ² (m/s) at $z = 2 m$	1.45	2.42	3.98			
Initial wind direction ² at $z = 2 m$	147.4	146.9	149.6			
Initial temperature ($^{\circ}$ C) at z = 2 m	17.5	22.3	18.7			
Surface roughness (mm)	0.5	0.5	0.5			
Friction velocity ³ , u_* (m/s)	0.108	0.093	0.210			
Sensible heat flux ³ , Hs, (K-m s ⁻¹)	-0.012	-0.0034	-0.0160			
Vertical profiles of wind speed and						
direction and temperature ⁴						
Inverse Monin-Obukhov length (m ⁻¹)	0.068	0.056	0.0229			
Pasquill Class ⁵	E/F	E	D/E			

409 * - Trial 7 primary release shown. Secondary or "dump" release will be defined separately.

410 1 – The liquid in the tank should be considered at a saturated state and these experimental best numbers adjusted to
 411 assure that as needed by the analyst

412 2 – Initial wind is a 10 minute average at time of release initiation. Wind direction is the direction from which the

413 wind blows in degrees clockwise from true North.

414 3 – Turbulent boundary layer parameters from 30 min average data at time of release.

415 4 – Vertical profiles of wind speed, wind direction and temperature are discussed in Hanna (2020)

416 5 – If the dispersion model has an option to use either Monin-Obukhov length or Pasquill Class to specify the

417 atmospheric stability, the Monin-Obukhov length should be used for consistency.

	Trial 1	Trial 6	Trial 7
Primary release			
Discharge rate (kg/s)	224.	260.	259
Discharge period (s)	20.3	32.2	33.3
Temperature (°C)	-37.3	-37.4	-37.4
Vapor fraction*	0.171	0.172	0.172
Density (kg/m ³)	18.32	18.15	18.12
Velocity (m/s)	50.8	44.2	44.2
Area (m ²)	0.241	0.324	0.323
Primary release modified for rainout			
Discharge rate (kg/s)	145	168	162
Discharge period (s)	20.4	32.4	33.6
Temperature (°C)	-37.3	-37.4	-37.4
Vapor fraction*	0.264	0.266	0.274
Density (kg/m ³)	11.89	11.79	11.41
Velocity (m/s)	50.8	44.2	44.2
Area (m ²)	0.240	0.323	0.322
Evaporated rainout			
Discharge rate (kg/s)	43.2	34.0	34.0
Discharge period (s)	36.8	86.4	93.4
Temperature (°C)	-37.3	-37.4	-37.4
Vapor fraction	1	1	1
Density (kg/m ³)	3.160	3.152	3.144
Area (m ²)	491	491	491

Table 3. Recommended averaged source emission rates for trials 1, 6, and 7.

420 * Ignoring kinetic energy effects

421

422 **3. Models involved and comparison methods**

423

A Modeling Working Group (MWG) was established for JR II planning and analysis 424 425 beginning in 2014. Most modelers in the current comparison exercise were on the MWG, which 426 had biweekly conference calls. Several modelers ran test cases to assist in designing the 427 sampling grid for the field experiment and have seen the preliminary JR II data. Because some other modelers had not seen JR II data, not all modelers were on an equal footing. This exercise 428 429 was not a competition, but was undertaken in the spirit of collaboration, to improve the quality of toxic industrial chemical modeling tools in general. Table 4 is a listing of the model names and 430 organizations who participated. Other papers in this special issue have been written by the 431 persons running each model. 432

434 Table 4. Models and organizations participating.

435

Model(s) run	Organization
Accident Damage Analysis Module (ADAM)	European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC), Italy
ALOHA, SLAB-R	Rand, USA
Britter & McQuaid workbook (B&M)	Hanna Consultants, USA
Canadian Urban Dispersion Model (CUDM)	Environment and Climate Change, Canada
DRIFT	Health & Safety Executive (HSE), UK
ESCAPE	Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI)
HPAC	Defense Threat Reduction Agency (DTRA), USA
Integral Dense-gas Dispersion Model (IDDM)	National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), USA
PHAST	DNV GL, Ltd, UK
Derallel Micro SWIET SDD (V (DMSS)	Aria Technologies and Atomic and
	alternative Energies Commission (CEA), France
Puff model of atmospheric dispersion (PUMA)	Swedish Defence Research Agency (FOI)
RAILCAR-ALOHA, RAILCAR-QUIC	Naval Surface Warfare Center, USA
Safer Trace	Safer Systems, USA
SLAB-I	Ineris, France
VDI 3783 Parts I & II	BAM, Germany

436

437

Most models do not directly treat specific JR II configurations (e.g., obstacle array,

438 180° and 135° downward pointing jets), but these effects should dissipate farther downwind
439

There are some uncertainties regarding the observations of arc max C and cloud widths and 440 depths. Of course, one major uncertainty is the likelihood that the actual cloud center (and arc 441 max C) could occur in between the samplers. This is more likely on the 5 and 11 km arcs, where, 442 443 sometimes, only three or four samplers are "hit". Another cause of uncertainty is that some (6 out of 18) samplers during Trials 1, 6, and 7 reported arc max C values that are saturated, so the 444 actual arc max C likely exceeds the reported values. For example, the MiniRAE arc max C 445 readings in Trials 1 and 6 at 0.5 km are saturated at about 3,300 ppm, and the ToxiRAE readings 446 of 50 ppm at 5 or 11 km are saturated. We retained the saturated data in this model comparison, 447 lest we lose 33% of the data. The field experiment directors shifted some samplers around from 448 trial to trial to try to avoid saturation, but, unfortunately, there was a shortage of samplers that 449 450 could provide useful data at high chlorine concentrations. See Chang et al. (2020) for more detailed discussions. 451

Estimated cloud widths were also affected by the limited numbers of samplers "hit" on the far arcs. Furthermore, due to cloud meandering, the instantaneous cloud width could be significantly less than the time-averaged cloud width. The LIDAR remote observations of cloud width were useful, but there were some uncertainties due to the calibration methods between the LIDAR signal and concentration.

458

Estimated cloud heights were obtained from the sampler towers only when there was a significant decrease of concentration with height on the 6 m towers. Otherwise, LIDAR observations were used. See Mazzola (2020) for more discussion of the cloud widths and heights.

463

The 17 model predictions of arc max C and of cloud width and height are compared qualitatively using plots of predictions and observations versus downwind distance for the three trials in the paper by Mazzola et al. (2020). Quantitative performance measures, such as fractional mean bias FB and fraction of predictions within a factor of two of observations, are calculated using the BOOT model evaluation software (Chang and Hanna 2004).

469

470 **4. Further Comments**

471 The Jack Rabbit II project sought to provide critical data and address knowledge gaps in atmospheric transport and dispersion modeling, emergency response, industrial safety, and 472 473 hazard and risk mitigation. The experiments involved the largest releases of chlorine ever undertaken and provided a highly detailed dataset of measurements from hundreds of sensors 474 475 measuring release rates, gas concentrations, meteorological conditions and other parameters. The success of the project is testament to the vision of the project coordinators, the generous support 476 477 of the funding agencies and the hard work of the dedicated staff at Dugway Proving Ground and 478 the dozens of other scientists and engineers who have participated in the project. This paper has 479 provided an introduction to the project with a short description of the test configurations, the measurement equipment, release conditions, meteorology and model inter-comparison studies. 480 481 Further details on each of these topics are provided in the papers cited within this special issue of 482 the Atmospheric Environment journal.

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485

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