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7	Rainfall Analysis for the August 5, 2017, New Orleans Flash Flood Event
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13	W. Scott Lincoln <sup>1</sup>
14	1. National Weather Service Lower Mississippi River Forecast Center
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26	Corresponding Author:
27	W. Scott Lincoln
28	NWS Lower Mississippi River Forecast Center
29	62300 Airport Rd, Slidell, LA 70460
30	scott.lincoln@noaa.gov
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#### 32 ABSTRACT

33 On the afternoon of 5 August, 2017, a nearly stationary thunderstorm caused flash 34 flooding in portions of the New Orleans, Louisiana, metropolitan area. Rising water resulted in 35 flooding of numerous vehicles, highway underpasses, and the lowest levels of several homes and 36 businesses. Real-time National Weather Service (NWS) rainfall estimates suggested a storm total 37 rainfall maximum of about 6.0 inches (dual-polarization radar method) and about 7.0 inches 38 (official bias-corrected method). Gauge observations collected after the event indicated even 39 higher rainfall amounts; an isolated portion of New Orleans known as Mid-City received over 40 9.0 inches in a 3-to-6-hr period.

41 This report presents an analysis of rainfall observations from the New Orleans area and 42 an updated gridded rainfall estimate using all available gauge reports. To begin the process, 43 additional rainfall observations were collected from CoCoRaHS and private weather station 44 networks. These reports were used to bias-correct radar-only rainfall estimates using techniques 45 utilized by NWS River Forecast Centers (RFCs) to produce hourly Quantitative Precipitation 46 Estimate (QPE) grids. This bias-corrected rainfall was then used to run a hydrologic model to 47 compare runoff values to that of other New Orleans flood events. Using the updated rain gauges, 48 it was determined that an isolated portion of New Orleans (Mid-City) experienced 3-hr rainfall 49 greater than the 1-in-100 annual chance. Using the hydrologic model it was determined that 50 runoff from the August 2017 event exceeded that of other events with minimal flood impact, but 51 did not come close to reaching the magnitude produced by the May 1995 flood event.

## 52 **1.0 Introduction**

53 On the afternoon of 5 August, 2017, a nearly stationary thunderstorm caused flash 54 flooding in portions of the New Orleans metropolitan area. Within a span of only three hours, a 55 small portion of New Orleans' Mid-City neighborhood recorded at least 9-in of rainfall, an event 56 with a less than 1-in-100 chance of occurring in a given year, according to NOAA Atlas 14 57 (National Weather Service, 2013) from the National Weather Service (NWS) Hydrologic Design 58 Studies Center (HDSC). This significant rainfall event led to numerous roadways becoming 59 flooded to impassable depths, numerous flooded vehicles, and a few flooded structures (Figure 60 1).



- 61
- Figure 1. Map of storm reports sent to the NWS (LSRs) for 5 August, 2017, for the New Orleans area. Reports are colored basedupon relative severity.
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67	Due to the unique hydrology of New Orleans, all rain that falls on the city must be
68	pumped out if not removed through evaporation (Schlotzhauer & Lincoln, 2016). Unlike natural
69	watersheds which have a downstream outlet, New Orleans consists of several artificial
70	hydrologic areas known as polders; each polder is hydrologically isolated from the others and
71	has no downstream outlet. The main polder, which contains the majority of New Orleans proper
72	including the Central Business District (CBD), has elevations (NAVD88 datum) ranging from
73	less than -10.0 feet to approximately 20.0 feet at the periphery. Rain that falls on these locations
74	moves into a storm drain, then into the underground drainage system where it is conveyed to a
75	pumping station, and then is lifted into an outfall canal connected to Lake Pontchartrain (Figure
76	2). The drainage and pumping system is operated by the Sewerage and Water Board of New
77	Orleans (SWBNO). SWBNO indicates that the drainage capacity is 1.0-in in the first hour of an
78	event, followed by 0.5-in for each additional hour of rainfall.
79	The weather pattern of 5 August, 2017, was not particularly indicative of a significant
80	flash flood event. Slow-moving, afternoon thunderstorms are common across the gulf coast
81	during summer. Precipitable water values from upper air observations at the NWS Weather
82	Forecast Office (WFO) New Orleans/Baton Rouge (LIX) located in Slidell, Louisiana, showed
83	atmospheric moisture values above average but not particularly rare. At 1200 UTC, the LIX
84	upper air observation showed a precipitable water value of 2.10 inches. The value ranked
85	between the 75 <sup>th</sup> and 95 <sup>th</sup> percentile for 5 August (Figure 3). The upper air sounding also showed
86	that atmospheric wind fields were weak; without significant winds in the mid and upper levels of
87	the atmosphere, thunderstorms which developed were slow moving. These atmospheric
88	conditions allowed intense rainfall rates to remain nearly stationary over the urban, runoff-
89	conducive landscape of New Orleans for an extended duration of time.

90 This report presents the results of a re-evaluation of rainfall estimates 5 August, 2017, 91 using additional rainfall data based upon the methodology of Lincoln et al. (2017). The report 92 will present the methodology used and then will present the updated bias-corrected rainfall grid 93 incorporating the higher rainfall observations found in the Mid-City neighborhood. Then, using 94 the model developed for Schlotzhauer and Lincoln (2016), storm runoff sent to the pumping 95 system will be estimated using revised rainfall estimates.





Figure 2. The drainage network of New Orleans. Areas below sea level (the average elevation of Lake Pontchartrain) are shaded in gray. Major underground drainage pipes and canals indicated by dashed blue lines. Approximate contributing areas to each pumping station delineated by dashed black lines. Based upon information from Schlotzhauer & Lincoln (2016).





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2.0 Methodology

# 106 2.1 Rainfall estimation 107 To refine the rainfall analysis, additional point rainfall data was collected from multiple 108 sources. Once compiled, the rainfall observations were put through a simple QC technique to 109 remove questionable data. Once verified, these observations were used to bias-correct radar-only 110 rainfall estimates. 111 112 2.1.1 POINT RAINFALL DATA 113 Data obtained from official sources include the Automated Surface Observing System 114 (ASOS; automated stations typically located at airports), NWS/National Oceanic and 115 Atmospheric Administration (NWS/NOAA; manual-reporting daily stations used for NWS 116 climate records), and United States Geological Survey (USGS; automated stations co-located 117 with stream gauges). Data obtained from private sources include Community Collaborative Rain 118 Hail and Snow network (CoCoRaHS; manual-reporting stations monitored by a volunteer 119 observer network), Weather Underground Personal Weather Station network (WU PWS; 120 automated stations of varying quality and reliability operated by private persons), and 121 GroundTruth (formerly known as Earth Networks and AWS) WeatherBug (WB; automated 122 stations of varying quality and reliability operated by private persons). 123

# 125 2.1.2 GRIDDED RAINFALL DATA

126 Raw gridded rainfall estimates for this reanalysis were the radar-only estimates 127 obtained from the National Severe Storms Laboratory (NSSL) Multi-Radar Multi-Sensor 128 (MRMS) system. MRMS creates a national mosaic of radar reflectivity by seamlessly 129 mosaicking all NWS radars across the country. Hourly MRMS data was retrieved from the Iowa 130 Environmental Mesonet's rainfall archive (www.mesnet.argron.iastate.edu/rainfall). These 131 hourly estimates were then accumulated from 1800 UTC 5 August through 0000 UTC 6 August 132 to provide a 6-hr storm total. The MRMS radar rainfall estimates were then bias corrected 133 against the point rainfall data. 134 To complete the rainfall reanalysis, this 6-hr MRMS radar rainfall estimate was then bias corrected using the verified point rainfall data. The bias correction technique is very similar 135 136 to the process utilized operationally by the NWS RFCs. For each gauge location, the bias 137 correction factor was calculated by dividing the gauge value by the raw radar rainfall estimate. 138 These bias correction factor point values were then interpolated to a bias correction grid using 139 the kriging method. The kriging method assumed an exponential relationship between distance 140 from observation and bias correction factor. As a final step, the radar rainfall estimate is then 141 multiplied by the bias correction grid to produce a bias-corrected rainfall estimate.

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# 143 2.1.3 GRIDDED RAINFALL DATA

144To determine the annula exceedance probability, or AEP, the 6-hr bias-corrected145rainfall was then compared to rainfall frequency data from NOAA Atlas 14 (National Weather146Service, 2013). The AEP is equal to one divided by the average recurrence interval (ARI). The

AEP provides a climatological context for a particular rainfall event. Because the same amount
of rainfall may be more or less common depending on the location where it occurs, determining
the AEP provides a way of estimating the rainfall severity based upon local climatology.

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151 2.2 Hydrologic modeling

152 This study used the methodology outlined in Schlotzhauer & Lincoln (2016) where the 153 authors created a hydrologic model to estimate what portion of rainfall during Hurricane Isaac 154 infiltrated into the soil and what portion became runoff sent to the pumping stations. The model 155 developed for that study was used to estimate the amount of runoff generated by the 5 August. 156 2017, event as well as several other events of different magnitudes. The chosen events included a 157 major flood event (May 1995), a null event (Hurricane Isaac, August 2012), and a marginal flood 158 event (July 2017). The May 1995 rainfall event was one of the largest non-tropical rainfall events 159 in New Orleans history and led to major, widespread flooding impacts (Lincoln, 2014; Ricks, et 160 al., 1997). More recent events such as Hurricane Isaac and rains from a summer thunderstorm on 161 22 July, 2017, each caused minimal flood impacts. To perform the model analysis, hourly 162 rainfall data for each event was averaged by SWBNO drainage basin (Figure 2) to create a basin-163 averaged time series. Model infiltration parameters were kept the same as in Schlotzhauer & 164 Lincoln (2016). Pumping records were available from SWBNO for the August 2012, July 2017, 165 and August 2017 events. It is hypothesized that modeling results for each of these events may 166 illustrate differences which could be used to better characterize future flood events as they 167 develop.

168 The analysis by Schlotzhauer & Lincoln (2016) provided the average flow rate capacity 169 (approximately 20,000 cfs) of all of the pumps combined in the main polder of the city (also 170 known as the "nominal" pumping capacity) based upon a post-Katrina analysis of the pumping

171	system by the Interagency Performance Evaluation Task Force, or IPET (2006). Pump capacity
172	does vary, however, based upon the vertical distance water is being pumped, ranging from
173	approximately 13,000 cfs to 23,000 cfs. Another consideration is that capacity values also
174	assume that water is not impeded in movement to the pumping stations. This assumption is an
175	important one and one that is likely not entirely accurate due to the finding in Schlotzhauer &
176	Lincoln (2016) of the pumping capacity rarely being fully utilized even though pumping stations
177	were working as expected.
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180	3.0 Results and Discussion
181	3.1 Point rainfall observations
182	Approximately 39 rain gauge reports were collected. Of these, 4 came from official
183	sources (which would have been available to NWS warning forecasters in real time) and 35 came
184	from private observers (Table 1). The heaviest rainfall generally fell between official gauge
185	locations (Figure 4). Numerous private rainfall observations were higher than official
186	observations.
187	

188Table 1. Gauge data collected for this analysis. The rainfall observations collected for this analysis include official gauges (ASOS189and USGS), and private weather observations (CoCoRaHS, WB, and WU PWS).

	Observations Collected for This Analysis
ASOS	3
USGS	1
CoCoRaHS	3
WB	12
WU PWS	20
TOTAL	39

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Figure 4. Rainfall reports collected from official sources only (top) and a combination of official sources, CoCoRaHS reports, and private weather station networks. Relative rainfall totals are indicated with gray shading. The area of heaviest rainfall generally occurred between official reporting stations.

## 199 *3.2 Radar rainfall estimates*

200 Although this reanalysis utilizes radar-derived rainfall data obtained through MRMS, 201 real-time radar-derived rainfall estimates were available to warning forecasters from the KLIX 202 WSR-88D radar station located northeast of New Orleans in Slidell, Louisiana. Radar-derived 203 rainfall estimates are beneficial because they are available almost immediately. However the 204 trade-off for their near real-time availability is that the estimates do not benefit from the bias 205 correction processes using point observations. For the 5 August event, radar-derived rainfall 206 estimates using the dual polarization algorithm were substantially higher (and closer to gauge 207 values) than the legacy algorithm. The MRMS estimates were also similar to the dual-208 polarization estimates. A comparison of the three different radar rainfall estimates is shown by 209 Figure 5. All three of these estimation algorithms indicated a rainfall maximum near the Mid-210 City neighborhood of New Orleans, just northwest of the CBD.



#### 219 *3.3 Bias-corrected radar rainfall estimates*

220 Utilizing bias correction, it was found that raw radar rainfall estimates were too low for 221 most portions of New Orleans (Figure 6). For a few areas west of the CBD and into the suburbs 222 of Metairie and Kenner, raw radar rainfall estimates were too high. For areas with the largest 223 rainfall totals, a bias correction of 2.0 was applied to the radar estimate. This meant that radar 224 rainfall estimates were doubled in order to match radar estimates to gauge observations in those 225 locations. After this bias correction process, the reanalysis showed that the storm total rainfall 226 maximum increased to 9.8 inches and moved about 2-3 miles east into the French Quarter 227 neighborhood (Figure 7). Compared to the NWS RFC bias-corrected rainfall estimate, this 228 rainfall reanalysis indicated increased rainfall values over the portions of New Orleans that 229 experienced the highest storm totals, but decreased rainfall values just a few miles to the west 230 (Figure 8). In both areas, the changes to the rainfall estimates were on the order of 2.0 inches or 231 less.

232 The AEP for the 6-hr bias-corrected rainfall indicated a very small area (approximately 233 6 miles by 4 miles in size) exceeding the 1-in-2 annual chance event. Rainfall with only a 1-in-50 annual chance occurred over an area of less than 1 mi<sup>2</sup>. Although the entire rainfall event 234 235 lasted over 6 hours, the heaviest rainfall occurred over a roughly 3-hr period (ending at 2300 236 UTC), and this accounted for at least 80% of the storm total. The bias correction factor for the 237 entire event was downscaled to the 3-hr estimates, and the AEP re-calculated. Over the 3-hr 238 period, rainfall reached 1% AEP magnitude for a very isolated area (less than 0.5 mi<sup>2</sup>) near the 239 French Quarter (Figure 9). A majority of the city of New Orleans experienced rainfall less than a 240 1-in-2 annual chance event.





Figure 6. The bias correction factor for the 6-hr rainfall ending at 0000UTC 06 August, 2017. Values less than 1.0 correspond to gauge values lower than raw radar values and vice versa.



Figure 7. Bias corrected rainfall estimates for the 6-hr period ending at 0000UTC 06 August, 2017.



Figure 8. Difference between the rainfall estimate produced by this analysis and the traditional rainfall estimate produced by the NWS RFCs. Blue and green areas indicate a rainfall estimate that increased due to the additional gauges. Red and brown areas indicate a rainfall estimate that decreased due to the additional gauges.



- 52 Figure 9. The ARI/AEP for the 3-hr bias corrected rainfall estimates ending at 2300UTC 05 August, 2017.

## 254 *3.4 Hydrologic modeling*

255 Peak flow rates produced by the hydrologic model varied significantly between events 256 (Figure 10, top). For the major flood event (May 1995), flow rates reached almost 5 times the 257 assumed pumping capacity, while the two marginal events (Hurricane Isaac in 2012 and July 258 2017) just barely exceeded pumping capacity. The event flow exceeding average, or nominal, 259 pumping capacity was also calculated based upon the estimated capacities from IPET (2006). 260 The 5 August 2017 event was more than double the peak flow of the marginal events (about 1.5x 261 assumed capacity) but not even close to the magnitude of the 1995 event. The New Orleans 262 Advocate on 15 August, 2017, documented available pumping capacity for 5 August, 2017 263 (http://www.theadvocate.com/new\_orleans/news/article\_10a26648-8215-11e7-b748-264 67c91e24fa7e.html); this capacity was lower than the published nominal values. To account for 265 this reduced level of pumping capacity the author reduced pumping capacity by 1000 cfs and 266 5100 cfs for the July 2017 and August 2017 events, respectively. The reduction in pumping 267 capacity was not enough to change the rankings of the events or drastically alter the results. To 268 calculate excess flow, the 2006 pumping capacity was used with the caveat that pumping 269 capacity was likely lower in prior years, including the May 1995 event. For the 1995 event in 270 particular, even a significant reduction in pumping capacity would have had minimal impact on 271 the resulting excess flow; with the entire pumping system offline, excess flow for May 1995 272 would increase by only a maximum of 20%. 273 For the 22 July 2017 and 5 August 2017 events, pumping records from SWBNO were 274 made available publicly on the web (SWBNO, 2017). Records for Hurricane Isaac (August into 275 September 2017) were already available from Schlotzhauer & Lincoln (2016). Although total 276 rainfall was highest during Hurricane Isaac, rainfall rates were much higher during the summer

277 2017 events, exceeding the assumed pumping capacity on both occasions (Figure 11). In 278 contrast, when looking at storage values of runoff, defined as the amount of runoff that has yet to 279 be pumped out of the city, Hurricane Isaac in 2012 exceeds the hypothetical drainage system 280 storage capacity by more than the other events (Figure 12). One difference between Hurricane 281 Isaac and the summer 2017 events is the distribution of heavy rainfall; rainfall during Isaac 282 generally affected all portions of the city while the 22 July 2017 event and the 5 August 2017 283 event were caused by very isolated, intense thunderstorms. To evaluate smaller-scale differences 284 between these rainfall events, hydrologic model results were compared for a single interior 285 pumping station, DPS 03, which services a small portion of central New Orleans (about 11% of 286 the main polder). The rainfall and runoff rate differences illustrated by Figure 11 became much 287 more dramatic when looking at the smaller area. Runoff rates for the 5 August 2017 event at 288 DPS 03 far exceeded the runoff rates of the other events as well as the local pumping capacity 289 (Figure 13).

290 The differences in runoff rates estimated by the hydrologic model provide some 291 insights into which events had flood impacts, and which events did not have flood impacts, 292 however this type of model is not available to NWS warning forecasters in real time warning 293 operations. A more readily-available indicator of flash flood potential may be something as 294 simple as the rain rate itself, as runoff is typically not variable in New Orleans due to the urban 295 landscape and its high percentage of impervious surface. A comparison of maximum 3-hour 296 rainfall rates for any pump station's service area is shown by Figure 14. Increased rainfall rates 297 generally are correlated with worse flood impacts. Overall, these rainfall estimates and modeled 298 runoff estimates seem plausible based upon the relative severity of flash flood impacts which 299 were reported.



Figure 10. Comparison of peak flow rates generated by the hydrologic model for several New Orleans rainfall events (top). The 5
 August 2017 event produced more runoff than the marginal flood events (Hurricane Isaac in 2012 and July 2017) but was not close to the magnitude of the May 1995 event. Excess flow rates (flow rate minus assumed pumping capacity; bottom) was also calculated. Due to a reduction in pumping capacity during the summer 2017 events, "capacity-corrected" values are also indicated.







Figure 12. A comparison between hydrologic model results for 3 different rainfall events occurring in the main polder of New Orleans - August 2012 (top), July 2017 (middle), and August 2017 (bottom). Cumulative system storage is shown compared to the hypothetical maximum storage (volume of space in underground drainage pipes and canals to store water waiting to be pumped). Note that pumping records ended early for the July 2017 and August 2017 events.







Figure 14. Comparison of maximum 3-hour rainfall totals for several New Orleans rainfall events. The general magnitude of flash flood impacts produced by each event is indicated. Colors were chosen to match those used in Figure 10.

### **5.0 Conclusions**

334 Excessive rainfall from a nearly stationary thunderstorm caused significant flash flooding 335 in areas of New Orleans, Louisiana, on 5 August, 2017. The heaviest rainfall occurred away 336 from most official gauge locations operated by federal agencies including the NWS. Utilizing 337 additional rainfall reports from CoCoRaHS and private observing networks, the bias-corrected 338 rainfall estimate increased significantly for a portion of New Orleans, specifically the Mid-City 339 neighborhood. This isolated afternoon thunderstorm produced a maximum estimated rainfall that 340 had only a 1-in-100 chance of occurring annually. This event and subsequent reanalysis 341 illustrates the importance of assembling numerous point rainfall observations from rain gauges to 342 increase the accuracy of bias-corrected rainfall estimates. 343 Although a hydrologic model is necessary to estimate the amount of runoff generated and 344 the flow rate headed toward the pumping stations, the urbanized nature of the impacted area 345 reduces the variability in runoff due to soil moisture. This fact highlights a potential area of 346 research into increasing NWS predictive capabilities for flash flood impacts in the New Orleans

area. Utilizing maximum 3-hr rainfall rates, forecasts may be able to determine the onset of flash

348 flood conditions and the severity of impacts from a given event.

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