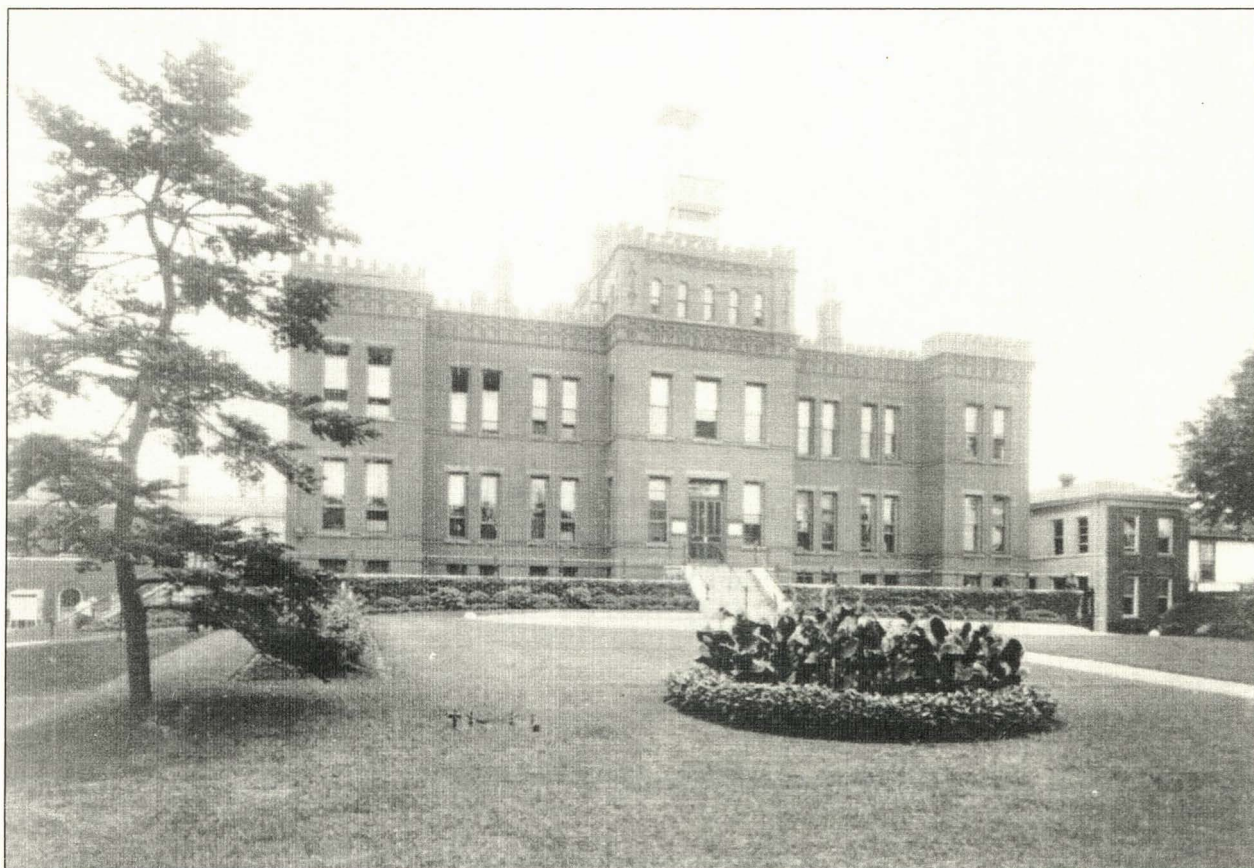


THE UNITED STATES WEATHER SERVICE: THE FIRST 100 YEARS

by

Bob Glahn

2012



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Preface

This is a book of facts. It was written to get some of the history of the Weather Bureau in one place, and in such a form that all information could be checked with references, as much as possible with original references. The U.S. weather service started with the Signal Service in 1870, was given the name Weather Bureau in 1891, and the name National Weather Service in 1970 with the formation of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Therefore, this early history of the Weather Bureau spans 100 years.

The Chief Signal Officer of the War Department and then the Chief of the Weather Bureau under the Department of Agriculture and later under the Department of Commerce, wrote voluminous annual reports. For later years, there are *Weather Bureau Topics*, *ESSA News*, and *ESSA World*. These documents are all on line, have been read, and what seemed to the author to be important events have been abstracted here. An important source for centrally provided products are the *Technical Procedures Bulletins* that started in 1967.

The weather service has been under three Departments of the U.S. Government. This document contains pictures of all 10 heads of the service since its beginning in 1870 to 1970. It also contains pictures of the four buildings used as headquarters during that time. Since 1970, there have been five more directors of the National Weather service, and there has been one more move to another location; pictures of these directors and the currently occupied building are shown in the Epilogue.

Being essentially a compilation of facts with little or no interpretation, this document may be dry reading, but it is hoped it will be a useful reference. Access should be easier than the thousands of pages of reference material. Of course, the inclusion of facts is necessarily selective, and whole books could be written about only a few of those included and others not included. But these facts show the evolution of the technology and the service provided to the citizens of the United States by the Weather Bureau.

The picture on the cover is of the Ferguson Building, the headquarters of the weather service for 53 of its first 100 years.



Bob Glahn
June 2012

THE UNITED STATES WEATHER SERVICE: THE FIRST 100 YEARS

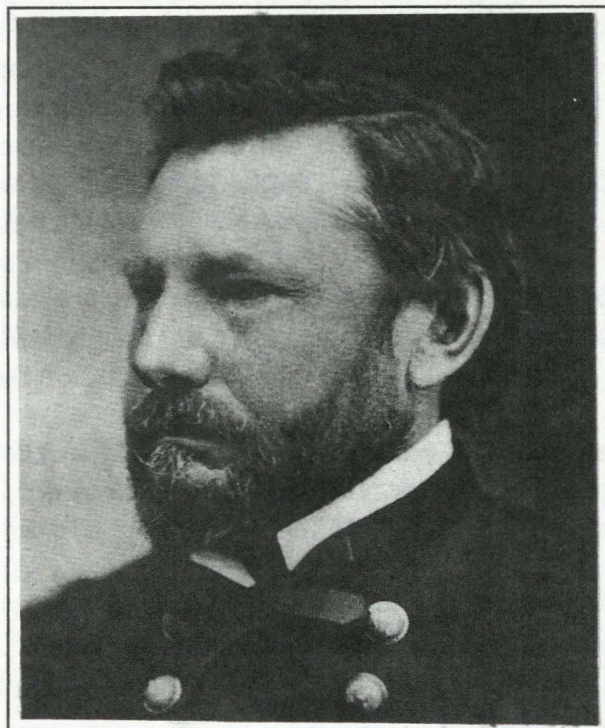
Establishment of a Weather Service

President Ulysses S. Grant approved a joint resolution of Congress passed without dissent on February 9, 1870, as follows:

“Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of War be, and he hereby is, authorized and required to provide for taking meteorological observations at the military stations in the interior of the continent, and at other points in the States and Territories of the United States, and for giving notice on the northern lakes and on the seacoast, by magnetic telegraph and marine signals, of the approach and force of storms... .”

The Chief Signal Officer of the Army was charged, by letter of the Secretary of War, William B. Belknap, dated February 28, 1870, and in General Orders No. 29, March 15, 1870, with the immediate supervision of the service. General Albert J. Meyer, Chief Signal Officer and head of the Signal Service, put the new responsibilities under a new division, the “Division of Telegrams and Reports for the Benefit of Commerce,”¹ but the work quickly expanded and consumed much of the time and resources of other elements of the Signal Service (see Appendix I).

A number of persons and organizations had taken or collected meteorological observations for many years, including the Smithsonian Institution. Professor A. Joseph Henry, secretary of the Smithsonian, was an early experimenter with telegraphy, a technology that was to play a critical role in the collection of weather data.² By 1849, Henry had persuaded telegraph companies to transmit for free local weather data to the Smithsonian. He also supplied barometers and thermometers to some observers. By 1857, telegraph stations from New York to New Orleans were



General Albert J. Meyer, Chief Signal Officer, head of the weather service 1870-1880.

¹ Meyer, A. J., *Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1870*, p. 6.

² According to A. J. Henry, 1895, “Early Individual Observers in the United States,” in Report of the International Congress, Chicago, 1893, Part 2, Bulletin 11, pp. 292, 293, (available at the National Agricultural Library, Beltsville Maryland, 1 W37B), the earliest documented observer on the western continent was Rev. Jno. Campanius, a member of a Swedish Colony near the present city of Wilmington, Delaware, who took observations during 1644-1645.

cooperating. Henry devised a large daily weather map, which he mounted in 1856 in the Smithsonian "Castle." The map became popular, and the *Washington Evening Star* began publishing daily weather conditions at nearly 20 different cities. The Civil War disrupted the work; after the war in his annual report for 1865, Henry called for the federal government to establish a national weather service capable of issuing storm warnings and other weather predictions.^{3,4,5}

Considerable discussion about the topic of a weather service had preceded the act of Congress, and in the 1860's several organizations, in addition to Henry of the Smithsonian, proposed elements of a weather service, not necessarily a national one. Increase Allen Lapham had kept observations since 1822 and had attempted for years to build up a service in Wisconsin; he was instrumental in the Wisconsin Legislature considering a bill in 1850 to establish a state weather service, but the bill failed to pass.⁶ Cleveland Abbe, head of the Cincinnati Observatory, a relative newcomer to meteorology,⁷ had secured the support of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce and had for a 3-month period in late 1869 collected daily telegraphic observations and made forecasts published in the *Cincinnati Weather Bulletin* which he called "probabilities."⁸ Lapham supported Abbe's work, as he had Joseph's work, and in November 1869 arranged for the submission of a resolution regarding the need for a weather service to the National Board of Trade to protect shipping on the Great Lakes; after considerable modification, it was forwarded to Congressman Halbert E. Paine of Milwaukee. Paine, who was graduated at age 19 as head of his class in 1845⁹ had actually studied under Elias Loomis¹⁰ at the Western Reserve College in Ohio when Loomis was studying the structure of severe storms and their movement, and therefore was familiar with the state of meteorology at that time. Paine was receptive; he broadened the concept from regional to national and drafted the bill that was introduced into Congress on December 16, 1869.¹¹

While the bill proposed the assignment of the responsibility for the service to the Secretary of War, there is considerable documentation that indicates the War Department was not included in the

³ Weightman, R. H., 1952: Establishment of a National Weather Service—Who was responsible for it. U.S. Weather Bureau unpublished manuscript, U.S. Department of Commerce (available from the NOAA Library), p. 4, references J. Henry, *Annual Report of Smithsonian*, 1865, pp. 57-59.

⁴ Millikan, F. R., undated manuscript. The Joseph Henry Papers Project, 3 pp.

⁵ _____, 1997, Joseph Henry's grand meteorological crusade. *Weatherwise*, 50, pp. 14-17.

⁶ Miller, E. R., 1931: New light on the beginnings of the Weather Bureau from the papers of Increase A. Lapham. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, p. 66.

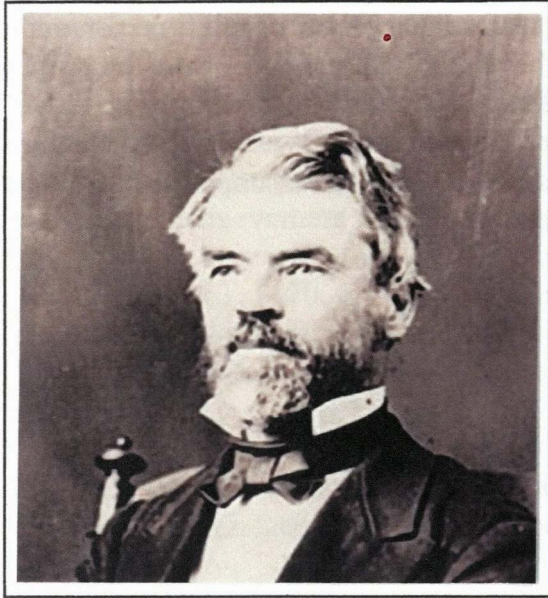
⁷ Whitnah, D. R., 1961: *A History of the United States Weather Bureau*. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, 267 pp. Page 15, references William J. Humphreys, "Cleveland Abbe," *Dictionary of American Biography* (New York, 1928), 1, p. 1-2, and states: "Abbe attended the New York Free Academy, now City college of New York. During 1861-64 he helped Dr. B. A. Gould at Harvard with the determination of longitude for the United States Coast Survey. For the next two years Abbe studied at Pulkova Observatory in Russia. He returned to the United States in 1867 to become aide to the United States Naval Observatory at Washington, D.C., but within a year left this position to become director of the Cincinnati Observatory."

⁸ Abbe, C., 1916: A short account of the circumstances attending the inception of weather forecast work by the United States. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 44, 206, 207.

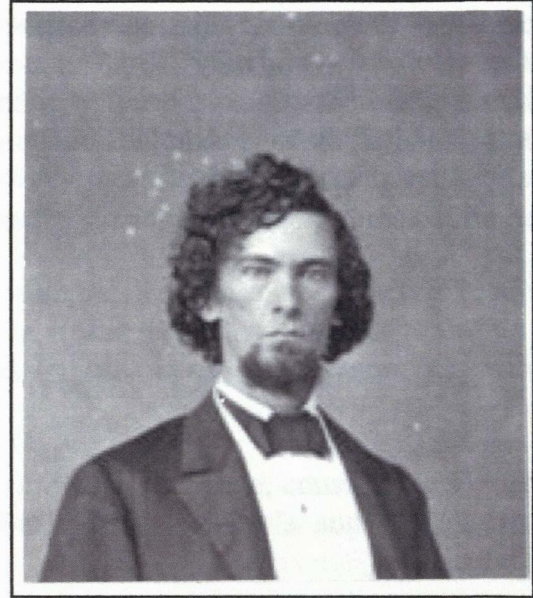
⁹ History of the United States Patent Office, Chapter 31, p. 193.

¹⁰ Miller, 1931, *ibid.* p. 68.

¹¹ Whitnah, *ibid.*, pp. 16-20.



Increase A. Lapham who influenced Congressman Paine to introduce the bill establishing a national weather service.



Halbert Paine, Congressman from Wisconsin, who introduced the bill into Congress.

first draft. It is believed that it was only after a campaign by General Meyer, Chief Signal Officer, that the War Department was included in the bill.¹² For instance, Paine writes as follows:

“Immediately after the introduction of the measure, a gentleman called on me and introduced himself as Colonel Albert Meyer, Chief Signal Officer. He was greatly excited and expressed a most intense desire that the execution of the law be entrusted to him.”¹³

However, it may not have taken much encouragement for assigning it to a military organization instead of, say, the Smithsonian Institution that had a long history taking observations. Paine had been a major general in the Union Army,¹⁴ and may have had leanings toward the Army. He later wrote:

“It seemed to me at the outset, military discipline would probably secure the greatest promptness, regularity, and accuracy in the required observations.”¹⁵

While the Signal Service had a prime asset for collecting weather observations—telegraphic facilities¹⁶—it was a small and young organization, having been organized only 10 years earlier by Assistant Surgeon General Albert Meyer, a major at the time. A bill of 1866 allowed one chief, six

¹² Miller, 1931, *ibid.*, p. 68.

¹³ Weightman, 1952, *ibid.*, p. 31, provides several references.

¹⁴ History of the United States Patent Office, Chapter 31, p. 193.

¹⁵ Miller, 1931, *ibid.*, p. 68.

¹⁶ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 22.

officers, and 100 non-commissioned officers.¹⁷ By 1871, the number of full time personnel of the weather service was still only 233.¹⁸ As indicated above, Lapham and Paine were the prime movers in establishing the meteorological enterprise, and Meyer is generally credited as being influential for the assignment of the meteorological responsibilities to the Signal Service.¹⁹ It is unclear that Abbe had any overt influence on this activity,^{20,21} but his work served as an example, as had Henry's, that observations could be taken, transmitted, and forecasts made.

¹⁷ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 20.

¹⁸ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 21.

¹⁹ Kvam, E. L., 1960, pp. 12, 13. *The Evolution of the U.S. Weather Bureau in Meeting the Needs of Radically Changing Times*. MA in Public Administration Thesis, George Washington University, 128 pp.

²⁰ Miller, 1931, *ibid.*, p. 68. In fact, Abbe wrote to Lapham on January 7, 1870, suggesting that the best decision had not been made in assigning the responsibility to the War Department, and instead suggested "intelligent telegraph operators or managers of offices or other employees" might be a better choice for the taking of observations, as "the meteorological observations of the Army have generally proved themselves very unreliable and are certainly no better than the telegraph operators could easily make." The quote is taken from papers in the collections of the Wisconsin Historical Society.

²¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1952, p. 110.

The Signal Service Years

The Signal Service lost little time in organizing the endeavor and established meteorological training classes at Fort Whipple, Virginia (which later became Fort Meyer), as early as that summer.²² For a small organization that had not been previously charged with meteorological duties, it seems quite an achievement that Meyer was able to write that same year:

“On November 1, 1870, at 7:35 a.m., the first systematized synchronous meteoric reports ever taken in the United States were read from the instruments by the observer-sergeants of the Signal Service at twenty-four stations, and placed upon the telegraphic wires for transmission.”²³

This claim to “being the first” may have not been completely accurate, considering Henry’s and Abbe’s work, but an achievement nonetheless. But, perhaps Henry’s and Abbe’s were not synchronous.

In that same month, Lapham was employed as assistant to the Chief Signal Officer and stationed at Chicago. On November 8, Meyer requested Lapham to assume responsibility for the Great Lakes region, and on that same day, Lapham issued the first storm warning.²⁴

“High wind all day yesterday at Cheyenne and Omaha; a very high wind this morning at Omaha; barometer falling, with high winds at Chicago and Milwaukee today; barometer falling and thermometer rising at Chicago, Detroit, Toledo, Cleveland, Buffalo, and Rochester; high winds probable along the Lakes.”

However, Lapham had many interests, and personal business caused him to return to his home town Milwaukee, an arrangement that could not have been satisfactory for Meyer.^{25, 26} Lapham was released from the service May 31, 1872.²⁷

Meyer asked Abbe to become special assistant to the Chief Signal Officer, and the appointment became effective January 3, 1871. Abbe started issuing regular forecasts, styled “Weather Synopses and Probabilities,” thrice daily starting February 19, 1871.²⁸ Abbe’s work at the Cincinnati Observatory influenced the style of these first forecasts; they were called “probabilities” until the

²² Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1870, p. 5, states, “...forty-one (41) observer sergeants, intended for assignment in the division of telegrams and reports for the benefit of commerce, have received the ... instruction necessary ... for their duties.” Table 10, p. IV, lists instruction dates in August and September.

²³ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 6.

²⁴ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 22.

²⁵ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 22.

²⁶ Miller, 1931, *ibid.*, p. 69.

²⁷ Miller, 1931 *ibid.*, p. 70.

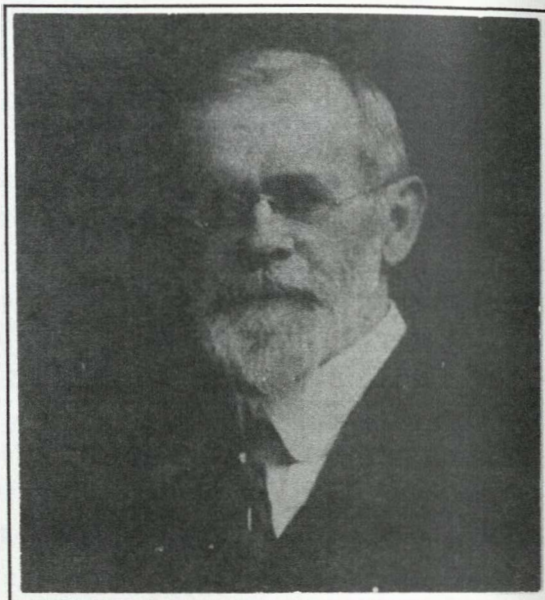
²⁸ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 8.

name was changed to “indications” December 1, 1876,²⁹ and finally on June 1, 1889, the name was officially changed to “forecasts.”³⁰ A typical forecast was:

“Probabilities: It is probable that the low pressure in Missouri will make itself felt decidedly tomorrow with northerly winds and clouds on the lakes, and brisk southerly winds on the gulf.”³¹

While Abbe’s role in actually establishing a national weather service seems to have been minor at best, he was a scientist, in distinction to the generals who headed the Signal Service, and undoubtedly did more to establish and guarantee the new service as a scientific organization than any other person.

The Signal Service headquarters was located at 1719 G Street, Washington, D.C. However the building was too small, and the adjoining building at 1721 G Street was rented in November 1871. An additional floor was added to both buildings. Meteorological observations were taken on the roof of the original building, but with the addition of the floor, the roof could not support the equipment, so a shelter was built projecting from a window on the northern side of the building.³² This was the location where the official observations for Washington D.C. were taken from November 1, 1870, when the station was established until August 15, 1888. The Signal Service occupied several buildings in the coming years,³³ and from August 15, 1888, until March 22, 1889, the official observations were taken at a Signal Service building diagonally across the street, 1744 G Street.³⁴



Cleveland Abbe served as Special Assistant to the Chief Signal Officer starting in 1871, and was on Weather Bureau staff until near his death in 1916.

²⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, May 1946, p. 33. A definitive original reference has not been found for this date. However, the 1877 fiscal year Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer states, “The preparation of the matter for the publication of the ‘Synopsis, Indications, and Facts,’ commenced in 1872 as the ‘Synopsis, Probabilities, and Facts,’ has been continued (p. 134). Also, in that same report under the November weather section on verification is the statement, “*Probabilities*—The detailed comparison of the tri-daily weather probabilities with the telegraphic reports...” (p. 421), and under the December section the statement changed to “*Indications*—The detailed comparison of the tri-daily weather indications with the telegraphic reports” (p. 429). This gives reasonable assurance the date of December 1, 1876, is correct.

³⁰ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, Appendix 2, p. 57.

³¹ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 23, references Abbe Papers. This forecast was based on 4:35 p.m. observations taken on February 20, 1871, the day after the first official forecast.

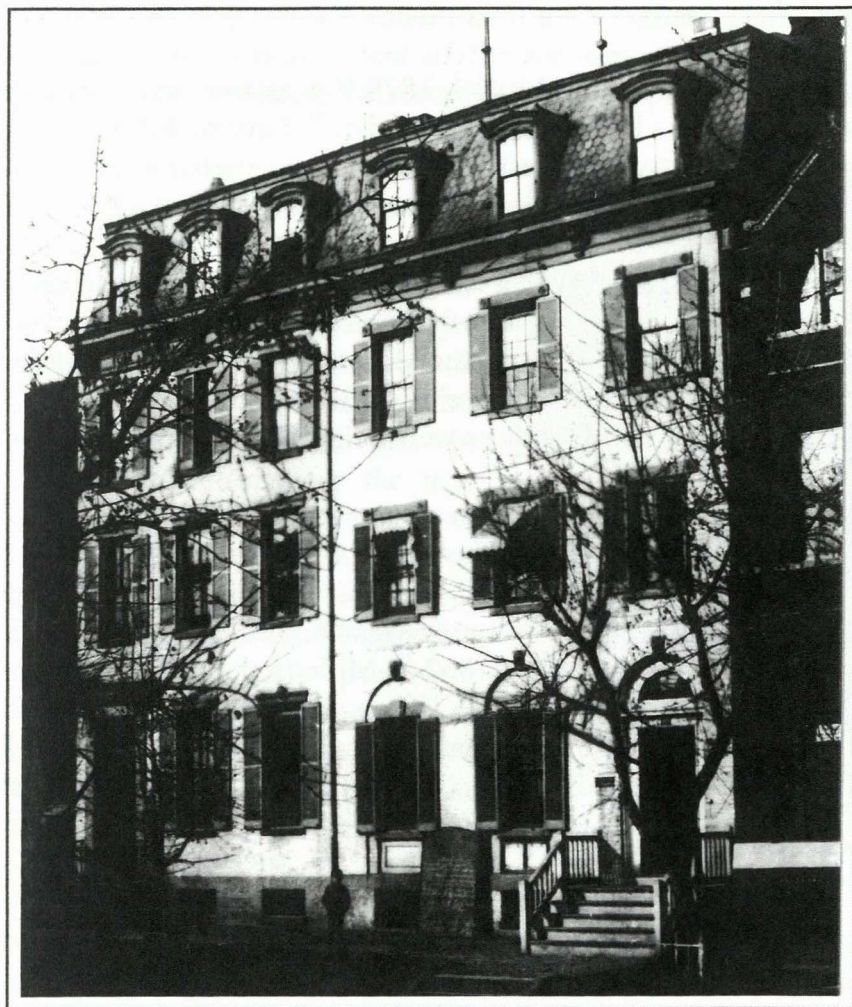
³² Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 47 and for 1872, p. 73.

³³ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, Part 1, p. 89, states the Signal Service at that time occupied 10 buildings on G and H Streets and Pennsylvania Ave.

³⁴ Grice, Gary K., 2005: History of Weather Observing in Washington, D.C. 1821-1950. Sponsored by the Midwestern Regional Climate Center, pp. 8, 9. The locations where the observations were taken were obtained from the actual observational records. These dates agree with Abbe (1914: *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, Washington and Paris Winters, 42, November 1914, p. 626, except for the move from 1744 G Street is given as March 29.

The service was extended throughout the United States by an Act of Congress on June 10, 1872, for “the benefit of agricultural and commercial interests,” the original resolution having technically covered only the Gulf and Atlantic Coasts and the Great Lakes.³⁵ The Signal Service made great

strides in the 21 years it was in charge of the national weather enterprise. The Chief Signal Officer issued voluminous reports each year to the War Department detailing its meteorological activities, as well as its original signal service duties. The Signal Service was in charge of the military telegraphic network, and thereby could transmit observations and warnings; soon maps were being prepared and distributed on which “meteoric conditions at stations throughout the country were exhibited by symbols.”³⁶ In fact, the meteorological activities soon began to occupy more time and attention than the original Signal Service duties.³⁷



In addition to the operational activities, the science was being extended in various ways, much under the leadership of Abbe. For instance, he established the *Monthly Weather Review (MWR)* in 1873,³⁸ and was its editor for many years.³⁹ The *MWR* remains a viable journal today, being for 100 years a government scientific journal until the end of 1973, and

The double building, picture taken facing south, at 1719 and 1721 G Street, the headquarters of the Signal Service 1870-1888. Note the slightly different facades on the right and left.

now is published by the American Meteorological Society. Abbe remained in the Weather Bureau until he resigned in February 1916, but had not been active because of ill health for some years. He

³⁵ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1872, p. 83.

³⁶ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 7.

³⁷ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer 1889, Part 1, p. 7. “The duties ... are of such an extended and important character as to practically absorb the attention and time of the greater part of the Signal Corps.”

³⁸ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 38.

³⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, August 1916, p. 2. Actually, there was a Volume 0 in 1872, with articles other than maps just starting. Perhaps the 1872, issues were done in retrospect.

died October 26, 1916,⁴⁰ just a few months after he was the recipient of the Marcellus Hartley medal for Eminence in the Application of Science to the Public Welfare. Even though Abbe couldn't attend the ceremony, and the medal was accepted by the Chief of the Weather Bureau, he wrote for presentation an article "A Short Account of the Circumstances Attending the Inception of Weather Forecast Work by the United States."⁴¹

A daily International Weather Map was commenced July 1, 1878.⁴² Synopses and Indications were being furnished for the press at 1:00 a.m., 11:30 a.m., and 7:30 p.m.⁴³ Several different forms for disseminating the forecasts were devised. Special frost indications were started in November 1879 and transmitted to New Orleans for the benefit of the sugar interests of Louisiana.⁴⁴

On November, 18, 1879, the time of taking the morning telegraphic observations was changed to from 7:35 a.m. to 7:00 a.m. Washington mean time, and the afternoon observations were changed from 4:35 p.m. to 3:00 p.m. The observation at 11:00 p.m. remained, making the three observations exactly 8 hours apart.⁴⁵ "Cautionary" and "cautionary offshore" signals were used with reference to wind, flags during the day and lights at night. In 1880, these were being displayed at 106 ports.⁴⁶

General Meyer died August 24, 1880, after heading the weather service for 10 years. During that decade, the Signal Service had grown and the number of observational stations had grown to 247; of that number, daily reports were being received from 181.⁴⁷ While the organization used the name "Signal Service" on some occasions,⁴⁸ the name most used was "Signal Corps," and Corps designation had been sought by Signal Officer Meyer since 1862.⁴⁹ Miller reports that the Signal Service was renamed the Signal Corps on February 24, 1880.⁵⁰ The annual reports were habitually signed "Chief Signal Officer" without regard to the parent organization. Under General William B. Hazen, who succeeded Meyer,⁵¹ the service continued to expand, even though the staff and dollars

⁴⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, October 1916, p. 8. As an indication of his great esteem, flags were flown at half mast on the main buildings of the Department of Agriculture and the Headquarters of the Weather Bureau on the day of his funeral. In 1963, the American Meteorological Society named a major award in his honor—the Cleveland Abbe Award. In 1952, a bronze plaque in his honor was installed in the Weather Bureau office in Cincinnati, Ohio (*Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1952, p. 48).

⁴¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, April 1916, p. 1.

⁴² Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 180.

⁴³ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 191

⁴⁴ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 173. The use of "indications" rather than "forecasts" seems cumbersome. The wording is, "...special frost indications were ordered to be forecasted..." During this time, it seemed weather was not being forecasted, but rather indications of the weather were being forecasted.

⁴⁵ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 167. The 7:35 observations were continued until agreement could be reached with other countries.

⁴⁶ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, pp. 199, 200.

⁴⁷ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 10.

⁴⁸ For instance, Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1879, p. 4.

⁴⁹ Meyer, A. J., 1862, Report, p. 13.

⁵⁰ Miller, E. R., 1930, Tradition versus history in American meteorology, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 58, p. 65.

⁵¹ Whitnah, *ibid.*, p. 34.

soon saw reduction.⁵² It was estimated that one-third the households in the United States were receiving daily weather information from the Service.⁵³ The duties of the enlisted men at each station consisted of reading “...at different fixed times ... the barometer, the thermometer, the wind velocity and direction, the rain-gauge, the dew-point, the character, kind, and movement of upper and lower clouds, and the condition of the weather. These observations are taken simultaneously throughout the whole extent of the territory of the United States.” In addition, three other observations were taken and recorded at each station, one of them being at the exact hour of sunset.⁵⁴

Monthly mean temperature maps for the United States were made for the years 1871-1880 with isotherms every 5 degrees.⁵⁵ Farmers’ bulletins gave the general synopsis of the meteorological conditions throughout the country during the preceding 24 hours and the weather indications for the next 24 hours.⁵⁶ During the months of November, December, and January, special indications were prepared for the benefit of those interested in canal navigation, and a special bulletin was issued for the press starting in 1881.⁵⁷ A railway bulletin service was established giving the forecast for the ensuing day; by 1882, 50 companies with 2,306 stations were receiving these reports daily.⁵⁸ Watching, recording, and giving timely warnings of the rise and fall of rivers was another service.⁵⁹ Cold Wave signals were inaugurated in 1883.⁶⁰ Weather Crop Bulletins were inaugurated in 1888.⁶¹ The civilian telegraph and railway companies cooperated in a major way. The information was relayed by telegraph and was posted at railway stations; in cities and towns; and on flat, iron sheets attached to railway cars.⁶² In some locations, a steam whistle was used to signal



General William B. Hazen, Chief Signal Officer, who was head of the weather service 1880-1887. He was appointed following the death of Gen. Meyer on August 24, 1880.

⁵² Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, p. 1. Hazen indicates there were only two officers to do the “indications” work.

⁵³ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 213.

⁵⁴ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, p. 20.

⁵⁵ Drum, R. O. Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, p. 216.

⁵⁶ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, p. 22.

⁵⁷ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, p. 46.

⁵⁸ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1882, p. 23.

⁵⁹ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer 1882, p. 49.

⁶⁰ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer 1885, Part 1, p. 11.

⁶¹ Greely, W. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, p. 16.

⁶² Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1885, Part 1, p. 517.

forecasts.⁶³ From the beginning,⁶⁴ the reports were encoded “in cipher” for efficiency, and the current code was judged to be “thoroughly satisfactory” in 1889.⁶⁵

Upon the death of General Hazen, General Adolphus W. Greely was chosen to succeed.⁶⁶ The Signal Service had recommended for several years that better quarters be obtained. Finally:

“On February 25, 1888, H. R. No. 4359 was passed, appropriating the sum of \$150,000 for the purchase of a site (the northeast corner of square No. 25 bounded on the north by M street, on the east by Twenty-fourth street, and on the south and west by the grounds of the Columbia Hospital), including the building thereon; also for the creation of the necessary store-houses for the use of the office of the Chief Signal Officer.

“The additional buildings required were erected ... and on March 5, 1889, this office was advised that the work on the Signal Office buildings had been practically completed... .”

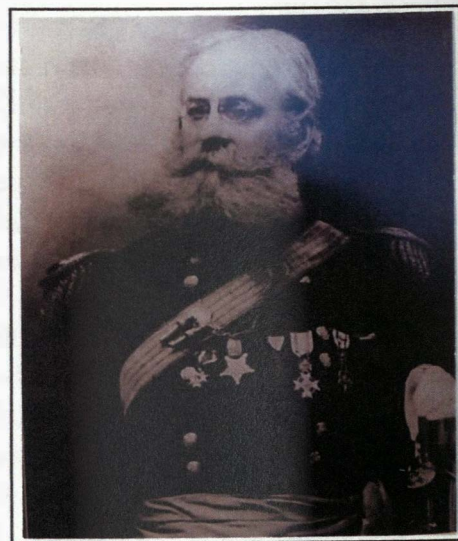
However, before accepting the buildings, an inspection was made. It was found that:

“The ... building was found, both the materials used and in the workmanship, to be inferior to ... the specifications, and, although it has been occupied, it has not as yet been formally accepted.

“It is believed that considerable repairs will be necessary during the coming year to keep it in habitable condition.

“More storage room is needed. To secure the same, additional buildings should be erected as recommended below; the present stables and carriage house be converted into store-rooms, and a suitable stable rented.”⁶⁷

So, besides the \$150,000 paid to David Ferguson for the property and structures, an additional \$38,000 “was expended for the erection of additional structures required for use as storehouses, printing office, stable, machine shop, etc., these latter structures being constructed under the supervision of the Treasury Department.”⁶⁸



General Adolphus W. Greely, Chief Signal Officer from 1887 until the meteorological activities transferred to the Department of Agriculture in 1891.

⁶³ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1890, p. 214. For instance, in Columbia, Missouri, one long and one short whistle indicated fair and colder.

⁶⁴ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1870, p. 7.

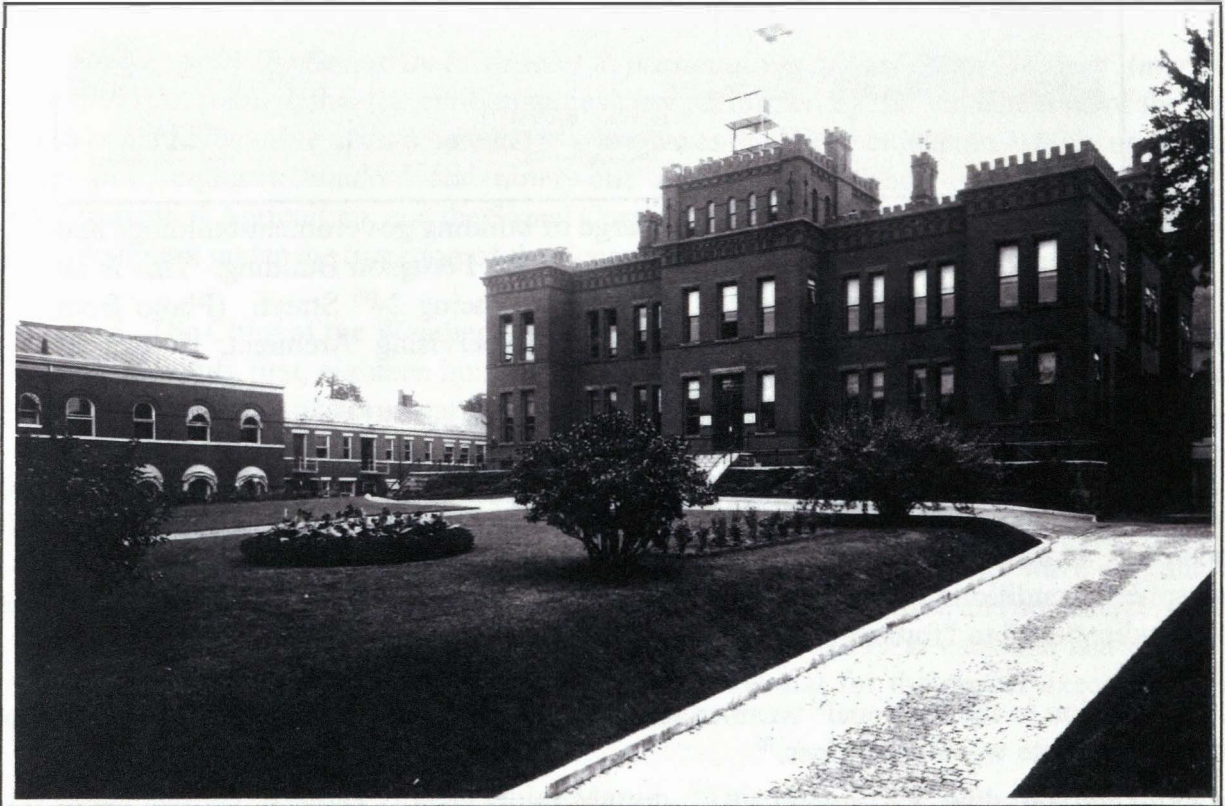
⁶⁵ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, p. 40.

⁶⁶ Whitnah, op cit, p. 57.

⁶⁷ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, pp. 113, 114.

⁶⁸ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1895, p. 93. Also, see Appendix II, Fig. 9, in this document. The Treasury Department was in charge of building Government buildings.

The official observation site for “Washington City,” as it was called in many reports, changed from 1744 G Street to a cupola on the new building at 2416 M Street. This building had been built by the Ferguson family as a residence,⁶⁹ but when the family relocated to California, the building was sold. It was an imposing structure, variously described as Mexican and Spanish architecture and “castle-like.”⁷⁰ Evidently the move from G Street was made after the appropriation in February 1888. Greely reports the observation station was moved on August 21, 1888,⁷¹ but the official observations continued at G Street until March 1889.⁷² Grice, in examining the actual reporting forms, states the official reporting station changed to the Ferguson building on March 22, 1889.⁷³



The Ferguson building at 2416 M Street occupied by the Signal Corps in 1888. It faced M Street on the north, this picture being taken toward the southeast. The official Washington D.C. observations were taken on the roof—except wind from an adjacent tower—from March 22, 1889, until March 5, 1942. This building, along with its associated buildings to the east, south, and west served as the headquarters of the Weather Bureau from its inception on July 1, 1891, until a new building was built in front of it in 1941.

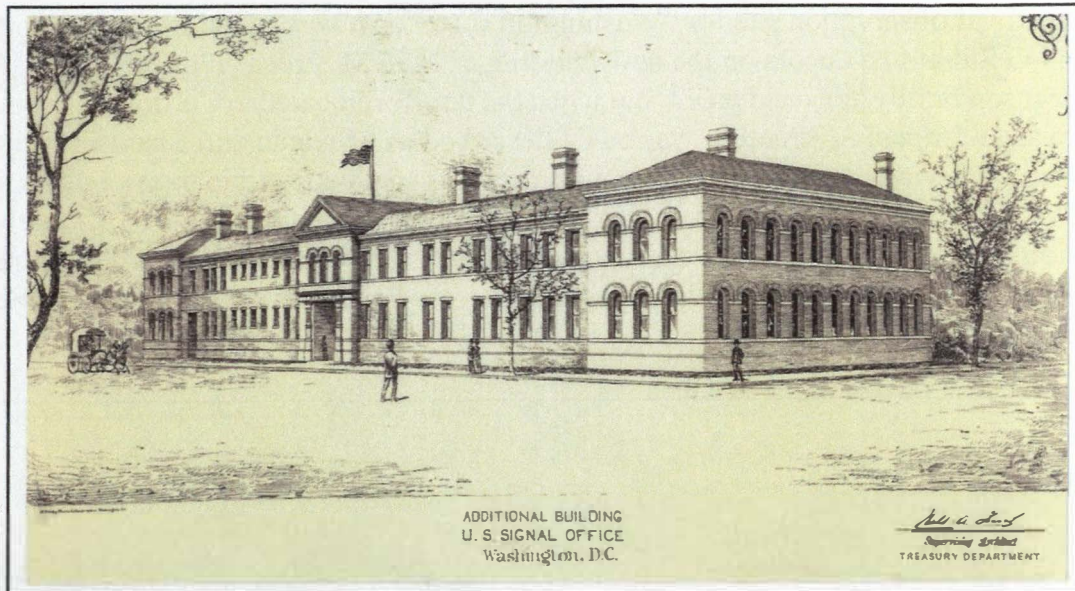
⁶⁹ Williams, P. K., *The InTowner*, November 2003, p. 12. Construction was started in 1886.

⁷⁰ Williams, *ibid.*, p. 12.

⁷¹ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, p. 127

⁷² Abbe, C., Jr., 1914: Washington and Paris winters. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **42**, p. 626. Abbe gives the date as March 29.

⁷³ Grice, G. K., 2005, “History of Weather Observing in Washington, D.C. 1821-1950,” p. 9. Manuscript sponsored by the Midwestern Regional Climate Center, 35 pp.



The Treasury Department was in charge of building government buildings and was commissioned to augment the space in the Ferguson Building. This is an artist's sketch of the building. It was built facing 24th Street. (Photo from National Archives, 1888 Report of the Supervising Architect, Bureau of Engraving and Printing, Treasury Department.)

Up until 1889, all forecasts were made at the Central Office, but at that time the local weather observers were authorised to make local forecasts for weather for the next 24 hours. It was envisioned, if this were successful, authority would also be granted for temperature and other atmospheric conditions.⁷⁴ On June 1, 1889, the official designation of the predictions was changed from “indications” to “forecasts.”⁷⁵

In addition to the “national” weather service operated by the Signal Service, working with it were several state weather services.⁷⁶

By the end of 1891, there were 541 stations in operation, of which 26 were first-order stations making continuous records by means of self-registering instruments, and 117 were second-order stations, making at least two observations daily.⁷⁷

While the Signal Service spun up its meteorological work quite rapidly, and even gained recognition internationally and birthed a scientific journal that exists today,⁷⁸ there was considerable

⁷⁴ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, p. 27.

⁷⁵ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1889, Part 1, Appendix 2, p. 57.

⁷⁶ Hazen, W. B., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1885, p. 11.

⁷⁷ Greely, A. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1891, p. 21.

⁷⁸ Whitnah, op cit, pp. 36-42.

internal and external strife concerning it,⁷⁹ especially after the death of General Meyer. The War Department didn't seem to strongly support the meteorological activities, and at the same time Secretary of Agriculture Jeremiah M. Rusk head of the very new Department of Agriculture wanted the weather responsibility. Gen. Greely did not strongly oppose the loss of the meteorological portion of the Signal Corps, and on December 18, 1889, Senator William B. Bate of Tennessee introduced S. 1454 to increase the efficiency of the Signal Corps by transfer of the weather service to the Department of Agriculture.⁸⁰

Accordingly,⁸¹ the weather service was transferred to the Department of Agriculture by law signed by President Benjamin Harrison on October 1, 1890. This act states:

*“Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that the civilian duties now performed by the Signal Corps of the Army shall hereafter devolve upon a bureau to be known as the Weather Bureau, which, on and after July first, eighteen hundred and ninety-one shall be established in and attached to the Department of Agriculture, and the Signal Corps of the Army shall remain a part of the military establishment under the direction of the Secretary of War... .”*⁸²

“Sec. 3. The Chief of the Weather Bureau, under the direction of th Secretary of Agriculture, on and after July first, eighteen hundred and ninety one, shall be charged with the forecasting of weather, the issue of storm warnings, the display of weather and flood signals for the benefit of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, the gauging and reporting of rivers, the maintenance and operation of sea-coast telegraph lines and the collection and transmission of marine intelligence for the benefit of commerce and navigation, the reporting of temperature and rainfall conditions for the cotton states, the display of frost and cold wave signals, the distribution of meteorological information in the interest of agriculture and commerce, and the taking of such meteorological observations as may be necessary to establish and record the climatic conditions of the Untied states, or as are essential for the proper execution of the foregoing duties.”

As noted later by Weather Bureau Chief Marvin, “This organic act, with interpretations and extensions by subsequent annual appropriations, assigns the Weather Bureau the entire domain of meteorology.”⁸³

It is noted that the Signal Service never considered that it officially had the responsibility of making forecasts, evidently differentiating between “warnings,” for which it did have the responsibility, and “forecasts.” In his annual report for 1890, Gen. Greely states:

⁷⁹ Clayton, H. H., 1889: *The Transfer of the United States Weather Service to a Civil Bureau*. Alfred Mudge and Son, 31 pp.

⁸⁰ Whitnah, *op cit*, pp. 48-60.

⁸¹ Whitnah, *op cit*, p. 60, cites *Statues at Large* 653 (1890).

⁸² Greathouse, C. H., 1907: *Historical Sketch of the U.S. Department of Agriculture*. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, p. 61.

⁸³ Marvin, C. F., *Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1919*, pp. 1, 2.

“The civil duties imposed upon the Honorable Secretary of War by Joint Resolution of February 8, 1870, and which by his orders have devolved upon the Chief Signal Officer of the Army, are yearly growing in extent and importance. Apart from the weather forecasts, which are voluntary, not being provided for by law (underlining by author for emphasis), these duties involve by specific legislation the issuing storm-warnings; the display on the northern lakes, the Gulf, and sea coast of signals for the benefit of maritime interests; the gauging and reporting of rivers for navigation and flood-warnings; the maintenance and operation of sea-coast lines for the benefit of commerce and navigation, and of interior military lines for the use of the Army; the reporting of temperature and rainfall conditions for the cotton interests; the display of freeze warnings in the interest of agriculture, and the notification of advancing cold-waves for the benefit of the general public.”

This ended 21 years of military command of what was only now to be officially called the Weather Bureau. The official observations were taken from a shelter on the Ferguson Building and the wind from a tower east of the building.⁸⁴ Sometime after a new building was built in 1941, the reporting was evidently from a shelter on top of the new building.⁸⁵ The official reporting for Washington was shifted to Bolling Field in 1929, to Washington-Hoover Airport in 1931, and to Washington National Airport in 1941, where the official site remains today.⁸⁶ After the transfer on July 1, 1891, Gen. Greely stated in his last annual report,

“It is a source of gratification to the Chief Signal Officer that his methods of business were such that to this time, more than three months after the transfer, they are continued without modification of any importance. Three officers of the Army remain on duty, and no change has been made in the forecasting force or methods. It is interesting that the first predicting official (Professor Abbe) detailed by the Chief Signal Officer was a civilian, so the first predicting official formally detailed by the Chief of the Weather Bureau was an Army officer, Lieutenant Glassford.”⁸⁷

⁸⁴ Grice, G. K., 2005, op. cit., p. 19, shows a picture of the Ferguson Building with a tower to the left, which would be to the east. Also, Fig. 2 in Appendix II in this document shows the wind tower at the time the new building was under construction.

⁸⁵ Grice, G. K., 2005, op. cit., p. 22, states the “Station location forms for the 1950s and 1960s indicate the location was 100 feet north of the site at 2416 M Street NW.” This was undoubtedly the new building, and the author remembers a “weather station” atop the building.

⁸⁶ Grice, G. K., 2005, op. cit., pp. 2, 23-26.

⁸⁷ Greely, W. W., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1891, p. 34.

The Weather Bureau Under the Department of Agriculture

Finally, the service was officially given the name Weather Bureau. Although the service had been called at times the Weather Bureau, it had not been formally so designated; Professor Mark W. Harrington was appointed its Chief.⁸⁸

During the next 50 years, the Ferguson building was used as the headquarters. It had nearby buildings along 24th Street to the east, and to the south and west. Legend had it that these buildings were the stables⁸⁹ of the Mexican (or Spanish) Embassy,⁹⁰ but that is false. It is clear that the building along 24th street was built at the time of the move; it is likely the buildings to the south and west were also built at that time or not long thereafter. As can be seen in the picture below, there was a beautiful lawn between the building and M Street.

As the Bureau got underway, Chief Harrington followed the practice of the previous administration and issued detailed reports, the first being a special report on October 1, 1891, and another covering the first 6 months July to December 1891. In his first semiannual report, he writes:

“Our first care, on the transfer, was to improve the forecasts and their distribution in every possible way. The time covered by the forecasts

has been lengthened to thirty-six hours, and the forecasters have been encouraged to make their predictions still longer whenever they see a fair prospect of verification.”⁹¹



Another view of the Ferguson Building showing a building on the west, similar to that on the east and south (not visible).

⁸⁸ Whitnah, op cit, p. 61.

⁸⁹ Glahn, H. R., 1993: Remarks preceding the SCI/IMSC Outstanding Achievement Award to Glenn Brier, *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, 74, p. 1723. This was the going belief when the author entered the Weather Bureau in 1958 and worked in “the Old Annex.”

⁹⁰ The picture caption of the Ferguson building in the *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1961, reads, “The old Central Office building was acquired by the Signal Corps in 1888 and is still in use today. The interior decorations indicate that the building may have been intended for use as a Central American embassy.” Evidently the Weather Bureau paid as little attention to its history then as it does today.

⁹¹ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1891, p. 540.

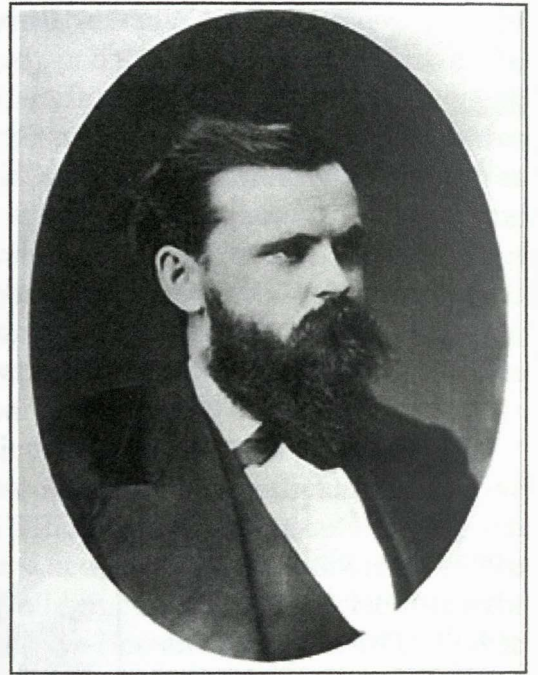
Under civilian leadership, the meteorological enterprise continued to grow. By 1891, there were 41 weather services representing every state and territory in the United States with the exception of Idaho and the Indian Territory.⁹² Harrington stated that “New York can properly lay claim to establishing the pioneer state weather service” in 1826.⁹³ By 1892, the entire territory of the United States, with the exception of Alaska, was covered by local weather services.⁹⁴

In 1891, a satisfactory method of printing daily maps in newspapers was developed and implemented in several cities.⁹⁵ Maps made from observations at 8 o’clock were issued only 2 ½ hours later in a number of large cities.⁹⁶ The National Weather Crop Bulletin, always a much demanded product, continued to be improved and by 1893 was publically displayed in 130 cities. Decentralization of forecasts that started in 1889 continued; the river and flood service was reorganized by putting the forecasting of river stages and changes in the hands of experienced observers.⁹⁷

It was important to the agency that “In January 1893, the entire force of local forecast officials and observers was brought within the classified service, ... and since that date all appointments to such force have been made through the Civil Service Commission.”⁹⁸ The Civil Service Act had come into being through the so called “Pendleton Act” on January 16, 1883.⁹⁹

It had been maintained by the Signal Corps that a military organization was needed for discipline for such a far flung organization. However, Chief Harrington writes in 1893:

“Experience has demonstrated that military management and discipline are not essential to an efficient weather service, and it is gratifying to report that the present civilian management has found no difficulty in maintaining the necessary stations at the most isolated points.”¹⁰⁰



Professor Mark W. Harrington, the first Chief of the Weather Bureau. He served from 1891 to 1895.

⁹² Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1891, p. 554.

⁹³ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1891, p. 568.

⁹⁴ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1892, p. 573.

⁹⁵ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1891, p. 544.

⁹⁶ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1891, p. 549.

⁹⁷ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1893, pp. 102, 106.

⁹⁸ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1893, p. 89.

⁹⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1956, p. 21.

¹⁰⁰ Harrington, M. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1893, p. 91.

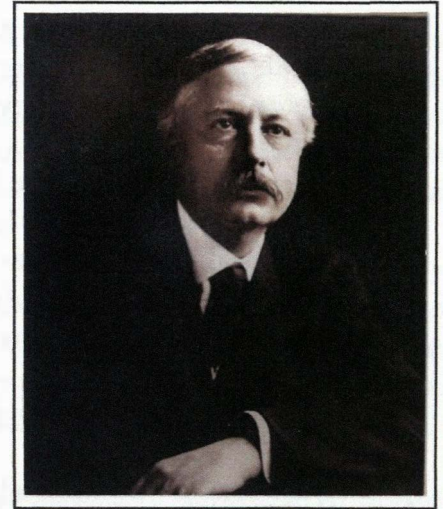
Under Willis Moore, who became Chief of the Weather Bureau in 1895, 410 voluntary meteorological stations were established, the total number now being over 8,100.¹⁰¹ That same year, a new hurricane signal was established,¹⁰² and by 1896 signals were being displayed at 308 stations and by 32 government vessels and 30 lines of steamers.¹⁰³ River and flood forecasts were continued, but the rules of flood forecasting were largely empirical.¹⁰⁴ Chief Moore observed in 1897:

“The greatest field of usefulness of the Service lies, as has been observed in previous reports, in forecasting the severe storms that at times visit our shores and the marked cold waves that occasionally sweep from the Rocky Mountains eastward, rather than the ordinary changes in temperature, wind and weather.”¹⁰⁵

It was also clear that measurements in the upper atmosphere were needed, and experiments with kites were ongoing. Chief Moore stated:

“The objective of perfecting an apparatus for more successfully flying kites is to secure meteorological observations at great attitudes above the surface of the earth... I do not hesitate to express the opinion that we have reached the highest degree of accuracy in making of forecasts and storm warnings possible to be obtained with surface readings only.”¹⁰⁶

On March 1, 1899, the night forecast was extended from 36 to 48 hours, following a 2-year study that indicated the practicality and usefulness of doing so.¹⁰⁷ New dissemination methods included the construction of steel towers for the display of storm warnings;¹⁰⁸ by 2001, 60 had been erected and equipped with improved lanterns,¹⁰⁹ and by 1904, 149 had been installed along the Great Lakes and Atlantic and Pacific seacoasts.¹¹⁰ By 1903, about 25,000 11 by 16-inch maps were being issued 6 days a week, about half by a chalk-plate process, and the others by the less desirable milliograph, or wax-stencil, process.¹¹¹ The chalk-plate process was not phased out until 1946.¹¹²



Professor Willis L. Moore, Chief of the Weather Bureau from 1895 to 1913.

¹⁰¹ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1895, p. 79.

¹⁰² Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1895, p. 69.

¹⁰³ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1896, p. 248.

¹⁰⁴ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1896, p. 248

¹⁰⁵ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1897, p. 9.

¹⁰⁶ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1897, p. 26.

¹⁰⁷ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1898-1899, p. 3.

¹⁰⁸ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1899-1900, p. 13.

¹⁰⁹ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1900-1901, p. 13.

¹¹⁰ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1903-1904, p. XXXIII.

¹¹¹ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1902-1903, p. XII.

¹¹² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 59-46, 1946: Chalk plate Supplies and Equipment.

Research was not being neglected. An observatory was established at Mount Weather on the crest of the Blue Ridge Mountains and appropriately named “The Mount Weather Research Observatory.”¹¹³ In 2003, even before the observatory, the elasticity of thin balloons and the sluggishness of thermographs in the rapidly changing conditions of ascension were being studied. The library had grown to over 24,000 books and 4,000 pamphlets with a complete author card index and partial subject index.¹¹⁴ Long range forecasts were being contemplated, but “...that time has not yet arrived.” Moore goes on in his annual report to state, “The proof of a forecast is in its verification... The success of a long-range weather forecaster is usually measured by the extent to which he can impose upon the credulous and the ignorant.”¹¹⁵

An important increase in responsibility occurred in 1904. Chief Moore stated,

“Pursuant to recommendations in the report of the Interdepartmental Board on Wireless Telegraphy, dated July 12, 1904, and approved by the President July 29, 1904, the control of meteorological work on the oceans has been transferred from the Hydrographic Office, Navy Department, to the Department of Agriculture, and all meteorological work, heretofore done by the Navy Department for the purpose of publication or for making forecasts of storm warnings, has been assigned to the Weather Bureau of the Department of Agriculture.”¹¹⁶

Devices for measuring the stage of rivers had not come into use because a “suitable form of apparatus at reasonable cost was not on the market” and because of the considerable expense of installation. However, by 1906, one designed by the Weather Bureau had been installed at one location and another location planned.¹¹⁷

The San Francisco earthquake of 1906 caused renewed interest in seismic reports. A simple instrument had been installed in Washington D.C. as early as 1886 that “was able to show, by stopping a clock, only the beginning of slight disturbances.” Better instruments had been devised and one had been installed in Washington in 1903, the only such instrument operated by the Weather Bureau at the time of the San Francisco earthquake. Its recording of the San Francisco earthquake was so violent that the “pen was carried off the sheet” for about 3 minutes, even though no one in Washington was able to feel the earthquake, attesting to the sensitivity of such instruments.¹¹⁸ Other violent earthquakes the following year prompted Chief Moore to recommend “the Weather Bureau be authorized to inaugurate and maintain systematic seismological observations within the United States and its territories.”¹¹⁹

The importance of the atmosphere above the earth’s surface had been recognized for some time. The Mount Weather Observatory was beginning to make observations by kite and obtain vertical

¹¹³ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1902-1903, p. XVII; 1903-1904, p. XVII; 1904-1905, pp. X-XII.

¹¹⁴ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1902-1903, pp. XXX, XXXII.

¹¹⁵ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1903-1904, pp. XIII, XIV.

¹¹⁶ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1904-1905, Part I, p. XIX.

¹¹⁷ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1905-1906, Part I, p. XVII.

¹¹⁸ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1905-1906, Part I, p. XVII.

¹¹⁹ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1906-1907, Part I, p. XIII.

gradients of temperature and wind direction to several thousand feet. On October 3, 1907, the world's record for such observations was broken—an altitude of 23,111 ft. was reached. The results of such measurements were influencing the forecasts for Washington D.C.¹²⁰ Moore states “For instance, it has been found that the average wind direction at Mount Weather at about 10,000 feet above sea level is northwest, and that shifts of wind to west and southwest usually forerun by about two days the beginning of rain on the middle Atlantic seaboard.”¹²¹

The administration building at Mount Weather was destroyed by fire in October 1907. The eight persons sleeping there barely escaped with their lives; two were seriously injured. In addition to administration, the building had also been used as an ordinary observing station.¹²² The main observation building was rebuilt and the first observation was made on February 18, 1910.¹²³

While kite flights were started in 1897, and it was contemplated that the 17 stations so equipped would provide data for daily synoptic charts, owing to difficulties of insufficient wind on many days, the synoptic charts were abandoned. Also, kites and captive balloons furnished data to only about 10,000 ft. So, following work in Europe, “sounding balloons” began to be used in 1909. The small balloons were filled with hydrogen gas, and when they burst at a high altitude, possibly 40,000 ft., a parachute brought the instrument safely to the ground. The recovery rate of the balloons initially was about 90%, and provided data for research and publication, but not for real-time maps.¹²⁴

In 1908 and 1909, kiosks were being placed in 21 cities. The kiosk consisted “... of an ornamental iron structure devised for installation on public thoroughfares or in parks for the purpose of exhibiting meteorological charts and bulletins and for maintaining certain meteorological instruments showing the temperature, humidity, rainfall, etc.”¹²⁵

In 1910, Chief Moore included the following in his report, “... forecasts for a week or 10 days in advance have been issued from time to time when certain well-defined weather types were shown by reports from selected stations throughout the Northern Hemisphere.” At that time, about 200 Bureau stations were fully equipped with recording instruments; 3,000 cooperative observers were supplied with maximum and minimum thermometers, rain gages, and instrument shelters; and about 150 stations had steel towers and high-power oil or electric lanterns for the display of storm warnings.¹²⁶

In 1911, a new Division of Observations and Reports was formed. The forecasts were being made at centers in six districts—Washington, D.C.; Chicago; Denver; Portland, Oregon; San Francisco; and New Orleans. By the next year, the forecasts were distributed to 2,059 regular

¹²⁰ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1906-1907, Part I, pp. VII, VIII. There is evidently a mistake in this report, as it states the observations were being made by aeroplanes (paragraph 2, p. VII) and is repeated in the 1907 report (paragraph 2, p. 5).

¹²¹ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1908-1909, Part I, p. 11.

¹²² Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1906-07, p. XI; 1908, p. 3. (For some years, there appears to be two reports, likely one was for inclusion in the Department of Agriculture report.)

¹²³ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1909-1910, p. 9.

¹²⁴ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1909-1910, Part I, pp. 9, 10.

¹²⁵ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1908-1909, Part I, p. 21.

¹²⁶ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1909-1910, Part I, pp. 15, 19.

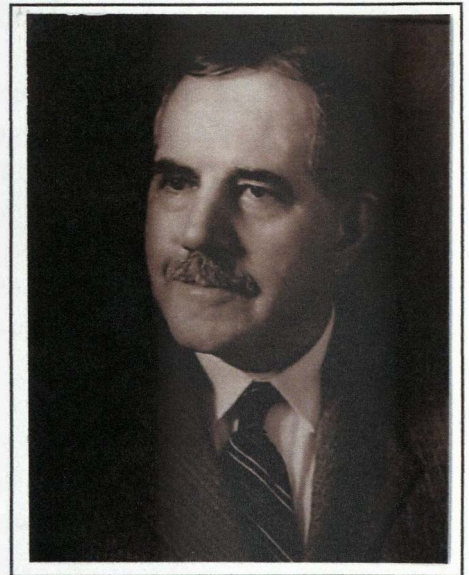
Weather Bureau stations and forecast distribution centers, from which points the forecasts were made available by telegraph and telephone to over 5.4 million subscribers and others, and by rural free delivery and mail to over 120,000 places.¹²⁷

In 1912, the Weather Bureau initiated a vessel weather service on the Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts. Vessels were equipped with aneroid barometers and were to take two observations daily and radiograph them to the nearest wireless station. Forecasts were distributed to the vessels at sea.¹²⁸ Also, numerous stations were established in orchards in North Carolina, Colorado, Utah, California, and Oregon with the object of correlating climatic phenomena and topographic conditions to frosts.¹²⁹

Chief Moore retired, and Charles F. Marvin became chief on August 4, 1913.¹³⁰ Interestingly, in the 1913 report, the first one signed by Professor Marvin, the lead item was not research at Mount Weather, departing from a practice followed by Moore since 1907. The use of Mount Weather declined, and in 1919 Congress was asked for permission to sell the property.¹³¹

In 1915, a previous publication that listed monthly personnel changes was expanded in scope and issued as *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*.¹³² These are a storehouse of Weather Bureau events, in addition to the Chief's annual reports, and extend beyond the years of the annual reports. In 1939, the section on personnel assignments, promotions, resignations, etc., was dropped, and in 1948, the title was shortened to *Weather Bureau Topics*.¹³³

It had been recognized that evaporation measurements would be very useful. However, such measurements were difficult. Even so, the Weather Bureau adopted a standard type of apparatus and inaugurated measurements of evaporation in 1915, and by the next year, eight stations had been so equipped.¹³⁴ Measuring the stages of rivers was done with either vertical staff gages, sloping gages of concrete, or chain and weight gages.¹³⁵ In 1916, a division of Agricultural Meteorology was formed, and several seemingly new developments or services related to agriculture were started. These included corn and wheat region service, cotton region service, sugar and rice region service, special fruit region service, special tobacco service, special cattle region service,



Professor Charles R. Marvin served as Chief of the Weather Bureau from 1913 until 1934.

¹²⁷ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1910-1911, Part I, p. 21 and for 1911-1912, Part I, p. 21.

¹²⁸ Moore, W. L., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1911-1912, Part I, pp. 25, 26.

¹²⁹ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1913, p. 1.

¹³⁰ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1913, p. 1.

¹³¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, November 1919, p. 4.

¹³² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, July 1915, p. 1.

¹³³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1958, p. 3.

¹³⁴ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1915, p. 6 and for 1916, p. 5.

¹³⁵ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1915, p. 11.

special alfalfa service, special temperature and storm warnings for sheepmen, special fruit studies, and weather and crop studies, the latter being in progress by the Chief of the Weather Bureau in his previous position. The ever popular Weather and Crop Bulletin was now under this division.¹³⁶

World War I brought changes to the Weather Bureau. As Chief Marvin stated, “Never in the history of conflicts of the world has the weather proved such a potent factor in the war that is now in progress in Europe. This is largely due to the use of aeroplanes, dirigibles, and captive balloons, to the highly perfected and powerful artillery, and to the modern methods of warfare first brought into practice in this conflict.” Close cooperation with the military was necessary. The Weather Bureau’s work initially expanded into two main areas: “(1) the forecasting of the weather purely for the purpose of military operations, and (2) the sounding of the upper air for the benefit of aviators, balloonists, and artillerymen.” The Signal Corps cooperated with the Weather Bureau, and a forecaster was commissioned as a major in the Signal Officers Reserve Corps for each of (1) and (2) above. The Signal Corps was independently operating free air observation stations.¹³⁷

The climatological and agricultural interests also continued to expand with a new climatological service in Alaska; cranberry warning service; artificial protection of orchards, gardens, etc., from frost; potato frost warning service; and rice harvest forecasts.¹³⁸

Daylight savings time caused extra work in 1918 by the Bureau having to maintain records at standard time, and also to issue forecasts according to the new time, but as Chief Marvin stated, “The daylight saving scheme has doubtless come to stay... .”¹³⁹ Prophetic words come true. On December 1, 1918, the Weather Bureau, in cooperation with the Signal Corps, inaugurated a service of flying forecasts. At the close of the war, the Weather Bureau had over 200 fully equipped meteorological stations, 1,400 substations (special observing stations), and 4,500 cooperative stations for climatological work. It consisted of 800 commissioned employees, about 1,400 who received a small compensation, and nearly 6,000 who served gratuitously.¹⁴⁰

At that time, 1919, the stable of forecasts and warnings consisted of day-to-day forecasts 36 to 48 hours in advance of weather, temperature, and wind; weekly forecasts issued once a week; local forecasts; shippers’ forecasts; special forecasts as the occasion required; day-to-day forecasts along the trans-Atlantic steamship lanes; day-to day forecasts transmitted to vessels at sea through naval radio; aviation forecasts each day for the Post Office and U.S. Army and Naval Air Services; and warnings as needed. A new “Highways Weather Service” was also started.¹⁴¹

Investigations in volcanology were formally started February 15, 1919, focusing first at “Kilauea Volcano on Hawaii Island of the Hawaiian group.”¹⁴²

¹³⁶ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1916, pp. 9-13.

¹³⁷ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1917, pp. 1-2.

¹³⁸ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1917, pp. 7, 16-19.

¹³⁹ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1918, pp. 1-2.

¹⁴⁰ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1919, pp. 2, 3.

¹⁴¹ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1919, pp. 4, 5, 8.

¹⁴² Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1919, pp. 11, 12.

Forest fire forecasts were provided for in a new \$15,000 item: "For the establishment and maintenance of special stations in national forests and elsewhere... ." Also, Congress approved 36 Stat. L., p. 508, on June 17, 1919, for the extension of marine work.¹⁴³

"For the extension of marine meteorological work, the collection of weather and water temperature reports at sea, the preparation of charts, the determining of fog zones, the distribution of marine meteorological information in the aid of navigation and ... for furnishing of meteorological information to the Hydrographic Office of the Navy Department... ."

The Weather Bureau created a Marine Division in 1920.¹⁴⁴ A new enterprise of weather and rain insurance imposed obligations on the Weather Bureau to supply data and facts to support the enterprise.¹⁴⁵ Fire weather forecasts were issued on a part time basis as early as 1921, and special appropriations made extension possible in 1926.^{146,147} The service was still recovering from the disruption of the war, and the vessel weather service had been gradually restored, and was operating "on a higher plane of efficiency than ever before." Nearly 100 vessels were participating. However, weather maps that had been discontinued could not be resumed because of lack of funds.¹⁴⁸

Radio was recognized as a potential medium for the dissemination of weather forecasts as early as 1921,¹⁴⁹ and within a year, gratifying reports were being received as to the success and efficiency of the distribution by radio.¹⁵⁰ Radiographic distribution of forecasts had already been employed to some extent, especially to ships at sea. On June 1, 1921, an extensive morning bulletin began to be broadcast from Arlington, Virginia, with a range of about 1000 miles. This was designed especially to meet the needs of marine and aviation interests, and covered the area east of the Mississippi River.¹⁵¹

Also in 1921, 100 nephoscopes were installed at selected stations, with the intent of establishing a regular program for nephoscopic observations of clouds.¹⁵²

The activities aiding aviation materially increased in 1922. Daily forecasts covering 13 zones into which the country was divided were issued regularly and furnished to Army, Navy, and Post Office officials and to the flying fields. Radiographic distribution of forecasts increased dramatically, and on July 1, 1922, 98 stations in 35 states were daily broadcasting weather forecasts and warnings, even though the Weather Bureau did not own or operate any wireless equipment. The

¹⁴³ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, November 1919, p. 3.

¹⁴⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, March 1920, p. 22.

¹⁴⁵ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1920, p. 2.

¹⁴⁶ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1921, p. 6.

¹⁴⁷ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1926, p. 3.

¹⁴⁸ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1921, p. 6.

¹⁴⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, May 1921, p. 49.

¹⁵⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, September 1922, p. 266.

¹⁵¹ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1921, pp. 7, 8.

¹⁵² Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1921, p. 20.

radio distribution work was accomplished through plants operated by other Government agencies, by corporations, and by private individuals.¹⁵³

By 1923, the Hawaiian forecast service, in operation since 1918, was greatly improved through the cooperation of the Navy Department. Also, reports were being received with some degree of regularity from 11 stations in Alaska. These were very useful for forecasting purposes on the West Coast.¹⁵⁴

In 1924, dust particles were being counted at Washington D.C. It was noted that the number per cubic centimeter ranged from 15 on clear mornings following precipitation, to as many as 3,000 at other times.¹⁵⁵ A special service to beekeepers, in effect for some years, was increased at the request of the Honey Producers League. Transcontinental air-mail service was extended across the continent in the early summer of 1924, including night flying, and forecasts were extended to support this service. That year, for purposes of governmental efficiency, the volcanology studies at Kilauea were transferred to the Geological Survey of the Interior Department.¹⁵⁶

In 1926, the Weather Bureau began to seriously to adopt relatively new concepts of forecasting developed in Europe. The following is quoted from the *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*:

“A method of treating and discussing cyclones and anti-cyclones mathematically and on hydrodynamical principles, based on the so-called polar front theory, was developed some time ago at the Meteorological Institute at Bergen, Norway, under the direction of Dr. V. F. K. Bjerknes. The Scandinavian meteorological services have applied this theory intensively, in fact almost exclusively, to the day to day weather forecasting. While many of the essentials of this system have been used by the Weather Bureau forecasters in this country, they have never used it exclusively. In order to become more familiar with the intensive application of such methods, Mr. Carl-Gustaf Arvid Rossby, who is one of the official forecasters at Stockholm, has been employed temporarily in the capacity of research associate. He will assist the forecasters, and others interested, in applying the Bjerknes method to the conditions in this country.”¹⁵⁷

Mr. Rossby stayed in this assignment until December 17, 1927.¹⁵⁸

In 1928, instructions were issued that all first-order stations would keep exposed a rain trace catcher, or slip of paper ruled in copying ink, as an aid to existing methods of determining the occurrence of small quantities of rain. Evidently of limited use, the instructions were modified a few months later to permit discontinuance at the discretion of the official in charge because of “difficulty

¹⁵³ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1922, pp. 10-12.

¹⁵⁴ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1923, p. 6.

¹⁵⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, January 1923, p. 287.

¹⁵⁶ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1924, pp. 5, 6, 16, 17.

¹⁵⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, July 1926, p. 135.

¹⁵⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, December 1927, p. 265.

in distinguishing rain from dew, fog, etc.” Later, there was some use of smoked glass for the same purpose.¹⁵⁹

Continuous 24-h service to airlines started in 1928, and by 1930, such service was being rendered at 50 of the more important terminals.^{160,161}

The Weather Bureau throughout its history made efforts to increase the length of its forecasts. By 1919, it had initiated weekly outlooks, and later investigated making even longer range forecasts. As stated in 1931, “... no sufficiently conclusive scientific basis has been found on which to make successful forecasts for longer periods.” In coming to that conclusion, three methods were investigated: “(1) the direct physical process of cause-and-effect relationship between known physical causes and attendant weather conditions, (2) the so-called periodicities or cyclical recurrences of weather phenomena ... (and) (3) the mathematical correlations between the present weather in one locality and either past weather in the same locality or the past weather in some other locality.”¹⁶²

Kite observations had over the years yielded results of genuine importance, but flights could not be made when the wind was very light or very strong. Accordingly, the 6 kite stations were phased out and replaced with airplane observations starting in 1931 at Chicago, Cleveland, Dallas, and Omaha,¹⁶³ with only one kite station remaining until 1933. By 1933, aircraft flights were being made reliably to 15,000 ft.¹⁶⁴ By 1935 the number of upper air observations made by airplanes had increased to 25.¹⁶⁵ In addition, pilot balloon observations were maintained at 75 stations, including three in Alaska and one in Puerto Rico.¹⁶⁶ A pilot balloon is a small balloon whose ascent is followed by a theodolite in order to obtain data for the computation of winds aloft.

Service to aviation had become such an important activity, that Chief Marvin felt he should enumerate the other important activities of the Weather Bureau: Primary network of stations, twice-daily public forecasts of all kinds, river gaging and flood warnings, hurricane warnings and storms on the Great Lakes, secondary network of stations, network of climatic stations, weekly bulletins of crop-weather conditions, frost warnings for horticulture, shippers forecasts, cattle and stock-raising service, solar-radiation investigations, as well as aid to air navigation.¹⁶⁷

Marvin left his position, and Willis R. Greg was appointed as Chief effective January 31, 1934.¹⁶⁸

¹⁵⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, September 1928, p. 353; January 1929, pp. 394-395, March 1929, p. 411.

¹⁶⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, March 1928, p. 291.

¹⁶¹ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1930, p. 8.

¹⁶² Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1931, p. 4.

¹⁶³ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, June 1931, p. 167.

¹⁶⁴ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1933, p. 6.

¹⁶⁵ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1935, Part 1, p. 8.

¹⁶⁶ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1934, Part 1, p. 2.

¹⁶⁷ Marvin, C. F., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1933, Part 1, pp. 1, 2.

¹⁶⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, January 1934, p. 1.

Evidently the Scandinavian methods had not been rapidly adopted. A Science Advisory Board had been created by the President on July 31, 1933, “...for the purpose of cooperating with the Federal Government in the handling of all problems in which science is involved.” A report was published and was approved in January 1934. According to Chief Gregg in his first annual report:

“The most important recommendation is that relating to the development of forecasting on the basis of what is known as ‘air-mass analysis.’ Briefly stated, air-mas analysis consists of a detailed study of masses of air of decidedly different structure as to temperature, moisture, and wind that meet along an irregular line variously referred to as a ‘discontinuity line,’ ‘polar front,’ ‘wind shift,’ etc. These masses of air, cold and dry from polar regions, warm and humid from equatorial, do not readily mix but tend to preserve their individual identities, the warm, moist air being forced to rise above and flow over the denser cold air, with resulting condensation and precipitation and other attendant phenomena which give us most of the stormy weather characteristic of temperature latitudes.”¹⁶⁹

The next year, Chief Gregg reported the turmoil from changing from one method of forecasting where the weather maps consisted of “isobars..., isotherms..., and symbols for cloudiness, wind direction and velocity ...” to one where “a synoptic map giving boundaries, or fronts, of the different masses of air over a given large territory, together with the states and conditions of these masses, and the directions and speeds of their movements” was used. Gregg goes on, “It is not obvious ... from which of the two synoptic maps ... one could most clearly foresee the coming weather. Presumably some combination of the two ... would be better than is either alone.” A satisfactory solution had been reached by 1941 and adopted.¹⁷⁰



Dr. Willis R. Gregg served as Chief of the Weather Bureau from 1934 until 1938.

The hurricane warning service was reorganized in 1935 to include three new centers— Jacksonville, Florida; New Orleans, Louisiana; and San Juan, Puerto Rico (planned). A new teletype circuit was inaugurated on July 1, 1935, to connect these centers and 10 coastal stations. Forecasts were then issued by these centers as well as from Washington D.C.¹⁷¹

By 1937, a project supported by the Works Progress Administration (WPA) was nearly completed at New Orleans whereby 5 million observations taken on ships during the years 1880 to 1933 were being put onto cards which were “to be preserved in filing cabinets so as to afford ready reference to weather records, by months, for any part of the oceans.”¹⁷² By 1939, all upper air records were put onto punch cards, and arrangements were made whereby all future observations of this nature would be so recorded by the Weather Bureau.¹⁷³

¹⁶⁹ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1934, Part I, pp. 1, 2.

¹⁷⁰ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1941, p. 142.

¹⁷¹ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1935, Part I, pp. 9, 10.

¹⁷² Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1937, p. 9.

¹⁷³ Reichelderfer F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1939, p. 5.

In 1938, Chief Gregg quoted a portion of the Civil Aeronautic Act, approved June 23, 1938:

“Sec. 803. ...the Chief of the Weather Bureau... (4) detail annually not to exceed ten members of the Weather Bureau personnel for training at Government expense, either at civilian institutions or otherwise, in advanced methods of meteorological science... .”

Chief Gregg then states that plans were being worked out to put this legislation into effect. This was the beginning of a program that would last for many years whereby employees were given fellowships of one or more years at a university to study meteorology or related topics.¹⁷⁴

Research conducted in the past few years at the National Bureau of Standards had yielded a “generally satisfactory” radiometeorograph, as shown by comparison with airplane observations, and plans were made to use these at six stations beginning July 1, 1938. By 1939, these were being called radiosondes with the definition: “a radiosonde is a radiometeorograph, an instrument which is sent aloft by a small balloon and which transmits a radio signal indicating pressure, temperature, and humidities in the upper air.”¹⁷⁵ For 1940, it was planned that airplane observations would be discontinued, and radiosondes would be used at 34 stations, 28 operated by the Weather Bureau and the rest by the Army and Navy.¹⁷⁶ Action was taken to increase the pilot balloon observations to four per day, and generally with larger 100-gram balloons. Helium instead of hydrogen was being investigated to eliminate explosions. In addition, the River and Flood Service was reorganized and expanded in three main directions: “(1) Refinement of the observation and reporting system of effective rainfall in upstream basins of major drainage areas; (2) analysis of rainfall and storm data for use by the Army in the design of flood-control works; and (3) expansion of the mountain-snowfall service in the West.”¹⁷⁷

Dr. Gregg died in office on September 14, 1938.^{178,179} He was replaced on December 15, 1938, in an acting capacity by Commander Francis W. Reichelderfer, who was on detail from the Navy.¹⁸⁰ This appointment became permanent on January 2, 1939.^{181,182} An honorary degree of doctor of science was conferred upon Reichelderfer by his alma mater Northwestern University on June 10, 1939.¹⁸³

¹⁷⁴ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1938, p. 2. The author was the recipient of such a fellowship to the Pennsylvania State University for the 1961-62 academic term. Many recipients earned MS or Ph.D. degrees. The practice was gradually replaced with shorter or more directed study programs for forecasters, and finally was discontinued.

¹⁷⁵ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1939, p. 3.

¹⁷⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, June 1939, p. 231.

¹⁷⁷ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1938, pp. 9, 11.

¹⁷⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, August 1938, p. 81.

¹⁷⁹ Little, D. M., 1945: Obituary. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **26**, p. 241.

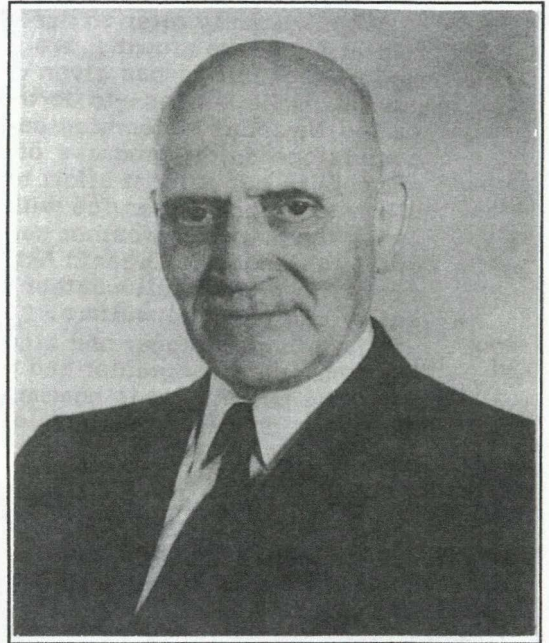
¹⁸⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, November 1938, p. 123.

¹⁸¹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1939, p. 1. This reference lists Gregg's death as September 15, which is incorrect according to other references.

¹⁸² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, February 1939, p. 165.

¹⁸³ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, May 1939, p. 207.

In 1939, pilot balloon observations were inaugurated at 23 additional stations, including Anchorage, Alaska, bringing the total number to 102. The use of larger (100-gram) balloons, capable of ascending to 20 km. or more, was adopted at 23 additional stations. Helium was substituted for hydrogen in the inflation of balloons at about one-third of the stations. Because the use of helium completely eliminates the explosion hazard, arrangements were made to extend the use of helium to nearly all balloon stations during the fiscal year 1940.¹⁸⁴ Evidently a pilot balloon sent aloft with a lantern or lighted candle posed a fire hazard, and the California State Legislature made it a misdemeanor to do so. Accordingly, instructions were issued to use electric lighting units instead.¹⁸⁵



Dr. Francis W. Reichelderfer served as Chief of the Weather Bureau from 1939 until 1963, the longest of any Weather Bureau Chief.

With the assistance of the WPA, all upper-air wind records, involving about one million observations, were reduced to punch cards in 1939, and arrangements were made whereby all future observations of that nature would be so recorded by the Weather Bureau. At this point in time, there were 720 locations in the continental U.S. at which observations were made for, or utilized in, the airway meteorological service.¹⁸⁶

On April 8, 1939, the first automatic weather forecast service in the country was inaugurated in New York by the New York Telephone Company. This was a huge success. Designed to handle 30,000 calls a day, the capacity had to be increased to 100,000 within the first few days.¹⁸⁷

¹⁸⁴ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1939, p. 4.

¹⁸⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, August 1939, p. 242, 243.

¹⁸⁶ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1939, p. 5.

¹⁸⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 34-40*, August 15, 1940.

The Weather Bureau Under the Department of Commerce

On June 30, 1940, the Weather Bureau was transferred to the Department of Commerce (DoC) under President Franklin D. Roosevelt's Reorganization Plan No. IV which was approved June 4, 1940. In the transmittal message, the President stated:

“The importance of the Weather Bureau's functions to the Nations's commerce has also led to the decision to transfer this Bureau to the Department of Commerce. The development of the aviation industry has imposed upon the Weather Bureau a major responsibility in the field of air transportation. The transfer to the Department of Commerce, as provided in this plan, will permit better coordination of Government activities relating to aviation and to commerce in general, without in any way lessening the Bureau's contribution to agriculture.”¹⁸⁸

Chief Reichelderfer stated that fiscal year 1940 saw greater development than any other similar period for many years. Improvements included the establishment of 30 new airport stations at major terminals which rendered 24-hour service, took four pilot balloon observations, and prepared four weather maps per day. Two Coast Guard cutters were stationed between New York and the Azores for making daily weather observations and to replace to some extent the daily reports from merchant vessels which had been greatly curtailed since the outbreak of war in Europe.¹⁸⁹ The observations were made by Weather Bureau personnel.¹⁹⁰ To take care of the thousands of telephone requests for weather information, telephone companies installed voice-recording equipment in several cities which repeated the Weather Bureau forecast once every 30 seconds.¹⁹¹

About 53 years after the Weather Service occupied the Ferguson Building and 1 year after it was transferred to the Department of Commerce, it was moving its primary administrative function into a new building built to the north along M Street. It was intended that a “left wing” would be built to match the right wing, providing a symmetrical building. However, this was never done, and the Ferguson Building and the “old annex” were still being used until the Bureau relocated to Silver Spring, Maryland,¹⁹² (see Appendix II) in 1966.¹⁹³ Observations were taken from the new site starting March 5, 1942.¹⁹⁴ Even so, the M Street complex was soon bursting at its seams.¹⁹⁵ Some portions of the Weather Bureau were located outside the 2400 M Street complex; in 1951, the Division of Climatological and Hydrologic Services was located a block from the Administration Building.¹⁹⁶ The sixth floor of the right wing was not added until 1961.¹⁹⁷

¹⁸⁸ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1940, pp. 1, 4, 5.

¹⁸⁹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1940, pp. 1, 6, 7.

¹⁹⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1949, p. 467.

¹⁹¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, January 1940, p. 279.

¹⁹² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, July 1941, pp. 486-488.

¹⁹³ *ESSA News*, 2, February 21 1966.

¹⁹⁴ Grice, op. cit., p. 9.

¹⁹⁵ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1946, pp. 224, 225.

¹⁹⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1951, p. 60.

¹⁹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1961, Topigrams; May 1961, p. 78, picture caption.

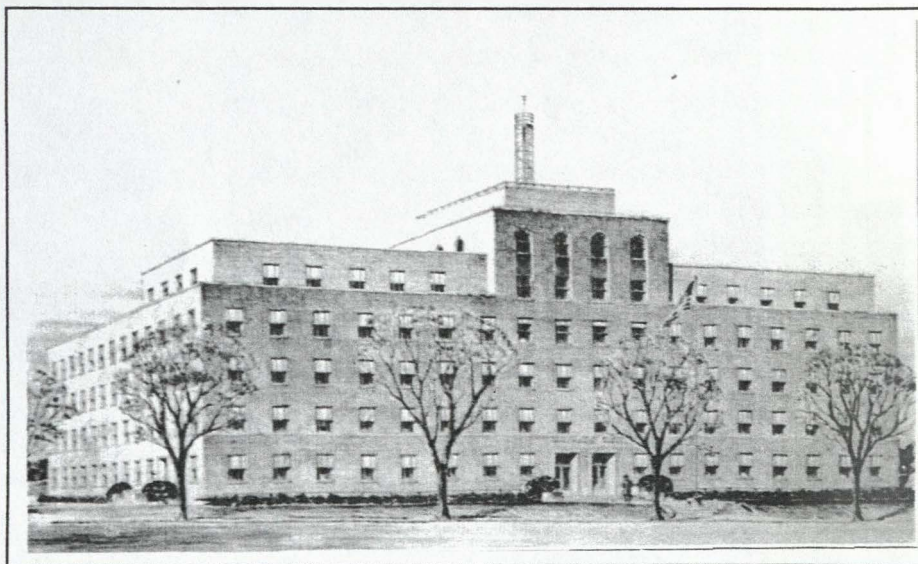


The building at 2400 M Street that was the home of Weather Bureau Headquarters from 1941 until it moved to Silver Spring, Maryland, in 1966. It was built in front of the Ferguson Building that was used as the headquarters for approximately 53 years. The Ferguson Building still existed and was also used, along with the “Old Annex.” The top, sixth, floor to the right was not added until 1961.

On August 19, 1940, Chief Reichelderfer signed a *Circular Letter* declaring that all communications given wide distribution would be named “*Circular Letters*.” These *Letters* contained announcements of events of general information to Bureau personnel. Distribution was to be made to each station. “*Multiple Address Letters*” were given more limited distribution.¹⁹⁸ From this date on, a file was kept of the *Letters*, and they are available from the NOAA Library.

The Weather Bureau was gearing up for national defense, a first step being the formation of the Defense Meteorological Committee, representing the Army, Navy, Civil Aeronautics Administration (CAA), and the Weather Bureau. The number of radiosonde measurements at the 30 sites was doubled and four sites were added. At 25 sites, surface observations were stepped up from four per day to eight, and a new teletype circuit, Schedule C, augmented Schedule A. Forecasts were released earlier, being based on the 1:30 a.m. observations rather than the 7:30 ones. Five day forecasts were increased from weekly to twice per week.¹⁹⁹ Schedule C was to carry forecasts, 3- and 6-hourly observations, ship reports, pilot balloon and radiosonde observations, and other reports required for map purposes.²⁰⁰

The annual reports of the Bureau Chief were somewhat curtailed during the war because they were classified as secret. By Executive Order, the Weather Bureau and the War and Navy Departments were placed in a closer working relationship. The Chief of the Bureau was to serve as the liaison officer between the Departments.²⁰¹



Sketch of the new headquarters building that had been planned, but was never completed past the central part and right wing. The left wing would have probably extended to 24th street, and is shown replacing the old annex. (Picture taken from July 1941 *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*.)

The forecasting operation was decentralized by creating seven field regions to provide closer contact with the field service. While there had been centers in the field that had provided regionalized forecasts, this was an administrative change. The Regional Directors were to be, in effect, parts of the Central Office with residence in the field. The seven regions were given numbers with headquarters in (1) New York, New York; (2) Atlanta, Georgia; (3) Chicago, Illinois;

¹⁹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 35-40, 1940: *Circular Letters* and *Multiple Address Letters*; 65-50, 1950: Material Contained in *Circular Letters*, *Multiple Address Letters*, and Memoranda.

¹⁹⁹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1941, pp. 137-145.

²⁰⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 29-41, 1941: Proposed Schedule “C” Circuit.

²⁰¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 183-41, 1941: Executive Order Re-Meteorological Services for War Purposes.

(4) Fort Worth, Texas; (5) Kansas City, Missouri; (6) San Francisco, California; and (7) Seattle, Washington. Puerto Rico was assigned to Region 2, Swan Island to Region 4, and Hawaii to Region 6. Alaska was not included in this reorganization, their activities already being somewhat regionalized at Juneau.²⁰² Full implementation was delayed because of the war, but evidently components of it were in effect by January 1, 1942, including the establishment of the Regional Directors.²⁰³

In 1941, uniformity of map preparation was addressed by *circular letter*: “In the interest of uniformity, an interval of 3 millibars is recommended for drawing isobars on surface manuscript maps, also on newspaper maps and printed and duplicated maps for public distribution. Other intervals may be used at airport stations at the discretion of the official in charge... .”²⁰⁴ This 3-millibar spacing was mandated for maps with a scale of 1:7.5 million or 1:10 million in 1942.²⁰⁵

By 1941, the Government had evidently decided the airplane was safe and economical for travel, and was here to stay. Travel regulations were amended in Bureau of the Budget Circular No. 370, dated March 7, 1941, to the effect that travel by airplane on official business would be on the same basis as travel by any other form of common carrier when it results in advantage to the government.²⁰⁶

Chief Reichelderfer emphasized that the local forecaster was responsible for the local forecast, and was in fact expected to modify as necessary the forecasts of the district center, and to localize them. He distributed a *Circular Letter* in part “to remove all restrictions on local forecast authority.” Up to this time a form “differing local forecast” was to be prepared which documented local changes to the district center guidance; it was discontinued at this time. The local forecasters were to use the state forecasts as a guide and provide to the public information on “temperature, time and character of precipitation when feasible, passage of fronts when important, and other useful information... .”²⁰⁷

As of September 15, 1941, the release time of radiosonde observation (raob) balloons was changed from 12:30 to 11:00 a.m. and p.m.²⁰⁸

A central Analysis Center was established in 1942 in Washington, with eventual facsimile dissemination; this was an important step in providing weather service to aviation, both military and civil. It was the initial step in a long-planned method of placing the daily weather analysis, after preparation by a staff of experts, promptly in the hands of local offices.²⁰⁹

²⁰² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 143-41, 1941: Plan of Regionalization for Weather Bureau Field Service.

²⁰³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 178-41, 1941: Effective Date of Regionalization.

²⁰⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 35-41, 1941: Spacing of Isobars.

²⁰⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 19-42, 1942: Spacing Isobars.

²⁰⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 43-41, 1941: Travel by Airplane on Official Business.

²⁰⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 47-41, 1941: Local Forecast Responsibility.

²⁰⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 117-41, 1941: Change in Time of Raobs.

²⁰⁹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1942, pp. 129, 131, 133; Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 39-42, 1942: Establishment of Analysis Center, Washington, D.C.

Effective January 19, 1942, the work week was extended from 39 to 44 hours, by Order of the Secretary of Commerce.²¹⁰

“War Time” was established whereby all clocks were set forward by one hour on February 9, 1942. This was to remain in effect until 6 months after the termination of the war or on such an earlier date that Congress would designate.²¹¹

Because of the large number of types of forecasts issued by the Bureau and their distribution, curtailing weather information to conform to the Office of Censorship and still provide for the protection of life and property was difficult. By January 19, 1942, the Office of Censorship requested newspapers to confine the publication of current weather to (1) routine forecasts and special warnings covering the city and state and not more than four adjoining states within 150 miles; (2) temperature and precipitation limited to 20 other stations, but to not include Montana, Idaho, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, California, Oregon, or Washington; (3) news stories of warning the public of dangerous roads or streets within 150 miles; and (4) round-up stories covering one state. Sky conditions were not to be published.²¹² The issue of information to newspapers and press associations were to include (except special warnings intended for radio broadcast) the statement, “This Information Must Not Be Broadcast By Radio.” Special warnings issued to radio stations were to include the statement “Authorized for radio broadcast.”²¹³ This was followed by restrictions effective November 1, 1943, that radio transmission of wether reports, maps, and analyses less than 7 days old would not be made in the clear. In addition, material furnished to commercial radio stations by the Weather Bureau for broadcast in the clear would contain no direct mention of ceiling, visibility, wind direction, or atmospheric pressure less than 7 days old, except when the data were released as special warnings by proper authority. This was seen as a relaxation of restrictions pertaining to the continental United States, and lifted all wartime restrictions on release of United States weather information within the Untied States except as stated above.²¹⁴

Chief Reichelderfer issued instructions to the effect: “All Weather Bureau personnel will remain at their posts of duty in the city and airport offices during air raid and emergency conditions as long as effective service can be rendered by the station, unless ordered to do otherwise by appropriate military authority.”²¹⁵

Speed limits were imposed by General Order ODT 23 issued by the Director of Defense Transportation on September 26, 1942, such that vehicles would not be operated above the posted speed limit or 35 miles per hour, whichever was the lesser. This did not apply to an emergency for the protection or preservation of life, health, or public safety.²¹⁶

²¹⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 3-42*, 1942: Extension of Working Hours to 44 Hours per Week.

²¹¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 15-42*, 1942: Conversion to “War Time.”

²¹² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 8-42*, 1942: Weather Information in Newspapers.

²¹³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 62-42*, 1942: Radio Silence on Weather information.

²¹⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 101-43*, 1943: Relaxation of War Restrictions on Distribution of Weather Information.

²¹⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 126-42*, 1942: Procedure to be Observed During Air Raids.

²¹⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 133-42*, 1942: Limitation on Speed of Motor Vehicles.

A *Circular Letter* noted: “The Weather Bureau, like the Army and Navy, was until recently largely a man’s organization. Now, women in rapidly increasing numbers are being appointed as weather observers. First appointments were made in February 1942, two women going to each radiosonde station and one to each Section Center to be trained to replace men for other assignments.”²¹⁷

An agency or industry could request a Weather Bureau employee be transferred there, and could file the request with the War Transfer Board. This procedure was in addition to transfers arranged by the Joint Meteorological Committee of the Army, Navy, and Weather Bureau to permit the utilization of an employee with special qualifications in a particular assignment where he could render more valuable professional service to the war effort.²¹⁸

The hurricane warning system was revised effective September 1, 1943, to include a “Preliminary Hurricane Alert,” in addition to the advisory messages and storm and hurricane warnings. This new alert was “to cover a period of uncertainty when winds of a hurricane may endanger a locality or area within 24 to 36 hours, but the indications are not yet sufficient to justify a definite warning.”²¹⁹ Evidently these were not issued as often as desired in 1954, and instructions were reissued. The definition was still essentially the same, but the word “preliminary” was dropped.²²⁰ After the 1955 season, the Hurricane Alert was changed to Hurricane Watch, after studies revealed that many persons mistook the word “alert” as synonymous with “warning.”²²¹ Instructions were provided for preparing local operating instructions regarding hurricane warnings.²²² The hurricane forecasts were to include statements about the expected water level above normal tide–hurricane surge. Case studies had been prepared, and it was recommended these be used as guidance in forecasting water level.²²³

The work week was extended to 48 hours. The Director of the Bureau of the Budget issued Circular No. 416 dated April 26, 1943, that stated in part: “The President in his memorandum issued December 22, 1942, to the heads of all agencies stated, ‘It is my desire that the head of each department and agency establish ... a general minimum work schedule of a six day, 48-hour week for both the departmental and field service.’”²²⁴ Also, a memorandum written by the Administrative assistant to the President dated May 12, 1943, states: “The necessity for maintaining maximum output in Government activities throughout the war period requires that days normally observed by the departments and agencies as holidays should, with the exception of Christmas, be considered as regular work days for the duration of the war.”²²⁵ As of August 30, 1945, the administrative work

²¹⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 162-42, 1942: Women Employees in the Weather Bureau.

²¹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 13-43, 1943: Release for Transfer or for Employment in Industry.

²¹⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 81-43, 1943: Preliminary Hurricane Alert.

²²⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 14-55, 1955: Hurricane Alerts.

²²¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 5-56, 1956: Hurricane Watches.

²²² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 26-55, 1955: Hurricane Emergency Operating Procedures.

²²³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 36-55, 1955: Inclusion of High Water Information in Hurricane Advisories and Warnings and in Local Bulletins.

²²⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 36-43, 1943: 48-Hour Workweek.

²²⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 51-43, 1943: Observance of Holidays During the War Period.

week went to 40 hours.²²⁶ Another effect of the war was that surplus stocks of equipment, materials, and supplies could not be held for future needs. No stocks could be allowed to remain idle, but must be used to meet day to day requirements. Any surplus had to be reported.²²⁷

“Corn brooms” seemed to be in very short supply; a number of *circular letters* pertaining to their purchase was issued. For instance, “Authority has been granted by the Procurement Division of the Treasury Department in a letter dated May 2, 1944, and by the Federal Prison Industries, Inc., in a letter dated May 3, 1944, for purchases of corn brooms locally during the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1944 to meet requirements in lots not exceeding one-half (½) dozen at a time.”²²⁸

Discussions were being held in 1944 as to the use of Greenwich time in teletype transmissions. A proposal was made by the CAA to use it for all transmissions on Schedules A and C. It was agreed to wait until later when it would be less disturbing to military aircraft.²²⁹ Six-hourly synoptic reports and pilot balloons and radiosonde observations had been in Greenwich Civil Time since October 1, 1942.²³⁰

By 1944, information was being distributed over more than 600 commercial broadcasting stations, approximately 100 of which maintained their own microphones in Weather Bureau offices for direct use by the Bureau. Basic forecasts for airway routes were prepared at 15 District Forecasting Centers in the continental U.S. A specialized type of airway weather information was provided through the Flight Advisory Weather Service (FAWS).²³¹ Twenty-six FAWS units, paralleling the Airway Traffic Control Centers of the CAA, functioned in close co-operation with those CAA units. Transferring tabulated data onto punch cards continued (or resumed after the war) in cooperation with the Army and Navy. By 1946, a library of 60 million punched cards containing weather observations existed, and the Weather Bureau became the central repository for this library.²³²

Before the war, emergency flood warning amateur radio networks were organized in several river districts in cooperation with the American Radio Relay League. With the advent of war, it became necessary to disband the networks. By 1944, the Bureau was encouraging similar networks again be established.²³³

On January 19, 1945, the Secretary of Commerce signed Department Order No. 355 giving the following guidance:

²²⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 73-45*, 1945: Federal Employees Pay Act, 1945, and Amendment dated October 22, 1945.

²²⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 82-43*, 1943: Surplus Serviceable Field Property.

²²⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 40-44*, 1944: Purchase of Corn Brooms During the Fiscal Year Beginning July 1, 1944.

²²⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, September 1944, p. 353.

²³⁰ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 118-42*, 1942: Adoption of Greenwich Civil Time for Meteorological Transmissions on the Teletype.

²³¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, January 1944, p. 248.

²³² Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1946, pp. 213-217.

²³³ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 57-45*, 1945: Emergency Flood and Storm Warning Radio Networks.

“In compliance with instructions of the Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion to meet the existing fuel emergency, it is hereby ordered that the maximum temperatures in all buildings under control of the Department of Commerce shall not exceed 68 degrees, and that effective measures be taken to stop the unnecessary use of electric current such as may be consumed by unnecessary lights burning and failure to turn off fans, machines, motors, etc., when not actually in use.”²³⁴

A questionnaire produced a consensus of field forecasters that the 10 most important tools in making forecasts 24 to 48 hours in advance were: isobars, fronts, 3-h isallobars, precipitation patterns, air masses analyzed and indicated on the sea-level map, 12-h pressure-change map, and upper-air charts drawn near the levels of 5, 10, and 20 thousand feet.²³⁵

The Weather Bureau, Army, and Navy agreed, for the purpose of furthering international uniformity, to change the radiosonde code to report constant pressure rather than constant level data. The introductory period was to start May 1, 1945.²³⁶ The change had been tested on a limited basis by the Analysis Center. Benefits of the change were seen to be:

“... constant pressure charts have the advantage of requiring only one wind scale for all levels, and also of permitting easier interpretation of isotherms in terms of density or potential temperature, or of mixing ratio in terms of dew point or wet bulb temperature. With a minimum of additional effort it is possible, by use of differential methods, to obtain further information of forecast value that cannot readily be obtained from constant level charts.”

Standard intervals between contour lines on the 700 and 500-mb surfaces were to be 200 ft., and isotherms drawn in intervals of 5 degrees C. Transparent geostrophic wind scales for the 1:15,000,000 Lambert conformal conic projection were furnished.²³⁷ An assortment of such scales were provided to the field in 1950.²³⁸ A new, revised tephigram was furnished to aid the plotting and analyzing upper-air soundings.²³⁹

An emergency service unit was organized in each of the seven regions in the continental United States. The name “flying squadron” had been given the units, but the name was changed to Mobile Emergency Unit (MOBEU). These units were set up primarily to reenforce local station staffs during storm, flood, or other emergencies.²⁴⁰

The increasing demand for upper-wind data to at least 40,000 ft. in all weather conditions led to the development of two methods of obtaining such data. They were designated on teletype circuits

²³⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 7-45*, 1945: Fixing Maximum Temperatures in Buildings and Restricting Use of Electric Current.

²³⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, October 1945, p. 511.

²³⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 28-45*, 1945: Amendment to 1943 Radiosonde code.

²³⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 51-45*, 1945: Adoption of Constant Pressure analysis.

²³⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 10-50*, 1950: Geostrophic Wind Scales Designed to Give Wind Velocities in Knots.

²³⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 67-45*, 1945: Tephigram, W. B. Form 1125 (Revised 2-21-45).

²⁴⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 55-44*, 1944: Mobile Emergency Unit (MOBEU).

as RAWIN data. The definition was: "A winds aloft observation made by balloon and radio methods, without optical aid." This was not to be confused with RABAL, which denoted the method of determining upper-air winds by observing a radiosonde balloon through a theodolite.²⁴¹ By 1946, the Weather Bureau had acquired 50 units developed by the Signal Corps, and deployed them.²⁴² This conversion from radiosonde to rawinsonde started on November 12, 1945, when an SCR-658 radio direction-finding set was installed at San Antonio, Texas, and was completed when McGrath, Alaska, was equipped with electronic wind-finding equipment on October 12, 1956.²⁴³ Never content with using outdated equipment, the Weather Bureau contracted in 1957 for the procurement of 41 new systems, a major upgrade being that the tracking could be down to 6 degrees as compared to 15 degrees for the SCR-658.²⁴⁴ On March 23, 1959, the first new set, now dubbed WBRT-57, was delivered to Silver Hill Observatory in Washington D.C.; the next two sets went to Columbia, Missouri, and Anchorage, Alaska.²⁴⁵

Annual reports were resumed in 1946, after an apparent gap from 1943-45; the house publication *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel* had continued. Censorship restraints on public distribution of weather information were lifted completely after VJ-Day, September 2, 1945.²⁴⁶ Restrictions had begun to be removed in European and Atlantic areas with the ending of the war there, especially after VE day on May 8, 1945.²⁴⁷ The number of patrol ships was reduced, and by the end of 1946, there were only two ships operating, both by the United States.²⁴⁸

Significant progress was made in 1945 in the development of specialized forecast services for agriculture, in collaboration with State Extension Service specialists and agents. The Bureau saw these services as increasing and encouraged offices to establish partnerships and obtain the cooperation of radio stations in providing regular daily schedules for broadcasts.²⁴⁹ Such work was strongly encouraged. For instance in 1946, Chief Reichelderfer stated:

"The value of the Bureau's forecast advisory service for agriculture is firmly established. Hundreds of commendatory letters have been received... Existing services should be continued, seasonal programs should be extended so far as feasible to areas not already covered. Regional Offices should assist local offices in further establishment of expansion of service as required to meet agricultural needs as fully and effectively as possible. Contacts with Extension Service representatives in all states should be continued."²⁵⁰

In October 1945, Chief Reichelderfer stated that the release of verification information to the public may lead to misinterpretation unless there is proper coordination. He stated that no

²⁴¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, June 1944, p. 301.

²⁴² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, January 1946, pp. 1-3.

²⁴³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1957, p. 28.

²⁴⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1957, p. 65.

²⁴⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1959, p. 65.

²⁴⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 76-45*, 1945: Weather Security.

²⁴⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 49-45*, 1945: Removal of Weather Security Measures in Certain Areas.

²⁴⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 104-46*, 1946: Atlantic Weather Patrol Ship Stations.

²⁴⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 41-45*, 1945: Specialized Forecasts and Advices for Agriculture.

²⁵⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 22-46*, 1946: Specialized Forecasts and Advices for Agriculture.

information about the verification scores of Weather Bureau forecasts be released for public dissemination except by the Central Office over the signature of the Chief of the Bureau.²⁵¹

Principal distribution of agricultural forecasts to farmers were by radio, and if possible the forecasts were included in the extension service farm programs.²⁵² The agricultural programs were still being strongly encouraged in 1948.²⁵³

By summer 1946, a pictorial weather map, depicting forecast weather information, was appearing in several newspapers and practice was expected to grow. The map carried the heading "Weather FOTOCAST" and contained a credit to the Weather Bureau.²⁵⁴

Effective July 1, 1946, the Division of Climate and Crop Weather and the Office of the Hydrologic Director were combined into a Division of Climatological and Hydrologic Services with Merrill Bernard as Chief.²⁵⁵

On September 5, 1946, the announcement was made that River Forecast Centers (RFC) would be established. The first was established at Cincinnati, Ohio, on September 23, and a second a few weeks later at Kansas City, Missouri.²⁵⁶

Also in 1946, Chief Reichelderfer reasoned that use of analogue synoptic charts would be a good way to add to forecasters' practical knowledge of forecasting. Bureau forecasters were well trained, but sometimes lacked experience. Guidance was given as to what was a good analogue, but it was acknowledged that the size of the area over which the analogue was defined played a large role.²⁵⁷

"Shippers" forecasts being issued as early as 1919 had evidently been discontinued, because on October 15, 1946, the following notified the field:

"To fill a need for nationwide temperature indications, predictions of maximum and minimum temperature for a representative area centered around selected cities throughout the United States will be prepared and given teletype distribution effective November 1, 1946. These transmissions will be known as 'Shippers' Temperature Bulletins.'"²⁵⁸

In 1946, The Short Range Forecast Development Section was established in Washington. The unit conducted studies of such things as quantitative precipitation of interest to the Tennessee Valley

²⁵¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 82-45*, 1945: Release of Information on Forecast Verifications.

²⁵² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 15-47*, 1947: Specialized Forecasts and Advices for Agriculture.

²⁵³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 8-48*, 1948: Specialized Forecasts for Agriculture.

²⁵⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 66-46*, 1946: Pictorial Newspaper Weather Forecasts.

²⁵⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 53-46*, 1946: Reorganization of Climatological and Hydrological Services in the Central Office.

²⁵⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1952, pp. 57, 58.

²⁵⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 69-46*, 1946: Transmission of Analogue Data, with attachment "Use of Analogue Synoptic Charts in Forecasting," manuscript of Weather Forecast Branch, Army Air Force, Washington, D.C., dated February 1944.

²⁵⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 81-46*, 1946: Shippers' Temperature Bulletins.

Authority and winter minimum temperature and precipitation at Washington D.C. and New York. Local climatologies of airport stations were established. The results were aimed at assisting experienced forecasters in conserving their time and in making their forecasts more explicit. These studies generally resulted in manuscripts for internal distribution or publications in hard copy form, as computers were not yet available. The new unit had also made progress in developing methods of expressing the likelihood of occurrence of weather elements “in terms of statistical probabilities.”²⁵⁹ The latter statement, in Chief Reichelderfer’s 1946 annual report, was likely made in recognition of “objective (or statistical) forecasting” which was now coming into being.^{260,261}

By 1946, 64 stations were taking radiosonde measurements. When the balloon carrying the sonde aloft bursts, it comes down by parachute. When sondes are found, they can be returned to the Bureau according to instructions on them, and many are recovered. The Weather Bureau Radiosonde Reconditioning Center had been established in Joliet, Illinois, in 1945, and the first lot of 30 reconditioned sondes was completed on April 30, 1945. After establishing this as a profitable adventure, the number of employees was increased from one to 10, and the quarters were moved. In the calendar year 1946, the goal of 10,000 reconditioned sondes per year was exceeded by 698. Once again, the operation was increased to achieve the optimum number of 14,000 per year, and in 1950 the total was 14,192.²⁶² In 1955, each returned radiosonde saved the program about \$10.00.²⁶³ By April 1968, 400,000 had been repaired,²⁶⁴ some as many as 11 times.²⁶⁵

Also, by 1946, the development of a “ceilometer” had progressed to the point that 100 units had been installed,²⁶⁶ and a total of 140 installations were completed by the end of 1947. This instrument used a modulated light beam and sensitive electronic detector that could be used day or night to detect cloud heights.²⁶⁷

The Weather Bureau was authorized by Congress:

“... to establish a network of stations in the high latitudes of the Western Hemisphere in cooperation with other interested countries for the purposes of taking surface and upper-air observations and making such other meteorological studies of arctic weather conditions as may be practicable.”

²⁵⁹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1946, p. 220. This reference refers to the organization as a “Unit,” but the name was “Section” by 1958, and probably always was.

²⁶⁰ Jorgenson, D. L., 1949: An objective method of forecasting rain in Central California during the raisin drying season. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 77, No. 2, February 1949.

²⁶¹ Klein, W. H., 1949: An objective method of forecasting five-day precipitation for the Tennessee Valley. *Res. Paper No. 29*, Washington D.C.

²⁶² *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1952, pp. 86-88.

²⁶³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 30-55*, 1955: Recovered Radiosondes.

²⁶⁴ *ESSA News*, 4, April 5, 1968, p. 2.

²⁶⁵ *ESSA World*, 1, October 1966, p. 31.

²⁶⁶ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1946, p. 222 ; for 1947, p. 248.

²⁶⁷ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1947, p. 248.

This work began, the Arctic Meteorological Service Section was organized, and a complete surface and upper-air observation station was established at Thule, Greenland.²⁶⁸ With the headquarters change effective July 1, 1946—the Division of Climate and Crop Weather and the Office of Hydrologic Director were consolidated into the Division of Climatological and Hydrologic Service—the river and flood service was expanded. Under this new division, a pilot “on-station punching” program was started, whereby all current hourly, 6-hourly, summary of day, pibal, raob, and rason²⁶⁹ observations were punched into International Business Machine (IBM) tabulating cards by observers at first-order stations;²⁷⁰ the program was extended to all regions in 1947,²⁷¹ and Regional Weather Records Processing Centers (WRPC) were established.²⁷² In addition to hand key-punches, basic IBM 405 tabulators were delivered to stations.²⁷³ In 1949, the punching on-station was expanded when the Bureau embarked on a project to maintain the series of Northern Hemisphere Historical Maps on a current basis. Each station engaged in an upper air observational program was requested to punch a few cards daily, starting March 1, 1949, in addition to those already being prepared, and to send them to the Weather Bureau Tabulation Unit in New Orleans.²⁷⁴ Effective February 1, 1952, the cards were to be mailed to the National Weather Records Center Asheville, North Carolina.²⁷⁵

The “snow and ice” bulletin seemed to be quite important. For a number of years, a circular announced the start and discontinuance of the bulletin as the seasons changed.²⁷⁶

By the end of 1947, 175 commercial radio stations were broadcasting weather information direct from 132 Weather Bureau offices.²⁷⁷ Regional airway forecasts were prepared by 19 Airway Forecast Centers including Alaska. The FAWS units in 26 traffic control centers continued to provide required service. The Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization became a permanent organization (ICAO).²⁷⁸

Development of statistical forecast techniques continued, and to extend this program, Research Forecasters were assigned to District Forecast Centers at Boston and San Francisco; this Research Forecaster program was to expand in the coming years. Taking another tack, the Weather Bureau worked with the Institute for Advance Study at Princeton, New Jersey, to determine possible application of the computer to the rapid solution of complex forecasting equations—the beginnings

²⁶⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, September 1946, p. 58.

²⁶⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1949, p. 492. Other definitions of abbreviations are given in this reference, including ABOB: A meteorological sounding made by means of an aircraft flight.

²⁷⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, July 1946, p. 47; September 1946, pp. 58, 59.

²⁷¹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, September 1947, pp. 162-164.

²⁷² *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 77-47*, 1947: Inauguration of Machine Processing of Weather Records.

²⁷³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1948, p. 267.

²⁷⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 7-49*, 1949: On-Station Card Punching for Northern Hemisphere Historical Map Project.

²⁷⁵ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 9-52*, 1952: Change in Mailing.

²⁷⁶ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 20-47*, 1947: Discontinuance of Snow and Ice Bulletin; *102-47*: Resumption of Snow and Ice Bulletin.

²⁷⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 124-47*, 1947: Direct Radio Broadcasts.

²⁷⁸ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1947, pp. 235, 238.

of Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP). The assignment of employees to institutes of higher learning for advanced training continued, with six being assigned to New York university in 1947.²⁷⁹

In April 1946, the Weather Bureau was requested by the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (NACA) to provide leadership to extend the NACA “Standard Atmosphere” above its original level of 65,000 feet. A tentative standard atmosphere up to a height of 75 miles was determined by piecing together many sources of evidence, some from V-2 rockets launched at White Sands, New Mexico.²⁸⁰ By 1957, 23 U.S. scientific and engineering organizations had adopted a new standard to 300 km., the first 32 km being called “standard” and upper portions being called “tentative” and “speculative.” This effort was led by the Weather Bureau and the Air Force Geophysics Research Directorate.²⁸¹

The Weather Bureau did its part in rebuilding the war-ravaged Philippines, required by Public Law No. 370 of the 79th Congress. The Bureau did this by contracts with the Philippines’ Weather Bureau.²⁸² As detailed in issues of *Topics*, this was a challenging task, and was brought to completion June 30, 1950.²⁸³ The Weather Bureau also helped rehabilitate the German Weather Service.²⁸⁴

In his 1948 annual report, Dr. Reichelderfer noted that the Weather Bureau was operating several diverse functions, the principal statutes being the following:

- The Organic Act approved October 1, 1890 (15 U.S.C. 311-313);
- Amendment of Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938, Public Law 691, Seventy-ninth Congress;
- Act authorizing establishment of arctic meteorological stations, Public Law 296, Seventy-ninth Congress;
- Section 308, Philippine Rehabilitation Act, Public Law 370, Seventy-ninth Congress;
- Enabling Act of 1948, Public Law 573, Eightieth Congress;
- International Aviation Facilities act, Public Law 647, Eightieth Congress; and
- Act to provide safety in aviation and to direct a study of the causes and characteristics of thunderstorms and other atmospheric disturbances, Public Law 657, Eightieth Congress.

The also stated that the meteorological services of the Weather Bureau could be grouped into three general categories, (1) The daily or current weather information services, (2) the hydrologic or hydrometeorological services, and (3) the climatological services.²⁸⁵

The Analysis Center was organized in 1942 a few months after the United State entered the war and had started operations in March of that year (see page 31). In 1947, it was operating on the

²⁷⁹ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1947, pp. 246-248.

²⁸⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, March 1947, pp. 100, 101.

²⁸¹ Weather Bureau and Geophysics Research Directorate (AFCRC), 1957: Extension to the Standard Atmosphere. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **38**, 78-80.

²⁸² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, April 1947, pp. 110, 111.

²⁸³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1950, p. 111.

²⁸⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, December 1947, pp. 204-206.

²⁸⁵ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1948, p. 268.

first floor of the Ferguson Building with a staff of 65. Six-hour maps were prepared and transmitted daily.²⁸⁶ By December 1944, it had started transmitting 30-h prognostic charts on Circuit C.²⁸⁷ It was consolidated into a joint center, the WBAN (Weather Bureau, Army, Navy) Combined Weather Analysis Center on July 17, 1947, and was staffed by a combination of Weather Bureau, Air Force, and Navy personnel. This consolidated the three centers established in 1942 to meet wartime demands.^{288,289} On September 1949, the Center began preparing a chart showing the district forecasts assembled for the entire United States, including the areas of expected weather changes. These national charts were coded and distributed once each day on Service C.²⁹⁰ By 1950, the Center had a staff of about 150, and the operations included plotting 140 raobs on pseudo-adiabatic charts, and 850-, 700-, and 500-mb charts within ½ hours after the data began to arrive. In order to achieve the latter, charts were cut into sections according to the teletype circuits over which the data arrived. After the plotting was completed, the charts were taped together for the analysts.²⁹¹

In 1948, the Weather Bureau was operating 17 general forecasting centers; approximately 350 field offices which served as local weather reporting stations, forecast dissemination points, and in some cases pilot balloon stations; and other multiple purpose offices. Experimental “flow-control forecasts” were being made at several FAWS units. Two mobile weather units were added to the seven already in use; these provided service to the national forests and grazing lands in the West. There were three extensive teletype circuits in use, Services A, C, and O; these were leased by the Civil Aeronautics Administration from commercial communications companies, and the Weather Bureau was responsible for the scheduling of the weather information on them. The daily weather map, a product in great demand, was enhanced by the inclusion of a 700-mb constant pressure chart and the extension of the small surface chart to cover all of north America. Hand operated card punching machines were installed at all full time Weather Bureau offices in the continental United States. Several demonstration projects were initiated making use of television for dissemination of weather information,²⁹² and careful consideration was made of the time it takes to prepare a television program in comparison to a radio program in determining policy regarding Bureau personnel participation.²⁹³ In 1952, the Federal Communications Commission issued an order that permitted a considerable increase in the number of television stations operated in the United States. This was seen as an increased demand for weather data to support television.²⁹⁴

As of April 1, 1948, by international agreement, the raobs and rasons were to be released at 0300 and 1500 GCT and the winds aloft at those times plus 0900 and 2100. GCT²⁹⁵

²⁸⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, April 1947, pp. 113-115.

²⁸⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 90-44, 1944: Additional Prognostic Charts to be Transmitted by Analysis Center.

²⁸⁸ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1948, p. 269.

²⁸⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, August 1947, p. 153.

²⁹⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 94-49, 1949: National Forecast Charts.

²⁹¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1950, p. 42. Some of these “cut and taped” charts exist at the National Archives in College Park, Maryland, (observed by author in 2011).

²⁹² Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1948, pp. 268-287. Also, *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1949, p. 480.

²⁹³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 13-48, 1948: Television.

²⁹⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 22-52, 1952: Television.

²⁹⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 20-48, 1948: Scheduled Times of Upper Air Observations.

A 2-h terminal forecast was being issued by some stations according to a program started in 1946.²⁹⁶ When staff and work load permitted, the program was recommended to be continuous each hour from sunrise to sunset.²⁹⁷ A new form for writing terminal forecasts was introduced a few months later in 1948.²⁹⁸ The 2-h forecast was discontinued in 1957 because a new In-Flight Weather Safety Service program rendered it unnecessary in the continental U.S. (CONUS); it was to be continued as already implemented in Alaska and Hawaii. The new program, effective about March 1, provided airmen in flight with advance notice of potentially hazardous weather developments.²⁹⁹

By early 1950, a Broadcast Television Unit had been installed at the Central Office and was sending a 6.5-minute summary of the nation's weather nightly over the nation-wide facilities of the new major network, the Liberty Broadcasting System. This was only an analysis of the current conditions, and contained no forecasts; control was returned to the local station for the forecasts. News "cut-ins" were also prepared in the Unit to cover rapidly changing severe weather anywhere in the nation. Through the cooperation of the network newsroom that feeds news programs from Washington to nearly 300 affiliated stations, it was possible for the Weather Bureau studio to cut into any, and if necessary all, network news presentations with special reports when conditions justified.³⁰⁰

The use of radar to detect storms started in 1947 with installation at four stations—Washington D.C.; Wichita, Kansas; Norfolk, Nebraska; and Wichita Falls, Texas. The equipment, surplus from the military, was designated AN/APS-2. Although the reports had no acronym, they were put into a message designated RAREP.^{301,302} By 1949, the Weather Bureau, Navy, and Air Force combined had approximately 45 weather stations within the CONUS that were equipped with, or had access to, radar equipment suited to storm detection. Most of the stations were transmitting their radar reports on Service A. The Bureau encouraged the use of radar information, not only for the detection of severe storms, but in pilot briefings and forecasting.³⁰³

With the January 1948 issue, the house organ's title *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel* was changed to *Weather Bureau Topics*.

The radiosonde (AN/AMT-8) was now being used in a "downward" mode, being dropped from airplanes, and the name "dropsonde" was coined.³⁰⁴

The publication of the results of research performed by Bureau employees was encouraged from time to time, and instructions for clearance and publication procedures had been in local station

²⁹⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 73-46, 1946: Broadcast of Local Terminal Forecasts Over CAA Range Stations.

²⁹⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 28-48, 1948: 2-Hour Terminal Forecast Program.

²⁹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 110-48, 1948: New Form of Writing Aviation Weather Forecasts.

²⁹⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 3-57, 1957: Discontinuance of 2-hour Terminal Forecast Program.

³⁰⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1951, p. 62.

³⁰¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1949, p. 493.

³⁰² *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, October 1947, p. 183, 184; Reichelderfer, 1948, op cit. p. 290.

³⁰³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 82-49, 1949: Use of Weather Radar Reports.

³⁰⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1948, p. 323.

regulations since 1938 or before. In 1948, Chief Reichelderfer advised caution in case of controversial issues, and a disclaimer such as saying that the views expressed are the author's own and not necessarily those of the Weather Bureau was suggested.³⁰⁵ Some wartime restrictions had been lifted in March of 1946.³⁰⁶

The Wisconsin cranberry service completed its first year in 1948. Frost warnings help farmers with the decision to flood or not to flood fields in possible frost situations.³⁰⁷

A cooperative project with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was begun on July 1, 1948 for the collection of data from the Southern Hemisphere for the study of the general circulation.³⁰⁸

The Weather Bureau weathered the challenge of implementing on January 1, 1949, the revised observation instructions and new codes and procedures adopted by the International Meteorological Organization Conference in Washington in 1947. Despite the short time remaining between full concurrence and implementation, the changeover was made with practically no confusion.³⁰⁹

In order to further the exchange of ideas, suggestions, and reports of special interest to forecasters and others engaged in the Bureau's forecast service, a "Forecaster's Forum" was established in 1949. The Forum was by mail, and anyone could contribute with either signed or unsigned letters. Contributions were mimeographed for publication and issued periodically with distribution to all first-order stations, as was the case with *Circular Letters*.³¹⁰

The bureau announced that on March 1, 1950, the CAA planned to upgrade the teletype circuits O, C, and A from 60 to 75 words per minute.³¹¹ This upgrade eventually allowed 20 more terminal forecasts to be transmitted on each Service A circuit.³¹²

In order to facilitate the timely distribution of aviation weather, Telautograph circuits were set up. Where the first two were installed, at Chicago and LaGuardia Airport Offices, users gave enthusiastic endorsement.³¹³ Even though in use in 1949, Chief Reichelderfer stated in 1953, "Telautograph is not, as yet, widely used by the Bureau." Evidently such communications were

³⁰⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 102-48, 1948: Clearance of Text for Publication, Talks or for Local Radio Broadcasts.

³⁰⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 13-46, 1946: Clearance of Text for Publication, Talks or for Local Radio Broadcasts.

³⁰⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1948, p. 333.

³⁰⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1949, p. 500.

³⁰⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1949, p. 376; February 1948, pp. 227, 228.

³¹⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 42-49, 1949: Forecaster's Forum.

³¹¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 90-49, 1949: Conversion of CAA Teletype Service to Seventy-five Words Per Minute Operation.

³¹² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 10-54, 1954: Service A Transmissions of Aviation Weather Forecasts.

³¹³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 47-49, 1949: Local Distribution of Airway Weather Information by Weather Telautograph Circuit.

under the control of the Regions and the MICs of the offices, and the necessary facilities were not being set up as much as desired by the Weather Bureau Headquarters.³¹⁴

As indications of the myriad of details associated with equipment and supply, two excerpts are provided from *Weather Bureau Topics*:

“Oiled stencil board 8 X 10 inches for use on the Revised forms 1009-48 is now stocked in the Central Office.”³¹⁵

“No Jupiter pencil sharpening machines or cutting wheels have been issued for several years and none can be located as a source for re-sharpening the wheels. It is also understood that there are very few machines in service. Since Jupiter machines and cutting wheels therefor are no longer obtainable, the dull cutting wheels should not be forwarded to the Central Office for re-sharpening. A new pencil sharpener should be requisitioned in such cases.”³¹⁶

Three Weather Bureau offices, Upton, New York; Oak Ridge, Tennessee; and Idaho Falls, Idaho, were established in 1949 and 1950 exclusively to fulfill the needs of the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission (AEC).³¹⁷ The Upton office worked closely with the Brookhaven National Laboratory, especially in measuring and forecasting diffusion conditions. The Oak Ridge office initially investigated the micrometeorological conditions over the Oak Ridge Reservation. The office also served in an advisory capacity to the Office of Oak Ridge Operations of the AEC. Such work expanded, and by 1956, six more stations were established: Middletown, Connecticut; Shippingport, Pennsylvania; Dawsonville, Georgia; Fort Worth, Texas; and Las Vegas, Nevada. Much of the Weather Bureau experience in this field at the time was summarized in *Meteorology and Atomic Energy* prepared for the Atomic Energy Commission.³¹⁸

For nearly 35 years, *Weather Bureau Topics* had been set in type by hand, but with the July 1949 issue the process was shifted to using the “‘justifying’ typewriter, which evens the right-hand margin,” and printing by the photo-offset process.³¹⁹

During the early 1920's, the Weather Bureau maintained the only three stations in the United States where pyrheliometric observations of the amount of solar radiation received on a horizontal surface were taken. By the end of 1949, 71 stations in the U.S. were gathering data on solar radiation.³²⁰ By September 1959, there were 62 operated by the Weather Bureau and an additional 26 stations operated by other organizations in co-operation with the Weather Bureau. In addition, there were five stations in the Antarctic and one in the Arctic.³²¹

³¹⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 21-53, 1953: Local Distribution of Weather Information by Weather Telautograph Circuit.

³¹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1948, p. 266.

³¹⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1948, p. 220.

³¹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1949, p. 378; October 1950, p. 130.

³¹⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1956, pp. 172-175. Reference says a total of nine, but only eight are listed.

³¹⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1949, p. 427.

³²⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1949, p. 435.

³²¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1959, pp. 149-151.

The “rounding rule” used for many years was changed. The practice had been to round a number ending in 0.5 to the nearest even number; this was replaced by always “rounding up” for positive numbers and “rounding down” for negative numbers. The rules became exactly:

1. If the decimal to be disposed of is a five or greater, the preceding digit is increased by one.
2. If the decimal to be disposed is less than five, the preceding digit remains unchanged.
3. Algebraic signs are disregarded, e.g., 1.5 becomes 2 and -1.5 becomes -2.³²²

In 1949, the seven regional offices in the CONUS created in 1942 were consolidated into four (described in *Circular Letters 45-49, 83-49, 129-49, and 153-49*). The Regions were designated by numbers 1 through 4 with headquarters in New York, Fort Worth, Kansas City, and Salt Lake City, respectively; Anchorage remained as headquarters for Region 5. This was the catalyst for station rehabilitation, a program that was successful. In coordination with the CAA, stations were established in new airport terminals or administration buildings.³²³ As part of the reorganization, instead of there being Regional Engineer positions, there were Area Hydrologic Engineers. These engineers maintained liaison with field offices of cooperating agencies, and acted in an advisory capacity to the River District Offices, RFCs, and Section Centers.³²⁴ Also, the seven Weather Records Processing Centers established in 1947 were reduced to three in 1950, located at Chattanooga, Kansas City, and San Francisco.³²⁵

Actions were taken because of the Korean conflict. In 1950, two new stations were established in the Hawaiian Islands and a skeleton staff was maintained at Midway Island after the Navy no longer staffed it. This military support continued into 1951, including establishing a main meteorological office at Wake Island.³²⁶ The Department of Commerce issued a new handbook “Security Regulation” and all personnel cleared o have access to classified information and material were provided a personal copy. The handbook specified that each cleared employee was to read and execute the security agreement.³²⁷

A comprehensive text on modern hydrologic methods was released by McGraw-Hill in 1950. The three authors, Ray Linsley, Max Kohler, and J. Paulhus were all employees of the Weather Bureau.³²⁸

Three Pacific ocean stations were being jointly operated by the Coast Guard and the Weather Bureau in 1950—NAN, OBOE, and PETER,³²⁹ or N, O, and P, respectively (although some may remember the latter name as PAPA). The next year, the Canadian Government began operation of PETER, and the U.S. opened another station designated UNCLE. Positions of the ships changed

³²² *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1949, p. 528.

³²³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1950, pp. 20, 21; June 1952, pp. 96-98.

³²⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 13-50*, 1950: Adjustment of Field Program for Hydrologic Services.

³²⁵ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 2-50*, 1950: Consolidation of Weather Records Processing Centers.

³²⁶ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1950, p. 6; 1951, p. 3

³²⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 26-51*, 1951: Security Regulations Handbook.

³²⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1950, p. 4.

³²⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1950, p. 7.

from time to time.³³⁰ In September 1951, the Pacific Station “V” became operated by the Coast Guard and Weather Bureau, taking over from the U.S. Navy.

The Division of Climatological and Hydrologic Services formed in 1946 was separated into the Climatological Services Division and the Hydrologic Services Division, effective September 15, 1951. These divisions were headed by W. F. McDonald (temporarily) and W. E. Hiatt, respectively.³³¹ Also, as of March 20, 1951, the three Area Training Offices were consolidated, leaving only the one in Kansas City.³³²

Weather Bureau personnel were occasionally being called into active duty, sometimes for a 5-day period during which it was determined whether or not they were physically and otherwise acceptable for extended active duty. In other cases, 30 days were given for them to put personal affairs in order and to report for active duty.³³³

The Teletype Corporation of America requested the CAA to recognize that “teletype” was trademarked, and should not be used generically. To be in conformance, the Weather Bureau instructed the preferred usage was “teletypewriter” as noun and adjective and “teletypewrite” as verb.³³⁴

Public Law 657 directed the Weather Bureau to investigate severe storms such as thunderstorms, squalls, tornadoes, hurricanes, etc. It was planned in 1950 to establish a dense network of observing stations in the Midwest for this purpose, and to specifically investigate the “pressure jump” hypothesis proposed by Morris Tepper of the Weather Bureau and published in the *Journal of Meteorology* in February 1950.³³⁵ By 1956, networks of automatic pressure jump indicators were operating under the direction of the Severe Local Storms Research Unit of the Office of Meteorological Research (OMR) headed by Dr. Harry Wexler. *Weather Bureau Topics* states, “The networks thus make it possible to detect and to determine the orientation and movement of pressure jump lines through the area. The forecaster at each of the key stations can then predict the time of arrival at any point..., and can be quite sure that if a severe storm is to occur, it will occur with or very near the time of passage of the pressure jump line. In this respect, the pressure jump line can be considered as a triggering mechanism, with severe storms occurring along its length only at such places where other necessary condition exist.”³³⁶ On February 1, 1953, distribution of pressure jump data started on Service A.³³⁷ Later, it was noted that radar was able to detect weak, narrow line echoes associated with the passage of a wind-shift line and accompanying pressure rise or jump.³³⁸

³³⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1951, p. 12.

³³¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1951, p. 163.

³³² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 12-51, 1951: Reorganization of the Training Section.

³³³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 14-51, 1951: Military Duty, and Procedure for Notification to Central Office; 24-51: Military Duty, and Procedure for Notification to Central Office.

³³⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1951, p. 164.

³³⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1950, p. 9.

³³⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1956, pp. 152-154.

³³⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 4-53, 1953: Utilization of Pressure Jump Data.

³³⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1958, p. 8.

The Weather Bureau had been interested in facsimile for many years, the first transmission being in 1926. The Air Weather Service was operating a large number of machines on a nationwide network put into operation in 1947, but maintenance problems were difficult to solve. In 1948, the Weather Bureau judged that improvements were necessary before a nationwide program would be established.³³⁹ Finally, in 1951, the Bureau was installing facsimile equipment at nine locations. Experimental use at Weather Bureau Airport Station (WBAS) St. Louis and Weather Bureau Station Chicago in 1950 had been enthusiastically received. Most material originated with the WBAN Analysis Center. Only 55 to 60 charts could be transmitted per day owing to the 22 minutes it took to transmit one 12 x 16 inch chart and circuit line-up time. This relieved station personnel of some work and in each case personnel offsets were possible.^{340,341} The facsimile program of the WBAN Analysis Center, along with a diagram showing the communication network, was provided in March 1955, prior to the establishment of the National Analysis Center.³⁴² This was updated after the WBAN Analysis Center became the National Analysis Center.³⁴³

As of July 17, 1951, the title of the person in charge of a station was called "Meteorologist in Charge" (MIC) rather than the title generally used "Official in Charge," except at those stations under the supervision of another station in the same city or locality. If the position were other than Meteorologist, the working title would so indicate, for example, "Observer in Charge." The title of the airport station supervisor working under the direction of a city office MIC became "Chief Airport Meteorologist" rather than "Official in Charge." The title of the city office supervisor, working under the direction of an MIC at the Airport, became his working title, such as "Meteorologist," "Climatologist, or "Section Director."³⁴⁴ The MIC in a city or locality was in charge of all offices in that city or locality. This gave considerable authority to the MIC. For instance, he was responsible for full coordination of all units to provide the most effective service with assigned staff, and could interchange personnel between units regularly or in emergencies for more effective utilization of staff and liquidation of leave.³⁴⁵

Department Order No. 68 (amended), issued May 21, 1952, increased the authority delegated to the Bureau to administer personnel activities. The Chief then increased the authority of the Regional Directors (RD) in several ways. For instance, all actions concerning grades GS-7 and below could be handled by the RD.³⁴⁶

In 1951, the Bureau announced that a National Weather Records Center (NWRC) would be established at Asheville, North Carolina, to be operated jointly by the Weather Bureau, Navy, and Air Force. It would replace the present New Orleans Tabulation Unit, and the facilities would be moved to Asheville. The quarters to be occupied were the four-story Government owned Arcade

³³⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1948, pp. 289, 290.

³⁴⁰ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 17-51*, 1951: Joint National Facsimile Network.

³⁴¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1951, p. 170.

³⁴² *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 8-55*, 1955: The Facsimile Chart Program of the WBAN Analysis Center.

³⁴³ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 32-55*, 1955: The Facsimile Chart Program of the National Weather Analysis Center.

³⁴⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 21-51*, 1951: Change in Organizational Title of "Official in Charge."

³⁴⁵ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 22-51*, 1951: Coordination of Multiple Offices in One Locality.

³⁴⁶ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 31-52*, 1952: Delegation of Authority to Regional Directors to Administer Personnel Activities.

Building. The move involving some 300 persons and 3 million pounds of records and equipment was planned for early 1952. As stated in *Weather Bureau Topics*, "The primary business will be the handling, filing, cataloging, tabulating, and summarizing what probably amounts to the greatest assembly of observational meteorological data in the world."³⁴⁷ In January 1952, the Central Office Radiosonde Verification Unit (RAVU) moved there.³⁴⁸ In the July 1955, the Northern Hemisphere Historical Map Unit moved from Federal Office Building (FOB4) in Suitland, Maryland, to NWRC; the Unit produced, each month, one time per day sea-level pressure and 500-mb maps. The series was planned to extend from 1899 to current time.³⁴⁹ Later in 1970 under the newly formed Environmental Science Services Administration's Environmental Data Service, NWRC was renamed the National Climatic Center.³⁵⁰

Storm warning flags and lanterns were still being used in 1944³⁵¹ and flags in 1950,³⁵² a practice started prior to 1880.³⁵³

A publication, "Machine Methods of Weather Statistics," was prepared in 1950 and distributed. This was to publicize the extensive punched card files that existed in New Orleans,³⁵⁴ the results of a project that started in 1937.³⁵⁵

The Weather Bureau purchased a new airplane, a 5-passenger Cessna Model 190 to replace an aged "Norseman." The airplane was equipped with modern instruments and radio air-navigation aids, including VHF radio equipment that permitted navigation by reference to the new CAA "omni-range" type radio ranges. It was used for in-flight checking and on-station inspection of the domestic aviation weather service, and for familiarization of personnel with practical bearing on their day-to-day work on the safety and efficiency of flight operations. One of the pilots was George Brewster, who championed the use of an airplane to secure first-hand operational contacts for evaluation of the aviation weather service.³⁵⁶

Machine checking of radiosonde data resulted in increased accuracy and value of upper level data in 1950. Also, procedures for the use of the new Electronic Flood Routing Machine to provide faster and more accurate analysis of data for flood forecasting were being established.³⁵⁷

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) was established as a specialized agency of the United Nations in March 1951. It was the successor to the less formal International Meteorological

³⁴⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1951, pp. 202, 203; September 1952, pp. 131, 132.

³⁴⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1952, p. 17; October-November 1953, pp. 114-116.

³⁴⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1955, pp. 156, 157.

³⁵⁰ *ESSA News*, 6, June 12, 1970, p. 2.

³⁵¹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 11-44*, 1944: Directional Displays of Storm Warnings.

³⁵² *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1950, p. 38.

³⁵³ Drum, R. O., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer (acting) for 1880, pp. 199, 200.

³⁵⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1950, p. 39.

³⁵⁵ Gregg, W. R., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1937, p. 9.

³⁵⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1950, p. 95.

³⁵⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1950, p. 130.

Organization which had been in existence since 1878. The member states elected Chief Reichelderfer as its first president.³⁵⁸

The Daily Weather Map started in 1871^{359,360} had been a mainstay ever since, and some of the maps had information printed on the back. These “map-backs” were to encourage developments in applied meteorology and to help field offices in showing their local public how weather information might be of benefit.³⁶¹ They evidently fulfilled their purpose, and were being lauded by a forecaster in 1957.³⁶² The map-back program was expanded, and from July to October 1959, 35 map backs were published.³⁶³ The Daily Weather Maps were being sent to all stations daily. They served multiple purposes, in addition to the usefulness of the map-backs. They provided a standard with which locally prepared maps could be compared; they could be used for training meteorological aids; the data were more accurate and complete than those on facsimile maps; and they were to be retained and could be used for research.³⁶⁴

In 1951, the FAWS and Aviation Forecast Units were being combined as first steps in a sweeping reorganization of Flight Advisory Warning Service and Aviation Forecasting, a reorganization that would probably not be completed until 1953. The Aviation Forecast Regions were made to coincide with the Air Route Traffic Control (ARTC) Areas.³⁶⁵

A pilot project for cooperative climatological work involving machine card processing of backlog records was developed at Iowa State College in 1943. This expanded to the Universities of Missouri and North Carolina. A standard procedure was developed, and by May 1951, requests for information about such cooperative projects were received from 26 states.³⁶⁶

The Weather Bureau, continuing to search for means of adequately meeting the increased demands for weather information, planned in 1951 to install at Durham, North Carolina, an automatic telephone forecast distribution service. This service, by which persons who call a certain number would hear a recorded local forecast, was somewhat similar to the system installed in a number of large cities by the telephone companies. This would be the first Bureau owned system.³⁶⁷ By April 1953, 10 such systems had been installed.³⁶⁸

In addition, taking a cue from the success of automatic WE 1212 success in several cities,³⁶⁹ the Weather Bureau obtained the frequency of 162.55 megacycles and inaugurated an automatic, continuous recorded FM broadcast of aviation weather information. The information was stored on

³⁵⁸ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1951, p. 4.

³⁵⁹ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 7.

³⁶⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1961, p. 77.

³⁶¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1951, p. 213.

³⁶² *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1957, p. 214.

³⁶³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1959, p. 174.

³⁶⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 15-57*, 1957: Use of the Printed Daily Weather Map.

³⁶⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1951, p. 219.

³⁶⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1951, p. 221.

³⁶⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1951, p. 14.

³⁶⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1953, p. 33.

³⁶⁹ Ten cities were using this service by August 1952, *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1952, p. 133.

magnetic tape and revised as needed at LaGuardia Field, New York. It could be heard within a radius of 30 miles.³⁷⁰ A second such station was inaugurated in 1953 in Chicago.³⁷¹ By 1955, a station had been operating at Arcola, Virginia, and it was planned to implement 21 other locations in 1956.³⁷² Pilot response to the Arcola broadcasts was very positive.³⁷³

A Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee (FIARBC) was formed in 1943 to better utilize, conserve, and control the nation's water resources. Members included the U.S. Departments of War (Army), Interior, and Agriculture, and the Federal Power Commission. The Department of Commerce joined in 1946, and later the Federal Security Agency. The Weather Bureau was particularly interested in the subcommittee on hydrology.³⁷⁴ Regional committees were established to implement the policies and purposes of FIARBC by providing a means through which the field representatives could effectively coordinate water-resource development activities.³⁷⁵

With the January issue of 1952, *Weather Bureau Topics* went to a larger page format, the first change in page size since *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel* started in 1915. Stated in the 1952 issue:

"Weather Bureau Topics is published monthly to inform all employees about newsworthy operations and work programs of the Bureau; to give background on instructions; to carry news of new personnel assignments, retirements, deaths, and similar information about employees; and to serve as a medium through which ideas and views may be exchanged to promote efficiency and teamwork in attaining our common goals. While the contents, unless otherwise specified, reflect the Central Office viewpoint, they are not instructions but are presented for information. Opinions, discussions or comments by readers are invited; they should be marked for the attention of the Editor, *Topics*. *Weather Bureau Topics* is distributed for official use only."³⁷⁶

The annual and sick leave act of 1951 went into effect January 6, 1952. Essentially, it provided 13.5 days annual leave for those having less than 3 years service, 20 days for those having 3 to 15 years, and 26.5 days for those with over 15 years service.³⁷⁷

The Weather Bureau established a new mountain observatory near the summit of Mauna Loa, one of Hawaii's still active volcanoes. Standard first-order station instrumentation was installed together with special recorders for wind direction and speed, sunshine, and precipitation, which would operate unattended continuously for three months or more. The February 1952 *Weather Bureau Topics* noted that the establishment had been recommended in 1920 by the first Pan Pacific Science Congress. The minimum access road was completed using prison labor. The Territory had

³⁷⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1951, p. 93.

³⁷¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1953, p. 67.

³⁷² *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1956, p. 28.

³⁷³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1955, p. 184.

³⁷⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1951, p. 222.

³⁷⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1952, p. 32.

³⁷⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1952, p. 2.

³⁷⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 2-52*, 1952: Annual and Sick Leave Act of 1951.

a plan to develop a winter sports park above the snowline (about 12,000 ft.).³⁷⁸ On June 28, 1956, a “slope” unit was dedicated to augment the one at the summit that was erected in 1951.³⁷⁹

The Weather Bureau established a 1-year program to evaluate a new instrument, the turbulence telemeter, or “gustsonde,” in collaboration with the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. Observations were being made at Silver Hill Observatory, Maryland; Grand Junction, Colorado; Miami, Florida; and Caribou, Maine.³⁸⁰

The SKEW T-log p adiabatic diagram made its debut in 1952. Brought into play by the Air Force, the Bureau obtained enough to send some to each station for trial use. Air Weather Service manual 105-124 was available for explanation of this chart designated AWS APC 9-16. However, the Bureau deemed that it was not to be used at raob stations in lieu of WBAN-31A-B for evaluating raobs.³⁸¹

Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* No. 52-50 provided for warnings of tornadoes in official weather forecasts issued by the Bureau whenever the facts “made verification of the forecast reasonably certain.” While warnings of severe local storms, which at times were designated to include tornadoes, had been published by the Weather Bureau for many years, it was not until March 1952 that 12- to 24-hour tornado warnings began as a regular service.³⁸² Such service was not without difficulty, and in April 1952, Chief Reichelderfer wrote, “In some parts of the country there have recently been severe criticisms of the Weather Bureau in press and over radio with reference to warnings of destructive local storms, especially tornadoes.” He issued a 3.5-page *Circular Letter* explaining the program, the difficulties involved, and how to address them. He stated there were two general bases for local warnings:

“First, the synoptic weather situation which normally reveals conditions conducive to development of severe squalls and tornadoes in any particular region within the ensuing 24 hours.

“Second, local storm reporting networks which provide for telephoning to the nearest Weather Bureau Office immediately and reporting destructive local storms actually observed. This affords means for the local forecaster to prepare immediate warnings to people directly in the path of the storms.”³⁸³

Beginning May 12, 1952, the WBAN Analysis Center started issuing “National Severe Weather Round-Ups” or bulletins describing lines, zones, and areas of severe local weather conditions. These were to aid field forecasts, who still had the responsibility for issuing the official warnings.³⁸⁴

³⁷⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1952, p. 6.

³⁷⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September, 1956, pp. 141, 142.

³⁸⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1952, p. 10.

³⁸¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 41-52, 1952: SKEW T-log p Adiabatic Diagram.

³⁸² *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1952, p. 37; March 1953, p. 19.

³⁸³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 14-52, 1952: Tornado Warnings.

³⁸⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 20-52, 1952: Severe Weather Bulletins.

Implementation of a new phonetic alphabet was started in 1952. The one previously in use “was adopted by English speaking people for use by English speaking people” and contained words which were either not known or pronounced differently by users of other languages. It was expected this alphabet would be adopted by other agencies, both national and international.³⁸⁵

On March 10, 1952, a group of Central Office personnel, led by the Scientific Services Division, met to discuss the desirability of couching forecasts in terms of probability. It was pointed out that probabilistic forecasts were already being made, including quantitative precipitation forecasts for the Los Angeles area by an objective method in a form which gave probabilities of the complete range of possible precipitation values. A conclusion was: “In general, but by no means unanimous, opinion seemed to be that, for specialized users who understand them, the probability forecasts are helpful, but that they might be confusing to the general public.”^{386,387} How little progress has been made in the last 60 years!

In 1952, the Weather Bureau announced: “An electronic flood routing analogue was installed in each of seven RFCs. The apparatus automatically produces the hydrograph for the lower end of any selected river reach while the operator traces with a stylus the hydrograph of the expected inflow at the upper end of the reach. Thus, the predicted timing, peak, duration, and slope of the flood hydrograph for the downstream point become known in a few minutes.”³⁸⁸

In order to make timely forecasts, the observational data need to be timely. To increase the time the forecaster had to study the upper air data, the Weather Bureau raob stations in the continental United States were authorized to transmit the first part of their raob report, if available, with their pibal or rawin report, effective October 24, 1952.³⁸⁹ This was evidently the start of the “first transmission” later well known to forecasters.

The Weather Bureau policy with respect to cooperation with those engaged in the private practice of applied meteorology was stated in *Circular Letter 22-48*, and was repeated in *Weather Bureau Topics*:

“It is a responsibility of the Weather Bureau to gather weather observations and distribute meteorological information including reports and forecasts for agriculture, aviation, commerce, navigation and other general branches of the business community and the general public. The Bureau also has a responsibility to promote and develop meteorological science and its

³⁸⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1952, p. 38.

³⁸⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1952, p. 56.

³⁸⁷ Hughes, L. A., 1980: Probability forecasting—reasons procedures, problems. NOAA *Tech. Memo NWS FCST 24*, Meteorological Services Division, Office of Meteorology, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 84 pp. This Technical Memorandum, although it is in the Office of Meteorology series, was authored by the Chief of the Scientific Services Division in the Central Region. It is a definitive history of the beginnings of the probability forecasting program in the NWS, and gives appropriate references. The first probability forecasts issued to the public were from the forecast office in San Francisco in 1956. A nationwide program was started in 1965, and forecasts were issued to the public in 1966.

³⁸⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1952, p. 59.

³⁸⁹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 36-52*, 1952: Earlier Transmission of Continental U.S. Raob Reports on Service C. (There are two *circular letters* with this number; likely the second was misnumbered.)

practicable applications in benefit of the national economy and national defense. Under this provision, the Bureau encourages extension of the private practice of meteorology in specialized services to business and private individuals. However, it is not the function of a Government agency like the Weather Bureau to offer individual services. In its meteorological services to the general public the Bureau cannot give attention to many of the local features of weather that are of significance in private commercial and industrial operations... . Cooperation between private meteorologists and the Weather Bureau in extending the applications and benefits of meteorology into fields beyond the scope of the Bureau's services to the general public brings manifold advantages... .³⁹⁰

Essentially this same policy was repeated in *Circular Letters 13-54* and *6-55*, and in an editorial by Chief Reichelderfer in 1963.³⁹¹

By 1952, an instrument with trade name "Metameter" that allowed the reading of a thermometer remotely had been installed at Baltimore's Friendship Airport for reading the temperature at the old City Office, and at Weather Bureau Office (WBO) Cincinnati for reading the temperature from the Abbe Observatory.³⁹² Also, seven local teletypewriter circuits were operating—Boston, Baltimore, Houston, Los Angeles, New York, Pittsburgh, and San Francisco,³⁹³ and the number continued to grow to 11 in 1953³⁹⁴ and to 55 in 1956.³⁹⁵ Such local networks were encouraged since 1948, when one had been established in two large cities.³⁹⁶

In recognition of suggestions, the Weather Bureau carefully considered in 1951 the collection and dissemination of reports on the conditions of highways. The conclusion was this was a service "quite beyond the scope of the Weather Bureau."³⁹⁷ However, the Bureau was willing to cooperate with agencies that carry the main responsibility for this service, particularly when the reports dealt with hazardous driving conditions resulting directly from weather or flood, and so stated this in 1957.³⁹⁸

Multiple Address Letter No. 127-52 announced the selection of the first Area Climatologist.³⁹⁹

In 1950, a new distribution of forecasts was tried in Georgia, whereby the state was divided into areas or zones, and a forecast for each zone was furnished thrice daily to press associations. By 1953, there were 19 states with a rather uniform program of such forecasts. This program was in addition to the localized forecasts for specific communities that had been made for a number of

³⁹⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1952, p. 68.

³⁹¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June-July 1963, p. 91.

³⁹² *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1952, p. 94. The Abbe Observatory was built in 1915 by the Weather Bureau. It was the only weather station with a commemorative name. Ownership of the observatory was transferred to the University of Cincinnati in 1965.

³⁹³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1952, p. 130.

³⁹⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October-November 1953, p. 112.

³⁹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1956, p. 226.

³⁹⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 88-48*, 1948: Local Public Service Weather Teletype Circuits.

³⁹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1952, p. 135.

³⁹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 10-57*, 1957: Weather Bureau Cooperation in Distributing Road Conditions.

³⁹⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November-December 1952, p. 152.

years.⁴⁰⁰ By August 1954, the number of states with such a program had grown to 31.⁴⁰¹ By 1955, 43 states were making more localized forecasts over areas called “zones.”⁴⁰² While the locations, sizes, etc. would vary over time, the terminology “zone forecasts” would extend into the next century when the “zones” actually became counties.

As announced by Chief Reichelderfer, “The name ‘Celsius’ will be used to designate the centigrade degree for temperature in official communications publications, manuals, records, forms, etc...., beginning January 1, 1953.” This name was in use by the WMO, the Civil Aviation Organization, and many other scientific organizations.⁴⁰³

The Bureau’s agricultural meteorology program was under review in 1953. Each MIC was asked to make a short resume of the station’s activities. The Bureau was the “executive agency” of the United States with respect to membership in the WMO. Its Commission for Agricultural Meteorology was meeting in Paris, and the Bureau wanted to report on programs over the past 6 years.⁴⁰⁴

In May 1953, the Secretary of Commerce appointed an Advisory Committee on Weather Services (ACWS). The committee published its report December 1, 1953.⁴⁰⁵ The report contained various exhibits from the Bureau, including *Circular Letter 22-48* “Policy With Respect to Private Practice of Meteorology and Instructions Regarding Cooperation with Private Meteorologists.” Chief Reichelderfer summarized the report as follows:

“In general, the recommendations of the Committee support the policies and plans of the Weather Bureau. The principal distinction is that the Committee urges faster action in carrying out such things as decentralization of forecasting, encouragement of younger well qualified professional personnel, and a delegation of certain additional duties to the Regional level. The Bureau undertook some years ago to bring most of these plans into operation but in order to avoid interruption of services and possible dislocation of personnel, the practice has been to modify such programs as forecasting on a step-by-step basis with considerable care and examination of results before proceeding further. This necessarily takes much longer than would be the case under a general reorganization. It was believed to be a more certain—a slow but sure—process that would represent also the least impairment of morale and hardship to personnel involved in transfers under difficult housing conditions and present high costs of moving. With the emphasis on a speedier action by the ACWS, a study is being made to see what measures should be taken in the near future. Field personnel will be kept advised of these plans as rapidly as they can be formulated and released for information of all concerned.”⁴⁰⁶

⁴⁰⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1953, p. 80.

⁴⁰¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1954, p. 78.

⁴⁰² *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1955, p. 105.

⁴⁰³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 42-52*, 1952: Meteorological Terminology: Celsius (Centigrade).

⁴⁰⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 22-53*, 1953: Review of the Agricultural Meteorology Program.

⁴⁰⁵ U.S. Secretary of Commerce Press Release, December 11, 1953.

⁴⁰⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 31-53*, 1953: Publication of Report of Advisory Committee on Weather Services.

Many of the actions taken in the next few years were in agreement with the Committee's recommendations. The report noted, "We should like to make it clear that we believe the present Chief of the Bureau has served with a devotion to duty, and conscientious effort, seldom found in any organization." The report also commented on the "frugality of this Bureau's operation ... (and) is to be commended in the manner which they have administered public funds. We know of no other government agency that has been so economical in the expenditure of its funds." The committee presented a rough comparison of the per capita costs of weather services in other countries, showing the United States as 18 cents; England, 20 cents; U.S.S.R., 47 cents; and Canada, 50 cents.

Interviews with field employees by the ACWS found many who stated that they were not certain about the policies of the Bureau with respect to cooperation in the development of the private practice of meteorology. Accordingly, the Bureau again provided by *Circular Letter* the relevant policy, and provided a number of prior documents and talks stating the policy.⁴⁰⁷

The aviation forecast underwent change on October 15, 1953. Voluminous documents were prepared so that they could be eventually substituted in Chapters B-20 and 21 of the Weather Bureau Manual.⁴⁰⁸ Shortly, the instructions were modified to substitute knots for miles per hour. When referring to distance, miles would be used with the understanding they were nautical miles, not statute.⁴⁰⁹ Further instructions were issued clarifying that most uses of wind speed were still miles per hour, including climatological records. But punching of WBAN Card Nos. 1 and 3 were to be in whole knots.⁴¹⁰

Once again in 1954, the use of local teletypewriter circuits was encouraged. Although weather information was distributed by the press, radio, television, and automatic telephone, such local circuits had proven useful. Instructions were provided for the establishment of such circuits.⁴¹¹ In a change in policy, the Bureau was willing to pay for the communications equipment in the Weather Bureau Office and the connecting line to the communications office; previously, subscribers had been required to share the expenses.⁴¹²

For several years after the inauguration of the *Average Monthly Weather Resume and Outlook* in 1948, the printed prognostic charts carried the notation "Not for Publication." During this period, the Central Office consistently discouraged the publication of the charts by newspapers and magazines on the basis that without the special data on page 1, the charts were too rigidly interpreted with respect to local areas and could not be properly interpreted anyway without the auxiliary charts and guidance material carried in the original publication. This restriction was removed in 1953, after a press association and some magazines and papers began republication of the charts from the printed outlook.⁴¹³

⁴⁰⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 13-54, 1954: Cooperation With Meteorologists in Industry.

⁴⁰⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 23-53, 1953: Modification of Domestic Aviation Forecast Program.

⁴⁰⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 27-54, 1954: Use of Knots as Dimensional Unit in Aviation Forecasts.

⁴¹⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 31-54, 1954: Recording Wind Data.

⁴¹¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 34-54, 1954: Local Public Service Weather Circuits.

⁴¹² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 38-55, 1955: Local Public Weather Teletypewriter Circuits.

⁴¹³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1953, p. 129.

Chief Reichelderfer stated in his 1953 annual report, "Of the instruments needed, the most important and most costly are radars used for storm detection. The Bureau has developed inexpensive means of converting surplus and obsolescent airplane-detection radar equipment for weather observations use on the ground and has managed to double their range from 50 to 100 miles." He also stated, "One of the most important developments was the design of an unattended station which takes observations and automatically sends the reports on the teletype, doing the work of a group of observers and communicators."⁴¹⁴

In March 1954, the Weather Bureau encouraged local stations to add information about expected weather beyond the regular period covered by the daily forecast when the synoptic situation and available guidance from the forecast centers made it possible to do so.⁴¹⁵ It was suggested the FP 1 forecasts prepared by District Forecast Centers and being sent on Service C include brief information for "the third day ahead." This was to help local officials in their preparation of tailored forecasts for agriculture. It was recognized that "it may not be possible to include more than a statement that precipitation is or is not expected or that conditions are 'unsettled.'" ⁴¹⁶ The *circular letters* noted that the Bureau's "long term objective is to provide the farmer by radio at his breakfast hour with weather advice suited to his requirements, as localized as possible, for as long in advance as we can prepare reliable outlooks." The Bureau went so far as to provide tables of farming operations related to specific crops in specific locations. For instance, if rain were expected in the critical period May 10-20, the advice in Pima county to cotton farmers would be to "delay planting."⁴¹⁷ The inclusion of the third-day outlook in the FP 1 forecasts was emphasized in May 1956.⁴¹⁸

Each year since the first explosion of the atomic bomb, the Weather Bureau received many requests about the possible effects on the weather. The Bureau stated in 1954, that it had in cooperation with the AEC, tracked radioactive clouds and found no instance of an affect on weather beyond a few miles from the explosion. However, because of the potential importance and the considerable interest from the public, a study was started to document, insofar as possible, all plausible relationships between the firing of atomic weapons, their radioactive debris, and weather conditions.⁴¹⁹

Instructions were issued in 1954 that "All field personnel should become familiar with techniques for computing fallout of radioactive debris resulting from atomic explosions in order that they will be able to provide information to Civil Defense authorities in case of a disaster or in connection with Civil Defense exercises."⁴²⁰ The techniques were modified in 1955 by the AEC for thermonuclear weapons because of the higher penetration into the atmosphere.⁴²¹ On June 1, 1955, it became mandatory that fallout winds would be computed for 15 specific stations and

⁴¹⁴ Reichelderfer, F. W., Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau for 1953, p. 2.

⁴¹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1954, p. 19.

⁴¹⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 5-54*, 1954: Localized Forecasts and Advices for Agriculture.

⁴¹⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 6-54*, 1954: Specialized Forecasts for Agriculture.

⁴¹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 19-56*, 1956: Third-Day Outlook in Guidance forecasts (FP-1).

⁴¹⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1954, p. 25.

⁴²⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 16-54*, 1954: Fallout of Radioactive Debris from Atomic Bombs.

⁴²¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 7-55*, 1955: Fallout of Radioactive Debris.

transmitted.⁴²² On January 16, 1956, the number of stations was increased to 39 Weather Bureau and 11 military stations.⁴²³ Information was issued regarding the Bureau liaison activities with the various levels of the Civil Defense Agencies—Federal, State, and Local. Two Bureau meteorologists were assigned at the Federal level to work in Battle Creek, Michigan.⁴²⁴ On July 2, 1958, the Bureau participation in the Federal Fallout Monitoring Network became effective. The general objective was to develop and maintain, within Weather Bureau facilities, the capability to observe and report radiation dose rates, not only for purposes of self-preservation but also as an important contribution to local and national survival efforts in the event of a nuclear attack.⁴²⁵ A Radiation Dosage Calculator was supplied to each first order station.⁴²⁶

Observing and forecasting dew is important for agriculture. For instance for wheat rust, the spores must be in contact with the plant and be wet for a sufficient period, generally 6 to 9 hours, to develop. Two stations—Bismarck and Fargo, North Dakota, made dew observations in the summer of 1953. In response to *Circular Letter 22-53*, six local offices in the cotton region took observations in 1954. The Weather Bureau hoped to expand the dew investigation network in 1955.⁴²⁷

In response to numerous suggestions, the Weather Bureau in 1954 studied the efficiency and expense of punching of cards locally and centrally. It was found that the current practice of local punching was preferable and would be continued.⁴²⁸

A “mapped forecast” program started in 1954 was expanded in 1955. While not explained in detail in the reference, it evidently involved making a map of the forecast, and then sending it in coded form on Service C in conjunction with the FP-1 guidance material. It was hoped the forecast could eventually be sent on facsimile, thereby eliminating the coding and decoding and making it more useful.⁴²⁹ This program started in the East, and expanded westward.^{430,431,432}

The Weather Bureau was in the process of establishing State Forecast Centers. Guidance would be furnished by the District Forecast Centers, and the State Forecast Centers would issue the FP State

⁴²² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 24-55*, 1955: Computation of Civil Defense Fallout Winds.

⁴²³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-56*, 1956: Computation of Civil Defense Fallout Winds.

⁴²⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 41-55*, 1955: Liaison with State and Local Civil Defense Agencies.

⁴²⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 5-58*, 1958: Implementation of Weather Bureau Participation in Federal Fallout Monitoring Network.

⁴²⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 11-58*, 1958: Radiation Dosage Calculators.

⁴²⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1954, p. 36.

⁴²⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1954, p. 65.

⁴²⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1955, p. 185.

⁴³⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 13-55*, 1955: Mapped Forecast Experiment—Kansas City.

⁴³¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 17-55*, 1955: Mapped Forecast Experiment—Washington District.

⁴³² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 11-56*, 1956: Changes in State Forecast Responsibility (FP) for Minnesota, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Forecasts based on the mapped FP-1s from the WBAN National Center.⁴³³ They would also be assigned responsibility for the Shippers' Temperature Forecasts.⁴³⁴

In June 1954, The Weather Bureau Library moved to FOB4 in Suitland, Maryland. It had at its inception with the Signal Service been located on G Street, then was moved to the Ferugson Building when the Signal Service moved. Before moving to FOB4, it was located in the Packard Building, one-half block north of the Central Office Administration Building for about 7 years.⁴³⁵

On July 1, 1954, the Joint Numerical Weather Prediction Unit (JNWPU) began its official life. It was organized under a joint agreement between the Weather Bureau, Air Weather Service, and Navy Aerological Service. The purpose of the unit was to convert to routine procedure the forecasting methods developed through research in NWP, and to produce prognostic weather charts on an operational basis using numerical techniques. It had long been a goal in meteorology to obtain an accurate quantitative answer to the problem of describing the atmosphere by means of the basic physical equations, but until recently, the efforts had been stalled by the seemingly endless calculations required. The plan was to start with simple models following a plan laid down by Jules Charney and the pioneering work at the Institute of Advanced Study at Princeton, New Jersey. Quarters were readied in FOB4. The computer was to be delivered about March 1955. Charts of constant pressure, temperature, and vertical velocities, and precipitation would be produced initially, and probably for only 24 hours in advance. The area covered was to be North America, to be expanded to the Northern Hemisphere in about 2 years. In addition to prediction, the need for objective analysis of data was recognized. Although much of the drudgery of calculations would be taken over by the computer, the problem of interpretation of the improved prognostic charts in terms of "weather" for the present would remain the problem of the forecaster. As the forecaster "... is gradually relieved of the necessity for making the large-scale prognosis, he will be able to devote more of his time to translating his prognosis into smaller-scale weather effects, taking into account more effectively topography, coastlines, and other influences."⁴³⁶ The latter was a great prediction; it is also a great prediction of the future even today!

Following devastating hurricanes in 1954 (Carla, Edna, Hazel) and 1955 (Connie, Diane), Chief Reichelderfer, with funds specifically appropriated by Congress for modernizing the hurricane warning network and for research, formed the National Hurricane Research Project (NHRP) with Dr. Robert Simpson as Director. Later, following the formation of the Environmental Science Services Administration, NHRP became the National Hurricane Research Laboratory (NHRL) in 1964.^{437,438}

⁴³³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 35-54, 1954: State Forecasts (FP) for New York, Maryland, and Delaware.

⁴³⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 10-55, 1955: State Forecasts (FP) for Pennsylvania and Southern New Jersey.

⁴³⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1956, pp. 146-148.

⁴³⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1954, pp. 109, 110.

⁴³⁷ Dorst, N. M., 2007: The National Hurricane Research Project: 50 years of research, rough rides, and name changes. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **88**, 1966-1988.

⁴³⁸ Willoughby, H. E., D. P. Jorgensen, R. A. Black, and S. L. Rosenthal, 1985: Project STORMFURY: A scientific chronicle 1962-1983. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.* **66**, 505-514.

About March 1, 1955, the National Weather Analysis Center (NWAC) moved to FOB4 in Suitland, Maryland, and was now adjacent to the newly formed JNWP; prior to that time, it was named the WBAN Analysis Center and was in the Old Main building at 24th and M Streets in Washington, D.C. Established as a joint center, the Bureau was authorized to take over the operation as of July 1, 1955.⁴³⁹ As of May, 1955, a total of 187 persons were employed by the Center, 104 from the Weather Bureau, 45 from the Air Force, and 38 from the Navy. It occupied 13,215 square feet of floor space in FOB4. Its products were extensive.⁴⁴⁰

By November 1955, the 36-h 500-mb prognostic chart produced by JNWPU was being transmitted on Service C in code, about 9 hours after data time. This did not replace the official NWAC chart, and was primarily to get forecasters used to the product. The model was a three-level baroclinic model developed by Charney⁴⁴¹ with a grid spacing of "about 300 km (or, to be exact, 0.8 inches on a mapscale of 1:15 million)." The most restrictive assumptions were as follows:⁴⁴²

- (1) The flow was assumed to be geostrophic for purposes of computing vorticity and horizontal advection.
- (2) The flow was assumed to be nonviscous and adiabatic.
- (3) The underlying terrain was assumed to be very nearly flat.
- (4) The static stability was assumed to vary only in the horizontal.

The equipment used figured in defining the grid spacing. The IBM 1401 printed 10 characters per inch both horizontally and vertically. One inch on a polar stereographic map with a mapscale of 1:30 million at 60° N. latitude is 381 km; that was the basic grid unit, and came to be called the "bedient" in honor of Art Bedient who devised much of the design, equipment, and code for the numerical models for many years. Still today, models are run at fractions of a bedient. Note that 0.8 inches on this scale is 304.8 km, about what is in the paragraph above.⁴⁴³

Sometime prior to April 24, 1956, a 72-h barotropic forecast was being transmitted on facsimile, the model being "well known" as termed in a JNWP prepared document, and a Charney and Phillips reference is given. The grid spacing was double that of the above described baroclinic model and the time step was 2 hours.^{444,445}

On July 2, 1956, the thermotropic, two-level model replaced the baroclinic three-level model. The operational system at this time consisted of (1) plotting the data by hand, (2) analyzing the data

⁴³⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1956, pp. 65, 66.

⁴⁴⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1955, p. 64.

⁴⁴¹ Charney, J. G., 1954: Numerical prediction of cyclogenesis. *National Academy of sciences Proceedings*, **40**, No. 2, pp. 99-110.

⁴⁴² *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 44-55*, 1955: Transmission of JNWP Prognostic Charts on Service "C", and enclosure.

⁴⁴³ Hoke, J. E., J. L. Hayes, and L. R. Renninger, 1981: Map projections and grid systems for meteorological applications. Air Force Global Weather Central, U.S. Air Force, *AFGWC/TN - 79/003*, 85 pp.

⁴⁴⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 16-56*, 1956: Information on on Barotropic Forecasts Prepared by the Joint Numerical Weather Prediction Unit.

⁴⁴⁵ Charney, J. G., and N. A. Phillips, 1953: Numerical integration of the quasi-geostrophic equations for barotropic and simple baroclinic flows. *J. Meteor*, **10**, pp. 71-99.

manually, (3) interpolating by eye values at gridpoints and punching them onto cards, and (4) loading the punched data cards and instruction deck into the machine, and running the model. Output was still at 12, 24, and 36 hours. The height values were automatically plotted and “shaded” between specified contours, and lines were manually drawn along the shaded boundaries.⁴⁴⁶ (Author’s note: This was the so-called zebra chart.) A reference to the thermotropic theory was given as Thompson and Gates.⁴⁴⁷ On March 11, 1957, vertical velocities at 500 mb from the thermotropic model were sent coded on Service C.⁴⁴⁸ Evidently, the early 2- and 3- level baroclinic models had sufficient problems that they were replaced by a barotropic model.⁴⁴⁹ Later, a successful 3-level baroclinic model was implemented in 1962.⁴⁵⁰

In September 1955, the Extended Forecast Section moved from the Old Main Building where it had been located since 1941 to Suitland, Maryland. Prior to that, it had been at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) after being established in August 1940. The basic methods used by the 46-member Section were developed at MIT between 1935 and 1940 in cooperation with the Weather Bureau, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and the Department of Agriculture. The Section’s primary functions were to prepare 5- and 30-day forecasts and to conduct research designed to improve extended-period forecasting.⁴⁵¹ One of the regular publications from the unit was a series in the *Monthly Weather Review* describing the weather and circulation of the month. Members of the unit alternated as authors, recurring ones included William H. Klein,⁴⁵² James F. Andrews, and Charles M. Woffinden. The 30-day outlooks had been provided to first-order field stations twice monthly since July 1948. The outlooks were given in anomalies for long periods and large areas; they did not attempt to indicate what weather conditions would exist at any particular time or place. These outlooks were for use on station and were not to be given further distribution.⁴⁵³ However, in response to increasing pressure from news-disseminating agencies, and the fact that some newspapers had been printing their own version of the outlook obtained from the published charts secured through the Superintendent of Documents, the Bureau started transmitting an experimental 30-day outlook in 1950. It was on Service C in plain language near the 1st and 15th of each month.⁴⁵⁴ Eventually, in 1954, they were put on facsimile and consisted of 700-mb mean contours and the expected temperature and precipitation anomalies.⁴⁵⁵

Initially, the analyses on which the NWP models operated were prepared by NWAC, but since October 1, 1956, “...raw data have been fed directly into the computers and analyzed

⁴⁴⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 30-56, 1956: Prognostic Charts Prepared by the Joint Numerical Weather Prediction Unit.

⁴⁴⁷ Thompson, P. D., and W. L. Gates, 1956: *J. Meteorology*, 13, pp. 127-144.

⁴⁴⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 6-57, 1957: Coded JNWP Vertical Motion Prognostics.

⁴⁴⁹ Shuman, F. G., 1989: History of Numerical weather prediction at the National Meteorological Center. *Weather Forecasting* 4, p. 287.

⁴⁵⁰ Shuman, F. G., op cit., pp. 290, 291.

⁴⁵¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1956, pp. 22-24.

⁴⁵² Klein, W. H., 1956: The weather and circulation of January 1956—a month with a record low index. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 84, pp. 25-34.

⁴⁵³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 63-48, 1948: 30-Day Outlook.

⁴⁵⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 29-50, 1950: Teletype Distribution of Experimental Thirty-Day Outlook.

⁴⁵⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 20-54, 1954: 30-Day Outlook on Facsimile.

automatically.”⁴⁵⁶ The data were first collected on perforated paper tape, then fed into a tape-to-card converter which delivered IBM punch cards with the same information. These cards were provided to the IBM 701, which in turn digested the data and made the analyses and predictions. This automated operation was in place for the barotropic model. An IBM 704 was expected to be delivered in July 1957, which would be about five times as fast, and all the NWP models would be fed from automated analyses.^{457,458}

Some reorganization of climatological services, was announced in July 1954. The Section Center consolidating was discontinued, and the station designation as Section Center was discontinued. At many stations, the MIC was to carry out the State Climatologist functions and acted as the State Climatologist. In states with sufficient need, the Bureau envisioned a full-time State Climatologist, and even in some cases a separate State Climatologist office. Substation management functions invested in a Section Center were transferred to the Weather Records Processing Center in Asheville, except for Alaska, Hawaii, and the West Indies.⁴⁵⁹

On July 27, 1954, the Secretary of Commerce announced the appointment of a five-man Advisory Committee on Weather Services to assist the U.S. Weather Bureau in a plan for the active encouragement and development of the field of private meteorology in the interests of the national economy and national defense.⁴⁶⁰ Likely this action was in response to the 1953 Advisory Committee on Weather Services report (see page 54).

In agreement with user needs, the Bureau reduced the number of state (FP) forecasts from four to three per day. It was believed this would meet the public need. One benefit was that this schedule provided more time for the study of upper air data.⁴⁶¹

During August and September 1954, the Severe Local Storms Warning Service (SELS) moved to Kansas City, Missouri. The impetus for the forecasting of severe storms, and tornadoes in particular, by a specialized unit reached back to the Major Fawbush and Captain Miller forecast of a tornado at Tinker Air Force Base (AFB) on March 25, 1948.⁴⁶² The Air Force organized a Severe Weather Warning Center (SWWC) at Tinker AFB in February 1951. The Weather Bureau formed

⁴⁵⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1956, p. 222.

⁴⁵⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1957, pp. 27, 28.

⁴⁵⁸ Cressman, G., 1959: An operational objective analysis system. *Mon. Weather Review*, **87**, 367-374. Methods of analysis by curve fitting had been proposed, and B. Gilcrest and Cressman (1954: An experiment in objective analysis. *Tellus*, **6**, 309-318) had developed such a method that was put into operation on October 10, 1955 (see C. H. Dey, 1989: The evolution of objective analysis methodology at the National Meteorological Center. *Wea Forecasting*, **4**, 297-312.) This method used a sectionalized fit of second-degree polynomials, but because it had difficulties with uneven data distribution and was expensive in machine time (F.G. Shuman, 1989: History of Numerical weather prediction at the National Meteorological Center. *Wea Forecasting* **4**, p. 290), Cressman adopted and adapted a method proposed by P. Bergthorsson and R. Doos (1955: Numerical weather map analysis. *Tellus* **3**, 329-340.) which went into operations in April 1958 (see Dey, 1989, p. 306). By early 1970, this method was universally employed in all NMC objective analyses (Dey, 1989, p. 306).

⁴⁵⁹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 22-54*, 1954: Section Center Consolidation.

⁴⁶⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1954, p. 66.

⁴⁶¹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 24-54*, 1954: Reduction to Three Scheduled State Forecasts Per Day.

⁴⁶² Grice, G. K. and others, 1999: The golden anniversary celebration of the first tornado forecast. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. soc.*, **80**, pp. 1341-1348.

its own severe weather unit within the WBAN Center in Washington D.C., in March 1952, and issued its first Tornado Bulletin on March 17. The unit became permanent and was formally recognized on May 21 as the Severe Weather Unit (SWU). Although it was still located with the WBAN Center, it was a separate entity. SWU was renamed Severe Local Storm Warning Service (SELS) on June 17, 1953, the year before it moved to Kansas City.⁴⁶³ In 1966, the WBO Kansas City was named the National Severe Storms Forecast Center (NSSFC) with Allen Pearson as Director, in which SELS was incorporated.⁴⁶⁴ An IBM 1620 computer was installed in April 1963 to be used in preparing forecasts and warnings.⁴⁶⁵ The IBM 1620 was replaced by a Control Data Corporation CDC 3100 in December 1965.⁴⁶⁶

On August 29, 1954, the Federal Employees Group Life Insurance Act of 1954 came into being. This applied to all Weather Bureau employees, and the Weather Bureau was proactive in providing information concerning it.⁴⁶⁷

The Weather Bureau made good use of cooperative observers. In January 1955, it had 12,591 substations, a substation being defined as a station at which observations were taken, or other services rendered, by part-time, non-classified Weather Bureau personnel who were not certified for aviation and synoptic observations.^{468,469}

The Bureau of Standards under the joint sponsorship of the Weather Bureau, Air Weather Service, and Navy Office of Aerology investigated a Film Optical Sensing Device for Input to Computers (FOSDIC). The device was built around an automatic electronic cathode ray scanner for reading digital values and codes from microfilm of punched cards. It was expected those data could then be fed into other machines to repunch cards, create magnetic tape, or as direct input to computers. The mountain of punched cards was growing at an astonishing rate, and the paper stock in the earlier card decks had deteriorated with age to the point of uselessness for machine processing. If FOSDIC proved successful, it would be possible to solve the card problem by storing data on microfilm. Even so, this would not be “permanent,” but have life expectancy of perhaps 75 to 100 years.⁴⁷⁰ FOSDIC did prove successful, and with a new version put into operation in 1961, NWRC disposed of 105 million punched cards, representing 8,000 square feet of storage space.⁴⁷¹ In January, 1963, the responsibilities of the three Weather Records Processing Centers at Chattanooga, Kansas City, and San Francisco were transferred to NWRC. These three centers were a consolidation from seven located in Albany, New York; Chattanooga, Tennessee; Kansas City,

⁴⁶³ Corfidi, S. F., 1999: The birth and early years of the Storm Prediction Center. *Wea, Forecasting*, **14**, pp. 507-525. As detailed by Corfidi, SELS was joined by the SWWC unit at Tinker in January 1956. SWWC was disbanded in February 1961, but was later resurrected as the Military Weather Warning Center in 1964. It was collocated with SELS until January 1970 when it moved to Offutt AFB in Omaha, Nebraska, as part of a reorganization of the Air Force Global Weather Central.

⁴⁶⁴ *ESSA NEWS*, **2**, February 25, 1966, p. 3.

⁴⁶⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August-September 1963, p. 108.

⁴⁶⁶ *ESSA NEWS*, **1**, December 28, 1965, p. 5.

⁴⁶⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1957, p. 215.

⁴⁶⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November-December 1950, p. 160.

⁴⁶⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1955, p. 6.

⁴⁷⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1955, p. 24.

⁴⁷¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1962, p. 127.

Missouri; Chicago, Illinois; Fort Worth, Texas; San Francisco, California; and Seattle, Washington, that took place in 1950. These seven centers corresponded to the seven Weather Bureau Regions then in existence.⁴⁷²

In 1955, continuous feed facsimile recorders became available and several permonth were being installed at local offices.⁴⁷³

A practice forecast program for GS-7 and GS-9 meteorologists who wished to become forecasters was started in 1955. The main objectives were to discover talent and to assist in the development of forecasting skills. It was to be used as an aid in selecting persons for GS-11 positions. Forecasts were made of temperature, precipitation amount, and surface wind speed. Punched cards were used for verification. It seems that all who wanted to could participate, and while official time could be used when it did not interfere with official duties, it was a volunteer program and it was expected that much of the practice forecasting would be done outside of regular hours.⁴⁷⁴ The response was spirited; over 600 applications were received. Only 200 could be accommodated initially.⁴⁷⁵

Chief Reichelderfer stated Weather Bureau policy that attendance of employees at scientific meetings was encouraged, but because of limited travel funds, would be, in general, supported for only those persons giving a paper. When going without expense to the Federal Government, official time could be granted when the individual could be spared from official duties.⁴⁷⁶ This policy has essentially been unchanged until the present.

In early 1955, the need for close liaison among organizational elements was encouraged. The forecasting structure was at that time:

“... the organization of the Weather Bureau’s forecasting service establishes certain functions for the WBAN Analysis Center, the SELS Center, the several classes of forecast centers and field offices in such a way that these functions complement one another. That is, the Analysis Center has the responsibility for issuing master analyses and guiding prognostic charts, the forecast centers aided by these analyses and prognoses determine the broadscale weather patterns of temperature, precipitation, and other elements, and the latter indications are in turn further refined by the local office for use in meeting the weather service requirements of the community it serves.”⁴⁷⁷

⁴⁷² *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1963, p. 7.

⁴⁷³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1955, p. 51.

⁴⁷⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 36-54*, 1954: Practice Forecast Program.

⁴⁷⁵ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 11-55*, 1955: Practice Forecast Program.

⁴⁷⁶ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 3-55*, 1955: Travel to Scientific Meetings at Government Expense.

⁴⁷⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 16-55*, 1955: Need for Continued Close Liaison Between Field Stations and Forecast Centers.

In order to accommodate turbo-power transport aircraft that were to begin operation April 1, 1955, on some routes, winds aloft forecasts (AW's) issued from some FAWS Centers were modified to include temperatures.⁴⁷⁸

An Advisory Committee on Climatology was established by the National Research Council at the request of Dr. Reichelderfer, and the first meeting in April 1955 yielded a number of constructive comments and suggestions.⁴⁷⁹

Arrangements were made for Chicago to prepare and enter on Service C twice a day a tabular bulletin of 50 selected locations. Daily maximum temperatures, 24-h precipitation, and state of weather were included.⁴⁸⁰ This "Selected Cities" bulletin also carried into the next century, although the exact content, and methods and location of preparation changed over time.

Another change in 1955 was the planning for a new type of office. These offices would operate part-time with small staffs. The purpose was primarily for the distribution of warnings and advisories of severe or critical weather conditions, and the duty would be flexible to concentrate on those critical times. Forecasts would be made by forecast offices, but detailed data and interpretation and refinements on strictly local phenomena could be added. Such information could be based on local objective forecasting schemes. In addition, two new RFCs were established, bringing the total to nine. Eight others were planned.⁴⁸¹

Arrangements were made in 1955 through contract with the University of Miami to obtain quantitative rainfall estimates from radar observations. These estimates would augment the measurements made by rain gauge networks. This was to be done by integration of continuous photographs of the Plan Position Integrator (PPI) radar scope so that the end product would be a pattern of light and gray-scale proportional to the accumulated echo intensity on the scope, and hence proportional to the rainfall amounts. These would be calibrated to yield the estimates desired.⁴⁸²

In order to improve the severe weather warning service, a new system of internal RAREP and warning coordination teletypewriter circuits (RAWARC) was put into operation on September 1, 1955.⁴⁸³

In 1955, funds were provided under Public Law 71 for studies of hurricane forecasting. The law charged the U.S. engineers to make studies of measures needed to protect low-lying coastal areas against damage from hurricane induced high waters. "The Hurricane Project" as it was called came to have historical significance.⁴⁸⁴

⁴⁷⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 16-55*, 1955: Upper Air Temperature and Wind Forecasts for Turbo-prop Aircraft Operations.

⁴⁷⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1955, p. 84.

⁴⁸⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1955, p. 105.

⁴⁸¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1955, pp. 154, 155.

⁴⁸² *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1955, p. 158.

⁴⁸³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1955, p. 159.

⁴⁸⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1955, p. 159.

The establishment of District Meteorological Offices started in late 1955 with the assignment of a District Meteorological Officer at Kansas City. This employee was to give almost full-time attention to organization of district, airway, and severe weather forecasting and to further implementation and expansion of the mapped forecast program.⁴⁸⁵

In 1956, a new publication series called "*Climatography of the States*" was established to accommodate publication of a monograph type. It was designed to reflect climatic conditions and trends, as distinguished from current data.⁴⁸⁶

The term "normals" was defined to conform to the WMO definition: "A mean based upon the 30-year period of record 1921-1950, revised each decade by dropping the first 10 years of data and adding the 10 most recent years." A lexicon of "means" was established.⁴⁸⁷

A new Weather Bulletin Unit located in FOB4 was established to prepare national weather summaries transmitted on Service C. By February 1, 1956, those previously prepared at Chicago, Atlanta, and New York were being prepared there. This was to establish a weather "watch" and to issue timely weather releases for distribution over press and radio wires.⁴⁸⁸

A fledgling storm surge program was moving, and forecasts were being made in 1955 at Washington National Airport, Miami, and New Orleans. Plans were to extend this work to other offices.⁴⁸⁹

At the request of the Weather Bureau, the National Academy of Sciences appointed an Advisory Committee on Meteorology. The committee met for the first time in April 1956.⁴⁹⁰

Television was being explored for weather briefings. In 1956, a closed circuit was operating from the Weather Bureau Airport Station to the Flight Service Building in Billings, Montana.⁴⁹¹

Obtaining weather data from infrequently traveled ocean areas was a major problem. Possible solutions included fixed ocean stations occupied by vessels, fixed platforms set in shoals ("Texas towers"), and marine automatic weather stations. The former two were very expensive; tests of the latter were underway in the mid 1950's. Specifically, five were placed by a ship departing Norfolk, Virginia, in August 1956.⁴⁹²

On July 31, 1956, the Weather Bureau announced that it was procuring 39 new radars, 8 of them for the U.S. Navy. These radars would have a wavelength of 10 cm, 500 kw power output, and pulse

⁴⁸⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1955, p. 190.

⁴⁸⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1956, p. 9.

⁴⁸⁷ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 18-56*, 1956: Definition of Climatic Means.

⁴⁸⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1956, p. 19.

⁴⁸⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1956, p. 37.

⁴⁹⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1956, p. 55.

⁴⁹¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1956, pp. 78, 79.

⁴⁹² *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1959, pp. 83, 64.

lengths of ½ and 4 microseconds. They would be considerably more flexible than the existing APS-2 radars in use,⁴⁹³ and would eventually be called WSR-57.⁴⁹⁴

In the mid 1950's, a “spherics” research program was underway. Instruments were designed to detect the discharge from lightning; the theory was that if triangulation could be made from two or more stations, the location of high density of flashes could be correlated with radar echoes to warn of tornados. There was the question of whether all tornados had high density of lightning. In June 1957, spherics devices were located at Austin, Abilene, Oklahoma City, Shreveport, and Victoria.⁴⁹⁵ This work was superceded when Doppler radar came on the scene, and experimentation started in June 1957 at Wichita.⁴⁹⁶

In 1957, the organization of the Weather Bureau forecast service was described as follows:

“The organization of the Weather Bureau’s forecast team could be represented by a flow diagram resembling a wheel. The hub represents the central analysis function comprising the National Weather Analysis Center, Extended Forecast Section, and Joint Numerical Weather Prediction Unit. The area forecast centers, such as District Forecast Centers, State Forecast Centers, and Severe Local Storm Unit, may be regarded as the spokes, radiating outward to the local forecast offices at the rim which represents the direct service to the public—the ‘grass roots’ contracts. From the hub outward, successive stages of localization and detailed refinement of forecasts is the purpose.”⁴⁹⁷

In 1957, the Weather Bureau with the cooperation of the Air Force and Navy installed a “first of a kind” system to transmit PPI radar data from the Air Force CPS-9 radar at Blue Hill near Boston to WBAS East Boston 12 miles away and to the Naval Air Station at South Weymouth, Massachusetts, 10 miles away. The system used a commercial television camera to pick up and transmit the signal.⁴⁹⁸ In 1958, the Bureau agreed for a television station to install a microwave unit in a Bureau office to televise the radar scope image. Results were positive, and in 1959 permission was extended to other television stations. Expenses were borne by the television station.⁴⁹⁹

“Runway Visual Range (RVR)” was being investigated by the Weather Bureau in 1956-57. This is the distance a pilot about to land can expect to see the high intensity runway lights. Equipment was installed at Newark airport, Newark, New Jersey, in 1956, with no plans to expand to other airports.⁵⁰⁰ At about the same time, transmissometers with indicators in both the control tower and the Weather Bureau office were installed to measure runway visibility near the touchdown

⁴⁹³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1956, pp. 129, 130.

⁴⁹⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1958, pp. 26, 27.

⁴⁹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1957, pp. 5-7.

⁴⁹⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1957, pp. 96, 97.

⁴⁹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1957, pp. 63, 64.

⁴⁹⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1957, pp. 143, 144.

⁴⁹⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-59*, 1959: Telecast of Images from Weather Bureau radar Scopes.

⁵⁰⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 7-56*, 1956: Runway Visual Range Program—Newark, N. J.

point on the instrument runway at 20 airports.⁵⁰¹ RVR was so favorably received by the CAA that the program was planned to be expanded to other sites from the initial installation at Newark.⁵⁰²

Department of Commerce Order No. 91 (amended) carried 1956 authorization for the Weather Bureau of not only the Chief and Deputy Chief, but also for three Assistant Chiefs—one for Technical Services, one for Administration, and one for Program Planning. There were three Directors—one for the Office of Climatology, one for the Office of Meteorological Research, and one for the Physical Science Laboratory.⁵⁰³

In May 1956, Chief Reichelderfer issued instructions that 5-day forecasts would be issued by District Forecasters three times weekly following facsimile guidance from the Extended Forecast Section. This information could be released to the press and other interested parties starting on May 21.⁵⁰⁴ 1957 saw what was hailed as a major step in the preparation of 5-day forecasts. Daily circulation maps were prepared by NWP, then integrated into 5-day means centered on each day in the future. The new technique also speeded up the former process so that the forecasts could be disseminated sooner.^{505,506} Statistical techniques were now being employed whereby surface temperature was related to these upper air circulation parameters.⁵⁰⁷ This was one of the first uses of the “perfect prog” approach in statistical weather forecasting. The predictand, temperature in this case, was related to upper air variables that could be forecast by NWP, then the assumption was made that the NWP was correct, and the same relationships applied in a forecast sense. A excellent history of long range forecasting was later prepared by Namias.⁵⁰⁸ In early January 1958, the Bureau put into effect an authorization by the Department of Commerce that the 5-day forecasts could be sold at the rate of 30 cents per month. The stations “still publishing and distributing” this information were directed to put the subscription plan into effect, and the bulletins would have the specific title “Five-Day Forecast Bulletin.”⁵⁰⁹

A Tropical Weather Summary product covering the Miami and San Juan Districts west of longitude 60°W had been issued for several years in the hurricane season from WBO Miami. It was so popular and successful, that in 1957, it was extended to cover essentially all the Gulf and Atlantic coastal areas. The product was to provide assurance to areas in the main hurricane belt that conditions were stable, or to give an additional day or two of alert in areas where conditions were becoming more favorable for tropical storm inception.⁵¹⁰ Also in 1957, 30-day Hurricane Probability Statements were prepared by HURIC, Miami, on the basis of semi-monthly hurricane outlooks

⁵⁰¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 9-56*, 1956: Runway Visibility Observations.

⁵⁰² *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1957, pp. 192, 193.

⁵⁰³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 10-56*, 1956: Organization and Functions of the Weather Bureau.

⁵⁰⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 20-56*, 1956: Five-Day Forecast.

⁵⁰⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1957, p. 231.

⁵⁰⁶ Namias, J., 1957: Progress in objectivization and automation of extended forecasting. *Transactions of the New York Academy of Sciences*, Ser. II, **19**, pp. 581-592.

⁵⁰⁷ Klein, W. H., B. M. Lewis, and C. W. Crockett, 1962: Objective forecasts of daily and mean surface temperature. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **90**, pp 11-17.

⁵⁰⁸ Namias, J., 1968: Long range weather forecasting—history, current status and outlook. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **49**, pp. 438-470.

⁵⁰⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 3-58*, 1958: Fees for Five-Day Forecast Bulletins.

⁵¹⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 9-57*, 1957: Tropical Weather Summary.

furnished by the Extended Forecast Section. Such statements had been prepared the past 2 years for internal use; now they were to be issued to the public.⁵¹¹

The surface observation times for record aviation and synoptic reports was advanced 30 minutes starting June 1, 1957. That is, the 0000 GCT observation would be made at 2330 GCT. Second order stations were to, in general, take observations 30 minutes earlier than usual. A lexicon of “times” was provided, consisting of actual time, standard time, ascribed time, filing time, scheduled filing time, scheduled time of transmission, and actual time of transmission.⁵¹²

Chief Reichelderfer stated the Bureau’s long-range plans for two rawinsondes and two rawins per day at stations in the rawinsonde network. Starting October 1, 1957, the 22 stations taking four rawinsonde measurements would reduce to two per day, those being at 0000 and 1200 GCT.⁵¹³

By 1958, NWP under JNWP and its associated activities in NAWAC and the Extended Forecast Section had progressed to the point that they were consolidated into the National Meteorological Center (NMC) with the director of JNWP, Dr. George Cressman, as its head. It was placed administratively directly under the Office of the Bureau Chief. Thus, NAWAC was removed from the Forecasts and Synoptic Reports Division, and the Extended Forecast Section was removed from OMR. It is interesting that the Weather Bureau recognized the scientific capabilities of Dr. Cressman, and stated, “In order to provide the greatest possible emphasis on technical and scientific aspects, it is expected that the Director of NMC will have a minimum of administrative responsibility, and in time the administrative functions of the Suitland organizations may be consolidated, and it is anticipated that these duties will be delegated to an executive assistant.”⁵¹⁴

In 1958, a Special Projects Section was established under OMR with Dr. Lester Machta as its head. This Section had rather broad responsibilities, including coordinating the work for the Atomic Energy Commission. It was physically located in the Old Annex,⁵¹⁵ the next rooms down from the Short Range Forecast Development Section headed by Roger Allen. This was the group that formed the nucleus of the Air Resources Laboratory formed under a later reorganization.

On January 6, 1958, the Federal Communications Commission and the U.S. Air Force authorized all radio and television stations in the United States to use the CONELRAD (CONtrol of ELectromagnetic RADiation) alert signal to preface the broadcast of an emergency weather or flood warning when requested to do so by the local Weather Bureau office. While devised for alerting the nation to an enemy aircraft attack, CONELRAD was now to be used for weather emergencies.^{516,517}

⁵¹¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 14-57*, 1957: Thirty-Day Hurricane Probability Statement.

⁵¹² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 12-57*, 1957: Change in Times of Surface Observations.

⁵¹³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 17-57*, 1957: Discontinuance Transmission 0600 and 1800 GCT Raob Data.

⁵¹⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1958, pp. 23, 24; January 1961, p. 5.

⁵¹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1958, pp. 39, 40.

⁵¹⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1958, pp. 61, 62.

⁵¹⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-58*, 1958: Use of the CONELRAD Alerting Signal in Dissemination of Emergency Weather and Flood Warnings.

The final report of the Advisory Committee on Weather Control, established as a temporary agency in August 1953, submitted its final report on December 31, 1957. The essential conclusion was, “statistical evidence for increases in precipitation of 10 to 15 percent exists from several West Coast orographic seeding operations conducted during winter and spring months. Flat land projects yielded no evidence of ‘unnatural’ effects from the evaluation techniques applied.”⁵¹⁸ But the Bureau was concerned about statements made by Bureau personnel, and had previously directed that clearance was to be obtained from the Central Office before issuance of statements, primarily because of possible legal action.⁵¹⁹

On July 1, 1958, the Hurricane Forecast Center in Miami was relocated to the Aviation Building from its previous location in the Lindsey Hopkins Hotel. Besides needing additional space, a major reason for the move was to provide a suitable site for the new WSR-57 radar to be installed that summer.⁵²⁰ At that time, there were five hurricane forecast centers forecasting for the Atlantic, Caribbean, and Gulf of Mexico located at San Juan, Puerto Rico; New Orleans; Miami; Washington; and Boston. The Pacific centers were at Honolulu, Los Angeles, and San Francisco.⁵²¹

In November 1957, forecasters at WBAS Los Angeles began issuing experimental probability rainfall forecasts for the local metropolitan area. The concept had been tested the preceding season at San Francisco. The “rain index” forecasts were kept rather simple with the local forecasts for each forecast period containing a brief statement describing the chance of rain in percentages. Because the rainy season ends by April, the probabilities were discontinued at the end of April. On that date, a press release was distributed in Los Angeles requesting comments on the usefulness of the program. About 75 written replies were received, and only one of the 75 expressed disfavor.⁵²² This was the beginning of probability forecasting in the Weather Bureau, but a national program was not established until 1965. The national program was due largely to the efforts of Charles Roberts. The first year was primarily for familiarization and training; release of the forecasts to the public started in early 1966.⁵²³

On October 1, 1958, the Weather Bureau started a limited project in specialized agricultural weather service for the Delta area of Mississippi. On that date, a Weather Bureau Agricultural Service Office (WBASO) headed by Jack Riley opened at the Delta Branch Experimental Station at Stoneville, Mississippi, and an Agricultural Weather Forecast for the Delta area was issued. A teletypewriter circuit was established that had drops at WBAS Jackson, WBAS Memphis, WBASO Stoneville, and WBO Vicksburg. It was a Weather Bureau “first” in that it was the first time a “local” public service loop was expanded to an “area” loop covering several cities not previously

⁵¹⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1958, p. 68.

⁵¹⁹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 75-47*, 1947: Artificial Inducement of Precipitation; **98-47**: Legal Aspects of Rainfall Allegedly Produced by Artificial Means; **10-51**: Statement on Artificial Rainmaking.

⁵²⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1958, p. 144.

⁵²¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1959, pp. 102-104. This reference gives a brief history of the Hurricane Warning Service.

⁵²² *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1958, p. 149.

⁵²³ Hughes, L. A., 1980: Probability forecasting—reasons procedures, problems. NOAA *Tech. Memo NWS FCST 24*, Meteorological Services Division, Office of Meteorology, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, pp. 4, 5.

served by the Bureau.⁵²⁴ According to the Mississippi Extension Service, the project was very successful in its first year of operation.⁵²⁵

The Federal Aviation Act of 1958 created the Federal Aviation Administration, and replaced the Air Commerce Act of 1926, the Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938, and the Airways Modernization act of 1957.⁵²⁶

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) invited the Weather Bureau to act as its agent in the field of meteorological satellites. The Weather Bureau readily accepted the proposal, and had in fact already started research on this subject. A Meteorological Satellite Section under Dr. Sigmund Fritz was formed in OMR and was located in close proximity to NMC. The ultimate utilization of data from satellites would involve problems concerning instrumentation, data reduction and processing, and meteorological analysis.⁵²⁷

By 1958, 16 automatic weather stations were reporting some or all of the following weather elements: runway visibility, temperature, dewpoint, wind direction and speed, altimeter setting, precipitation amount, and thunderstorm. Observations were being formatted for Service A. Intensive work was underway to observe other elements, all composed of a series of “plug-in” units which could be grouped together for any set of desired variables.⁵²⁸

In June 1959, the Radar Analysis and Development Unit (RADU) at Kansas City inaugurated a new service of providing a 3-Hourly Radar Analysis giving a synoptic interpretation of radar reports plotted for three consecutive hours by RADU. The analysis gave locations and movement of synoptically important echoes, and called attention to their formation, their changes in length and width, their acceleration or deceleration, and wave formations. The service made this “pre-digested” radar information available to stations lacking the time to plot and interpret hourly RADU summaries. The information was sent on the RAWARC in plain language.⁵²⁹

As part of its research program, the Weather Bureau in the late 1950's was investigating what role, if any, “freezing” nuclei (also sometimes called sublimation or deposition nuclei with slightly different connotations) have on rainfall. Researchers collaborated with scientists in Australia, and built “cold boxes” to count such nuclei.^{530,531}

⁵²⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1958, p. 186. [The author's first research project, as a member of the Short Range Forecast Development Section, was to develop an objective method for forecasting the probability of precipitation in the Mississippi Delta (Glahn, H. R., 1962: An experiment in forecasting rainfall probabilities by objective methods. *Mon. Wea. Rev.* **90**, pp. 59-67). Screening regression popularized by Bob Miller of the Traveler's Research Center and Empirical Orthogonal Functions rediscovered by Ed Lorenz of MIT had recently arrived on the objective forecasting scene.]

⁵²⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1959, p. 208.

⁵²⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1959, p. 3.

⁵²⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1959, pp. 4, 5.

⁵²⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1959, pp. 15, 16.

⁵²⁹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 6-59*, 1959: 3-Hourly Radar Analysis.

⁵³⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1959, p. 66.

⁵³¹ Kline, D. B., and G. W. Brier, 1958: A note on freezing nuclei anomalies. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **86**, 329-333.

The Weather Bureau airplane, a Cessna purchased in 1950, was retired and a twin-engine Beachcraft, N122G, was obtained from the Air Force in January 1959. The Cessna had been in the air 1,123 of the 3,430 days it was on Weather Bureau roles, and about 3,700 takeoffs and landings were made. The Beachcraft was renovated, including installation of new communications and navigation systems.⁵³² Unfortunately, with George Brewster as pilot and six passengers, it went down on July 25, 1960, on the way to Nome, Alaska, for a field station inspection.⁵³³ The wreckage was not found until August 24, 1963.⁵³⁴

The Weather Bureau and the Federal Aviation Agency jointly organized a pilot weather briefing service which made greater use of FAA flight service stations to handle preflight briefings and to answer air-ground requests for weather information. This was one of the most important steps taken in recent years to provide pilots with the aviation weather support they needed. A Pilot Weather Briefing Course was designed by the Bureau in co-operation with the FAA. It was given at the FAA School in Oklahoma City from July to November 1960.⁵³⁵ Soon, closed circuit TV was being used for pilot weather briefings, the first being installed at New York International Airport.⁵³⁶ Also, the Bureau began transmitting radar scope data from the WSR-57's for purposes of pilot briefings; by 1961, such equipment was operating at WBAS's Miami, Florida, and Charleston, South Carolina.⁵³⁷ A closed circuit TV system identical to the one in New York was put into operation at Miami the next year.⁵³⁸

An experiment in Quantitative Precipitation Forecasting (QPF) was conducted March through May 1960 by the SELS Center in Kansas City. Messages were posted on RAWARC. Locations of isohyets plus a descriptive explanation similar to the FT-1 was given.⁵³⁹ The method was evidently based on the work of Charles Gilman and Randall Peterson.⁵⁴⁰ A specialized QPF unit was established at NMC-NAWAC manned by personnel especially trained in objective procedures for forecasting precipitation quantitatively. Guidance was distributed beginning September 15, 1960, on RAWARC and Service O. The objective techniques employed the numerical and subjective analyses and prognoses produced within NMC, and the forecasts produced were internally consistent with those products. QPFs prepared in this manner had proven to be superior to the subjective forecasts being distributed over facsimile. Major departures from this guidance were to be coordinated with adjacent Forecast Centers to avoid discontinuities at forecast boundaries, and it was suggested coordination directly with NAWAC might be necessary.⁵⁴¹

In April 1960, the supervisory responsibilities were emphasized. Each Official in Charge of a field operating unit was to receive necessary guidance and direction from the appropriate Regional

⁵³² *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1959, pp. 165, 166.

⁵³³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October 1961, p. 175.

⁵³⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August-September 1963, Topigrams.

⁵³⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1961, p. 8.

⁵³⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1961, p. 44.

⁵³⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1961, p. 62.

⁵³⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1962, Topigrams.

⁵³⁹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 3-60*, 1960: Experiment in Quantitative Precipitation Forecasting.

⁵⁴⁰ Gilman, C. S., and K. R. Peterson, 1960: Notes on a Procedure for Quantitative Precipitation Forecasting, U.S. Weather Bureau Manuscript.

⁵⁴¹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 8-60*, 1960: Centralized Quantitative Precipitation Forecasts Unit.

Administrative Officer (Pacific Supervisory Officer for the Pacific) in all matters pertaining to administrative and support services. On technical matters, the direction and guidance was to come from the responsible technical division under the Assistant Chief for Technical Services. On other subject matters, such as aviation, climatology, and research, direction and guidance was to come from the office of the responsible director of these activities.⁵⁴² The Bureau had made adjustments in the forecasting structure as explained in *Multiple Address Letter* 40-59. The areas of responsibility were laid out in maps for seven areas:

- (1) Aviation Weather Forecast Areas and FAWS Centers,
- (2) Aviation Regional Forecast Areas,
- (3) Guidance (FP-1) and Coordination Areas,
- (4) Forecast Areas (FP) and Centers,
- (5) Five-Day Forecast (FE) Districts,
- (6) Quantitative Rainfall Forecast Zones, and
- (7) Zone Forecast Areas.

According to the maps, Kansas City had a different area of responsibility in each of these areas.⁵⁴³ Hurricane warning responsibilities were assigned to the Hurricane Forecast Centers, and Severe Local Storm Warnings were assigned to the local Bureau offices (the warning responsibility being separate and distinct from the severe local storm forecast responsibility assigned to the SELS Center).⁵⁴⁴

Effective November 15, 1960, the name of the National Severe Local Storms Research Project was changed to the National Severe Storms Project. The headquarters was at Kansas City, and central office functions were under the Office of the Deputy Director of Meteorological Research (Severe Storms). The aircraft operation program was dubbed Operation Roughrider, and was nominally headquartered in Oklahoma City.⁵⁴⁵

The National Science Foundation announced in the summer of 1960 the establishment of a National Center for Atmospheric Research near Boulder, Colorado.⁵⁴⁶ This facility was destined to have considerable effect on the progress of the atmospheric sciences and on the work of the Bureau.

A new class of observing station was agreed to by the Bureau and the FAA to provide for a local source of observations at towers that did not have them. These stations were called LAWRS for Limited Airport Weather Reporting Stations, and reported only ceiling and sky conditions, visibility, weather and obstructions to vision, wind direction and speed, temperature and dew point (if remote reading equipment were available), altimeter setting, RVR where applicable, and remarks.⁵⁴⁷

⁵⁴² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 4-60, 1960: Amendment to Position Descriptions of Field Officials "In Charge."

⁵⁴³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 5-60, 1960: Adjustments of the U.S. Weather Bureau Forecasting Organization.

⁵⁴⁴ Amendment to Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 5-60, 1960: Forecast Realignment.

⁵⁴⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 11-60, 1960: Severe Storms Research project.

⁵⁴⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1961, p. 62.

⁵⁴⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 2-61, 1961: Establishment of Limited Airport Weather Reporting Stations (LAWRS).

The Civil Aeronautics Board Economic Regulation 314 permissively authorized U.S. air carriers to provide free transportation to aviation forecasters of the Weather Bureau for flight familiarization purposes. This provided for a possible flight familiarization program so that aviation forecasters could be familiar with flight crew weather problems.⁵⁴⁸

The research aircraft program, formerly attached to NHRP, was established in 1961 as a separate organization called the Research Flight Facility.⁵⁴⁹

JNWPU/NMC replaced the IBM 704 with an IBM 7090, 6 to 10 times as fast as the 704. This greatly increased the production capacity and timeliness of products. Three automatic data plotters were installed in 1960, which produced maps more accurately and faster than older manual methods. The development of a satisfactory baroclinic forecasting model was JNWPU's main developmental project, and in trying to solve the numerical instabilities of the "primitive equations."⁵⁵⁰ A number of analyses and forecasts were being prepared solely by numerical methods.⁵⁵¹

The Weather Bureau had been out of space at 24th and M Streets for years, and alternative space had been sought. The Bureau was asked in 1961 to consider the Bureau of Standards space which would be available in about 3 years. The Bureau agreed, and the Under Secretary of Commerce agreed. 500,000 square feet were requested.⁵⁵² A new building at the site to house all computer-oriented activities was planned.⁵⁵³ The move was never made.

An atomic-powered automatic weather station was successfully installed in the Canadian Arctic, and the first report was received on August 17, 1961.⁵⁵⁴

Agricultural services continued to expand, and by spring 1962, services were provided in eight broad areas. Teletypewriter circuits were installed in each area to carry timely and frequent forecasts to local radio and television stations, as well as to farm publications and newspapers.⁵⁵⁵

The name of the Office of Civil Defense Management was changed to the Office of Emergency Planning (OEP), and in 1962 the instructions for notification of severe weather was essentially changed from a 24-hour notification to only 40 hours per week, except for reports of destructive tornadoes, first advisories on tropical storms, bulletins of major floods in progress, and seismic sea wave warnings. These were to be reported through a calling tree.⁵⁵⁶ Additional instructions were issued the next year to inform OEP about only reports of destructive tornadoes, first advisory on tropical storms, and bulletins on major floods in progress. It was emphasized that OEP did not now

⁵⁴⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 7-61*, 1961: Flight Familiarization by Aviation Forecasters on U.S. Air Carriers—Operating Instructions.

⁵⁴⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1961, Topigrams.

⁵⁵⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1961, pp. 25-27.

⁵⁵¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1961, p. 13.

⁵⁵² *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1961, Briefs from CO Staff Conference; September 1961, Briefs from CO Staff Conference.

⁵⁵³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1964, Topigrams.

⁵⁵⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1961, Topigrams.

⁵⁵⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September 1961, p. 155.

⁵⁵⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 3-62*, 1962: Notifying Office of Emergency Planning about Severe Storms.

have RAWARC. The OEP Headquarters desired nationwide information, but Regional OEP offices, of which there were eight, desired only regional information.⁵⁵⁷

Instructions were issued to provide a climatological forecast for each major holiday, starting with Memorial Day 1962. The forecasts were to be prepared by the Extended Forecast Branch of NMC both as written statements and in mapped form, and were to be released from 2 weeks to a month before each holiday. The forecasts were to be clearly labeled as “not a specific forecast but is based on climatological indications” and could be given local distribution as seemed appropriate.⁵⁵⁸

Attention was called in 1962 to the fact that the accepted definition of VFR (Visual Flight Rules) of “...ceiling 1,000 ft and visibility 3 miles...” was no longer strictly accurate, and impressed on personnel that pilot briefings were to be given in terms of ceiling and visibility, not VFR.⁵⁵⁹

The Bureau had access to radar data from many cooperating facilities. In July 1962, Chief Reichelderfer listed 221 such facilities.⁵⁶⁰

Always short of space, the Bureau secured space for the Hydrologic Services Division, the Training Section, and the Office of Forecast Development at 4880 MacArthur Boulevard, Washington, D.C. The move was in February 1962.⁵⁶¹ (See Appendix III, Fig. 13.)

Guidance forecasts were extended to 72 hours on September 18, 1961, with daily transmission of sea-level isobars and fronts, precipitation, and surface temperature.⁵⁶² The use of such guidance was beginning to catch on. For instance, Salt Lake City discontinued local preparation of surface synoptic maps on August 1, 1961, as well as local preparation of a 500-mb chart twice daily.⁵⁶³

The Bureau’s satellite program continued to grow. TIROS 5 had been launched on June 19, 1962.⁵⁶⁴ The Meteorological Satellite Activities organization became the National Weather Satellite Center. As such, it was responsible for the development and management of the National Operational Meteorological Satellite System.⁵⁶⁵ The facility was dedicated on September 6, 1963.⁵⁶⁶

⁵⁵⁷ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 6-63*, 1963: Notification of Office of Emergency Planning about Severe Storms.

⁵⁵⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 4-62*, 1962: Climatological Outlooks for Major Holidays.

⁵⁵⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 5-62*, 1962: Minimum Ceiling and Visibility Requirements for VFR Flight and Use of the Term VFR in Pilot Briefing.

⁵⁶⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 7-62*, 1962: Radar Weather Observations from Cooperative agencies.

⁵⁶¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1962, Topigrams.

⁵⁶² *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1962, p. 9.

⁵⁶³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1962, p. 18.

⁵⁶⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, June 1962, Topigrams.

⁵⁶⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1962, Topigrams.

⁵⁶⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1963, p. 125, 126.

After 3 years of development and testing, the Bureau placed an order for 11 Automatic Meteorological Observing Stations (AMOS) to be delivered in approximately a year. AMOS-IV would outperform the AMOS-IIIs in use.⁵⁶⁷

The first useful numerical prediction at sea-level was achieved by Reed.⁵⁶⁸ This model went into operation in 1962. Although it could not compete successfully with manual methods, it did provide useful information, and the decrease of sea level pressure forecast error from 1962 to 1965 was largely attributed to Reed's model.⁵⁶⁹

A new Weather Radar Laboratory was opened in 1962, organized by the National Severe Storms Project. It was expected to conduct research on many aspects of severe weather detection and to study the dynamical and kinematical properties of squall lines and thunderstorms. It was located adjacent to the Atmospheric Research Laboratories of the University of Oklahoma.⁵⁷⁰ It was separated from the National Severe Storms Project in 1963 and operated as a separate unit under Dr. Edwin Kessler.⁵⁷¹ Later in March 1964, the Laboratory and Project were consolidated into the National Severe Storms Laboratory (NSSL) in Norman, Oklahoma, with Kessler as Director.^{572,573}

Dr. Harry Wexler, Director of the Bureau's OMR, died on August 11, 1962, at 51 years of age. Much of the Bureau's research the past few years had been orchestrated by Dr. Wexler.⁵⁷⁴ He was supportive, along with Dr. Reichelderfer, of the numerical weather prediction activities, that were to play a pivotal role in the future.⁵⁷⁵ The 1963 October-December issue of the *Monthly Weather Review* was devoted to Wexler and his work. One can only wonder how this event affected the future of the Bureau.

The Bureau, along with the Navy and the National Science Foundation, established Project Stormfury in 1962 with Dr. Joanne Simpson as Director. The goal of the project was to explore the structure and dynamics of hurricanes, and to achieve better understanding, improve prediction, and investigate the possibility of modifying some aspects of these destructive storms.⁵⁷⁶ It was thought "seeding" would create instabilities in the hurricane wind system which would cause the ring of maximum winds near the eye to expand outward and diminish. Building on the 1961 experiment with hurricane Esther, a new device for dispensing the silver iodide seeding crystals was used in 1962.⁵⁷⁷ Stormfury ended in mid 1983. A comprehensive summary states that while the project

⁵⁶⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1962, p. 105.

⁵⁶⁸ Reed, R. J., 1963: Experiments in 1000 mb prognosis. *NMC Tech. Memo.* **26**, 43 pp.

⁵⁶⁹ Shuman, F. G., 1989: History of Numerical weather prediction at the National Meteorological Center. *Wea Forecasting* **4**, p. 291.

⁵⁷⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1962, p. 106.

⁵⁷¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1963, p. 133.

⁵⁷² *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1964, p. 43.

⁵⁷³ Corfitti, S. F., 1999: The birth and early years of the Storm Prediction Center. *Wea Forecasting* **14**, pp. 507-525.

⁵⁷⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, July 1962, p. 111.

⁵⁷⁵ Harper, K. C., 2008: *Weather by the Numbers*. The MIT Press, 328 pp.

⁵⁷⁶ *ESSA World*, **1**, October 1966, pp. 4, 5.

⁵⁷⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August 1962, p. 121.

provided funds for much useful research and development of instrumentation, operational seeding was “neither microphysically nor statistically feasible.”⁵⁷⁸

The Bureau’s General Circulation Research Laboratory (GCRL) acquired an IBM STRETCH computer. The laboratory, essentially an outgrowth of JNWP, was formed in 1955 as the General Circulation Research Section with Dr. Joseph Smagorinsky as Director, and the name was changed to the General Circulation Research Laboratory in 1959.⁵⁷⁹ Its purpose was to study the longer range problem of the general circulation, and hence attack the question of whether long-range prediction was possible. In the meantime, NMC concentrated on the day-to-day weather. GCRL became the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) in 1963 just before Dr. White’s reorganization in 1964.⁵⁸⁰ GCRL and the STRETCH were located at 615 Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, D.C. The computer was available, as was the IBM 704 at NMC previously, for other researchers in OMR located at the Central Office to use. Punched cards, prepared on an IBM 026 or 029 card punch, were sent by a routine courier in tin boxes to be fed into the STRETCH during the night, and the folded, 11-inch paper from the IBM 1401 would be returned the next morning for eager eyes. (GFDL later became part of the research arm of ESSA, and moved to a building constructed for it at Princeton University in 1968.⁵⁸¹ Dedication of the laboratory at Princeton occurred on January 25, 1969.⁵⁸²)

As an indication of the accuracy of weather forecasts in 1962, the American Meteorological Society (AMS) issued a statement on weather forecasting which states,

“For periods extending to about 72 hours, weather forecasts of moderate skill and usefulness are possible. . . . Average weather conditions for periods of about a week can be predicted with reasonable skill. Beyond 3 days, skill in day-to-day predictions is small. Average temperature conditions for periods up to a month can be predicted with some skill. Day-to-day or week-to-week forecasts within this time period have not demonstrated skill.”⁵⁸³

In 1963, the Bureau’s Radar Laboratory in Norman, Oklahoma, began tests on a radar data processor to be used in flood forecasting. The device, called a precipitation integrator, integrated echo intensity of the radar over extended periods so that the total accrued precipitation was observed. The information was transmitted to an RFC.⁵⁸⁴

The Bureau was supporting Antarctic research. Bureau employees accompanied Richard Byrd’s 1928, 1934, and 1939 expeditions. Since 1954, the Bureau was involved continuously in Antarctic

⁵⁷⁸ Willoughby, H. E., D. P. Jorgensen, R. A. Black, and S. L. Rosenthal, 1985: Project STORMFURY: A scientific chronicle 1962-1983. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.* **66**, 505-514.

⁵⁷⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, September-December 1962, p. 133.

⁵⁸⁰ Smagorinsky, J. 1983: The beginnings of numerical weather prediction and general circulation modeling: Early Recollections. *Advances in Geophysics*, **25**, pp. 3-37. Also see history maintained by GFDL.

⁵⁸¹ *ESSA News*, **3**, June 23, 1967, p. 1.

⁵⁸² *ESSA News*, **5**, January 24, 1969, p. 3.

⁵⁸³ American Meteorological Society, 1962: AMS Statement of Weather Forecasting. *Bul. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **43**, p. 251.

⁵⁸⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, February 1963, p. 24.

operations, including the earlier expeditions preparatory to the international Geophysical Year, 1957-58. In 1963, meteorological programs were being carried out at five stations, including Amundsen-Scott at the South Pole. A number of geographical features had been named for Bureau employees.⁵⁸⁵

The Bureau converted from helium to hydrogen for balloon inflation where local conditions permitted. This was a cost saving measure, and balloons were expected to go a few thousand feet higher. New inflation shelters were built with safety considerations in mind. No other country was using helium for this purpose. As recorded earlier, the Bureau had completed a switch from hydrogen to helium for safety purposes in 1940.⁵⁸⁶

By 1963, an experimental TV Weather station, called VIDMET (Video-Meteorology) had been constructed on the top floor of the central Office building by James Fidler. The purpose was to experiment with methods of presenting the output of the Bureau in an efficient and economical manner.⁵⁸⁷

On October 1, 1963, Dr. Robert M. White became Chief of the Weather Bureau. Dr. Reichelderfer had served for 24 years, longer than any head of the weather service before or after.⁵⁸⁸ He had written a letter resignation to President Kennedy on July 24 asking for an effective date of retirement not later than September 30, or “sooner if convenient.”⁵⁸⁹

In late 1963, the Bureau decided that the current configuration of the Nimbus satellite being developed by NASA would not be used in the National Operational Meteorological Satellite System. The first operational satellite was expected to be an improved version of TIROS. Nimbus would be used by NASA in its research and development program.⁵⁹⁰ Nimbus I, launched on August 28, 1964, was a failure in that the solar panels froze, and batteries could not be recharged.⁵⁹¹

On November 13, 1963, the Bureau of the Budget issued a Circular that directed the Department of Commerce to prepare, and keep current, a plan for Federal meteorological services and research, with the assistance of other Federal Agencies. Chief White stated, “One implication of the Circular is clear. In Federal meteorological programs, the Department of Commerce has been given the leading role.”⁵⁹² The Department of Commerce formed the Office of the Federal Coordinator for Meteorological Services and Supporting Research, more briefly known as the Office of the Federal Coordinator for Meteorology, in 1964.⁵⁹³

⁵⁸⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1963, pp. 39, 42.

⁵⁸⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1963, p. 76.

⁵⁸⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1963, p. 79.

⁵⁸⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, August-September 1963, pp. 106, 109.

⁵⁸⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October Special Issue 1963, p. 2.

⁵⁹⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1963, p. 126.

⁵⁹¹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, October-November 1964, p. 145.

⁵⁹² *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1964, pp. 2, 12-14.

⁵⁹³ OFCM 2012: Home page, p. 1, cites Public Law 87-843.

TIROS VIII was launched on December 21, 1963, and carried, in addition to the standard TIROS TV camera, automatic picture transmission (APT) equipment enabling it to take meteorological photographs and send them immediately to relatively simple ground stations around the world. Unfortunately, the pictures were distorted.⁵⁹⁴

The role of the industry-government interface in weather services had been dealt with several times in the past. In January 1964, Dr. White issued a statement, written in the first person, on his views. He established a position of Special Assistant for Industrial Meteorology on his staff.⁵⁹⁵

On March 15, 1964, the production of the daily weather maps shifted from 24th and M Streets to NMC.⁵⁹⁶

Dr. White lost no time in bringing change to the Bureau. Department Order 91 (revised) went into effect on April 15, 1964. It announced the creation of an Office of National Meteorological Services to provide executive direction of Bureau and field services, and named Dr. George P. Cressman as its head;

Dr. Frederick G. Shuman was named to succeed Cressman as Director of NMC. Also established were a Systems Development Office with Merritt Techter as Director, an Office of Hydrology with W. E. Hyatt as Director, and a Chief Scientist position. Other Directors were: Dr. Helmut Landsberg, Director of Climatology; David Johnson, Director of the National Weather Satellite Center; R. C. Grubb, Director of Administration and Technical Services; N. A. Lieurance, Director of Aviation Weather Services; Gordon Cartwright, Director of International Affairs; Walter Hahn, Director of Policy Planning; and J. M. Beall, Director of Public Information. The Regional Administrative Offices became Regional Offices, and a new Region VI was established in Hawaii, bringing the total to six.⁵⁹⁷

Also in 1964, a State User Service Representative (STATUS REP) and Regional User Service Representative (REGUS REP) program was started. This was all part of the goal of providing responsive weather services. These representatives were to maintain liaison with user groups,



Dr. Robert M. White served as Chief of the Weather Bureau from 1963 until the Environmental Science Services Administration (ESSA) was formed in 1965. White then became the Administrator of ESSA.

⁵⁹⁴ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1964, p. 6; February 1964, p. 23.

⁵⁹⁵ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 2-64*, 1964: Government-Private Meteorological Services.

⁵⁹⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, March 1964, Topigrams.

⁵⁹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, April 1964, pp 50-54, 63-67; September 1964, pp 128-134.

receive requests from users, recommend actions in light of related programs and probable effect on all services, and evaluate effectiveness for the user of weather services.⁵⁹⁸

The electronic maintenance training centers at Sterling, Virginia, and Kansas City were consolidated at Kansas City in 1964.⁵⁹⁹

By mid 1964, the Bureau had been operating a Local Forecast Verification Program for over 6 years. The results had proven valuable in several areas, including replies to Congressional inquiries and accuracy of local forecasts on a geographic basis. However, the time required for each station to compute the means, prepare the contingency tables, and compute various statistics was considerable. Also, the time checking the WB Forms 650-10 sent by the field offices by the Central Office staff was a heavy workload. Accordingly, the form was simplified, and a simple punch card was devised and cards were provided to each station. Most rules were unchanged. One card was to be punched per day giving the maximum temperature forecast and observed for “today,” “tonight,” and “tomorrow,” and the precipitation for the same periods as a “yes” or “no.” Cards, together with the forms, were to be sent to the Central Office monthly. The cards were then machine processed to produce the data desired.⁶⁰⁰

It had been noted that, “Because precipitation is of more concern to the public than any other element in the daily forecast, meteorologists tend to overforecast showers.” While precipitation could occur on the mesoscale as well as the synoptic scale, forecasts were made based on spacing of stations at the synoptic scale. Instructions were issued that, with the exception of certain locations where objective techniques had been developed that used parameters of specific local significance, precipitation should be predicted only when one of the following conditions existed:

- (1) there is reasonable expectancy that there will be precipitation associated with synoptic scale systems; or
- (2) the development of significant precipitation on a more local scale can be tracked by radar or anticipated from analyses of motion systems on scales smaller than the spacing of the conventional observing networks.

To try to curb this overforecasting, a six-month trial was started on August 31, 1964, such that predictions of precipitation 12 hours or more in advance of “map time” would be limited to those circumstances in which rainfall, in amounts of significance to the general public, would occur over at least 20% of the surrounding synoptic scale area which was meteorologically homogeneous. “Synoptic scale area” referred to the area within a 50 to 150 mile radius of the center of the locality concerned. As a policy, it was proposed that showers be included in the area or local forecast only when 20% or more of the observing points in the surrounding synoptic scale area were (a) expected to receive precipitation measuring 0.05 inches or more during the forecast period, or (b) expected

⁵⁹⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 9-64, 1964: Establishment of User Service Representative in Each State.

⁵⁹⁹ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1964, p. 76.

⁶⁰⁰ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter* 5-64, 1964: Local Forecast Verification Program.

to receive continuous precipitation in any amount for more than one hour. It was suggested that the score proposed by Brier⁶⁰¹ be used for verification.⁶⁰²

On or about August 5, 1964, the winds aloft FD program for the 48 states was partially assumed by NMC, and was later to be fully assumed when resources were available. Transmission was made only on Service A and facsimile. The FDs were produced by computer, essentially one forecast for each grid square of the NMC computer standard grid. The forecast transmitted was for the center of each square, and each square was represented by a primary Service A weather reporting station selected as near the center of the square as possible. Winds were at 6-hour intervals at levels above mean sea level of 3,000, 5,000, 10,000, 15,000, 20,000, and 25,000 ft.⁶⁰³ The program was fully implemented on February 24, 1965, and included temperatures as well as winds.⁶⁰⁴ Amendments to these machine-produced forecasts could be made by FAWS offices for briefing or other local uses when deemed necessary, but had to be reported monthly.⁶⁰⁵ Observations to be used for verification were defined.⁶⁰⁶

The Weather Bureau's first Marine Automatic Meteorological Observing Station (MAMOS) was developed. Two units were moved to fixed positions in the Gulf of Mexico. MAMOS was similar to the Navy's NOMAD.⁶⁰⁷

Effective January 1, 1965, the synoptic weather observations were reported in degrees Celsius instead of Fahrenheit (F) in the Coded Synoptic Reports. However, this did not apply to aviation observations nor imply use of Celsius units in public weather forecasts. NMC and forecast centers could use the temperature scale that was more convenient, or more applicable to the problem at hand.^{608,609}

On October 25, 1964, President Johnson announced a United States-Soviet agreement whereby weather information would be exchanged on a direct communications link. On October 28 data were

⁶⁰¹Brier, G. W., 1950: Verification of forecasts expressed in terms of probability, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **78**, pp. 1-3.

⁶⁰² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 8-64*, 1964, and appendix: Precipitation Forecasts. Actually the directions for the use of the score proposed by Brier were not according to his formulation. As proposed by Brier, the forecast was for probability forecasts (expressed as a decimal number from zero to one) and the observation was either zero or one. The instructions stated that both the forecast and observation would be fractional, the latter being the fraction of the defined area receiving precipitation. But, that suited the purpose of the experiment.

⁶⁰³ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 4-64*, 1964 plus addendum No. 1: Winds Aloft Forecasts; FD Program in the 48 Contiguous states.

⁶⁰⁴ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-65*, 1965: Winds Aloft (and Temperature) Forecasts; FD Program in the 48 Contiguous states.

⁶⁰⁵ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-65*, 1965: Amendment No. 1: Manual Override of Machine Prepared Upper Wind Forecasts.

⁶⁰⁶ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 2-65*, 1965: Addendum No. 1 to Amendment No. 1: Manual Override of Machine Prepared Upper Wind Forecasts.

⁶⁰⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1964, p. 79; July-August, Topigrams.

⁶⁰⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1964, p. 168.

⁶⁰⁹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 10-64*, 1964: Use of Celsius Temperature Scale in Coded Synoptic Reports.

flowing on a 5000-mile cable circuit from Washington to Moscow by way of London, Frankfurt, Berlin, and Warsaw.⁶¹⁰

The use of the CONELRAD system for emergency alerting was replaced by the Emergency Broadcast System. The Weather Bureau was authorized to use the system to disseminate emergency weather warnings. Two features proved useful—Emergency Action Notification Signal and the State Defense Network (FM).⁶¹¹

The World Weather System being developed by the World Meteorological Organization called for three World Weather Centers, one in Washington, one in Moscow, and one in Melbourne. The World Weather Center in Washington began operations on January 1, 1965. The Center activities were carried out by NMC, the National Weather Satellite Center, the NWRC, and other Bureau components in such activities as training and archiving.⁶¹²

In early 1965, the IBM STRETCH and 1620 computers at GFDL and the 7094-II and 1401 computers at the National Satellite Center were replaced by a Control Data Corporation (CDC) 6600 computer. The 6600 was six times faster than the STRETCH. It was planned that the 7094-II and 1401 at NMC would be used for a short overlapping period, but within a year all Bureau major computer work in Washington would be done in a single facility.⁶¹³ The CDC was a 60-bit word machine and considerable work was required to convert software from the 32-bit IBM machines.

The term AIRMET for “Airmen’s Meteorological Information” replaced “Advisory for Light Aircraft” in the In-Flight Weather Safety Service.⁶¹⁴

On May 13, 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnson submitted to Congress a reorganization plan consolidating the Weather bureau and the Coast and Geodetic Survey (C&GS) to create a new Commerce agency called the Environmental Science Services Administration (ESSA). It was to be effective in 60 days.⁶¹⁵

⁶¹⁰ *Weather Bureau Topics*, December 1964, p. 166.

⁶¹¹ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 11-64*, 1964: Use of Emergency Broadcast System for Dissemination of Emergency Weather and Flood Warnings.

⁶¹² *Weather Bureau Topics*, January-February 1965, p. 10.

⁶¹³ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January-February 1965, p. 13.

⁶¹⁴ *Weather Bureau Circular Letter 3-65*, 1965: Substitution of term “AIRMET” for “Advisory for Light Aircraft” in In-Flight Weather Safety Service.

⁶¹⁵ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May-June 1965, pp. 71-73; July-August 1965, p. 104.

The Weather Bureau Under the Environmental Science Services Administration

ESSA came into existence on July 13, 1965, under the President Johnson's Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1965. It was a consolidation of the Weather Bureau and C&GS, both of which continued under their names as organizational components of ESSA. With the transfer of the Central Radio Propagation Laboratory of the National Bureau of Standards planned for October, ESSA would comprise all the environmental science service activities of the Department of Commerce. ESSA Headquarters' functions were conducted at the Weather Bureau site at 24th and M Streets, Washington, D.C. until ESSA staff could occupy a new site in Rockville, Maryland.⁶¹⁶ Dr. White became Administrator of ESSA, and George Cressman was appointed as Acting Director of the Weather Bureau; the Office of the Chief of the Weather Bureau created in the Act of October 1, 1890, was abolished by the reorganization—essentially a change in title.⁶¹⁷ ESSA was still under the Department of Commerce, but now there was one more layer in the organization, the Weather Bureau not now reporting directly to the Department.

A new publication *ESSA News* was inaugurated. Its second issue stated, "*ESSA NEWS* is not intended to replace the Weather Bureau's *TOPICS*, *TOPIGRAMS*, or Coast and Geodetic Survey's *PERSONNEL PANORAMA*. Those publications will continue to be issued with the same distribution as before until further notice."⁶¹⁸ However, in October 1965, Dr. White issued a statement: "(ESSA NEWS) is intended as your news organ to report on your activities, your accomplishments, on items of direct and immediate concern to you." This evidently was notice that *ESSA News* would replace *Weather Bureau Topics*.⁶¹⁹ NOAA Central Library archives indicate the 1965 July-August issue of *Weather Bureau Topics* was the last one issued, thereby stopping a venerable house organ that started as *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel* in 1915. This termination was formalized by a statement in *ESSA News* in February 1966: "For 50 years, *TOPICS* was the official publication of the Weather Bureau. With the creation of ESSA it has become necessary to discontinue it as well as Coast and Geodetic Survey's *PERSONNEL PANORAMA*. A new monthly ESSA magazine is now being planned but until it becomes a reality ESSA NEWS will do its best to bridge the gap... ." ⁶²⁰

The ESSA Administrator and staff and supporting staff from the Bureau's Service Programs located at 24th and M Streets moved to ESSA Headquarters in Rockville in August 1965. Movement of staff to Rockville made room to move the Weather Bureau offices located in the Longfellow Building back to 24th and M Streets in August 1965. Also, the Bureau Personnel Division's training activities moved from 4880 MacArthur Blvd. in Washington D.C. to Rockville in August. Regional warehouses of the Weather Bureau and C&GS were consolidated in Kansas City.

⁶¹⁶ *ESSA News*, 1, July 13, 1965.

⁶¹⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May-June 1965, pp. 71-73; July-August 1965, p. 104.

⁶¹⁸ *ESSA News*, 1, July 21, 1965, pp. 1-3.

⁶¹⁹ *ESSA News*, 1, November 18, 1965, p. 1.

⁶²⁰ *ESSA News*, 2, February 11, 1966, p. 2.

There was little immediate change at the working level, but some functions, especially of the Weather Bureau, moved to ESSA. The Bureau's Office of Meteorological Research and Data Acquisition Division moved from the Longfellow Building to 24th and M in late August.^{621,622}

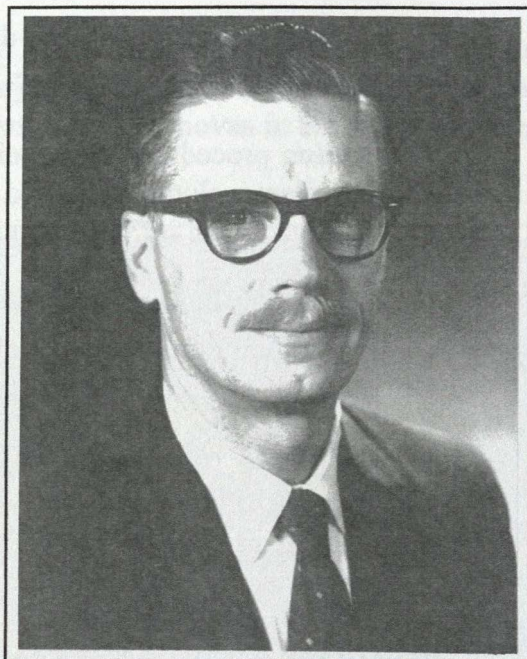
The Weather Bureau's central warehousing facility moved from the Logan Building to Kansas City, Missouri, in July 1965.⁶²³ This move consolidated the Bureau's and C&GS facilities.

The Bureau's Office of Aviation Weather Affairs, National Weather Satellite Center, Office of Climatology, and Office of Meteorological Research were administratively moved directly under the ESSA Administrator. In addition, the Deputy Director for Service Programs of the Office of National Meteorological Services was transferred to ESSA and reported to the Administrator. These realignment actions were on an interim basis pending the issuance of Department order 2-B.⁶²⁴

With the issuance of Department Order 2-B effective October 1, *ESSA News* published the organizational structure. The Bureau organization was given as follows:⁶²⁵

Director—Dr. George Cressman
Office of Meteorological Operations—Dr. Robert (Bob) Simpson (acting)
Office of Hydrology—William (Bud) Hiatt (acting)
National Meteorological Center—Dr. Frederick (Fred) Shuman
Office of Systems Development—Merritt Techter
Executive and Technical Services Staff—Russell (Russ) Grubb
Regions—Eastern—Dr. Karl Johannessen; Central—Roy Fox; Southern—Wilmer (Tommy) Thompson; Western—Hazen Bedke; Alaska—Mac Emerson; Pacific—James (Jim) Osmun

The titles were, with some exceptions, "Director" down to and including the 4th organizational level for Laboratory, Observatory, and Center, but for Division, was "Chief." Lower levels were



Dr. George P. Cressman was Director of the Weather Bureau from 1965 when ESSA was formed until NOAA was formed in 1970, then Director of the National Weather Service until 1979.

⁶²¹ *ESSA News*, 1, July 29, 1965, p. 3.

⁶²² *ESSA News*, 1, August 9, 1965, p. 1.

⁶²³ *ESSA News*, 1, July 21, 1965, p. 3.

⁶²⁴ *ESSA News*, 1, August 26, 1965, p. 1.

⁶²⁵ *ESSA News*, 1, October 4, 1965, p. 3.

“Chief.”⁶²⁶ Issues of *NOAA News* described the functions of the various elements of NOAA; Dr. Cressman, described those of the Weather Bureau in December 1965.⁶²⁷

Verification procedures were being changed in 1965. Local offices continued their present verification system including punched cards which were sent to the Central Office for processing and printout. Selected local offices upon notification by their respective Regional Office punched out an additional set of cards showing the FP Forecast for their station. Some FP offices began verifying NMC forecasts for selected stations in their area of responsibility in addition to their own forecasts. Precipitation probabilities were included in verification forms when the office had been authorized to issue probability forecasts to the public.⁶²⁸

On October 14, 1965, recorded weather forecasts via telephone became available to residents of the entire State of New Jersey through the cooperation of WBFO New York and the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company. Heretofore, this type of automatic answering service had been provided only in certain metropolitan areas.⁶²⁹

In November 1965, the Bureau began issuing daily warnings and forecasts of near-shore wave conditions, including surf and breakers, by the San Diego and Los Angeles offices for the section of California coast from La Jolla to the Mexican Border.⁶³⁰

Aviation and other users of Weather Bureau products stated a need for upper wind and temperature information in digital form as a direct, numerically-derived product input to their computers for flight planning purposes. The Bureau stated:

“The Weather Bureau will make available in digital form products of the national meteorological service computer system to any user or users. Data furnished shall be made available wherever the data exist in the national meteorological service system. Costs of duplicating and communicating the data for use outside the system shall be borne by the user(s).

“Reasonable notice (usually at least 90 days) of changes to existing programs, schedules, or formats will be given to users.”⁶³¹

By 1966, non-government users were being given remote access to Weather Bureau APT receivers.⁶³² The first APT picture sent by the satellite ESSA 2 was on February 28, 1966.⁶³³

⁶²⁶ *ESSA News*, 1, October 12, 1965, pp. 3-6.

⁶²⁷ *ESSA News*, 1, December 15, 1965.

⁶²⁸ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 5-65*, 1965 Amendment 1: Use of Probability Statements in Precipitation Forecasts; **6-65: Verification Procedures.**

⁶²⁹ *ESSA News*, 1, December 1, 1965, p. 8.

⁶³⁰ *ESSA News*, 1, December 28, 1965, p. 8.

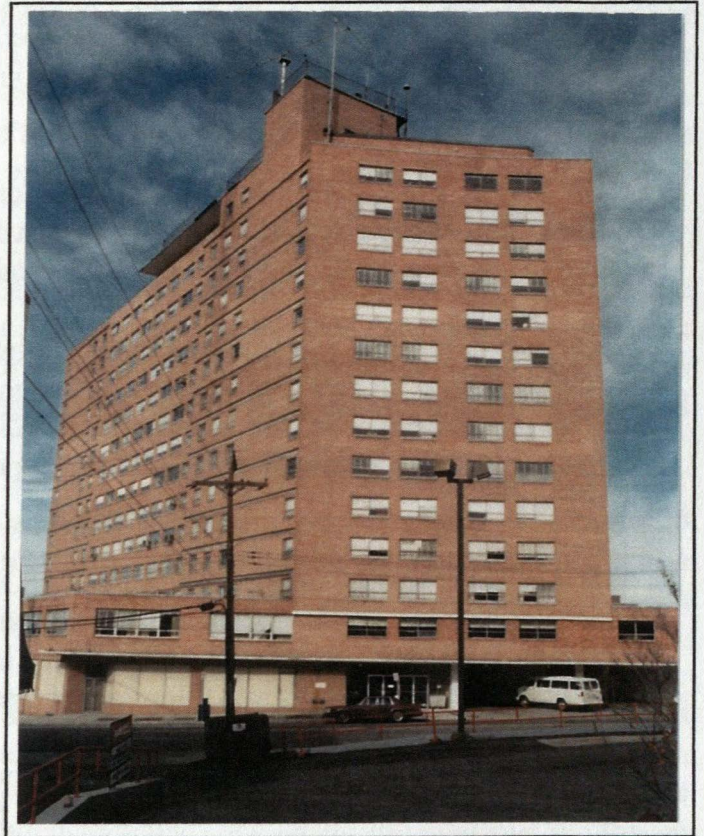
⁶³¹ Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 1-66*, 1966 : Weather Bureau Policy on Provision of Processed Digital Weather Data.

⁶³² Weather Bureau *Circular Letter 5-66*, 1966: Agreement for Remoting of APT Data.

⁶³³ *ESSA World*, July 1966: Administrator Eyes First APT Picture of ESSA 2, p. 12.

In the spring of 1966, the Weather Bureau moved from 2400 M Street, Washington, D.C. to the Gramax Building at 8060 13th Street in Silver Spring, Maryland. This was a new building and the interior was designed largely according to Bureau requirements. The moves in the April and May included the following elements and activities:

- All Weather Bureau activities at 2400 M Street,
- The ESSA Administrative Operations Support Services Section at 2400 M Street,
- the Institute of Atmospheric Sciences at 2400 M Street,
- Weather Bureau 150,000-volume Library at FOB4 at Suitland,
- ESSA's Environmental Data Service at FOB4 at Suitland,
- WB Equipment Development Laboratory, Office of Systems Development at Naval Observatory offices,
- WB Engineering Division, Executive and Technical Services Staff at Naval Observatory offices,
- Institute for Oceanography from the Washington Science Center in Rockville,
- C&GS Aeronautical Charting and Cartography Division (sans Charting and Distribution Divisions) from the Washington Science Center in Rockville, and
- C&GS Radio Facility Chart Branch, from 512 9th Street, Washington.



The Gramax Building at 8060 13th Street in Silver Spring, Maryland, the home of the Weather Bureau and National Weather Service from 1966 to 1990. (Photo by Bob Glahn, 1989.)

This move consolidated all of the Weather Bureau Central Office except the Office of Hydrology remained at 4880 MacArthur Boulevard. Space vacated in FOB4 was used for NMC, the (soon to be ESSA) Computation Division, and the National Environmental Satellite Center to meet expanding requirements.⁶³⁴ The Bureau Personnel Division's training activities moved from MacArthur Blvd. to Rockville in August.⁶³⁵

The Gramax Bldg. had accommodations not available at 2400 M Street, including a spacious Montgomery County parking garage across the street, a nearby post office,⁶³⁶ some in-building parking, a small restaurant in the building, a health unit, a DOC Credit Union office, and bus lines

⁶³⁴ *ESSA News*, 2, February 21 1966.

⁶³⁵ *ESSA News*, 1, July 29, 1965, p. 3.

⁶³⁶ *ESSA News*, 2, February 21 1966, map p. 2.

that ran to the building. The building was sometimes called the heliport building because there was a helicopter pad on the roof.⁶³⁷ The pad was not routinely used, and perhaps never, once the Bureau moved in.

The Weather Service Director's office was in the southwest corner of the 14th floor, the top full floor. There was a partial 15th floor that was used as a conference room; years later, it was banned for safety reasons, as it had only one exit stairwell. There was a small parking garage on the first floor entered from the rear along Kennett Street, and a portion of the 1st floor entered from the front was also a garage.

On June 5, 1966, the six-layer primitive equation (PE) model became operational. Research with the primitive equations had been going on at JNWP since 1959. This model produced another impressive advance in skill over the previous models.^{638,639}

The last *Circular Letter* in the NOAA Library files is, No. **5-66**, dated November 16, 1966. They either stopped at this point or were no longer archived, slightly more than a year after ESSA came into existence. In the meantime, *ESSA Circulars* had been established.⁶⁴⁰ Almost synonymously, a new publication *ESSA World* appeared, its first issue in July 1966, on NOAA's first anniversary.⁶⁴¹

The Weather Bureau personnel from WBAS Honolulu and Air Force personnel teamed up with the Navy at the Fleet Weather Central at Pearl Harbor to produce numerical analyses and forecasts of common interest to users, civil and military in the tropical pacific. These products included computer plotted charts, printouts, teletypewriter messages, and facsimile charts, four times daily.⁶⁴²

Department Order 2-B was amended, as announced by *ESSA News* in April 1966, to include an Office of World Weather Systems to be directed by Dr. Richard Hallgren. The new office was to provide leadership and coordination in the development of plans and operations for United States participation in the cooperative international meteorological program known as the World Weather Watch. WMO's World Weather Program had two major goals: "development and operation of a World Weather Watch—an international system to observe the atmosphere and to communicate, process, and analyze global weather data; and a comprehensive research program to accomplish long-range weather prediction and for the theoretical study and evaluation of the feasibility of large-scale weather climate modification."⁶⁴³

⁶³⁷ *ESSA News*, 2, February 25 1966, p. 2.

⁶³⁸ Shuman, F. G., 1989: History of Numerical weather prediction at the National Meteorological Center. *Weather Forecasting* 4, p. 287.

⁶³⁹ Shuman, G. G., and J. B. Hovermale, 1968: An operational six-layer primitive equation model. *J. Appl. Meteor.* 7, 525-547.

⁶⁴⁰ *ESSA News*, 1, August 26, 1965, p. 1.

⁶⁴¹ *ESSA World*, July 1966, 16 pp.

⁶⁴² *ESSA News*, 2, March 4, 1966, p. 3.

⁶⁴³ *ESSA World*, 2, April 1967, pp. 9-11.

In 1966, the Washington Forecast Center activities at the Washington National Airport moved to quarters adjacent to NMC at Suitland, Maryland. Radar, surface, and synoptic observational programs continued at the airport.⁶⁴⁴

Also in 1966, construction started at Palmer, Alaska, on a Seismological Observatory, which would serve as the “nerve center” for the Alaskan Seismic Sea Wave Warning System and would provide vital information to Honolulu for use in the Pacific Seismic Sea Wave Warning System. It was scheduled to be completed by September 1967.⁶⁴⁵ With the installation of a continuous recording tide gage at Cold Bay, the network of tide-gage stations for the Alaska Seismic Sea Wave Warning System was complete. Other stations were at Sitka, Seward, Kodiak, Unalaska, Adak, and Shemya.⁶⁴⁶

Administrative functions in ESSA were realigned in mid 1966. A new division, the Scientific Information and Documentation Division under Jim Caskey consolidated functions previously under the Weather Bureau and C&GS. A Computer Division under Mirco Snidero subsumed the Bureau’s Computation Division, and was now in charge of the CDC-6600 which was designated as the central computer of ESSA.⁶⁴⁷

Two new fire weather mobile units were added to the mobile fleet, bringing the total to 20 which were dispatched to key locations to forecast weather conditions for forest fire protection agencies.⁶⁴⁸ These mobile units were called into service in other weather situations, such as providing forecasts when an oil spill occurred.⁶⁴⁹

The Bureau under the sponsorship of the Office of Naval Research resumed meteorological observations including radiosonde on the floating arctic ice island T-3 in June 1966. It had last been manned in December 1960.⁶⁵⁰ In January 1969, the sponsor proposed observations be continued through 1970.⁶⁵¹ The ice island, sometimes called Fletcher’s Ice Island in honor of Col. Joseph Fletcher who first landed and set up camp there, was photographed from the air in 1947. The name “T-3” came from “Target-3.” It was thought to have broken off from ice on Ellesmere Island.⁶⁵²

The production of the daily weather map was changed in 1966 to in-house, two-color printing in lieu of overprinting base maps printed by the Government Printing Office. This was achieved by using C&GS’s reproduction facility.⁶⁵³ By 1969, the subscription price was \$7.50 per year.⁶⁵⁴

⁶⁴⁴ *ESSA News*, 2, May 20, 1966, p. 1.

⁶⁴⁵ *ESSA News*, 2, May 27, 1966, p. 3.

⁶⁴⁶ *ESSA News*, 2, December 23, 1966, p. 2.

⁶⁴⁷ *ESSA News*, 2, July 29, 1966, p. 1.

⁶⁴⁸ *ESSA News*, 2, June 3, 1966, p. 2.

⁶⁴⁹ *ESSA World*, 4, July 1969, p. 10.

⁶⁵⁰ *ESSA News*, 2, May 6, 1966, p. 4; June 3, p. 3.

⁶⁵¹ *ESSA News*, 4, January 10, 1969, p. 6.

⁶⁵² *ESSA World*, 4, October 1969, pp. 9-11

⁶⁵³ *ESSA News*, 2, September 2, 1966, p. 2.

⁶⁵⁴ *ESSA News*, 5, June 6, 1969, p. 4.

A Federal Plan for a National Agricultural Weather Service was completed in January 1967. This was the first in a series of plans to be published by the Office of the Federal Coordinator for Meteorological Services and Supporting Research.⁶⁵⁵ It was released to the public in April and proposed a nine-phase expansion of agricultural weather service to cover the entire nation.⁶⁵⁶

On January 17, 1967, a high-speed weather communications circuit was dedicated linking North America and Europe. The new circuit was capable of voice, teletypewriter, or pictorial transmission to replace a low speed teletypewrite line at 100 words per minute.⁶⁵⁷

The first experimental seeding of supercooled fog at Anchorage international Airport was conducted on January 13, 1967.⁶⁵⁸

NMC added latent heat to the PE model. In tests, the modified model had improved forecasts of vertical motion, trough movement, and the intensity of the low centers during two heavy snowstorms.⁶⁵⁹

The Techniques Development Laboratory (TDL) had been formed in 1964, and techniques were being developed that had the potential of being implemented at NMC. In late 1965, Merritt Techter, Director of the Systems Development Office (OSD), of which TDL was an element, saw the need for a coordinating mechanism whereby recommendations could be made as to what would be implemented at NMC. His efforts resulted in an Ad Hoc Committee on Implementation, which morphed into a permanent Committee on Analysis and Forecast Technique Implementation (CAFTI) chaired by Dr. William Klein, Director of TDL/OSD and with membership from the Office of Meteorological Operations (OMO) and NMC. The first meeting of CAFTI was on September 17, 1969. This committee played a major role in what was implemented at NMC for about 35 years. The membership was expanded and the chair was changed to Office of Meteorology and Oceanography (OM&O) (new name for OMO) from OSD on June 5, 1980, on the recommendation of Dr. William Bonner, then Deputy Director of NWS and on signature of Dr. Richard Hallgren, Director of NWS.⁶⁶⁰ CAFTI was disbanded by Gen. John Kelly (Ret.) while he was director of the NWS, circa 2001.

The functions of CAFTI were spelled out in Terms of Reference, which were amended several times, along with specific named members. Major achievements were the following:

- (1) It assured that the techniques implemented were of scientific merit, were backed-up with verification when appropriate, and had field involvement in the evaluation when appropriate.
- (2) It assured that organizations other than NMC had a say in what was implemented.

⁶⁵⁵ *ESSA News*, 3, January 6, 1967, p. 6.

⁶⁵⁶ *ESSA News*, 3, April 14, 1967, p. 1.

⁶⁵⁷ *ESSA News*, 3, January 20, 1967, p. 3.

⁶⁵⁸ *ESSA News*, 3, February 3, 1967, p. 7.

⁶⁵⁹ *ESSA News*, 3, March 3, 1967, p. 2.

⁶⁶⁰ Glahn, H. R., 1990: The evolution of CAFTI. Unpublished manuscript, Techniques Development Laboratory, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5 pp.

(3) It assured that Technical Procedures Bulletins (TPB) were routinely prepared and disseminated.

The TPBs had been started by Charles Roberts of OM&O as a way of informing all personnel, but mainly field forecasters, of the data and forecasts being distributed and their formats. They were not under the purview of CAFTI, but CAFTI took a very active interest, and usually would not recommend implementation unless a TPB had been prepared and distributed, or was imminent. This close tie of CAFTI and TPBs was enhanced because the OMO/OM&O member of CAFTI was usually responsible for assuring the TPBs were prepared and distributed.⁶⁶¹

ESSA's Deputy Administrator signed ESSA Circular dated April 19, 1967, to the effect that the term "ESSA" was generally recognized by the public, and it should be used in answering telephone calls at public service offices.⁶⁶²

A major improvement to ESSA's nationwide Natural Disaster Warning (NADWARN) system was announced to the public in May 1967. The system was designed to improve warnings of such natural hazards as tornadoes, hurricanes, floods, severe winter storms, seismic sea waves, and solar disturbances. The most important step in 1967 was the expansion of teletypewriter circuits in states with the highest tornado frequencies; these circuits were called the ESSA Weather Wire Network.⁶⁶³

A new tropical cyclone tracking program was put into operation at NMC for testing during the 1967 season. It provided a dynamical method of forecasting storm trajectories to run with NMC's numerical analysis and PE model for the tropical belt. The NMC primitive equation free-surface barotropic was designed for a Mercator map projection for the tropical belt between 48 degrees north and south latitude with a 5-degree longitude grid.^{664,665}

Beginning with the July 5, 1967, model run, the effects of solar heating and radiative cooling were introduced into the 6-layer PE model.⁶⁶⁶ As this indicates, the models were in their early stages of evolution. Processes were many times rudimentary. For instance, precipitation forecasts from the PE model had been noted to be excessively deficient during the summer, and in July 1967, a change was made for it to produce precipitation when the mean relative humidity was only 70 percent or greater in the lowest three layers for the summer, but the previous 80 percent criterion was to be retained for the fall, winter, and spring. This change affected the feed-back of latent heat of

⁶⁶¹ Glahn, H. R., 1990: The evolution of CAFTI. Unpublished manuscript, Techniques Development Laboratory, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5 pp.

⁶⁶² *ESSA News*, 3, 16, April 21, 1967 p. 2.

⁶⁶³ *ESSA News*, 3, May 19, 1967, p. 2.

⁶⁶⁴ NWS Office of Meteorology, July 1967: New tropical tracking program. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 1*, 3 pp.

⁶⁶⁵ Shuman, F. S., and L. W. Vanderman, 1966: Difference system and boundary conditions for the primitive-equation barotropic forecast. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 94, pp. 329-335.

⁶⁶⁶ NWS Office of Meteorology, July 1967: External and internal heat sources and sinks in the 6-layer (primitive equation) numerical prediction model. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 2*, 5 pp.

condensation.⁶⁶⁷ In August of that year, an improved moisture analysis that included surface observations of precipitation was introduced into the model.⁶⁶⁸

The Alaskan Tsunami Warning System became operational on schedule in September 1967 with the dedication of the Palmer Seismological Observatory at Palmer, Alaska.⁶⁶⁹

The Office of Hydrology experimentally used NASA's ATS-1 satellite to collect river state and rainfall measurements from remote locations. Hydrologic stations at Benton, Arkansas, and at Salem, Oregon, began transmitting data to the satellite in August 1967. These stations automatically recorded the river level and the accumulated precipitation every 15 minutes.⁶⁷⁰ Sacramento, California, was added in September, and a station at Bureau headquarters began receiving direct readout of the reports.⁶⁷¹ Later in the year, 23 gaging stations including seven microwave repeater stations were established north of San Francisco.⁶⁷²

In 1967, the Bureau formed the Tropical Analysis Center as part of the National Hurricane Center (NHC) in Miami. Dr. Robert Simpson, who was to become head of the center in January 1968, pointed out that weather prediction problems in the tropics involve different processes from those of the midlatitudes.⁶⁷³

A complete weather observing system small enough to fit into a suitcase was developed by the Bureau, called AMOS III-70. It was intended to replace the 10 times larger original AMOS III.⁶⁷⁴

On November 1, 1967, Boston became the 14th city to have a VHF weather radio transmission system.⁶⁷⁵ The number increased to 21 with the addition of Weather Forecast Office Hartford, Connecticut.⁶⁷⁶

As indications of both the importance of statistics and the development of technology for long-distance learning, six Bureau employees at Kansas City remotely attended a graduate level statistics course being taught at the University of Missouri in 1967. The students in Kansas City could hear the instructor, see his notes and references being written and projected on a screen, and could ask questions.⁶⁷⁷

⁶⁶⁷ NWS Office of Meteorology, July 1967: Saturation criterion for precipitation forecasts in 6-layer (PE) numerical prediction model. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 3, 2 pp.

⁶⁶⁸ NWS Office of Meteorology, August 1967: Initial moisture analysis in the 6-layer (PE) numerical prediction model. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 5, 43 pp.

⁶⁶⁹ *ESSA News*, 3, August 11, 1967, p. 1.

⁶⁷⁰ *ESSA News*, 3, September 1, 1967, p. 1.

⁶⁷¹ *ESSA News*, 3, September 22, 1967, p. 2.

⁶⁷² *ESSA News*, 3, November 17, 1967, p. 6.

⁶⁷³ *ESSA World*, 2, July 1967, p. 15.

⁶⁷⁴ *ESSA News*, 3, October 27, 1967, p. 1.

⁶⁷⁵ *ESSA News*, 3, October 27, 1967, p. 2.

⁶⁷⁶ *ESSA News*, 5, November 28, 1969, p. 1.

⁶⁷⁷ *ESSA News*, 3, November 17, 1967, p. 7.

On November 5, 1967, the Communications Branch of NMC composed of 51 positions was transferred to the Communications Division of the Office of Meteorological Operations.⁶⁷⁸

A large antenna was installed on the 15th floor penthouse roof in 1967 to provide several backup communication capabilities for the Bureau, including emergency communications between NMC and the central office and backup for the hurricane hot line. Similar antennae existed at military bases, but this was the first one installed in a downtown metropolitan area. It was large, occupying a space 70 by 80 ft., and with its extreme sensitivity could pick up high frequency radio signals from virtually any part of the globe.⁶⁷⁹

By November 1967, NMC was transmitting maps of air pollution potential. These computer generated maps were not of actual pollution, but rather showed the areas where there was a potential problem.⁶⁸⁰

On the weekend of January 13, 1968, the Office of Hydrology moved from the MacArthur Blvd. location to the 4th and 5th floors of the Gramax Building. Eleven employees of NMC's Upper Air Branch had moved from the Gramax to Iverson Mall at 3737 Iverson St., Hillcrest Heights, Maryland. Also, three units of the National Environmental Satellite Center—the Meteorological Satellite Laboratory, the Environmental Sciences Group, and the Office of Operation's Documentation Section—involving 45 employees moved to the Iverson Mall address.⁶⁸¹

On February 1, 1968, the Weather Bureau and the National Environmental Satellite Center (NESC) began operating a joint facsimile circuit with a principal objective to assess the effectiveness of a centralized APT network and to provide a scheduled outlet for NESC products. If successful, the Bureau would be responsible for the network operation.⁶⁸²

Eleven additional WSR-57 radars were contracted for in early 1968. Installation during the next 18 months was to be a major step in the nationwide Natural Disaster Warning (NADWARN) System.⁶⁸³

On April 22, 1968, the Daily Weather Map began as a weekly publication by the Environmental Data Service replacing the Weather Bureau daily series ending on April 14. The eight-page publication, *Daily Weather Maps—Weekly Series*, consisted of four maps each day: General surface weather at 7:00 a.m. EST, winds and temperatures at about 18,000 feet, high and low temperatures for selected U.S. cities, and precipitation areas and amounts during the preceding 24 hours.⁶⁸⁴ The

⁶⁷⁸ *ESSA News*, 3, December 1, 1967, p. 2.

⁶⁷⁹ *ESSA World*, 2, July 1967, p. 36.

⁶⁸⁰ Stackpole, J. D., 1967: The air pollution potential forecast program. *ESSA Tech. Memo. WBTM-NMC 43*, National Meteorological Center, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 8 pp.

⁶⁸¹ *ESSA News*, 4, January 12, 1968, p. 1.

⁶⁸² *ESSA News*, 4, February 2, 1968, p. 3.

⁶⁸³ *ESSA News*, 4, February 9, 1968, p. 3.

⁶⁸⁴ *ESSA News*, 4, April 12, 1968, p. 1.

Daily Weather Map started in 1871,^{685,686} and some of the maps had information printed on the back. These “map-backs” were to encourage developments in applied meteorology and to help field offices in showing their local public how weather information may be of benefit.⁶⁸⁷ This change ended the map-back program.

An automated system to forecast wind-wave height developed by the Techniques Development Laboratory (TDL) of the Office of Systems Development was implemented on the CDC-6600 at NMC. The guidance at projections of 12 to 36 hours was being evaluated by marine forecasters along the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts.⁶⁸⁸

Dr. Cressman announced in April 1968 a new, long-range forecast reorganization program. The essential feature of the new program consisted of a flow of forecast information directly from NMC, NHC, and NSSFC to newly designated Weather Forecast Offices (WFO) which would prepare and issue forecasts for public use. The changes were made possible by the advances in techniques and skills made at NMC in the past 10 to 15 years. During this time, the roles of NHC and NSSFC had also changed as a result of their successful forecast specialization. The goal was to establish 50 WFOs within 5 years. There were 24 Area Forecast Centers which could be considered WFOs under the reorganized structure; 26 new ones would be established. The functions of warning coordination, area-wide forecasts for aviation, and quality control would be done by Regional Weather Centers to be designated by the end of the 5-year period. The remainder of the existing Weather Bureau operating locations would be designated as Weather Service Offices (WSO), of which there would be about 200. The WSOs would disseminate the forecast products from the WFOs to the users, and would also take weather observations. They would have the responsibility for issuing warnings based on known weather hazards and for localizing the WFO zone forecasts. Some WSOs would retain key roles in special agricultural and fire weather programs. A number of meteorologists would be trained at selected WSOs to carry out special service programs. Many of the WSOs would be headed by Officials in Charge (OIC) selected from the meteorological technician series of Weather Bureau employees. This new organization should improve quality and timeliness of forecasts and warnings, and would provide round-the-clock meteorologist coverage at more than 50 locations as opposed to about 30 in the existing structure. Career opportunities for meteorologists would be improved by the increase in number of locations with a full staff of meteorologists. The meteorological technician career ladder would be expanded by opening the position of OIC to meteorological technicians at many WSOs.⁶⁸⁹ As of August 23, 1970, the majority of meteorological technicians were in higher grade levels, with the approval of the Civil Service Commission of a GS-9/10/11 grade structure. This change recognized the technological changes in the past decade.⁶⁹⁰

⁶⁸⁵ Meyer, A. J., Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1871, p. 7.

⁶⁸⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics*, May 1961, p. 77.

⁶⁸⁷ *Weather Bureau Topics*, November 1951, p. 213.

⁶⁸⁸ *ESSA News*, 4, April 12, 1968, p. 3.

⁶⁸⁹ *ESSA News*, 4, April 19, 1968, pp. 1, 2.

⁶⁹⁰ *ESSA News*, 6, August 28, 1970, p. 4.

A method was developed at the Pittsburgh WSR-57 Radar Unit to derive by computer a radar climatology. This was tested successfully at the RFC at Cincinnati. In April 1968, it was being readied for use at other WSR-57 locations.⁶⁹¹

In early 1968, fully automatic computer switching of weather data being relayed to or through the United States replaced manual methods on several Weather Bureau communication circuits. Data from all parts of the world were received at NMC and were switched to many other locations in the world.⁶⁹²

The Observations and Methods Branch of SDO's Test and Evaluation Laboratory ended a major phase of its program on June 28, 1968, when it moved from the National Aviation Facilities Experimental Center in Atlantic City, New Jersey, to the Sterling, Virginia, Research and Development Center. The Branch had cooperated in an applied research program with the Federal Aviation Administration for the past 9 years, and had been active in mesometeorology and specialized studies of aviation visibility.⁶⁹³

The Data Acquisition Division completed initial testing in June 1968 of a system in which radar facsimile pictures could be transmitted over regular, commercial telephone lines. Radar and Telephone Transmission Systems (RATTS) were already operational in several sections of the U.S., but specially conditioned leased lines were necessary. If proven feasible, the system would allow forecast facilities such as NSSFC to obtain valuable radar data from any radar having a RATTS transmitter.⁶⁹⁴

A new computer model named the Subsynoptic Advection Model (SAM) developed by TDL was made operational for testing at NMC over the eastern United States in September 1967. The model operated at one-fourth the gridlength of the PE model and was a combination of the "Reed"^{695,696} and "SLYH"⁶⁹⁷ models that had been used at NMC at lower resolution prior the implementation of the PE model. It also used the latest surface observations, analyzed them, and advected them with upper level winds from the PE model. The teletypewriter and facsimile forecasts were of only the basic variables of the model.⁶⁹⁸ After a successful test, showing the forecasts were about 10 percent better than those produced by the PE model alone,⁶⁹⁹ the model was made operational on June 10, 1968, for wind and categorical precipitation. In addition to the geostrophic

⁶⁹¹ *ESSA News*, 4, April 19, 1968, p. 3.

⁶⁹² *ESSA News*, 4, June 21, 1968, p. 2.

⁶⁹³ *ESSA News*, 4, June 21, 1968, p. 2.

⁶⁹⁴ *ESSA News*, 4, June 21, 1968, p. 6.

⁶⁹⁵ Reed, R. J., 1957: A graphical method for preparing 1000-millibar prognostic charts. *J. Meteor.*, 14, 65-70.

⁶⁹⁶ Reed, R. J., 1963: Experiments in 1000 mb prognosis. *NMC Tech. Memo.* 26, 43 pp.

⁶⁹⁷ Younkin, R. S., J. A. LaRue, and F. Sanders, 1965: The objective prediction of clouds and precipitation using vertically integrated moisture and vertical motions. *J. Appl. Meteor.*, 4, pp. 3-17

⁶⁹⁸ NWS Office of Meteorology, August 1967: Implementation test of a numerical subsynoptic precipitation prediction model. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 6, 6 pp.

⁶⁹⁹ *ESSA News*, 4, June 21, 1968, p. 3.

wind, statistically derived surface winds were included^{700,701} for about 100 cities over the eastern third of the U.S. This was the first instance of Model Output Statistics (MOS) in operational guidance distributed to forecast offices.

Later in the year, on October 1, charts of 3-hourly precipitation amounts from SAM were implemented on the WENEF facsimile circuit for the eastern U.S.⁷⁰² This same model drove forecasts for guidance winds for Lakes Erie and Ontario. These forecasts, along with forecasts of abnormal water levels in Lake Erie at Buffalo and Toledo based on sea-level pressure forecasts from NMC's PE model, were transmitted to the WBFO Cleveland on RAWARC. The operational forecasts were produced by methods developed by TDL in early January 1970.⁷⁰³

The SAM facsimile forecasts were expanded on February 12, 1969, to include probability of precipitation (PoP), sea level pressure, and 1000-500 mb thickness. The MOS PoP forecasts covered 6- and 12-hour periods and were the first computer produced forecasts of PoP and the first covering less than a 12-hour period produced by any method provided as guidance to field forecasters. In addition, the probability of precipitation type was provided.^{704,705,706}

The first regular commercial air service between Moscow and New York began July 15, 1968. Route forecasts for the weekly westbound flights from New York to Moscow were provided by the Weather Bureau at Kennedy International Airport, requiring transmission of three additional forecast charts from NMC.⁷⁰⁷

Another new guidance product developed by TDL commenced on September 19, 1968. The twice-daily computer forecasts of maximum and minimum surface temperature for 131 cities were transmitted on an experimental basis from NMC on the Service C network.^{708,709} The first such forecasts were based on NMC's "barotropic mesh" and the "Reed" models. They were about 1 to 3 degrees more accurate than the old system and were fully competitive with subjective

⁷⁰⁰ NWS Office of Meteorology, June 1968: Operational forecasts with the sub-synoptic advection model (SAM). *Tech. Proc. Bul. 14*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 19 pp.

⁷⁰¹ Glahn, H. R., and D. A. Lowry, 1967: Short range, subsynoptic surface wether prediction. *ESSA Tech Memo. WBTM TDL-11*, Techniques Development laboratory, U.S. Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 10 pp.

⁷⁰² *ESSA News*, 4, October 11, 1968, p. 2.

⁷⁰³ *ESSA News*, 6, January 16, 1970, p. 2.

⁷⁰⁴ *ESSA News*, 5, February 14, 1969, p. 3.

⁷⁰⁵ NWS Office of Meteorology, February 1969: Operational forecasts with the sub-synoptic advection model (SAM)– No. 3. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 21*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 12 pp.

⁷⁰⁶ NWS Office of Meteorology, April 1969: Operational forecasts with the sub-synoptic advection model (SAM)– No. 4. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 23*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5 pp.

⁷⁰⁷ *ESSA News*, 4, July 19, 1968, p. 3.

⁷⁰⁸ *ESSA News*, 4, September 20, 1968, p. 2.

⁷⁰⁹ NWS Office of Meteorology, September 1968: Experimental computer forecasts of maximum and minimum surface temperature. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 16*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 19 pp.

forecasts.^{710,711,712} These guidance forecasts were produced by the "Perfect Prog" method. Because they had not been evaluated by field forecasters, they were called "experimental" and were the first transmitted for field use, although the method and similar forecasts had been used internally at NMC for several years.⁷¹³ An improved product for these cities giving forecasts 24 to 60 hours in advance based on the PE model commenced on teletypewriter on March 18, 1970, and were put on facsimile shortly thereafter. At this time, the computer-derived product replaced the subjectively-derived one previously transmitted.⁷¹⁴

Another guidance product developed by TDL became operational on October 1, 1968. It consisted of facsimile charts produced at NMC of 24- and 48-hour forecasts of significant height of wind waves, swell, and combined wave height conditions. The driving winds were produced by NMC's PE model. This guidance was for use in high seas weather broadcasts and to alert coastal forecasters to the possibility of dangerous breakers and surf.^{715,716,717}

That same year, 1965, the Bureau started using the terms "Watch" and "Warning" for winter weather hazards in much the same way they were used in tornado and hurricane forecasts. "Watch" alerts the public that a storm has formed and is approaching the area; "Warning" means that a storm is imminent and immediate action to protect life and property should begin.⁷¹⁸

Another guidance product developed by TDL went into operation in December 1968 at NMC as a 4-panel facsimile chart on the Forecast Office Facsimile (FOFAX) Network. The 24-hour predictions were of temperature, relative humidity, and dew point at three levels, and net vertical displacement. These forecasts were driven from NMC's PE model, and by using trajectory methods were slightly more accurate forecasts than those that came directly from the PE model. The guidance was for use in predicting severe local storms, fog, cloudiness, and precipitation.^{719,720,721} Net vertical

⁷¹⁰ *ESSA News*, 6, March 27, 1970, p. 1.

⁷¹¹ NWS Office of Meteorology, March 1970: Use of P.E. input in objective temperature forecasts. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 42, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 4 pp.

⁷¹² Klein, W. H., F. Lewis, and G. P. Casely, 1969: Computer forecasts of maximum and minimum surface temperatures. *ESSA Tech. Memorandum WBTM TDL 26*, Weather Bureau, U.S. Department of Commerce, 119 pp.

⁷¹³ Klein, W. H., F. Lewis, and G. P. Casely, 1967: Automated nationwide forecasts of maximum and minimum temperature. *J. App. Meteor.*, 6, pp. 215-228.

⁷¹⁴ NWS Office of Meteorology, March 1970: Facsimile display of objective temperature forecasts. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 43, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 19 pp.

⁷¹⁵ *ESSA News*, 4, October 4, 1968, p. 2; November 8, 1968, p. 4.

⁷¹⁶ NWS Office of Meteorology, September 1968: Wind-wave, swell, and combined wave forecasts. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 17, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 11 pp.

⁷¹⁷ Pore, N. A., and W. S. Richardson, 1967: Interim report on sea and swell forecasting. *Tech. Memo. TDL-13*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 21 pp.

⁷¹⁸ *ESSA News*, 4, December 20, 1968, p. 2.

⁷¹⁹ *ESSA News*, 4, December 27, 1968, p. 3.

⁷²⁰ NWS Office of Meteorology, February 1969: Three-dimensional trajectory forecasts. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 20*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5 pp.

⁷²¹ Reap, R. M., 1968: Prediction of temperature and dew point by three-dimensional trajectories. *ESSA Tech. Memo., WBTM TDL 15*, Techniques Development Laboratory, U.S. Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 20 pp.

displacement is the vertical change of an air parcel originating at a particular level in the atmosphere, a variable that no other product had.

The Data Acquisition Division announced plans to initiate a 3-month test using time-shared computers for reduction of rawinsonde data to start in February 1969.⁷²² Evidently this was successful; the program was in effect at Midland, Texas, and Nashville, Tennessee, by January 16, 1970, and was planned for Albuquerque, New Mexico.⁷²³

In cooperation with the Office of Emergency Preparedness, the Office of Civil Defense, and the American Red Cross, the Weather Bureau launched an intensive campaign called SKYWARN to lower the death toll caused by tornadoes. SKYWARN was part of ESSA's nationwide National Disaster Warning System which provided warnings of impending environmental hazards, including hurricanes, floods, winter storms, and solar disturbances.⁷²⁴

At the request of the FAA, the Test and Evaluation Laboratory at the Sterling Research and Development Center in Virginia tested a novel transmissometer that used a simple gas laser. The purpose was to learn whether the instrument could be used to calibrate the standard transmissometer during low visibilities. It was thought the new instrument might also be useful for objective observations of meteorological visibility.⁷²⁵

The Center also built a room-sized test chamber that could simulate practically any climate in the world. It could produce temperatures ranging from -80 to +130 degrees F, humidity ranging from 10 to 90 percent, air flow up to 20 miles per hour, and rainfall up to 4 inches per hour. The chamber was used to test instruments in the conditions they would encounter when fielded.⁷²⁶

The Weather Bureau, in cooperation with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Air Pollution Control Administration, opened a special station in each of five cities in support of air pollution control. One was opened at Washington National Airport on May 16, 1969; stations had been placed at Chicago and St. Louis in April, and two others would be placed at Philadelphia and New York. The stations would be supported by a camper-type vehicle that would serve as a mobile observatory.⁷²⁷ Low level soundings were included in the program;⁷²⁸ radiosondes would be flown to about 10,000 ft. and the results interpreted by specially trained air pollution meteorologists and transmitted to air pollution control agencies. The last of the five stations was put into place on August 18.⁷²⁹ The first major episode occurred August 23 to September 1, and the new system was reported to work well.⁷³⁰ The first mobile observatory was ready for operation in late October.⁷³¹

⁷²² *ESSA News*, 5, January 10, 1969, p. 4.

⁷²³ *ESSA News*, 6, January 16, 1970, p. 3.

⁷²⁴ *ESSA News*, 5, February 14, 1969, p. 1.

⁷²⁵ *ESSA News*, 5, February 21, 1969, p. 1.

⁷²⁶ *ESSA News*, 5, February 28, 1969, p. 3.

⁷²⁷ *ESSA News*, 5, May 16, 1969, p. 1.

⁷²⁸ *ESSA News*, 5, June 27, 1969, p. 1.

⁷²⁹ *ESSA News*, 5, August 15, 1969, p. 1.

⁷³⁰ *ESSA News*, 5, September 12, 1969, p. 1.

⁷³¹ *ESSA News*, 5, October 24, 1969, p. 2.

ESSA News reported that the working hours at the Gramax building would be 8:00 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. beginning September 2, 1969, except for the C&GS's Aeronautical Chart Division, whose hours would remain 8:15 a.m. to 4:25 p.m.⁷³² On January 4, 1970, all at the Gramax were put on the 8:00 to 4:30 schedule.⁷³³

The recorded forecast program continued to expand with five additional cities in 1970; about 14 of these WE6-1212 systems were already in operation.⁷³⁴

By mid 1969, automatic answering telephone equipment designed to disseminate abbreviated weather forecasts had been designed by the telephone industry and, sponsored by independent phone companies, installed at Winter Park, Orlando, and Fort Meyer, Florida; Galesburg, Illinois; and Gainesville, Georgia. Two more cities were scheduled to receive the service in the next few months. The new equipment disseminated weather information similar to the WE6-1212 system, but the Weather Bureau's input was radically different. The new system, called AUDICHRON, had a catalog of 1,000 prerecorded abbreviated forecasts and warnings. The Weather Bureau selected an appropriate message, and "programed" the telephone answering equipment by transmitting a coded message on ESSA Weather Wire Service.⁷³⁵

On August 19, 1969, NMC began transmitting a new stability index, the lifted index, to replace the Showalter Index previously transmitted.^{736,737}

A new Marine Forecast center at WBFO Anchorage, Alaska, began operations on October 1, 1969. Twenty-four hour service was provided to all civil marine users in the coastal and offshore waters surrounding Alaska.⁷³⁸

The Weather Bureau began a new outlook program on February 9, 1970, to replace the 5-day forecasts. The new outlook was issued daily by forecast offices and included anticipated weather conditions for the ensuing third, fourth, and fifth days.⁷³⁹

By October 1969, NMC was preparing basic maps of Northern Hemisphere weather from temperature measurements obtained from experimental satellite soundings made by the Satellite Infrared Spectrometer—one of the instruments aboard NASA's Nimbus III. This provided unprecedented coverage of existing conditions over oceans and other areas where few upper-air measurements are made.⁷⁴⁰

⁷³² *ESSA News*, 5, August 29, 1969, p. 4.

⁷³³ *ESSA News*, 5, December 19, 1969, p. 4.

⁷³⁴ *ESSA News*, 5, September 12, 1969, p. 1.

⁷³⁵ *ESSA News*, 5, September 19, 1969, p. 2.

⁷³⁶ NWS Office of Meteorology, July 1969: The Lifted Index computation. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 28, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 2 pp.

⁷³⁷ Stackpole, J. D., 1967: Numerical analysis of atmospheric soundings. *J. Appl. Meteor.* 7, 464-467.

⁷³⁸ *ESSA News*, 5, October 10, 1969, p. 3.

⁷³⁹ *ESSA News*, 5, October 24, 1969, p. 2; 6, February 6, 1970, p. 2.

⁷⁴⁰ *ESSA News*, 5, October 31, 1969, p. 2.

The Weather Bureau Western Region, in cooperation with state and Federal forestry officials, inaugurated a forecasting service in support of slash burning operations in Washington and Oregon. Foresters were required to burn slash or residue from lumbering operations as a safety factor to guard against uncontrolled forest fires. The new service provided forecasts of wind, atmospheric stability, and temperature inversion height in the mountainous areas. The forecasts were prepared locally by the fire weather meteorologists at Olympia, Washington, and at Portland, Salem, and Medford, Oregon.⁷⁴¹

A Federal Plan for Clear Air Turbulence (CAT) was announced the first week in January 1970. The plan included a provision that the Weather Bureau would establish a central CAT Forecasting facility with a 24-hour CATwatch for quick alert and revision of forecasts, and would distribute its products via facsimile every 6 hours. It would coordinate selection and engineering of systematic CAT forecast methods for computer operations and would test new concepts in forecasting.⁷⁴² This plan was in response to the Weather Bureau being given the responsibility for ESSA's part of the National Clear Air Turbulence Program in 1967.⁷⁴³

The Bureau formed a group of forecasters to advise on matters relating to career development and field operations. The first Line Forecasters Advisory Conference met during January 30-February 4, 1970.⁷⁴⁴

By April 1970, an input device had been developed for manual entry of observations into AMOS III-70. These observations would supplement the automated ones, and could consist of up to three cloud layers, visibility, weather, obstructions to visibility, and sea level pressure. The device could be remoted up to 2 miles from the AMOS III-70.⁷⁴⁵

In mid 1970, the ESSA Office of Public Information printed a pamphlet "Precipitation Probability Forecasts" that "explains how Weather Bureau meteorologists arrive at this helpful but poorly understood figure." It sold for 10 cents per copy.⁷⁴⁶

A new experimental heavy precipitation guidance facsimile product was started on May 15, 1970. These short-range forecasts, in both probabilistic and categorical form, were produced by NMC's Quantitative Forecast Branch. They were for two 12-h periods and were based on subjective assessment of model forecasts, climatology, and past verification statistics.⁷⁴⁷

On July 9, President Nixon forwarded to Congress Reorganization Plan Number 4 of 1970, combining ESSA and several other organizations with responsibilities in the marine environment

⁷⁴¹ *ESSA News*, 5, October 31, 1969, p. 3.

⁷⁴² *ESSA News*, 6, January 2, 1970, p. 1.

⁷⁴³ *ESSA News*, 3, June 2, 1967, p. 2.

⁷⁴⁴ *ESSA News*, 6, February 13, 1970, p. 2.

⁷⁴⁵ *ESSA News*, 6, April 10, 1970, p. 2.

⁷⁴⁶ *ESSA News*, 6, July 10, 1970, p. 2.

⁷⁴⁷ NWS Office of Meteorology, May 1970: Experimental heavy rainfall guidance. *Tech. Proc. Bul.* 46, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 2 pp.

into a new Department of Commerce organization—the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). The new organization was to come into being in 60 days from this date.⁷⁴⁸

A new tri-agency Fire Weather Center was dedicated at Boise, Idaho, on July 25, 1970. This was a joint effort by the Weather Bureau, the Bureau of Land Management, and the U.S. Forest Service.⁷⁴⁹

The Bureau started issuing special forecasts to alert stockmen to dangerous combinations of heat and humidity that were potential killers of livestock. A 12-year study conducted by Livestock Conservation Inc. indicated that high temperature, in association with high relative humidity, resulted in an abnormally high death rate among animals being transferred to market. The study was primarily for hogs, but the relationship for cattle and other animals was found to be similar. A “Livestock Weather Safety Index” much like the “Temperature-Humidity Index” for humans was devised by the Bureau.⁷⁵⁰

A new air pollution potential guidance product prepared by NMC was distributed via facsimile starting September 9, 1970.^{751,752}

A high-speed communications circuit was opened between Washington and Tokyo, in August 1970. As part of the system of global telecommunications for the World Weather Watch, it was expected soon to be in operation 24 hours per day. It carried information at the rate of 3,000 5-character words per minute, and replaced the 100-word per minute circuit put into operation in 1969. At that speed, it was almost three times as fast as the World Weather Watch circuit to Europe, operating at 1,050 words per minute; the Europe circuit was to be upgraded to 3,000 words per minute in December.⁷⁵³

In the fall of 1970, the Weather Bureau was equipping its nationwide network of VHF-FM weather radio stations with a device that alerted listeners to special warnings of hazardous weather. The device, called “tone-alert” transmitted a signal which automatically turned up the volume on special receivers within a 40- to 50-mile radius of the station. The tone alert assured positive notice of warnings of severe weather such as hurricanes, tornadoes, severe thunderstorms, winter storms, and high winds to schools, hospitals, civil disaster agencies, newspapers, radio and television stations, and individuals who had radio receivers with a “weather band” at 162, 550, or 163.275 megahertz.⁷⁵⁴

⁷⁴⁸ *ESSA News*, 6, July 13, 1970, 8 pp.

⁷⁴⁹ *ESSA News*, 6, August 14, 1970, p. 3.

⁷⁵⁰ *ESSA News*, 6, August 21, 1970, p. 3.

⁷⁵¹ NWS Office of Meteorology, August 1970: Facsimile display of air pollution potential. *Tech. Proc. Bul. 52*, Weather Bureau, ESSA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5 pp.

⁷⁵² Gross, E., 1970: The national air pollution potential forecast program. *ESSA Tech. Memo. WBTM NMC-47*, 28 pp.

⁷⁵³ *ESSA News*, 6, September 4, 1970, p. 1.

⁷⁵⁴ *ESSA News*, 6, September 11, 1970, p. 1.

ESSA News ended with a message from Dr. White about NOAA on October 2, 1970.⁷⁵⁵

This ended just over 100 years of weather service to the nation that started in the Signal Service in 1870.

⁷⁵⁵ *ESSA News*, 6, October 2, 1970, p. 1.

Epilogue

President Richard Nixon's Reorganization Plan No. 4 of 1970 Effective October 3, 1970, created the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. This was a consolidation in the Department of Commerce of ESSA and several other organizations in other Departments. At this time, the Weather Bureau's name was changed to the National Weather Service (NWS); Cressman remained as its Director.

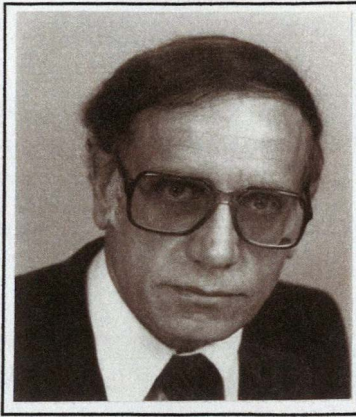
Dr. Richard E. Hallgren served as NWS Director from 1979 through 1988, when Dr. Elbert W. Friday became Director. During the next few years, many scientific and technological advancements were made to improve forecasts and service to the Nation, including Doppler radar, high speed communication circuits, and ever more powerful computers for running improved Numerical Weather Prediction Models. In the mid-1980's, the NWS embarked upon an ambitious modernization and associated restructuring to take advantage of the technological advances possible both in National Centers and in Weather Forecast Offices.

In 1990, the NWS Headquarters moved a few blocks to the Silver Spring Metro Center II at 1325 East West Highway, Silver Spring, Maryland. It was a new building, and was configured to NWS needs; the NWS remains there today and occupies most of the building.

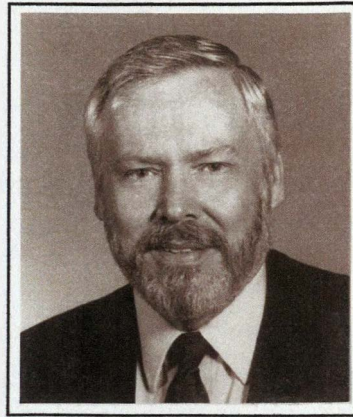
Continuing the work of the last decade, the NWS achieved a remarkable modernization. A primary element was the network of WSR-88D Doppler radars for the detection and forecasting of severe local storms. The density and frequency of surface observations were increased by the Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS). The NWS has a two-tier forecast structure with the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) furnishing guidance directly to the new Weather Forecast Offices (WFO) and River Forecast Centers (RFC). Relocations of offices brought many modern new facilities, and staffing emphasizes science. Improved numerical weather prediction models were implemented at NCEP, and Model Output Statistics (MOS) provides interpretative guidance.

Data from satellites became more abundant and useful. The Advanced Weather Interactive Processing System (AWIPS) replaced the Automated Field Operations and Services (AFOS) system and furnished the display, communications, and interactive capabilities necessary to complete the modernization, and to improve weather warnings and forecasts. Methods of producing and communicating forecasts changed markedly with the introduction of the Interactive Forecast Preparation System (IFPS). Grids of forecasts with a resolution as fine as 2.5 km now cover the United States and reside in a National Digital Forecast Database (NDFD). From these grids, a detailed forecast can be produced automatically for any point, rather than for just a few points or zones or counties.

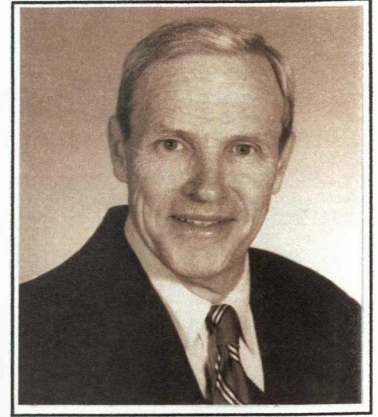
Gen. John J. Kelly, Jr. (Ret.) served as Director from 1997 until 2004; Gen. David L. Johnson (Ret.) became Director in 2004, and Dr. John L. Hayes in 2007.



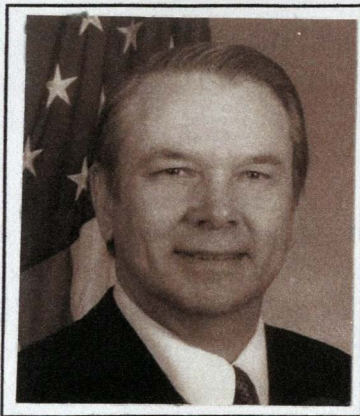
Dr. Richard E. Hallgren,
NWS Director 1979-1988.



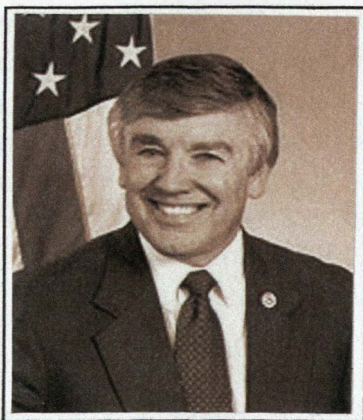
Dr. Elbert W. Friday,
NWS Director 1988-1997.



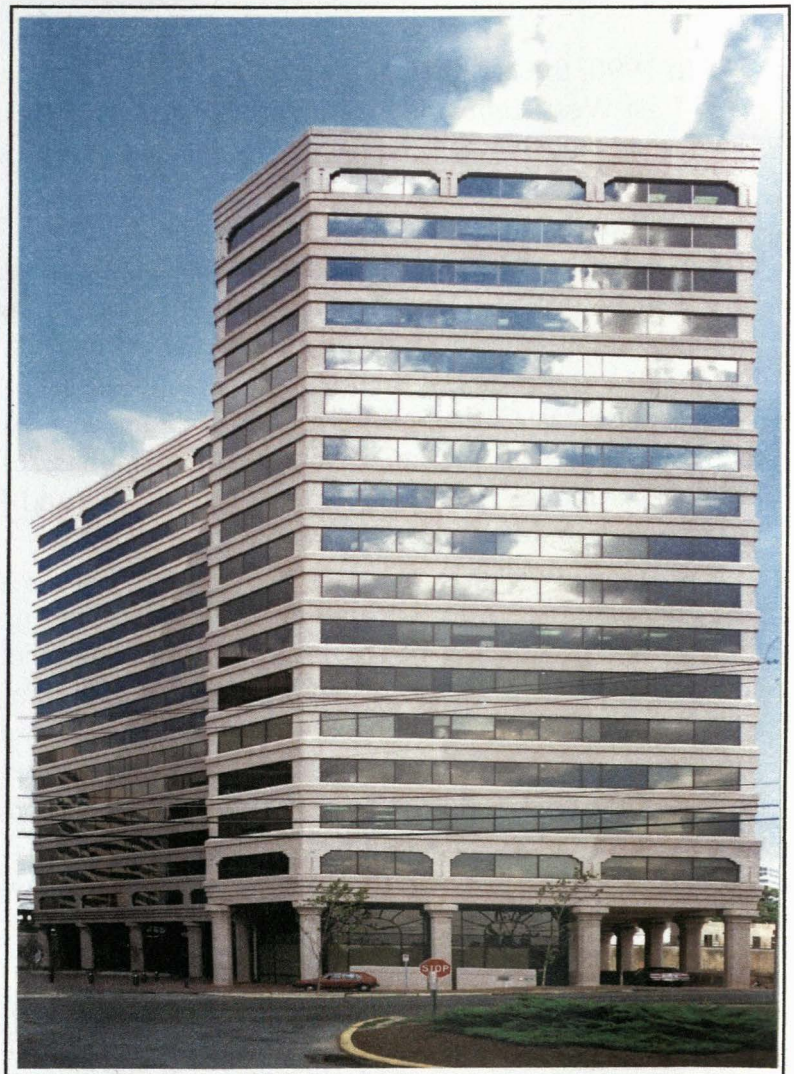
Gen. John J. Kelly (Ret),
NWS Director 1997-2004.



Gen. David L. Johnson
(Ret), NWS Director
2004-2007.



Dr. John L. Hayes, NWS
Director 2007-present.



NWS Headquarters at Silver Spring Metro Center II, 1325
East West Highway, Silver Spring, Maryland, 1990-
present. (Photo by Bob Glahn)

APPENDIX I

The First Name of the U.S. Weather Service

It has been stated in various recent documents that the Division of Telegrams and Reports for the Benefit of Commerce was the first name of the national weather service. General Meyer did create that division to deal with the new weather work, but there is no indication that he expected all weather service work to be housed there, and it certainly wasn't. So it is problematic that the "weather service" was ever formally named the "Division of Telegrams and Reports for the Benefit of Commerce."

In any case, it is a mistake to imply that that name persisted from the inception of the new service until its transfer to the Department of Agriculture and by law acquired the name "Weather Bureau." One recent document goes so far as to say,

"So on July 1, 1891, the weather stations, telegraph lines, apparatus, and personnel ... were transferred from the Signal Corps' Division of Telegrams and Reports for the Benefit of Commerce to the Department of Agriculture's new civilian Weather Bureau."

However, when that transfer was made, there was no reference in the official transfer documents to this division name, but reference was rather just to the Signal Corps. In fact, from the annual reports of the Chief Signal Officer, it can be noted that the weather duties permeated much of the Signal Service, and was explicitly so stated by General Meyer. It is doubtful this particular division still existed upon transfer to the Department of Agriculture; if it did, it had lost its significance, although there is still mention of it in Gen. Hazen's Annual Report in 1883.

The Weather Bureau was directly under the Department of Agriculture, and the Signal Service was directly under the Department of War, so a better interpretation might be that the weather service under the Department of War never had a specific name, but was an important part of the duties of the Signal Corps.

APPENDIX II

The 2400 M Street Compound

This appendix shows the layout of the 2400 M Street compound as it existed when the new building had been completed in 1941. Figure 1 shows the Ferguson Building, called “Old Main,”⁷⁵⁶ with the construction of the new building in front just starting. To the left is the “Old Annex” where the author worked from 1958 until the Weather Bureau moved to Silver Spring in 1966. Note that the part of the Old Annex closer to M Street, to the north in the foreground, also extends farther to the west, to the right in the picture, than the portion of the Old Annex in the background.



Figure 1. The Ferguson Building with the tower for measuring wind and the Old Annex to the left. The new building construction is in the foreground. Picture taken facing south-southeast.

According to personal views of John P. Finley, who inspected the Ferguson Building with General Hazen on several occasions, the last being in December 1886,

⁷⁵⁶ *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*, April 1947, p. 118.

“This property was improved as one of the ‘show places’ of the Capital City, by the erection of a singular appearing residence, that with its surrounding grounds, occupied a large portion of the square on which it was located. It was built after the Spanish-American or Mexican style of architecture, with a patio, or open inner court, around which the many rooms were built, each opening upon the court on the first story, and upon a balcony overlooking the court on the second story.”⁷⁵⁷

Figure 2 is that of the new building. Note the connection between it on the left and the Old Annex at the level of the 2nd floor. This was the only enclosed walkway to any of the other buildings in the compound. However, one could walk the entire extent of the Old Annex at the 2nd floor level, but it did not connect to the Ferguson Building. The tower for wind measurements is also visible.



Figure 2. The new 2400 M Street Building.

⁷⁵⁷ Grice, G. K. ed., circa 1985: *The beginning of the National Weather Service: The Signal Service Years (1870-1891) as viewed by early weather pioneers*. National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 52 pp.

Below is the rear of the new building. The stairs to Old Main are to the left. To the right is the portion of the Old Annex that connected to the new building.

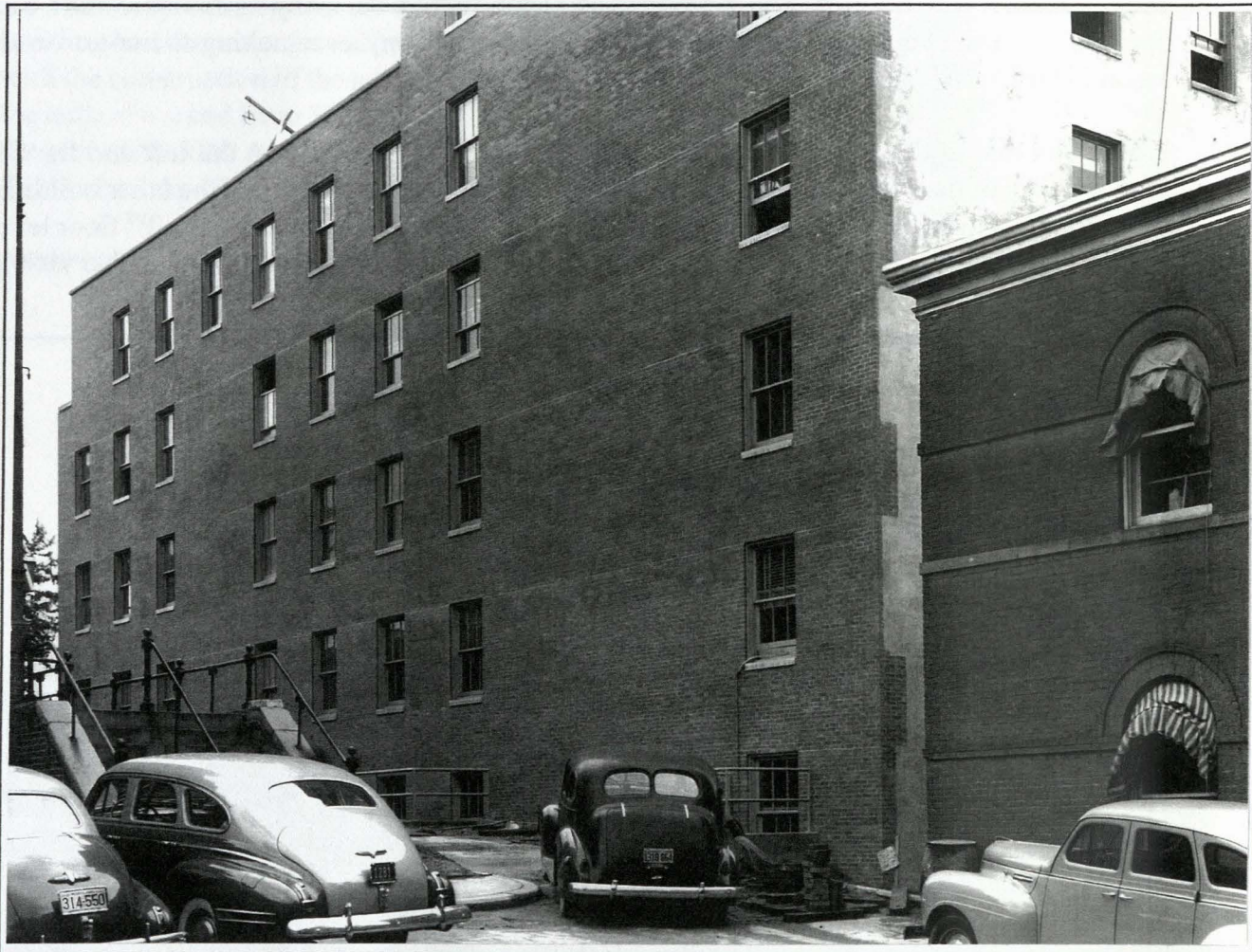


Figure 3. The rear of the new building. Picture taken from the small parking lot to the east of the Ferguson Building. Note the construction of the end of the Old Annex matches that in other pictures. The east end of the new building is not bricked in the same way as the rest of the building, indicating that it was expected to build on to that end (see main text and photo). The five stories are shown, the parking lot being a bit higher than M Street in front, so the rear windows are partially below ground level. A partial 6th floor also existed (also see Fig. 1).

The four pictures below were all taken by the author in late 1965.

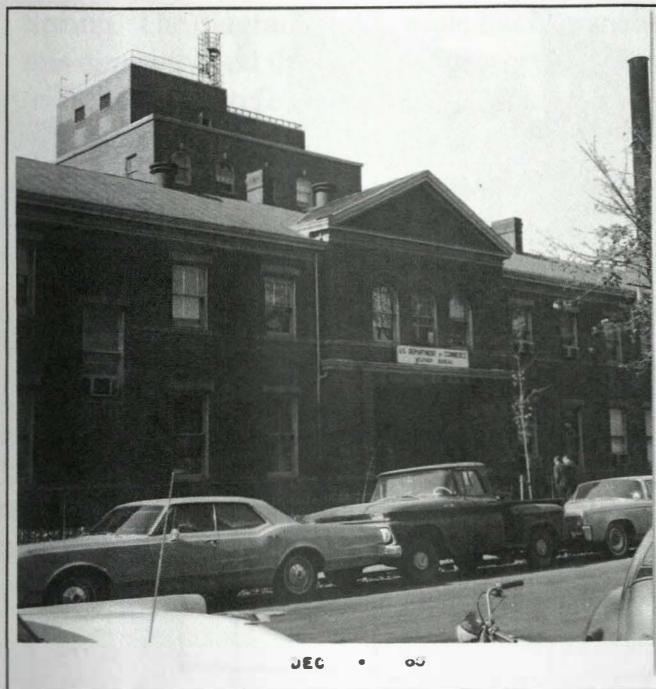


Figure 4. The entrance to the parking lot through the Old Annex from 24th Street NW. Note the sign "US DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE WEATHER BUREAU." The taller building in the background is the new building.

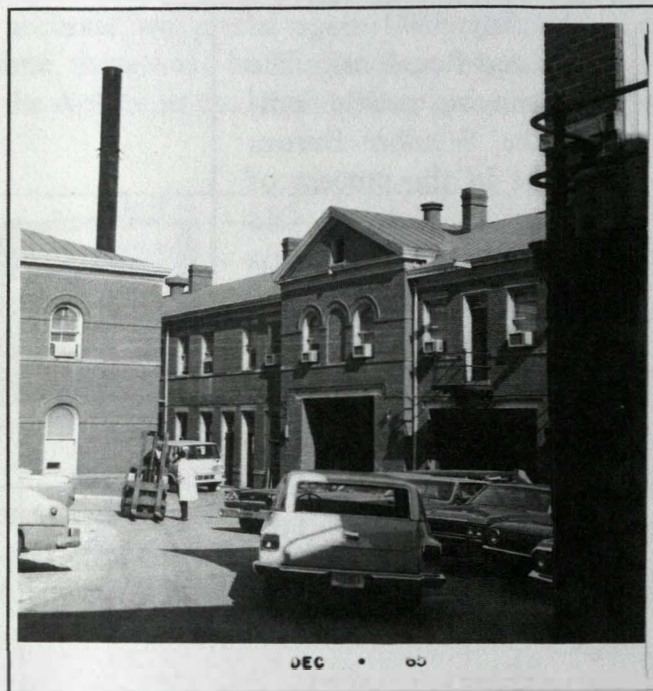


Figure 5. The entrance to the parking lot from the parking lot side. The building to the left is the same one shown in Fig. 3 on the right.

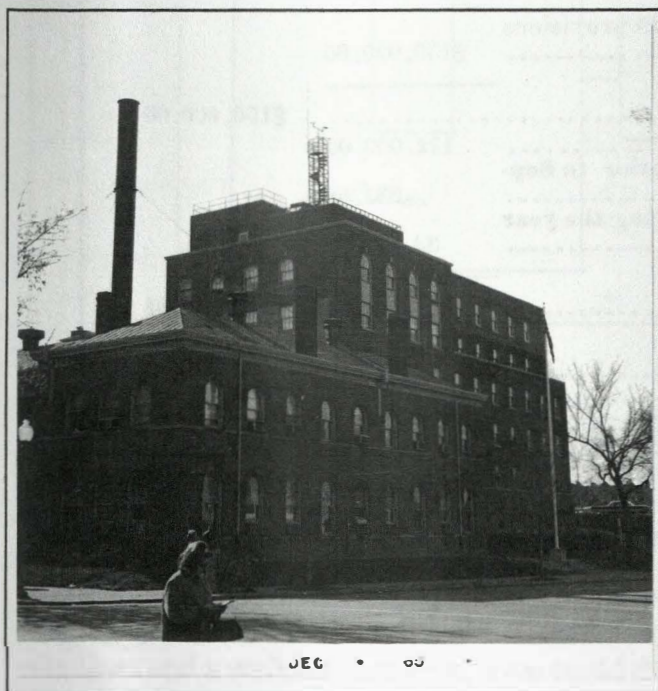


Figure 6. Northeast corner of the Old Annex . It is closer to M Street, to the right, than the taller new building in the background.

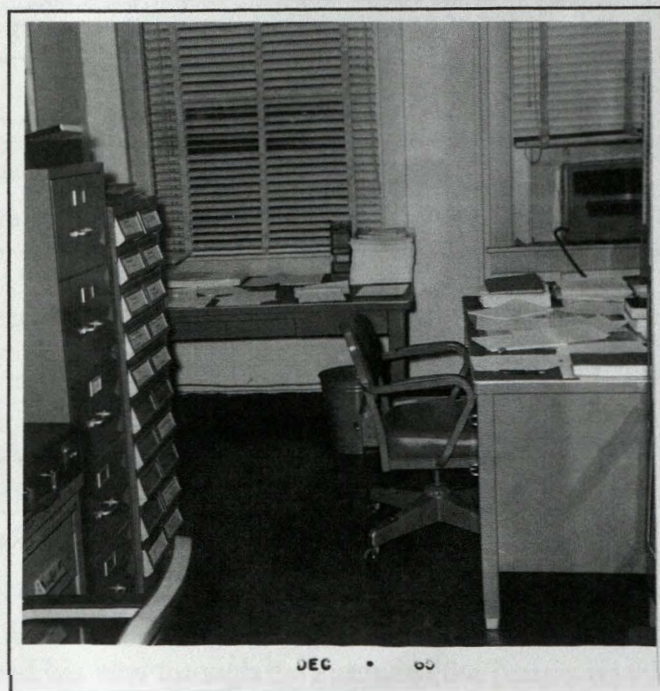


Figure 7. The author's office in the Old Annex, along 24th Street. Grey metal furniture. Punched card cabinet on the left. Window air conditioner.

The picture to the right of the new building appeared in the July 1941 issue of *Topics and Personnel*. The accompanying article indicates the Weather Bureau was just in the process of moving in. Note the Old Annex to the left extending nearer to M Street than the new building



Figure 8. The new building nearing construction with the Old Annex to the left. (Picture taken from July 1941 *Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel*.)

Figure 9 shows an excerpt from the 1889 Report of the supervising Architect regarding the purchase of the Ferguson building and the erection of additional buildings.

STATEMENT OF APPROPRIATIONS.	
Act of March 5, 1885, authorizes purchase of grounds and building, corner of Twenty-fourth and M streets northwest, of David Fergusson, at a cost not to exceed \$112,000, and the erection of store-houses, with fire-proof vaults, limiting cost to \$150,000.	
Act of April 24, 1885, appropriates to carry out provisions of act approved March 5, 1885	\$150,000.00
Total amount appropriated	\$150,000.00
Amount expended for site and building	112,000.00
Amount expended for repairs to building prior to September 30, 1889	831.50
Amount expended for repairs to building during the year ending September 30, 1889	33,175.52
Total expenditure	146,007.02
Balance in Treasury September 30, 1889	3,992.98
Amount of contract liabilities	3,646.69
Amount actually available September 30, 1889	346.29

Figure 9. Abstracted from the 1889 Report of the Supervising Architect (National Archives).

The diagram below shows the layout of the 24th and M Streets Weather Bureau complex as it existed between 1941 when the new building was built and 1966 when the Bureau moved to Silver Spring. The diagram, not to scale but reasonably accurate, was pieced together from the pictures in this appendix and the author's memory. At one time, there was a building to the west of Old Main (right in the picture), possibly as an extension of the Annex, as can be seen in a picture in the main text.

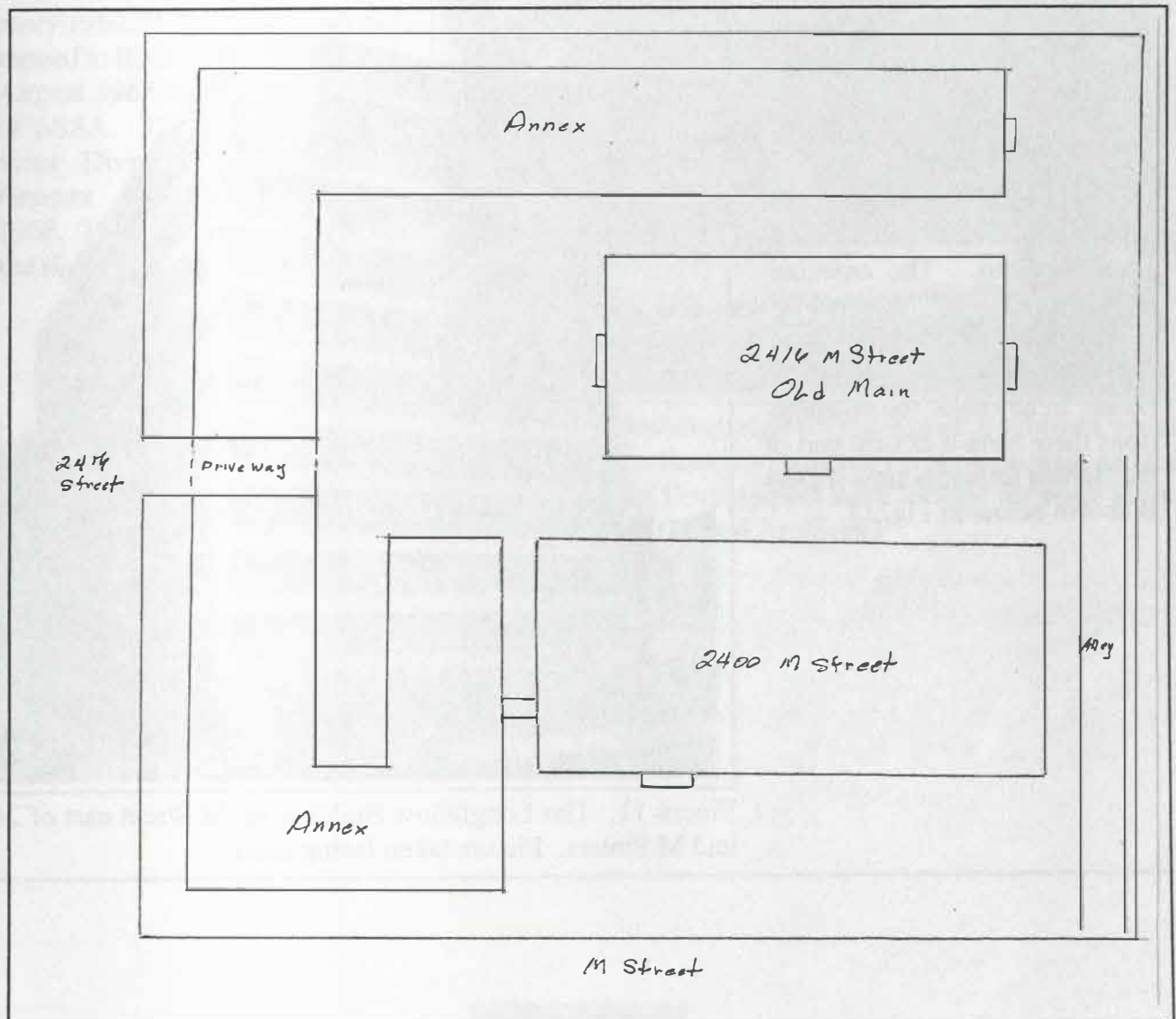


Figure 10. The 24th and M Streets Weather Bureau facilities were essentially unchanged between 1941 and 1966.

The driveway from 24th Street led to a small parking lot. The parking spaces were assigned according to position in the Bureau. The Annex was wide enough for desks on each side near the windows and a walkway between. One could thread his way through the extent of the Annex on the 2nd level (note the walkway between the buildings, see Fig. 2), essentially by walking through employees' working areas—there were no partitions to isolate the walkway. Some movable partitions separated workers spaces, and there were permanent walls separating the Annex into rooms.

APPENDIX III

Other Weather Bureau Headquarters Locations

A number of other buildings were also used while the Bureau was at 24th and M Streets. The Longfellow Building, shown in Fig. 11, a few blocks to the east housed the Administrative offices for a time.

Federal Building No. 4 (FOB4) housed the National Meteorological Center and the satellite operations. The organizations there were counted as “field” or “headquarters,” depending on the purpose of the count. In any case, the organizations there were a critical part of the Bureau infrastructure. FOB4 is shown below in Fig. 12.

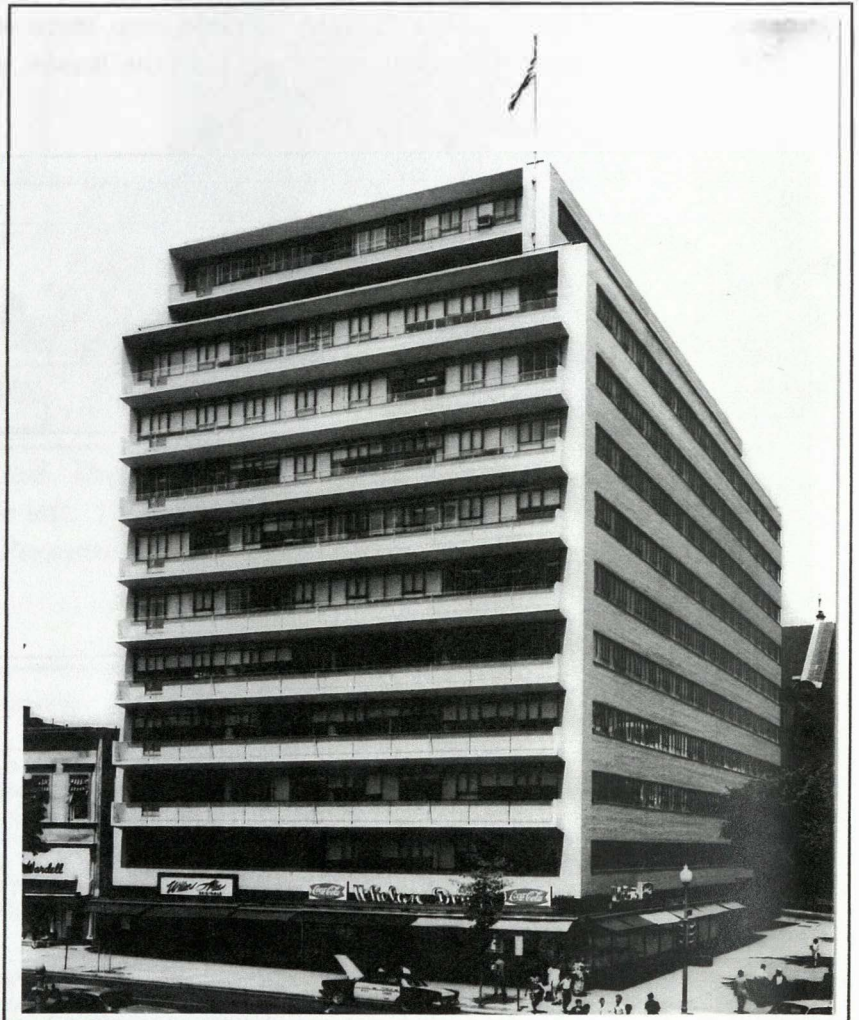


Figure 11. The Longfellow Building on M Street east of 24th and M Streets. Picture taken facing south.



Figure 12. Federal Office Building No. 4 in Suitland, Maryland. Picture taken facing east.

Always short of space, the Bureau secured space for the Hydrologic Services Division, the Training Section, and the Office of Forecast Development at 4880 MacArthur Boulevard, Washington, D.C. The move was in February 1962.⁷⁵⁸ Training personnel moved to Rockville, Maryland, in August 1965 with the formation of ESSA. The Hydrologic Services Division moved to the Gramax Building in January 1968. The building is pictured to the right.



Figure 13. The building at 4880 MacArthur Boulevard where the Hydrologic services Division, the Training Section, and the Office of Forecast Development were located for some years. (Picture from the National Archives.)

⁷⁵⁸ *Weather Bureau Topics*, January 1962, Topigrams.

APPENDIX IV
Other Views of the Gramax Building



Figure 14. The Kennett Street side (right side of picture) and back of the Gramax Building. Taken from the top of the Montgomery County parking garage, looking southeast. (Photo by Bob Glahn, 1989)

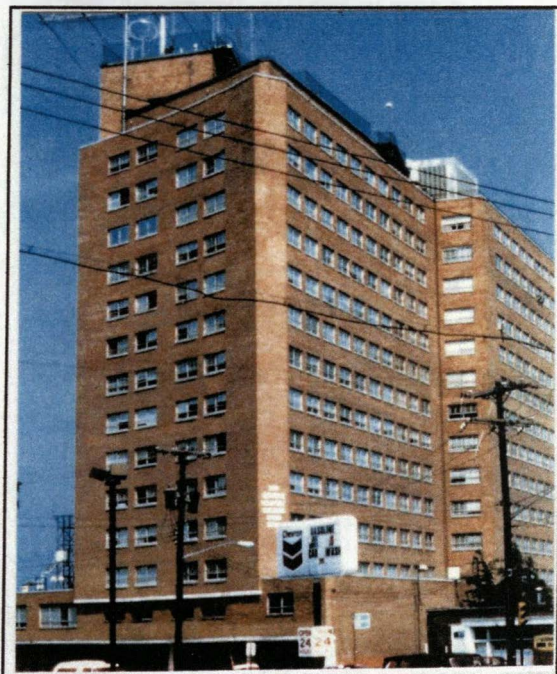


Figure 15. The front and south sides of the Gramax Building. (Picture from the NOAA Library.)

APPENDIX V

Primary Information Sources

- 1870-1891 Report of the Chief Signal Officer–Voluminous annual reports written to the Secretary of War.
(http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/cso/data_rescue_signal_corps_annual_reports.html/)
- 1891-1953 Report of the Chief of the Weather Bureau Officer–Voluminous annual reports written to the Secretary of Agriculture and Commerce.
(<http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/reportofthechief/reportofthechief.html/>)
- 1915-1947 Weather Bureau Topics and Personnel–Monthly house organ written for employees.
(<http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/topicsandpersonnel/topicsandpersonnel.html/>)
- 1948-1965 Weather Bureau Topics–Same as above with name shortened; all one series.
(<http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/topicsandpersonnel/topicsandpersonnel.html/>)
- 1940-1966 Weather Bureau Circular Letters–Unscheduled announcements of events, procedures, or items of interest; written for employees whenever needed; signed by the Chief of the Bureau or designee.
(http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/wb_circular_ltrs/circularletters.html/)
- 1965-1970 ESSA News–Weekly, written for employees by ESSA Public Affairs.
(http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/essa_news/)
- 1966-1969 ESSA World–Primarily feature stories for employee or public consumption.
(http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/essa_world/)
- 1970 ESSA–Evidently a name change from ESSA World
(<http://docs.lib.noaa.gov/rescue/journals/essa/>)
- 1967-1970 Technical Procedures Bulletins (TPB)–Documentation of data and products that were centrally implemented by the Weather Bureau. Hard copies exist in the Meteorological Development Laboratory library.

APPENDIX VI

Acronyms

ACWS - Advisory Committee on Weather Services
AEC - Atomic Energy Commission
AFB - Air Force Base
AMOS - Automatic Meteorological Observing Station
AMS - American Meteorological Society
AN/AMT-8 - A type of radiosonde
ARTC - Air Route Traffic Control
ASOS - Automated Surface Observing System
AW - winds aloft forecast
AWIPS - Advanced Weather Interactive Processing System
C&GS - Coast and Geodetic Survey
CAA - Civil Aeronautics Administration
CAFTI - Committee on Analysis and Forecast Technique Implementation
CAT - Clear Air Turbulence
CDC - Control Data Corporation
DoC - Department of Commerce
CONUS - continental U.S.
CONELRAD - CONTROL of ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION
ESSA - Environmental Science Services Administration
F - Fahrenheit
FAWS - Flight Advisory Weather Service
FIARBC - Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee
FM - State Defense Network
GCRL - General Circulation Research Laboratory
GFDL - Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
FOB4 - Federal Office Building No. 4
FOFAX - Forecast Office Facsimile
FOSDIC - Film Optical Sensing Device for Input to Computers
FP - State Forecast
IBM - International Business Machine
ICAO - International Civil Aviation Organization
IFPS - Interactive Forecast Preparation System
JNWPU - Joint Numerical Weather Prediction Unit
LAWRS - Limited Airport Weather Reporting Stations.
MAMOS - Marine Automatic Meteorological Observing Station
MIC - Meteorologist in Charge
MIT - Massachusetts Institute of Technology
NOAA - National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
MOBEU - Mobile Emergency Unit
MOS - Model Output Statistics
MWR - Monthly Weather Review
NACA - National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics
NADWARN - Natural Disaster Warning

NASA - National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCEP - National Centers for Environmental Prediction
NESC - National Environmental Satellite Center
NDFD - National Digital Forecast Database
NHC - National Hurricane Center
NHRL - National Hurricane Research Laboratory
NHRP - National Hurricane Research Project
NMC - National Meteorological Center
NSSFC - National Severe Storms Forecast Center
NSSL - National Severe Storms Laboratory
NWAC - National Weather Analysis Center
NWP - Numerical Weather Prediction
NWRC - National Weather Records Center
NWS - National Weather Service
OEP - Office of Emergency Planning
OIC - Official in Charge
OMO - Office of Meteorological Operations
OMR - Office of Meteorological Research
OM&O - Office of Meteorology and Oceanography
SDO - Systems Development Office
PE - primitive equations
PoP - probability of precipitation
PPI - Plan Position Integrator
QPF - Quantitative Precipitation Forecast
RADU - Radar Analysis and Development Unit
raob - radiosonde observation
RATTS - Radar and Telephone Transmission System
RAVU - Radiosonde Verification Unit
RAWARC - RAREP and warning coordination teletypewriter circuit
RD - Regional Director
REGUS REP - Regional User Service Representative
RFC - River Forecast Center
RVR - Runway Visual Range
SAM - Subsynoptic Advection Model
SELS - Severe Local Storms Warning Service
STATUS REP - State User Service Representative
SWU - Severe Weather Unit
SWWC - Severe Weather Warning Center
TDL - Techniques Development Laboratory
TPB - Technical Procedures Bulletin
VFR - Visual Flight Rules
VIDMET - Video-Meteorology
WB - Weather Bureau
WBAN - Weather Bureau, Army, Navy
WBAS - Weather Bureau Airport Station
WBASO - Weather Bureau Agricultural Service Office

- WBO - Weather Bureau Office
- WFO - Weather Forecast Offices
- WMO - World Meteorological Organization
- WPA - Works Progress Administration
- WSO - Weather Service Office