

1 LIGHTNING RETURN-STROKE CURRENT WAVEFORMS ALOFT, FROM MEASURED
2 FIELD CHANGE, CURRENT, AND CHANNEL GEOMETRY
3
4

5 J.C. Willett

6 P.O. Box 41, Garrett Park, MD 20896
7

8 D.M. Le Vine

9 Code 614.6, NASA/GSFC, Greenbelt, MD 20771
10

11 V.P. Idone

12 Dept. of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Univ. at Albany, SUNY, 1400 Washington Ave.,

13 Albany, NY 12222
14

15
16 Submitted to *Journal of Geophysical Research, Atmospheres*

17 October 5, 2006
18

19 Abstract

20

21 Three-dimensional reconstructions of six rocket-triggered lightning channels are derived from
22 stereo photographs. These reconstructed channels are used to infer the behavior of the current in
23 return strokes above the ground from current waveforms measured at the channel base and
24 electric-field-change waveforms measured at a range of 5.2 km for 24 return strokes in these
25 channels. Streak photographs of 14 of the same strokes are analyzed to determine the rise times,
26 propagation speeds, and amplitudes of relative light intensity for comparison with the electrical
27 inferences. Results include the following: 1) The fine structure of the field-change waveforms
28 that were radiated by these subsequent return strokes can be explained, in large part, by channel
29 geometry. 2) The average 10 - 90% rise time of the stroke current increased by about a factor of
30 seven in our sample, from an observed $0.31 \pm 0.17 \mu\text{s}$ at the surface to an inferred $2.2 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{s}$ at
31 1 km path length above the surface. 3) The three-dimensional propagation speed of the current
32 front averaged $1.80 \pm 0.24 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ over channel lengths typically greater than 1 km. 4)
33 Assuming that the measured current was entirely due to the return stroke forced an unreasonably
34 large and abrupt reduction in inferred current amplitude over the first few tens of meters above
35 the surface, especially in cases when the leader was bright relative to its stroke. Therefore, a
36 significant fraction of the current at the surface was probably due to the leader, at least in such
37 cases. 5) Peak return-stroke currents decreased by approximately $37 \pm 12\%$ from 100 m to 1 km
38 of path length above the surface. Because of uncertainty about how to partition the measured
39 current between leader and return stroke, we are unable to infer the variation of current
40 amplitude near the ground.

41 Introduction

42

43 The return strokes in cloud-to-ground lightning flashes are the most powerful known
44 lightning processes in terms of both local energy dissipation and electromagnetic radiation [e.g.;
45 Guo and Krider, 1982; Willett *et al.*, 1990]. Although the threat that they pose to objects on the
46 ground has now been reasonably well quantified, the peak electric currents, current rise times,
47 and electromagnetic-field intensities above the surface are not known. These quantities have
48 practical importance to the hardening of aircraft and missiles, which can trigger lightning
49 discharges in flight [Mazur *et al.*, 1984; Christian *et al.*, 1989], since the flashes so triggered are
50 likely to contain return strokes if initiated close enough to the ground. "In testing to determine
51 the immunity of a system to a direct lightning strike... the flash current is generally that observed
52 at the base of a severe flash to ground even though aircraft and space vehicles in flight will likely
53 encounter the smaller currents associated either with the upper portion of return strokes or with
54 various in-cloud currents from either ground or cloud discharges" [Uman, 1988].

55 In addition to this engineering application, information about the evolution of speed,
56 shape, and amplitude of the upward-propagating current waveform is needed to test, and to guide
57 the further development of, physical models of the return stroke [e.g., Strawe, 1979; Mattos and
58 Christopoulos, 1990]. Such models give predictions of these quantities that (except for
59 propagation speed) have yet to be compared to observations above the surface.

60 Direct measurements of the current waveforms in both natural and rocket-triggered return
61 strokes exist, but only at the channel base [Berger *et al.*, 1975; Eriksson, 1978; Garbagnati and
62 Lo Pipero, 1982; Leteinturier *et al.*, 1990, 1991; Fisher *et al.*, 1993; Depasse, 1994, Crawford,
63 1998; Uman *et al.*, 2000; Schoene *et al.*, 2003]. Time-resolved photographic and photo-electric
64 measurements that show the evolution of luminosity along the visible channel on microsecond
65 temporal, and several-meter spatial, scales are also available [Schonland *et al.*, 1935; Idone and
66 Orville, 1982; Jordan and Uman, 1983; Idone *et al.*, 1984; Mach and Rust, 1989; Jordan *et al.*,
67 1997; Wang *et al.*, 1999]. These optical measurements imply that the propagation speed and the
68 peak amplitude of return-stroke current waveforms both decrease with increasing height above
69 the surface, while the current rise time increases with height.

70 Unfortunately, the relation between optical emission per unit channel length and
71 instantaneous current is not well known under the conditions found in lightning return strokes.

72 Colvin *et al.* [1987] found an approximately linear relation between instantaneous current and
73 channel brightness in oscillatory laboratory discharges having current periods of about 2 ms.
74 These discharges were intended to simulate "nuclear lightning," however, so their time scales of
75 were slow enough that pressure equilibrium was well established within the current-carrying
76 channels. Murphy *et al.* [1986, Figure 13] made similar measurements on a laboratory discharge
77 ringing with about 30 μs period and having a current rise rate of approximately 10 kA/ μs . (Note
78 that this current derivative is roughly one order of magnitude smaller than those typically
79 measured at the channel base in rocket-triggered return strokes [Leteinturier *et al.*, 1990, 1991;
80 Schoene *et al.*, 2003] but might be comparable to those occurring in lightning channels a few
81 hundred meters above the ground.) Murphy *et al.* [1986] concluded, "This discharge rings on a
82 timescale too short for pressure equilibrium to be established with the surrounding atmosphere,
83 thus its brightness is not a simple function of the discharge current." Gomes and Cooray [1998]
84 measured the optical emissions from the entire length of laboratory sparks in 250 mm and 500
85 mm gaps. They found that, for a current rise time of 1.1 μs , the optical rise time remained near
86 1.2 μs over a range of peak currents from 0.6 to 3.5 kA; that optical and current rise times were
87 nearly proportional over a range of 0.3 to 15 μs (peak current varied with rise time); and that
88 peak optical emission was approximately linearly related to peak current, although with a large
89 zero intercept that eliminated any proportionality between these two parameters.

90 In measurements on rocket-triggered lightning, Idone and Orville [1985] reported
91 approximate proportionality between peak current measured at the ground and peak relative
92 luminosity about 50 m above ground for 20 strokes in one flash and 17 strokes in another. Wang
93 *et al.* [2005] found proportionality between instantaneous current and instantaneous relative
94 intensity in the lowest 3.6 m of channel during the rapidly rising portion only of four triggered
95 strokes. Nevertheless, the contradictory nature of the laboratory results to date makes it
96 premature to deduce current behavior directly from optical-luminosity measurements.

97 (Note further that rocket-triggered lightning differs from natural cloud-to-ground
98 lightning in that the former has no analog to the natural first return stroke [*e.g.*, Uman, 1987,
99 Section 12.5]. Le Vine *et al.* [1989] have argued the similarity between rocket-triggered and
100 natural subsequent strokes, based on wide-band recordings of their radiation fields, but the
101 current waveforms in natural first strokes are expected to be different for various reasons [see

102 review and discussion by Willett *et al.*, 1995]. Thus, the results in this paper may not apply to
103 natural first return strokes.)

104 There are numerous, semi-empirical, "engineering" models of return-stroke currents in
105 the literature [*e.g.*, Bruce and Golde, 1941; Uman and McLain, 1970; Lin *et al.*, 1980; Hubert,
106 1985; Heidler, 1985; Diendorfer and Uman, 1990]. These and other model variations have been
107 reviewed and extended by Nucci *et al.* [1990], Thottappillil and Uman [1993], and Rakov and
108 Uman [1998]. Many of these models have been tested against observed channel-base-current
109 and remote electromagnetic-field waveforms [Lin *et al.*, 1980; Thottappillil and Uman, 1993;
110 Rakov and Uman, 1998], but only assuming a straight, vertical lightning channel and a "realistic"
111 profile of propagation speed. Le Vine and Willett [1995] have presented evidence, however, that
112 the channel morphology plays an important role in determining the structure of the radiation-
113 field waveform, even for subsequent return strokes.

114 Master *et al.* [1981] computed the electromagnetic fields to be expected aloft from a
115 nearby return stroke, based on a modification of the model of Lin *et al.* [1980], but they could
116 find no measurements with which to compare their results. More recently, Reazer *et al.* [1987],
117 Mazur *et al.* [1990], and Mazur and Moreau [1992] have presented *in-situ* observations of a few
118 events in direct lightning strikes to aircraft that they believe to have been return strokes, but the
119 evidence for this claim is problematic. Reazer *et al.* [1987] found peak currents of 1-4 kA and
120 rise times around 2 μ s in these events, in agreement with the general expectation that return
121 stroke peak currents should be smaller, and current rise times should be longer, aloft than at the
122 ground. Mazur *et al.* [1990] and Mazur and Moreau [1992] did not report peak currents or rise
123 times, but the latter authors state, "...return stroke currents at flight altitudes are much smaller in
124 amplitude than those measured on the ground, and are usually smaller than current pulses of dart
125 leaders and recoil streamers. This observation strongly indicates the need for reexamining the
126 threat to aircraft from return strokes."

127

128

129 Data and Approach

130

131 The present paper exploits an existing set of channel-base-current recordings, stereo still
132 photographs, streak photographs, and remote electric-field waveforms of rocket-triggered

133 lightning return strokes to deduce quantitative features of their current waveforms above the
134 ground. This uniquely comprehensive data set was obtained during the summer of 1987 at the
135 NASA Kennedy Space Center in Florida and has been described in detail by Willett *et al.* [1989].
136 A novel feature of these data is the stereo pairs of still photographs, which have enabled
137 piecewise-linear reconstruction of the actual three-dimensional geometry of six cloud-to-ground
138 channels, as outlined previously by Willett and Le Vine [1995]. (See Appendix A for further
139 details.) The reconstructed channels are believed accurate to a few tens of meters or better.
140 They are smooth and approximately straight over the lowest few hundred meters, where the
141 lightning followed the triggering wires, and tortuous above. Both current and electric-field-
142 change waveforms were recorded during a total of 24 return strokes in these channels, and
143 stroke-propagation speeds were also measured from the streak photographs for 14 of these
144 strokes in five channels.

145 It has been shown theoretically [Hill, 1969; Le Vine and Meneghini, 1978; Le Vine and
146 Kao, 1988; Cooray and Orville, 1990; Vecchi *et al.*, 1994] that kinks and bends in a lightning
147 channel should produce signatures in the return-stroke radiation field. For example, if an
148 unchanging current waveform were to propagate at constant speed -- the "transmission-line
149 model" (TLM) of Uman and McLain [1970] -- up such a tortuous channel, each successive kink
150 would radiate a facsimile of the current waveform with an amplitude, polarity, and time delay
151 determined by the geometry of that kink relative to the observer [*e.g.*, Le Vine and Willett,
152 1992]. Thus, it is tempting to conclude that knowledge of the channel geometry would permit
153 deconvolution of the radiated field to yield the spatial evolution of the current waveform along
154 the channel.

155 Mathematically, this inverse problem cannot be solved, of course, since the return-stroke
156 current is, in general, a function of both time and path length along the lightning channel,
157 whereas the field waveform observed at a single location is a function of time alone. Even if the
158 current were constrained to reduce its dimensionality from two to one, the solution might not be
159 unique. Here the inverse problem is avoided by solving the forward problem with various
160 assumptions about the current distribution and comparing the results to observation. Preliminary
161 results of this approach have been presented by Willett *et al.* [1989] and by Willett and Le Vine
162 [1996, 2002, 2003].

163

164
 165
 166
 167
 168
 169
 170
 171
 172
 173
 174
 175
 176

Calculation of the Field Change

Le Vine and Meneghini [1983, Eq. 26] derived the following equation in vector notation (which has been repeated as Le Vine and Willett [1992, Eq. 1]) for the total electric field due to a TLM current waveform, $I_{TLM}([t - t_a] - \hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot [\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r}_a'] / v)$, propagating on an arbitrarily located, arbitrarily oriented, short, linear channel segment in free space. Here v is the propagation speed of the current waveform, $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ is a unit vector in the direction of propagation along the channel segment (also taken to be the positive direction for current flow), and t_a is the *retarded* time that the onset of the waveform, $I_{TLM}(0)$, arrives at the origin of the channel segment, \mathbf{r}_a' . (This "retarded" time is delayed by the interval, $|\mathbf{r}_a' - \mathbf{r}|/c$, that is required for information to propagate at the speed of light, c , from the origin of the segment to the observer's location, \mathbf{r} .)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = & -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int_{\text{segment}} [I_{TLM}] \left\{ \hat{\mathbf{i}} - (\hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot \nabla R) \nabla R \right\} \frac{ds'}{R} \\
 & -\frac{\mu_0 c}{4\pi} \int_{\text{segment}} [I_{TLM}] \left\{ \hat{\mathbf{i}} - 3(\hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot \nabla R) \nabla R \right\} \frac{ds'}{R^2} \\
 & -\frac{\mu_0 c^2}{4\pi} \int_{\text{segment}} \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^t [I_{TLM}] \left\{ \hat{\mathbf{i}} - 3(\hat{\mathbf{i}} \cdot \nabla R) \nabla R \right\} dt' \right\} \frac{ds'}{R^3}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

177
 178
 179
 180
 181
 182
 183
 184
 185

The integrals in (1) are line integrals that are evaluated along the channel segment. The integrations are to be done in the "primed" coordinate system, where ds' denotes a differential length along the segment, and ∇R is effectively a unit vector pointing from the source point, \mathbf{r}' , to the observer along the separation distance, $R \equiv |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|$. The square brackets in the integrands in Equation 1 only, (*function*), denote the retarded value of the argument of the enclosed function, and the dot above the brackets denotes a derivative with respect to the single argument of that function.

186
 187
 188
 189

Starting from the first term in (1), Le Vine and Willett [1992, Eq. B3] derived a simple formula for the electric radiation (*i.e.*, "far") field, measured at the surface of an infinite, horizontal, conducting plane, due to a current-carrying channel segment above that plane:

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{rad}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\mu_0 v}{2 \pi R_0} \frac{\sin(\theta) (\hat{\theta} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}}) \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\left[1 - \frac{v}{c} (\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \nabla R_0)\right]} [I_{\text{TLM}}(t - t_a) - I_{\text{TLM}}(t - t_b)] \quad (2)$$

190
191
192 In this formula we have assumed a spherical coordinate system, (R_0, θ, φ) , that is centered on the
193 channel segment but has its symmetry axis, $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, oriented vertically -- perpendicular to the
194 conducting plane. (Thus the zenith angle, θ , is greater than 90° for sources above the plane.) R_0
195 is the distance from the center of the segment aloft to the observer on the ground plane, μ_0 is the
196 magnetic permeability of free space, t_b is the *retarded* time that the onset of the current
197 waveform arrives at the termination of the channel segment, r_b' , and $I_{\text{TLM}}(\text{argument})$ is the
198 functional form of the current at the center of that segment.

199 The "induction" and "static" components of the complete electric field due to the same
200 channel segment can be readily computed from the second and third terms of (1), respectively.
201 They and are given in the same notation as (2) by Equations 3 and 4:

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{ind}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\mu_0 c}{2 \pi R_0^2} \frac{|\mathbf{r}_b' - \mathbf{r}_a'| \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\left[\sin(\theta) (\hat{\theta} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}}) + 2 \cos(\theta) (\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \nabla R_0) \right]} \cdot I_{\text{TLM}}\left(t - \frac{t_a + t_b}{2}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{stat}}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\mu_0 c^2}{2 \pi R_0^3} \frac{|\mathbf{r}_b' - \mathbf{r}_a'| \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\left[\sin(\theta) (\hat{\theta} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{z}}) + 2 \cos(\theta) (\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \nabla R_0) \right]} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^t I_{\text{TLM}}\left(t' - \frac{t_a + t_b}{2}\right) dt' \quad (4)$$

203
204
205
206
207
208 (We have used the average retarded arrival time on the segment in question in order to minimize
209 systematic errors in Equations 3 and 4.)

210 As with (1), Equations 2 - 4 require the current to obey the TLM, but only within each
211 segment. Thus, any desired current distribution can be approximated by dividing the entire
212 lightning channel into short, linear segments and varying the current waveform and propagation
213 speed appropriately between successive segments. These three equations are used here to
214 calculate the total field change that would be produced at the location of the electric-field-change

215 sensor by various assumed current distributions over all of the segments that make up each
216 piecewise-linear, reconstructed channel. Further details on this procedure are given in Appendix
217 B.

218

219

220 Formal Assumptions about the R/S Current Distribution

221

222 As indicated above, we expect both the propagation speed and the peak amplitude of
223 return-stroke current waveforms to decrease with increasing height above the surface, while the
224 current rise time should increase with height. Thus we adopt a "generalized TLM" current
225 distribution similar to that of Cooray and Orville [1990]. The current as a function of time and
226 position on the lightning channel is given by

227

$$228 \quad i(t, s) = a(s) I(t_1, s) \quad (5)$$

229

230 where t is time measured from stroke onset at the surface, s is path length measured upward from
231 the surface along the tortuous channel, and $a(s)$ is an amplitude factor that allows for permanent
232 charge deposition along the channel. $I(t_1, s) \equiv 0$ for $t_1 \leq 0$, and the current onset is assumed to
233 propagate monotonically upward with position-dependent "TLM velocity," $v(s)$. t_1 accounts for
234 the resulting propagation delay as a function of s :

235

$$236 \quad t_1 = t - \int_0^s \frac{ds'}{v(s')} \quad (6)$$

237

238 The current waveform that was measured at the surface, $i_0(t)$, is smoothed by
239 convolution,

240

$$241 \quad I(t_1, s) = \int_0^{t_1} i_0(t_1 - t') K(t', s) dt', \quad t_1 > 0 \quad (7)$$

242

243 where the limits of integration result from the requirement that both $i_0(t)$ and $K(t, s)$ vanish for $t <$
244 0. We use the following form for our "causal" smoothing kernel:

245

$$K(t', s) = \frac{e^{-\frac{t'}{\tau(s)}} t'^2}{2 \tau^3(s)}, \quad t' \geq 0 \quad (8)$$

246

247

248 which has been normalized to conserve the total charge that is transported up the channel by any
 249 given current pulse. Therefore, although the peak amplitude of $I(t, s)$ typically decreases with
 250 increasing s as a result of increased smoothing, $a(s)$ scales the total charge passing any s . The
 251 "equivalent width" (the width of a rectangle with the same peak magnitude and total area) of this
 252 convolution kernel is $[\tau(s) e^2]/2$. The forms chosen for the various parameters defined above are
 253 as follows:

254

$$a(s) = [a_{min1} + (1 - a_{min1}) e^{-s/L_{a1}}] [a_{min2} + (1 - a_{min2}) e^{-s/L_{a2}}] \quad (9)$$

255

256

$$v(s) = v_{min} + (v_{max} - v_{min}) e^{-s/L_{v1}} + v_{ampl} e^{-s/L_{v2}} \quad (10)$$

257

258

$$\tau(s) = \tau_{max} (1 - e^{-s/L_{\tau}}) \quad (11)$$

259

260

261 where a_{min1} , a_{min2} , L_{a1} , L_{a2} , v_{min} , v_{max} , v_{ampl} , L_{v1} , L_{v2} , τ_{max} , and L_{τ} are constants.

262 Note that the generalized-TLM form that is adopted here (as opposed to the piecewise
 263 TLM requirement in the previous section) restricts somewhat the possible current distributions
 264 along the return-stroke channel. Nevertheless, the present assumptions allow us to explore the
 265 current variations that we expect, based on optical observations, while introducing a manageable
 266 number of free parameters. An understanding of the effects of these various parameters can be
 267 obtained by examining the examples of $I(t, s)$ in Figure 1 and of $v(s)$ and $a(s)$ in Figures 5 and 7,
 268 respectively, below. (The corresponding free-parameter values are given in the figure captions.)

269 Eleven free parameters may seem like a lot to fit a given observed electric-field-change
 270 waveform. Note, however, that we are really just allowing the current amplitude to vary on two
 271 different height scales (often required to fit the peak radiation field, as illustrated below), the
 272 TLM velocity to vary on two scales as well, and the current rise time to vary on one height scale.
 273 In a later section, a physical explanation is offered for one of the amplitude scales, probably
 274 rendering it moot. The second TLM-velocity scale is required for only a few strokes. Finally, it

275 is not the values of the individual free parameters themselves, but rather the characters of the
276 variations of current amplitude, rise time, and propagation speed with height, that are the real
277 objectives of this investigation. Therefore, our fitting procedure does not turn out to have as
278 many degrees of freedom as it might seem.

279

280

281 Detailed Example of Fitting Procedure -- Stroke 8732/2

282

283 The approach that is used in this paper to deduce the evolution of return-stroke current
284 with height comprises the following steps: 1) Guess the current parameters in Equations 9 - 11.
285 2) Compute the magnitude of the resulting field change, $E_c(t)$, at the observing site from
286 Equations 2 - 4, according to Appendix B. 3) Compare $E_c(t)$ with the measured field change for
287 the same stroke, $E_m(t)$. 4) Iterate until a good fit is obtained. We shall see that this procedure
288 gives reasonably definite results, in spite of the apparent ill-posed-ness of the general
289 mathematical inversion problem. As an example, we examine in detail the fitting of stroke 2 in
290 flash 8732 (stroke and flash identifiers as in Willett *et al.* [1989]).

291

292 *Smoothing and Extrapolation of the Current Waveform*

293

294 The channel-base current for these events was recorded for either 20 μs (flashes 8715 and
295 8717) or 5 μs (flashes 8725 - 8732), including pre-trigger delay. In order to compute $E_c(t)$ for the
296 entire time interval during which the current onset propagates from bottom to top of the visible
297 channel -- typically about 10 μs -- it was therefore necessary to extrapolate the measured current
298 waveforms for more than half of the events in our dataset. Furthermore, the smaller-amplitude
299 waveforms were rather noisy, leading to (1) uncertainty in the precise time of current onset and
300 (2) spurious noise in our piecewise-linear calculation of the radiation field via Equation 2, so
301 some smoothing was beneficial. (If the current waveform is significantly different on adjoining
302 channel segments, errors are produced in the radiated field. These errors can be minimized
303 either by smoothing the channel-base current or by using inconveniently short channel segments
304 near the ground.)

305 In practice, the onset of the measured current waveform was truncated at some small
306 magnitude (less than the digitization interval), and then the remaining record was smoothed with
307 a tapered, 11-point (60 ns FWHM) moving average. This resulted in a relatively smooth $i_0(t)$
308 having a definite onset time ($t = 0$) without appreciably changing its rise time or wave shape.
309 Next the decaying portion of the recorded waveform, starting well after the peak, was fitted with
310 the sum of a constant, a linear slope, and (in many of the cases) an exponential decay. The
311 resulting analytic shape was used to extrapolate $i_0(t)$ to later times, as needed. This quasi-
312 objective extrapolation procedure is not regarded as part of the matching of $E_c(t)$ to $E_m(t)$, *per se*.
313 In most cases the results are reasonable (see Figures 2 for two examples), but they appeared to
314 produce artifacts in a few cases, as we shall see later.

315

316 *Determination of Current Rise Time*

317

318 The most obvious result of our analysis, first reported by Willett *et al.* [1989] and by
319 Willett and Le Vine [1996], is that the current rise time must increase rapidly with height (or
320 with path length, s) in order for $E_c(t)$ to resemble $E_m(t)$. Thus, the first step in our fitting
321 procedure was always to adjust τ_{max} and L_τ in Equation 11 in order to obtain an $E_c(t)$ with
322 approximately the right amount of "fine structure."

323 Figure 3 illustrates the excessive fine structure that is obtained for stroke 8732/2 if $i_0(t)$
324 (see Figures 2) is allowed to propagate up the reconstructed channel at a constant speed of 1.71
325 $\times 10^8$ m/s -- effectively the pure TLM. (Note that this propagation speed along our 3-D channel
326 was chosen to be somewhat faster than the measured 2-D propagation speed of 1.6×10^8 m/s \pm
327 20% in order to line up the major waveform features in time.) The fine structure on $E_c(t)$ is
328 reduced to a reasonable level, as shown by the green curve in Figure 4, when $\tau_{max} = 4.36 \mu\text{s}$ and
329 $L_\tau = 7084$ m (that is, $\tau(s)$ is nearly linear with an *initial* slope of $0.615 \mu\text{s}/\text{km}$). Unfortunately, the
330 remaining fine structure is now delayed significantly with respect to that of the observed
331 waveform, forcing us to adjust the propagation speed. The reason for this delay is that increased
332 smoothing (via Equations 7 and 8) delays the fast-rising portion of the current waveform by an
333 increased interval relative to current onset [which, by definition, propagates according to $v(s)$] --
334 see also Figure 1.

335

336 *Determination of Propagation Speed*

337
338 The horizontal, solid-green line in Figure 5 illustrates the constant TLM-velocity profile
339 that corresponds to the green curve in Figure 4. In the numerical code it is possible to calculate,
340 at each time step, the propagation speed of the half-amplitude point on the rising portion of the
341 current front, while accounting for the fact that the current waveform is becoming increasingly
342 smooth (the rise time is becoming longer) with increasing height. [Later, this calculation also
343 accounts for a decreasing amplitude factor, $a(s)$, with height.] For $v(s) = 1.71 \times 10^8$ m/s, the
344 resulting "front velocity, $v_{eff}(s)$," as we call this calculated effective speed, is shown by the green
345 dots in Figure 5. Notice that, not only is $v_{eff}(s)$ significantly lower than $v(s)$, but it also increases
346 somewhat with height.

347 In general, we adjusted the TLM velocity profile so that the fine structure of $E_c(t)$
348 coincided in time with that of $E_m(t)$, while striving to keep the front velocity constant or
349 decreasing with height. (The latter was not always possible, however, as shown below.) For
350 stroke 8732/2 a nearly constant $v_{eff}(s)$ was obtained with $v_{min} = 2.1 \times 10^8$ m/s, $v_{max} = 2.6 \times 10^8$
351 m/s, $v_{ampl} = 0$, and $L_{vl} = 500$ m, as shown by the red profiles of Figure 5. Here the average front
352 velocity is almost exactly 1.71×10^8 m/s, and the fine structure of the resulting $E_c(t)$ waveform
353 is in good temporal agreement with that of $E_m(t)$, as can be seen from the red curve in Figure 4.

354
355 *Determination of Amplitude Factor*

356
357 It turns out to be generally true (at least within the context of Equations 5 - 11) that the
358 amplitude of $E_c(t)$ is directly proportional, not to $v(s)$, but to $v_{eff}(s)$. Thus, it is not surprising to
359 find the peak amplitude of the red curve in Figure 4 (corresponding to $v_{eff}(s) \approx 1.7 \times 10^8$ m/s) to
360 be about 29% larger than that of the green curve ($v_{eff}(s) \approx 1.3 \times 10^8$ m/s). Unfortunately, the red
361 curve also peaks about 37% higher than the black curve, $E_m(t)$, indicating that some adjustment
362 of the current amplitude is required.

363 It is not satisfactory in general to eliminate this "over-prediction" of peak field by
364 adjusting the velocity profile. First, this would normally result in the front velocity's increasing
365 with height, which is considered un-physical. More importantly, it would almost always delay
366 features of the predicted fine structure relative to those observed. Therefore, the only practical

367 way to adjust the amplitude of $E_c(t)$ is to adjust the amplitude factor in Equation 5. In the case of
368 stroke 8732/2, the parameters, $a_{min1} = 0.70$, $a_{min2} = 0.60$, $L_{a1} = 60$ m, and $L_{a2} = 400$ m, result in
369 good agreement, as shown in Figure 6.

370 The corresponding profile of $a(s)$ is given by the red curve in Figure 7. Notice that two
371 height scales are usually required -- a short one to bring the peak field into agreement with
372 observation and a relatively long one to tailor the "tail" of the field-change waveform. As
373 mentioned above, non-uniform $a(s)$ results in a change in the linear charge density on the
374 channel from before to after the return stroke's passage. This "deposited" charge density is
375 proportional to $-da/ds$, as illustrated in the green curve of Figure 7. Notice that an appreciable
376 fraction of the stroke charge is deposited quite close to the surface in this case. This turns out to
377 be true generally in our dataset and is explained further in a later section.

378

379

380 Fitting Variations and Problem Cases

381

382 *Adjustment of $E_c(t)$ Peak Shape Using Velocity Profile*

383

384 Occasionally it was not possible to match the shape and/or amplitude of the $E_m(t)$ peak by
385 adjusting $a(s)$ alone. In such cases the initial front velocity could often be increased, at the
386 expense of introducing a second height scale for $v(s)$, to yield a larger and/or sharper $E_c(t)$ peak.
387 Figures 8 and 9 show the best example of this type of velocity adjustment and its results for
388 stroke 8732/1.

389

390 *Consequences of the Limit, $v(s) \leq c$*

391

392 There is a physical limit on the TLM velocity -- the current onset cannot propagate up the
393 channel faster than the speed of light. As indicated above, we tried to prevent $v_{eff}(s)$ from
394 increasing with height. This was not always possible, however, without violating the constraint
395 on $v(s)$, especially when a rapid increase in current rise time with height and/or a relatively large
396 $v_{eff}(s)$ was required. The most dramatic example of such behavior is stroke 8728/11, illustrated

397 in Figure 10. Nevertheless, we were able to fit $E_c(t)$ to $E_m(t)$ quite satisfactorily in this case, as
398 can be seen in Figure 15a, below.

399

400 *Extremely Fast Decay of Current Amplitude*

401

402 Several cases require both a_{min1} significantly less than unity and $L_{a1} \leq 10$ m in order to
403 obviate a sharp initial peak on $E_c(t)$. This implies that a significant fraction of the return-stroke
404 charge is deposited in the lowest ~ 10 m above the ground in these cases (although the need for a
405 very rapid decrease in $a(s)$ will be examined further below). Stroke 8726/3, for which $a_{min1} =$
406 0.69 and the preferred value of $L_{a1} = 5$ m, is one of the most extreme cases in this regard. Figure
407 11 compares $E_c(t)$ for three different values of L_{a1} with $E_m(t)$. Evidently the best agreement is for
408 $L_{a1} = 5$ m. Figure 12 shows the resulting profiles of $a(s)$ and linear charge density on an
409 expanded height scale. A possible physical explanation of this and other similar results is
410 offered in the *Discussion* section below.

411

412 *Probable Failure of Current Extrapolation*

413

414 In a few cases it appears impossible to get a good fit to the latter part of $E_m(t)$. We have
415 already seen an example in stroke 8732/1 (Figure 9), where the amplitude of $E_c(t)$ becomes too
416 small after the first 6 μ s. Since the current for this stroke (see Figure 16a) was extrapolated from
417 a linear fit to less than 3 μ s of fairly steeply falling data following the peak, it seems probable
418 that this phenomenon is caused by poor extrapolation. A more extreme example of this behavior
419 is stroke 8725/4. The green waveform in Figure 13 shows the original current extrapolation for
420 this case -- simply our standard constant-plus-linear-plus-exponential fit to some 3.8 μ s of
421 descending current record -- which falls to zero about 12 μ s after onset. The resulting modeled
422 field change is shown in green in Figure 14 and is seen to disagree with observation after the first
423 5 μ s or so. If we arbitrarily force the current extrapolation to remain high, however (red curve in
424 Figure 13), the resulting $E_c(t)$ -- red curve in Figure 14, all fitting parameters remaining the same
425 -- agrees much better with $E_m(t)$. [This is the only case in which we have "tinkered" with the
426 current extrapolation in order to obtain a better fit to the observed field change.]

427 [Neglecting the high-frequency noise from the current waveform, notice that there is still
428 too much fine structure in $E_c(t)$, relative to $E_m(t)$, during the first 5 μ s of stroke 8725/4. We
429 could not further increase the current rise time during the early part of this stroke while
430 maintaining the observed peak field change without violating the constraint that $v(s) \leq c$. Such a
431 rapid increase of $\tau(s)$ near channel base would significantly reduce $v_{eff}(s)$ there and, consequently,
432 limit $E_c(t)$.]

433

434

435 Summary of Results for All 24 Strokes

436

437 Table 1 gives values of the 11 free parameters in Equations 9 - 11 for each stroke in our
438 dataset. A few explanatory remarks are in order here. The "Geometry" values in columns 3 and
439 4 indicate the path length from the surface to the tip of the triggering wire and to the top of the
440 reconstructed channel, respectively. "Initial Slope" (column 6) is the only parameter quoted for
441 the kernel time scale, $\tau(s)$, in cases where L_τ is much longer than the reconstructed channel, so
442 that the profile of $\tau(s)$ is effectively linear. Values are omitted for unused parameters in $v(s)$ and
443 $a(s)$. Instead of the exponential form specified in Equation 10, a linear decrease of $v(s)$ from an
444 initial value of c appeared to be more appropriate for stroke 8726/1, as indicated in column 12.
445 The last column of Table 1 gives the retarded time at which the onset of the current waveform
446 arrives at the top of the reconstructed channel -- the latest observer time, t , at which $E_c(t)$ can be
447 computed.

448 Table 2 gives the corresponding values of 10 - 90% current rise time, effective front
449 velocity, $v_{eff}(s)$, and amplitude factor, $a(s)$, at representative path lengths along the channel in
450 each case. It is these values that should be considered the results of our matching of $E_c(t)$ to
451 $E_m(t)$, whereas the parameters in Table 1 are dependent on the specific form that is assumed for
452 the current (Equations 7 - 11). (Recall that the amplitude factor in Equation 5 determines the
453 total charge passing a given point on the channel.) Note that the average of $v_{eff}(s)$ over the entire
454 current-propagation interval -- maximum path length reached by the half-amplitude point on the
455 current waveform divided by the actual (not retarded) arrival time of current onset at the channel
456 top -- is given in column 8, and that values of $v_{eff}(1000 \text{ m})$ are omitted from column 12 for the
457 few strokes in which this half-amplitude point never reached $s = 1000 \text{ m}$.

458 Figures 15 compare $E_c(t)$ and $E_m(t)$ for all 24 strokes. The pairs of strokes from three
459 different flashes in Figure 15a make a familiar point: The field-change waveforms that are
460 produced by strokes within the same flash tend to be more similar than those from different
461 flashes [e.g., Le Vine and Willett, 1995]. This is not always the case, however, as illustrated by
462 Figure 15b, in which a single flash is seen to produce two qualitatively different classes of
463 waveforms. Another example, in which two sharply peaked, relatively simple waveforms
464 coexist with three having more rounded peaks and more pronounced fine structure, is shown in
465 Figure 15c. The remaining eight strokes, all from the same flash, are shown in Figure 15d.
466 Notice that we have been able to obtain good agreement in both fine structure and absolute
467 amplitude between modeled and observed field changes over a wide variety of wave shapes. The
468 corresponding extrapolated waveforms of channel-base current
469 are given in Figures 16.

470

471

472 Relative Light Intensity from Streak Photographs

473

474 In addition to providing direct measurements of vertically averaged, two-dimensional,
475 return-stroke-propagation speed [see Willett *et al.*, 1989], the streak photographs of 14 of the 24
476 strokes in five of our six reconstructed lightning channels were processed to determine relative
477 light intensity (RLI) as a function of time and position. A typical leader/return-stroke image
478 from our data set is shown in Figure 17. Such images were digitized, calibrated, and converted
479 to time series of RLI at selected vertical levels. The resulting time series were then smoothed
480 and analyzed to determine both peak amplitude and 10 - 90% rise time of the return strokes, for
481 comparison with similar parameters deduced above for the corresponding current waveforms
482 (see Table 2). This optical analysis is described in detail in Appendix C, and the results are
483 presented in Table 3. Although we don't attempt to infer current amplitudes or rise times from
484 the optical parameters tabulated here, for the reasons explained in the *Introduction*, such a
485 comparison is reasonable in view of the approximately linear relation that we found between RLI
486 amplitude and peak current over our 14 strokes (like that reported by Idone and Orville [1985])
487 and the similarly linear relation between instantaneous RLI and current during the fast-rising
488 portions of four triggered strokes that was reported by Wang *et al.* [2005].

489 The reconstructed height above ground and the path length along the lightning channel
490 are shown in Table 3 for each measurement level on each streak photograph. (For comparison
491 with the model results in Table 2, the path length must be used.) As detailed in Appendix C, the
492 stroke RLI amplitude is the difference between the upper and lower limits of the fast-rising
493 portion of the corresponding time series. At levels above the first, the lower limit, or "baseline"
494 (also tabulated), can be viewed as an estimate of the residual brightness of the leader channel,
495 just before stroke onset, since the zero of RLI was determined from the "background" film
496 density prior to leader onset. The uncertainty in RLI amplitude is estimated at about ± 0.1 , based
497 on the typical noise level illustrated in Figure C1. The uncertainty in rise time is more difficult
498 to estimate, depending as it does on the clarity with which the fast-rising portion is manifest in
499 the RLI waveforms. The error estimates in the last column of the table are based on the scatter
500 among multiple estimates of rise time, where such existed, as described with respect to Figures
501 C2. The worst of these uncertainties are about $\pm 23\%$, although most are much smaller.

502 The optical parameters in Table 3 have been plotted against the corresponding electrical
503 estimates in Figures 18a and 18b. Recall that the model peak current, $i_p(s)$, is not identical to the
504 amplitude factor, $a(s)$, given in Tables 1 and 2. $i_p(s)$ is determined by both $a(s)$ (see Equations 5
505 and 9) and the convolution smoothing (see Equations 7, 8, and 11), which increases with path
506 length as specified in Table 1. Therefore, $i_p(s)$ has been computed and given in Table 4. (The
507 values for zero path length are, of course, those directly measured at the surface.)

508

509

510 Discussion

511

512 The entire procedure of adjusting the current-model parameters in order to match the
513 computed $E_c(t)$ waveform to the measured $E_m(t)$ has been illustrated in previous sections. Not
514 only is this procedure somewhat subjective, but the various parameters interact with one another
515 to a greater or lesser extent. We have already seen how the introduction of a current rise time
516 that increases with height, through $\tau(s)$ in Equation 8, causes the effective front-propagation
517 speed, $v_{eff}(s)$, to decrease relative to $v(s)$, although this particular interaction does not cause any
518 ambiguities beyond an occasional encounter with the physical limitation, $v(s) \leq c$. It has also
519 been pointed out that the amplitude of E_c is directly proportional to v_{eff} , so that speed changes

520 affect the inferred amplitude factor, $a(s)$. Again, this causes no serious difficulties, since both
521 the rise time and the effective speed of the current waveform are strongly tied to observed
522 features of $E_m(t)$.

523 The amplitude factor, in turn, affects not only the overall amplitude of E_c but also the
524 amplitude of its fine structure. (Compare the red curves in Figures 4 and 6.) Nevertheless, one
525 cannot normally trade off (for example) increased $a(s)$ against increased $\tau(s)$, maintaining the
526 same level of fine structure, because this would make the overall amplitude of E_c too large. A
527 significant concern arises, however, when the extrapolation of the measured current waveform to
528 later times is uncertain, as illustrated in Figure 13 for stroke 8725/4. In such cases it would be
529 possible to trade off (for example) a higher current extrapolation against decreased $a(s)$ --
530 maintaining the same overall amplitude of E_c but reducing the fine structure -- and decreased $\tau(s)$
531 -- boosting the fine structure back to the correct level but yielding different inferred current rise
532 time vs. height.

533 This last ambiguity exists to some extent in all 14 strokes having short current records
534 (flashes 8725, 8726, 8728, and 8732), although examination of the measured current and/or
535 computed field-change waveforms in Figures 15 and 16 suggests that it might be a significant
536 problem in only 8 (strokes 8725/2, 8725/3, 8725/4, 8725/5, 8726/1, 8726/4, 8732/1, and 8732/2).
537 Since we have no way of assessing the accuracy of the extrapolated currents at late times in these
538 cases, we cannot accurately evaluate the true uncertainties in the inferred rise time or peak
539 amplitude of the current at those late times. (This is also why we have refrained from tinkering
540 with the measured currents in all cases except 8725/4.) The potential uncertainties in these
541 parameters, primarily at the higher altitudes, due to the extrapolation of measured current
542 waveforms are therefore ignored in the following discussion.

543

544 *Rise Time of Current*

545

546 The rapid increase in current rise time with increasing path length, illustrated in Figure 1
547 for example, is the most robust and inescapable conclusion of the present analysis. We could
548 find no alternative to spreading out the fast-rising current front, at least within the framework of
549 our generalized transmission-line model, to obviate the excessive high-frequency radiation that
550 would otherwise result from the observed channel tortuosity. The first few rows of Table 5 show

551 that the inferred 10 - 90% current rise time, averaged over all 24 strokes in the dataset, increases
552 by a factor of seven, from $0.31 \pm 0.17 \mu\text{s}$ at the surface to $2.2 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{s}$ at 1000 m. (It is worth
553 mentioning that the results do not change much, especially at the higher altitudes, if we average
554 only over the 10 strokes with long current records. In fact, the increase from the surface to 1000
555 m for this subset is nearly a factor of 12, apparently as a result of shorter rise times at the surface
556 for these strokes!) Although there is considerable relative variation from stroke to stroke around
557 these means, the reduction in coefficient of variation from 55% at the surface to only 22% at
558 1000 m suggests that much of this is due to differences among the measured current waveforms
559 at the surface.

560 The accuracy of the individual rise times in Table 2 is difficult to assess, given the
561 qualitative nature of the fitting procedure, but the inferred values appear good to $\pm 20\%$ or better.
562 This uncertainty was estimated by varying the rise time of the assumed current and observing the
563 effects on the computed field change in comparison to the observed waveform. In any case, the
564 uncertainty in deduced current rise time is clearly far too small to negate the overall conclusion
565 here.

566 Referring to the right sides of Figures 18, we see that the optical rise times deduced from
567 the streak photographs are nearly always larger than the inferred current rise times, although the
568 overall trends of these two parameters with increasing path length are roughly parallel in most
569 cases (notable exceptions being 8725/5 and 8726/3). These results are also summarized in Table
570 5, where the estimated optical rise times have been averaged over all 14 strokes and over all path
571 lengths within ± 100 m of the nominal 30, 300, and 1000 m levels. (The mean and standard
572 deviation of the path lengths included in each of these averages are also given in the table.)

573 As discussed in the *Introduction*, there are no direct comparisons in the literature for the
574 current rise times inferred by our modeling. We can, however, compare our optical rise times
575 with other optical measurements. Most relevant is the streak-recording analysis of Jordan *et al.*
576 [1997] on dart leader and return stroke luminosity variation with height. Indeed, the return-
577 stroke rise-time variation with height cited by Jordan *et al.* (1.5 to 4.0 μs between ground and 1.4
578 km aloft) is very similar to that presented here in Table 5. Also, Olsen *et al.* [2004], using a
579 photoelectric technique applied to a triggered flash, provided in their Figure 3 a series of
580 luminosity traces that have very similar characteristics to ours. Mach and Rust [1989] also
581 presented some luminosity traces from a photoelectric sensor that are apparently quite consistent

582 with our derived traces. On the other hand, Wang *et al.* [1999] reported that the 10 - 90% rise
583 time of RLI in two triggered return strokes increased by factors of 2 and 3.5 over the lowest 40 -
584 45 m of channel, a region rarely imaged in time-resolved photography.

585 Comparing estimated optical and inferred current rise times in Table 5, we see that the
586 former average about 1 μ s longer than the latter at 30 m and 300 m but almost 2 μ s longer at 1
587 km. These differences cannot be fully explained by the approximately 0.5 μ s time resolution of
588 the streak camera that was used for these measurements. In addition to the uncertain relationship
589 between luminosity and current in return strokes (see literature review in the *Introduction*),
590 however, there are two possible reasons for the greater discrepancy at the highest altitudes (latest
591 times) in the present dataset: 1) The uncertainty in our estimates of RLI rise time tends to be
592 relative (see the last column of Table 3), so that the absolute uncertainty is greater for the larger
593 values. This might be due, in part, to our use of stronger temporal filtering for the slower-rising
594 waveforms, which also tend to have smaller amplitude (lower signal-to-noise). 2) The uncertain
595 current extrapolations in some cases (see the beginning of the *Discussion* section) result in
596 greater uncertainty in the inferred current rise times (and amplitudes) at late times (high
597 altitudes).

598

599 *Propagation Speed*

600

601 Table 5 also gives the mean, inferred, effective, current-front-propagation speeds, both at
602 four representative path lengths above the surface and averaged over the full extent of the
603 reconstructed channel for which this parameter could be computed. The individual inferred
604 speeds (see Table 2) are fairly consistent from stroke to stroke -- they have low a coefficient of
605 variation around their mean at each level -- the only obvious outlier being 8725/4, with an
606 averaged speed of only 0.9×10^8 m/s. The means are also fairly uniform with height at about
607 1.8×10^8 m/s, in spite of the fact that there is a substantial (and apparently unavoidable) increase
608 in $v_{eff}(s)$ with height in two strokes (8728/10 and 8728/11) and an appreciable decrease with
609 height in one other (8726/1). These trends in propagation speed should not be taken very
610 seriously, as mentioned earlier, but the averaged speeds are probably good to better than $\pm 10\%$ --
611 it's fairly easy to detect and eliminate timing differences between the computed and measured
612 fine structure. The variation of averaged v_{eff} from stroke to stroke is probably also real.

613 The mean, two-dimensional, optical propagation speed, v_{2D} , over 14 of these same
614 strokes in five of the six channels is given in Table 5 for comparison, from original data
615 (averaged over the lowest several hundred meters of channel) reported by Willett *et al.* [1989].
616 Note that our mean, averaged, three-dimensional v_{eff} is about 23% larger than the mean,
617 averaged, 2-D, optical speed. This difference is not too surprising in the light of previous work
618 on 2-D vs. 3-D channel lengths by Idone *et al.* [1984]. It can also be seen from Table 3 that the
619 ratio of the total path length to the vertical height from the surface to optical level nine averages
620 1.45 ± 0.30 over our six reconstructed channels.

621 Once again there are no direct comparisons for our inferred current-front speeds, but the
622 originally reported optical two-dimensional mean speed of 1.5×10^8 m/s is quite consistent with
623 the results of Idone *et al.* [1984] and Mach and Rust [1989], both of which had sizeable numbers
624 of strokes analyzed from triggered flashes over comparable heights.

625

626 *Amplitude of Current*

627

628 The mean, inferred, charge-amplitude multiplier, $a(s)$, can be seen in Table 5 to decrease
629 from unity at the surface (by definition) to 0.68 ± 0.08 at 100 m and to 0.49 ± 0.09 at 1000 m. (It
630 is worth mentioning that the result at the 1000 m level does change appreciably when we average
631 only over the 10 strokes with long current records. This suggests that $a(s)$ in the upper parts of
632 the channels *might* be affected significantly by our extrapolation of the corresponding surface
633 current records, as mentioned in the sub-section, *Rise Time of Current*.) The relative variability
634 of the values for individual strokes at the various levels is quite small, although 8725/3 and
635 8726/1 might be considered outliers at the lower levels (see Table 2). As before, the uncertainty
636 in our inferred values of $a(s)$ (and in the peak currents in Table 4, discussed below) was
637 estimated to be $\pm 10\%$ or better by varying $a(s)$ and observing its effects on the computed field-
638 change amplitude in comparison to the observed waveform. This low apparent uncertainty
639 should not be too surprising, since amplitude differences between computed and measured field
640 change are fairly easy to detect and eliminate.

641 Recall from earlier sections that two length scales were usually required for $a(s)$ -- a
642 shorter one of a few tens of meters or less to fit the peak measured field change, E_{mp} , and a
643 longer one of a few hundred meters to fit the amplitude of $E_m(t)$ at later times. We have tried to

644 capture the relative importance of these two scales by focusing above on the 100 m and 1000 m
645 levels, but it can be seen better by examining the relevant fit parameters in Table 1. Mean values
646 of these parameters over the 19 strokes for which all four of them are defined are $a_{min1} = 0.72 \pm$
647 0.09 , $L_{a1} = 31 \pm 29$ m, $a_{min2} = 0.62 \pm 0.15$, and $L_{a2} = 430 \pm 280$ m. As mentioned previously
648 (e.g., Figure 12), the very rapid decreases in $a(s)$ with increasing path length that are inferred in
649 several cases imply that these return strokes deposit a significant fraction of their total charge in
650 the lowest few tens of meters above the surface.

651 Such localized charge depositions are *not* implied by very close measurements, however.
652 For example, Schoene *et al.* [2003] found that the ratio of return-stroke electric-field change
653 measured 15 m from the channel base to that at 30 m range averaged 1.76 ± 0.15 over 77 rocket-
654 triggered strokes, suggesting a range dependence of $r^{-0.8}$ -- a fall-off noticeably slower than $1/r$.
655 This may be compared with a similar average ratio for the field change due to the immediately
656 preceding dart leaders of 1.88 ± 0.15 , suggesting a range dependence of $r^{-0.9}$. Such a slow fall-
657 off of field change with range could be interpreted to indicate that the magnitude of the linear
658 charge density deposited by the stroke (usually assumed to be equal and opposite to that
659 deposited by the leader) *increases* with height over the lowest hundred meters or so of channel
660 [Rakov *et al.*, 1998]. In contrast, our own calculations of the close field changes that would be
661 produced by model strokes having very rapid decreases in $a(s)$ (such as 8725/3 and 8726/3)
662 predict a fall-off with range that is considerably *faster* than $1/r$ within a few tens of meters of the
663 channel base.

664 We have found only one reference in the literature that appears consistent with our
665 inference of rapidly decreasing $a(s)$ near the surface. Wang *et al.* [1999] reported that time-
666 resolved optical imaging near the channel base of two triggered strokes showed peak RLI to
667 attenuate by about 30% over the lowest tens of meters. In spite of this lone observation,
668 however, the discrepancy between our inference and the recent observations of close electric
669 fields cited above leads us to question the meaning of our deductions. An alternative
670 interpretation that is motivated by our streak images and appears more physically reasonable is
671 proposed in the next section.

672 Further insight into the need for coupling a value of a_{min1} that is significantly less than
673 unity with a very short L_{a1} in certain cases (especially 8715/7, 8715/9, 8715/10, 8725/3, 8725/5,
674 8726/1, 8726/3, and 8726/5) can be obtained by comparison of the physical propagation speeds

675 that are discussed above with the so-called transmission-line-model velocity, $v_{TLM} \equiv -$
676 $(2\pi D/\mu_0)E_{mp}/i_p(0)$ [e.g., Willett *et al.*, 1989]. This v_{TLM} is just another way of looking at the ratio
677 of peak radiation field measured at horizontal range, D , to peak current measured at the surface.
678 Its values have been recalculated at our observing range, $D = 5.2$ km, using the new zero and
679 peak levels of $E_m(t)$ that are shown in Figures 15, where we have attempted to better remove any
680 field change due to the leader. The ratio of observed v_{2D} to calculated v_{TLM} averages 1.17 ± 0.20
681 over the 14 strokes for which both are available. The fact that v_{2D} tends to be the larger of the
682 two indicates that its use as a physical propagation speed for the return-stroke current front in our
683 (or any other transmission-line-like) model will tend to over-predict E_{mp} in many cases (as
684 already found, though to a lesser extent, by Thottappillil and Uman [1993]) unless draconian
685 measures are taken to prevent this.

686 We have already seen in the previous section that the inferred 3-D speed, $v_{eff}(s)$, when
687 averaged over most of the reconstructed channel, tends to be even larger than v_{2D} . Thus, it is not
688 surprising that $v_{eff}(10)/v_{TLM}$ (where the effective front speed at the 10 m level from Table 2 has
689 been used as the most relevant to the peak of $E_c(t)$) averages 1.34 ± 0.32 over all 28 return
690 strokes. This implies an even greater over-prediction of E_{mp} in the present modeling, as
691 illustrated in Figure 4 for example. To obviate this over-prediction, a very rapid decrease in $a(s)$
692 with increasing path length is required in several cases. Indeed, the same strokes listed in the
693 previous paragraph have among the largest ratios, $v_{eff}(10)/v_{TLM}$.

694 Inferred peak currents at several levels have been listed in Table 4 for the 14 strokes also
695 having streak photographs. Mean values of $i_p(s)$ are given in Table 5 for comparison with the
696 corresponding average amplitudes of relative light intensity from Table 3 (shown in the same
697 manner as those of 10 - 90% RLI, discussed above). It is gratifying that both of these averages
698 decrease at roughly the same rate with increasing height. (The agreement becomes nearly
699 perfect if the mean RLI amplitude at optical level one is compared with i_p at the surface instead
700 of that at 30 m. An argument for this adjustment will also be discussed in the next section.)
701 Looking back at the left sides of Figures 18, we also see that individual profiles of $i_p(s)$ and RLI
702 amplitude agree reasonably well, both in slope and in overall relative magnitude, although
703 exceptions to the former include strokes 8715/10 and 8726/1 and exceptions to the latter include
704 8726/2, 8726/3, 8726/4, 8732/1, and 8732/2.

705 The evolution of relative light intensity with height in return-stroke channels has also
706 been evaluated photographically by Jordan and Uman [1983] and by Jordan *et al.* [1997]; Mach
707 and Rust [1989] do not present formal analyses, but assert that their photoelectric data is
708 generally consistent with that of Jordan and Uman [1983]. Fundamentally, the peak luminous
709 intensity of the subsequent return stroke is observed to decrease with height by about a factor of
710 two over 500 m, in fair agreement with the present results.

711 Another noteworthy feature of the left sides of Figures 18 is that the RLI amplitude at
712 optical level one is occasionally much brighter than that at level two. That is, there is sometimes
713 a dramatic change in the slope of the amplitude profile at level two. This is especially evident in
714 strokes 8715/9, 8726/2 and 8728/10. Looking at the streak photographs themselves, it is obvious
715 that the first and last of these three strokes, plus 8725/3 and 8726/1, are preceded by particularly
716 bright dart leaders. Figure 19 shows the most dramatic example, stroke 8725/3, which may be
717 compared with more typical stroke 8725/1 in Figure 17. Since the optical emissions from leader
718 and return stroke are generally indistinguishable at optical level one, because of the limited time
719 resolution of the streak camera, the tabulated values of stroke RLI amplitude at the lowest
720 measurement level must have been significantly exaggerated by leader light emission in at least
721 some cases.

722 An objective evaluation of any such exaggerated stroke brightness at the lowest optical
723 level would involve a comparison of the brightness of the leader relative to its return stroke.
724 This comparison can be made reasonably quantitative by forming the ratio, from Table 3, of the
725 RLI "baseline" to its "amplitude" at each level. Recall that this baseline is measured
726 immediately before the onset of the return stroke and thus approximately represents the *residual*
727 brightness of the leader channel (relative to a zero at the same level before leader onset), whereas
728 the amplitude is the difference between the peak RLI during the onset of the return stroke
729 (relative to the same zero) and the corresponding baseline value. (At the higher levels this
730 baseline value may be substantially less accurate than the stroke amplitude because considerable
731 time may have elapsed since the corresponding zero reading. Note that the leader *tip* is often
732 appreciably brighter, as in Figure 21, but is not measured here.) This ratio has been calculated
733 for each stroke at every level (except where "baseline" is negative or where "amplitude" is small
734 enough to produce excessive noise in the ratio) and then averaged over all levels except the
735 lowest (where leader and return stroke are presumed indistinguishable). The results are

736 indeterminate in two cases (8725/5 and 8726/3) because of low return-stroke amplitudes, but
737 otherwise range from near zero (strokes 8726/2, 8726/4, 8732/1 and 8732/2) to over 30%
738 (8715/9, 8725/3, 8726/1, and 8728/10), the largest ratio being 59% for stroke 8725/3.

739 The first indication that anomalously bright dart leaders do occur was from Guo and
740 Krider [1985], who reported one or more of them in about 5% of natural multiple-stroke flashes
741 in Florida and argued that leader brightness might occasionally equal or even exceed that of the
742 corresponding subsequent return stroke. Idone and Orville [1985] found that the ratio of dart-
743 leader to return-stroke RLI (measured 50 m above the channel base) averaged 0.1 ± 0.07 over 22
744 triggered strokes in which leader brightness could be measured; and they estimated the
745 corresponding ratio of peak currents to average 0.17, but with a rather large range of [0.03, 0.3].
746 Jordan *et al.* [1997] reported that the brightest three of 23 dart leaders in natural subsequent
747 strokes had peak RLIs 30 - 50 % that of the corresponding return strokes. They also referred to
748 (but did not report) measurements of the "plateau" brightness -- after the dart peak but before the
749 stroke onset -- which is the quantity that is approximated by the "baseline" values in our Table 3.
750 Mach and Rust [1997] reported what they called "postdart" brightness relative to that of the dart
751 peak. Dividing mean values from their Table 1, we infer an average ratio of postdart to return-
752 stroke peak brightness of roughly 1/16. Finally, Kodali *et al.* [2005] reported a mean ratio of
753 dart-leader current (inferred from their near-field measurements on triggered strokes, assuming
754 the leader current above the tip to be uniform and constant) to measured return-stroke peak
755 current of 0.22. Based on these references, the values in our Table 3 seem reasonable.

756

757 *Leader vs. Return-Stroke Current*

758

759 Table 6 compares our objective measure of leader/return-stroke relative brightness with
760 two possible indicators of draconian measures to fit E_{mp} -- $a(100)$ and $v_{eff}(10)/v_{TLM}$, both
761 discussed in the previous section. As expected, the correlation coefficient between $a(100)$ and
762 $v_{eff}(10)/v_{TLM}$ is high -- -0.88 over all 24 strokes, significantly different from zero at well over the
763 99% confidence level. The correlations of our leader/return-stroke brightness ratio with these
764 two parameters are -0.74 and +0.41, respectively, over 12 strokes. Thus, the brightness ratio is
765 significantly correlated with the 100 m charge-amplitude multiplier at the 99% confidence level,
766 although its correlation with the velocity ratio is not statistically significant. These results

767 suggest that the peak currents measured at the surface exaggerate those in the return strokes
768 themselves by essentially the same mechanism described above, at least in cases of relatively
769 bright (high-current) leaders. We suspect that this is the reason for the above-mentioned
770 tendency toward over-prediction of E_{mp} , as well as for the extremely rapid decreases in $a(s)$ that
771 we have employed to obviate it.

772 Although this is a new idea, to our knowledge, the relationship between leader and
773 return-stroke current that it presumes is not new. For example, Lin *et al.* [1980] assumed that the
774 leader current continues to flow after the onset of the return stroke, remaining uniform and
775 constant above the advancing return-stroke front. This concept is re-iterated by Jordan *et al.*
776 [1997], who remarked that the optical "plateau" that they observed in natural dart leaders
777 suggested "that a steady leader current flows through each channel section behind the downward
778 moving leader tip before, and perhaps for some time after, the return stroke has passed that
779 channel section."

780 Consider the following simple argument, based on the transmission-line model. (Here we
781 ignore the transient effects of any upward-connecting discharges and/or reflections at the ground
782 on the currents and radiation fields in these triggered subsequent strokes.) Let the current and
783 front-propagation speed of the dart leader be i_L and $-v_L$, respectively, while the corresponding
784 parameters for the return stroke are i_S and $+v_S$. Near the surface the leader front radiates a field
785 proportional to $-i_L v_L$ that turns off when the leader reaches ground. The return stroke then begins
786 radiating a field proportional to $-i_S v_S$ as it propagates up the leader channel from ground.
787 Assume, with the references in the previous paragraph, that the leader current continues and
788 remains uniform along the channel after stroke onset. The peak total current at any level
789 (including that measured at stroke onset by a shunt at the surface) is then $i_L + i_S$, which may be
790 significantly greater than i_S alone in cases with relatively bright leaders. Since $i_L < i_S$ and $v_L \ll$
791 v_S , however, the *change* in radiated field magnitude at return-stroke onset is proportional to $-i_S v_S$
792 $- (-i_L v_L) \approx -i_S v_S$. (For example, taking the average ratios, $v_L \approx v_S/6$ from Idone *et al.* [1984] and i_L
793 $\approx 0.22 i_S$ from Kodali *et al.* [2005], we find a radiation-field change proportional to $-0.96 i_S v_S$.)
794 Thus, it is essentially only the return-stroke current itself that is relevant to the distant (radiation)
795 field change. Our measured $E_m(t)$ at $D = 5.2$ km consists essentially of radiation field at the time
796 of E_{mp} , so this analysis should be relevant here.

797 The above argument appears consistent with both the streak photographs and our inferred
798 rapid decreases of $a(s)$ and $i_p(s)$ in cases of relatively bright leaders. We claim that the latter are
799 merely the inevitable result of presenting our model-fitting procedure with exaggerated
800 measurements of return-stroke-current amplitude at the surface. It even makes sense to compare
801 the mean RLI amplitude at optical level one with i_p at the surface if both measurements then
802 fully include the effects of the leaders. If correct, this argument obviously also has implications
803 for the widespread estimation of return-stroke speeds from measured E_{mp} and $i_p(0)$ through v_{TLM} .
804 This matter could be further investigated using modern, near-field measurements, such as have
805 been reported recently from Camp Blanding, Florida [e.g., Kodali *et al.*, 2005], together with far-
806 field measurements of the peak fields radiated by the same return strokes.

807 The question remains whether the above inferences about $a(s)$ and $i_p(s)$ can be corrected
808 for this effect. Since we do not know how to accurately remove the leader current from the
809 measured surface-current waveforms, however, we confine ourselves here to a single illustrative
810 example. In stroke 8725/3 both the velocity ratio, $v_{eff}(10)/v_{TLM} = 1.62$, and the level-averaged
811 leader/return-stroke brightness ratio, 0.59, suggest that the peak current due to the return stroke
812 alone should be reduced to about 62% of the measured peak current at the surface. In the model,
813 a slightly larger reduction of this peak current to 56% of the measured value allows us to entirely
814 eliminate the shorter of the two length scales for $a(s)$. (To achieve this reduction, the measured
815 waveform is decreased to 56% of its original magnitude throughout the time interval before its
816 peak, whereas a constant 18.9 kA is subtracted from it at all later times. Obviously this method
817 of modifying the current waveform is somewhat arbitrary.) A fit of $E_c(t)$ to $E_m(t)$ that is
818 essentially the same as that shown in Figure 15c can then be obtained using $\alpha_{min1} = 0.82$, $L_{al} =$
819 500 m, and $\alpha_{min2} = 1.0$ (all other parameters remaining as in Table 1). The resulting
820 measurements of 10 - 90% current rise time and of effective stroke-front speed at the various
821 levels remain essentially unchanged from those in Table 2. Although $a(s)$ changes dramatically,
822 of course, $i_p(s)$ changes from the values in Table 3 only at the lowest two levels, remaining
823 essentially the same at 30, 100, 300, and 1000 m. This result is considered to corroborate our
824 suspicion of exaggerated return-stroke currents near the surface.

825 Thus, the inference in Tables 1, 2, 4, and 5 (and elsewhere) of very rapid decreases in
826 $a(s)$ and $i_p(s)$, and the consequent concentrations of charge deposition that are illustrated in
827 Figures 7 and 12, near the surface in several cases are probably invalid. These artifacts are

828 argued to result from using the total measured current at the surface as the initial current into the
829 base of the return stroke itself. There is no fully satisfactory way to correct this problem in the
830 present dataset. Nevertheless, it appears that the inferred values of current rise time at all levels
831 and of average effective stroke-propagation speed are unaffected, even in strokes with very
832 bright leaders. Further, we believe our inference of decreasing current amplitude above about
833 100 m of path length (taken as a compromise between the mean values of $L_{a1} = 31$ m and $L_{a2} =$
834 430 m, noted in the previous sub-section, the former length scale now being assumed to be
835 largely spurious). The last two rows of Table 4 are intended to better distinguish the presumed
836 valid and the probably invalid variations of inferred peak current. There we have first scaled the
837 values tabulated for each stroke relative to that at 100 m and then calculated means and standard
838 deviations of these scaled results for each level. We conclude that the peak current probably
839 does decrease by about 37%, on averaged, between 100 m and 1000 m of path length above the
840 ground. On the other hand, the peak current may well increase much less than 58%, on average,
841 between 100 m and the surface.

842

843

844 Summary and Conclusions

845

846 This paper has attempted to take advantage of three-dimensional channel reconstructions
847 of rocket-triggered lightning flashes in Florida in order to infer the behavior of the current in
848 return strokes above the ground from current waveforms measured at the channel base and
849 electric-field-change waveforms measured at a range of 5.2 km. The reconstruction of six
850 lightning channels from stereo photographs was described in detail in Appendix A. The method
851 of calculating field-change signatures due to return strokes that follow these piecewise-linear
852 channels was then explained. Formal assumptions about the variation stroke-current waveforms
853 along the channels constrained the problem enough that the rise time, propagation speed, and
854 peak amplitude of the current could be estimated as a function of path length with reasonable
855 confidence. Results were first presented on the tacit assumption that the measured current
856 waveforms were entirely due to the return strokes themselves.

857 Some of the results derived in this way that we still believe are the following: 1) The fine
858 structure of the field-change waveforms that are radiated by subsequent return strokes can be

859 explained, in large part, by channel geometry, although it can also be affected significantly by
860 the shape of the current waveform that enters the channel base. 2) The average 10 - 90% rise
861 time of the stroke current increased by about a factor of seven in our sample of 24 triggered
862 strokes, from an observed $0.31 \pm 0.17 \mu\text{s}$ at the surface to an inferred $2.2 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{s}$ at 1 km path
863 length above the surface. 3) The three-dimensional propagation speed of the current front
864 averaged $1.80 \pm 0.24 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ over channel lengths typically greater than 1 km for the same 24
865 strokes.

866 Next, streak photographs of a subset of these return strokes were analyzed in terms of
867 relative light intensity versus path length and time, and the resulting estimates of rise time,
868 propagation speed, and peak amplitude of the RLI were compared with the corresponding
869 electrical estimates for current. Although these comparisons appeared generally reasonable, two
870 anomalies were noted that suggested a variation in the modeling. First, it was remarked that
871 even the optically measured, two-dimensional, stroke-propagation speeds (which were an
872 appropriate factor smaller than the electrically inferred, three-dimensional, current-front-
873 propagation speeds) led to an over-prediction of peak radiation fields in several cases, unless
874 draconian measures (which appeared to conflict with other results in the literature) were
875 employed to obviate this. Second, it was noted that peak RLI amplitudes for return strokes
876 sometimes decreased dramatically between the lowest measurement level, where the leader and
877 return stroke could not be distinguished, and the next higher level, where they could be. Both of
878 these anomalies tended to occur most markedly in cases where the leaders were brightest relative
879 to their strokes. It was concluded that (4) a significant fraction of the measured current at the
880 surface was probably due to the leaders in cases when they were relatively bright. Therefore, our
881 assumption that these measured currents were entirely due to the return strokes was forcing an
882 unreasonably large and abrupt reduction in inferred current amplitude over the first few tens of
883 meters above the surface.

884 With this conclusion in mind, the first inferences of current amplitude as a function of
885 height were re-examined. It was judged that the anomalously abrupt decreases with increasing
886 height near the surface were probably spurious, but that the slower increases at higher altitudes
887 were probably still valid. Thus, the final conclusion of our study was that (5) return-stroke peak
888 currents decreased by about $37 \pm 12\%$ from 100 m to 1 km of path length above the surface over

889 our 24 strokes. Although these peak currents likely also decreased between the surface and 100
890 m, this decrease was probably not as great as originally inferred.

891

892

893 Appendix A -- 3-D Channel Reconstruction

894

895 Figure A1 shows one example (flash 8732) of the six stereo pairs of still photographs that
896 were taken with automated 35 mm cameras from the two sites (NRL and SUNY) during the 1987
897 experiment. These photographs were all printed at the same magnification (6.8X) on 8" X 10"
898 paper, and the lightning channels were then digitized by marking a point at every visually
899 detectable deviation from straight lines. Typically, this produced a few hundred points per
900 channel image that were tabulated in centimeters (X, Y) relative to the "principal point" [Hallert,
901 1960, p.18], which was taken to be at the center of the print (± 0.5 cm). Connecting these points
902 with straight lines results in a piecewise-linear representation of the channel.

903 Figure A2a shows the locations of the two cameras relative to the triggering site, which is
904 taken as the origin of a right-handed, Cartesian coordinate system (x, y, z) with its z -axis vertical
905 and its x -axis passing through the NRL site (almost due east of the triggering site). The position
906 parameters for each site are given in the figure, as determined (± 0.6 m) from a survey of the area
907 that was conducted by KSC. The azimuthal orientation of the cameras (rotation about the
908 vertical axis passing through each camera -- *e.g.*, γ_S in Figure A2b) could not be accurately
909 measured in the field, but the "swing" (rotation of the image frame about the "optical axis" -- the
910 ray passing through the optical center of the lens and the principal point on the image) was
911 approximately zeroed (± 0.3 deg.) by leveling the camera bodies, and the camera elevation angles
912 (rotation about the horizontal axis that is perpendicular to the optical axis -- *e.g.*, α_N in Figure
913 A2c) were estimated (± 0.5 deg.) with a spirit level to be 10.0 deg. at NRL and 9.5 deg. at SUNY.
914 Finally, the focal lengths of the camera lenses (nominally 55 mm at NRL and either 35 mm or 24
915 mm at SUNY) were carefully measured ($\pm 1\%$) to be 54.7 mm, 35.7 mm, and 23.7 mm,
916 respectively. The "barrel distortion" of the 24 mm lens that produced all of the SUNY
917 photographs except that of flash 8715 was also measured and was applied to correct the
918 corresponding tabulations (but see the discussion below).

919 Extrapolating the lightning channels (which were nearly straight at the bottom, following
920 the triggering wires) to ground level (estimated from the measured camera elevation angles), it
921 was possible to accurately determine the azimuth angles of the two camera optical axes (*e.g.*, γ_S
922 in Figure A2b). This procedure was insensitive to small errors in the camera elevation angles
923 because the triggering wires were nearly vertical. By visually identifying the top of the
924 triggering wire on each image and forcing these points to coincide in the 3-D reconstruction of
925 each channel, it was also possible to correct the measured elevation angle of the NRL camera (α_N
926 in Figure A2c -- note that this sketch has been slightly simplified and gives the precise definition
927 of α_N only when $\gamma_N = 0$ so that the optical axis lies in the x-z plane) relative to that of the SUNY
928 camera, which was assumed correct. It would have been better to have two or more fixed objects
929 of known location in the field of view of both cameras, from which to fully determine the camera
930 orientations, but the triggering site was not suitable for this refinement. Table A1 lists the
931 camera-orientation parameters that were determined in this manner. Notice that the deduced
932 camera azimuths, as well as the corrected elevation of the NRL camera, varied slightly from
933 flash to flash, presumably due to instability of the tripods on which they were mounted.

934 The formulae of Hallert [1960, Appendix A], together with the camera-orientation
935 parameters tabulated above, have been used to convert the points (X, Y) that were digitized from
936 the photographic prints into absolute angle pairs (θ, φ) -- elevation measured upward from
937 horizontal and azimuth measured clockwise from the direction of the y axis, respectively -- that
938 define rays from the camera positions. Then the position parameters in Figure A2a have been
939 used to compute the intersections of these rays (x, y, z) in our Cartesian coordinate system. The
940 latter step is non-trivial and was performed in practice by solving simultaneous equations with
941 the Mathematica (TM) software, following an outline originally due to Stan Heckman [personal
942 communication, 1995].

943 Figure A3 is a conceptual illustration of the channel-reconstruction procedure. (Note that
944 α_P here has been given the opposite sign from Figure A2a, solely for convenience of illustration.)
945 The central problem is that, in general, it is not possible to identify any given point on the
946 lightning channel in one image with the corresponding point in the other image. Therefore, this
947 is *not* the classical double-theodolite problem, where there is redundant data (four angles to
948 determine a point in 3-space). A heuristic description of the channel-reconstruction method is as
949 follows. The ray, l_r , that is defined by point r in the first camera image can be projected onto the

950 second camera image as the line, l'_r , which intersects the second channel image somewhere (in
 951 general, between two of the vertices, s and $s+1$, as shown in the inset of Figure A3). This
 952 intersection point -- call it s' -- defines a ray from the second camera, $l_{s'}$, that intersects the first
 953 ray, defining a point in 3-space -- identified by the indices, (r, s') -- on the reconstructed channel.
 954 The apparently redundant piece of information (the fourth angle) is effectively used up to
 955 determine the intersection point, s' , on the second channel image.

956 Mathematically, our solution of this problem proceeds from two vector equations, each
 957 specifying the location in 3-space of the intersection point, r , of rays l_r and $l_{s'}$ in terms of the
 958 angles, (θ_i, ϕ_i) , and the range, r_i , from camera i :

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_{01} + r_1 [\hat{\mathbf{x}} \sin(\phi_1) \cos(\theta_1) + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \cos(\phi_1) \cos(\theta_1) + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \sin(\theta_1)] \quad (\text{A1})$$

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_{02} + r_2 [\hat{\mathbf{x}} \sin(\phi_2) \cos(\theta_2) + \hat{\mathbf{y}} \cos(\phi_2) \cos(\theta_2) + \hat{\mathbf{z}} \sin(\theta_2)]$$

961
 962
 963
 964 The \mathbf{r}_{0i} are the positions of the two cameras; $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, and $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ are the unit vectors in our Cartesian
 965 coordinate system. Equating these two expressions for r , we obtain three linear scalar equations
 966 in two explicit unknowns, r_1 and r_2 . Recall, however, that the angles from camera 1, (θ_1, ϕ_1) , are
 967 implicitly functions of the index, r , whereas those from camera 2 are implicitly functions of s --
 968 we have linearly interpolated the angles between integral values of these indices -- and that it has
 969 not yet been explained how to find the s' (see Figure A3) that corresponds to any particular value
 970 of r . Given r , we might simply solve numerically the three simultaneous equations (now non-
 971 linear in the implicit variable, s) for r_1 , r_2 , and s' , as Stan Heckman [personal communication,
 972 1995] originally suggested. Once r_1 and r_2 are known, it is obviously trivial to find r from either
 973 of Equations A1. (This approach might be generalized to find the "best" solution, in the least-
 974 squares sense, from three or more camera images of a single lightning channel.) Because we
 975 have only two cameras, however, the computation can be simplified as follows:

976 Three linear equations in two unknowns have a unique solution if and only if the rank of
 977 the 3X2 coefficient matrix and the rank of the 3X3 "augmented matrix," A (containing an
 978 additional column of the constant terms), both equal two [e.g., Boas, 1966, Section 3.7]. Thus,

979 the determinant of the augmented matrix must equal zero. Given a particular value of r , the non-
 980 linear equation

981

$$982 \quad \det(\mathbf{A}) \equiv 0 \quad (A2)$$

983

984 can be solved numerically for the implicit variable, $s'(r)$. From Equations A1 the augmented
 985 matrix is found to be

986

$$987 \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(\phi_1) \cos(\theta_1) & \sin(\phi_2) \cos(\theta_2) & x_{01} - x_{02} \\ -\cos(\phi_1) \cos(\theta_1) & \cos(\phi_2) \cos(\theta_2) & y_{01} - y_{02} \\ -\sin(\theta_1) & \sin(\theta_2) & z_{01} - z_{02} \end{pmatrix} \quad (A3)$$

988

989 where (x_{0i}, y_{0i}, z_{0i}) are the known Cartesian components of \mathbf{r}_{0i} , the angles, (θ_1, ϕ_1) , are known
 990 functions of the specified index r , and (θ_2, ϕ_2) are known functions of the unknown index, s .
 991 Once s' is determined, the two linear equations with the largest determinant are solved for r_1 and
 992 r_2 , and \mathbf{r} is found.

993 Occasionally, Equation A2 has multiple solutions for s' at a given r . One way to deal
 994 with this situation is as follows. Notice that the two rays, one from each camera intersecting at
 995 the reconstructed channel point (r, s') in Figure A3, define a plane. This "solution plane" is fully
 996 determined by the locations of the two cameras and by the point, r , on the first channel image, as
 997 described heuristically above. The plane cuts each camera image in a projection line, as further
 998 illustrated by l'_r and $l'_{s'}$ in Figures A4, where these projection lines correspond to the point, $r =$
 999 155, on the NRL channel image of flash 8732. [Channel points are numbered here in ascending
 1000 order from the channel base upward. Note that Figures A4 actually show the "image planes"
 1001 after transformation from the original linear measurements on each print, (X, Y) , into the absolute
 1002 angles (θ, ϕ) -- independent of camera orientation, focal length, etc. -- since this was the notation
 1003 in which the data were analyzed mathematically to find points on the lightning channel. Thus,
 1004 "lines" l'_r and $l'_{s'}$ in Figures A4 are not actually straight, although they appear so in these small
 1005 sections of the images.] There are two interesting facts to note here: (1) Any channel-image
 1006 vertices that lie on the projection line in one photograph project onto the same line in the other

1007 photograph and are thus indistinguishable. For example, points 152 - 156 on the NRL image all
1008 correspond to the projection line, l'_r , shown on the SUNY image of the same flash, which
1009 intersects that channel image near the point, $s = 145$, among other places. Close examination of
1010 the original photographs suggests channel propagation almost directly toward the SUNY camera
1011 in this region. (2) Downward apparent propagation relative to the projection line in one camera
1012 image must correspond to downward apparent propagation relative to the corresponding
1013 projection line in the other image. Hence, certain channel kinks can be unambiguously identified
1014 in both images. For example, the downward loop that is defined by points 162 - 176 in the NRL
1015 image corresponds to the downward loop, points 150 - 163, in the SUNY image.

1016 Using these conclusions, we can resolve the apparent ambiguity of the multiple solutions
1017 that are indicated by the red [projection lines in Figures A4. Points 152 - 156 on the NRL image
1018 correspond to points 145 and 146 in the SUNY image (not to point 149 nor point 164), whereas
1019 NRL segment 161 - 162 corresponds to SUNY point 149, and NRL segment 176 - 177
1020 corresponds to SUNY point 164.

1021 Loops of the same sense, such as the pair (NRL 162 - 176 and SUNY 150 - 163)
1022 identified above, that could be unambiguously associated between the two images were used as a
1023 check on the uncertainties that are inherent in our 3-D channel reconstructions. In most of the
1024 flashes the top of the triggering wire was readily identifiable in both photographs. (As
1025 mentioned above, the elevation angle of the NRL camera was adjusted -- in each case by less
1026 than the 0.5 degree uncertainty in our measurement of that angle -- to make the top of the wire in
1027 both images coincide in the reconstruction.) In each of two flashes -- 8717 and 8732 -- there
1028 were two obvious kinks, in addition to the top of the wire, that could be used to check the
1029 reconstructions. (Figures A4 illustrate one of these four major kinks.) Surprisingly, best
1030 agreement was obtained by eliminating the correction for barrel distortion of the 24 mm lens at
1031 the SUNY site. In fact, it was found that *all* identifiable kinks in all of the channel images could
1032 be made to coincide by this simple parameter change. In retrospect this seems reasonable, since
1033 the barrel distortion was measured at close focus, whereas the lens was actually used at infinity
1034 focus, where aberrations are usually minimized by design. Therefore, it is presumed that the
1035 reconstructions without the barrel-distortion correction are the best possible under the
1036 circumstances. (The data in Table A1 correspond to this assumption.)

1037 The significance of eliminating the barrel-distortion correction, and an example of the
1038 uncertainty that is inherent in our reconstructions, are illustrated by Figures A5a & A5b, which
1039 show two views of reconstructed channel 8732, with (blue) and without (red -- preferred) the
1040 correction. Notice that the differences between these two reconstructions are a few tens of
1041 meters or less throughout, which is typical. Two views of all six reconstructed channels are
1042 given in Figures A6a & A6b. Flashes 8715, 8717, 8725, 8726, 8728, and 8732 are shown in
1043 cyan, magenta, blue, green, red, and black, respectively. Notice that there is considerable
1044 variability -- much greater than a few tens of meters -- in both the length of the triggering wire
1045 and the overall channel shape among these flashes.

1046 In order to illustrate the impact of uncertainties in the reconstructed channels, Figure A7
1047 compares electric-field changes for stroke 2 of flash 8732 that have been calculated from the two
1048 different channel reconstructions shown in Figures A5. The shape, amplitude, and propagation
1049 speed of the return-stroke current waveform that is deduced for this event in the body of the
1050 paper has been used in both cases. Again, the blue curve is with, and the red (preferred) curve is
1051 without, the barrel-distortion correction. The differences between these two waveforms are
1052 small and are typical of the impact of geometrical uncertainties on the model field changes in our
1053 dataset. This satisfying result is a consequence of both the good overall accuracy of the 3-D
1054 reconstructions and the considerable smoothing of fine structure that is caused by the rapid
1055 increase in current rise time with height, as discussed in the body of the paper.

1056
1057

1058 Appendix B -- Calculation Method for Piecewise-Linear Channel

1059

1060 A numerical code was written in Mathematica [TM], following the general outline of the
1061 FORTRAN code that had been developed previously by Le Vine and Meneghini [1978], to
1062 compute the electric-field change at the observing site from simulated return strokes in the
1063 reconstructed channels. The adoption of the "generalized TLM" form for the stroke current
1064 (basically, Equations 5 - 7) allowed a number of simplifications in these calculations. The key
1065 attributes of this model are that the entire current waveform propagates monotonically upward
1066 along the channel while its principal parameters, $a(s)$, $v(s)$, and $K(t', s)$, depend only on position.
1067 Thus, the "pure-TLM" current parameters that are required on each linear channel segment for

1068 Equations 2 - 4 (the fixed current wave shape, $I_{TLM}[argument]$, and constant propagation speed,
1069 v) can be computed in advance from knowledge of the channel geometry. Then the field-change
1070 calculation can proceed time step by time step.

1071 At each successive time step the current integral on each channel segment is updated for
1072 use in Equation 4, and a list of the segments from which radiation can reach the observer is
1073 computed. Then the contributions to the total field change are summed, both over Equations 2 -
1074 4 and over all such "radiating" segments. In this way the field-change waveform is built up over
1075 time. The size of the time steps is not critical (as long as they are short enough to compute the
1076 current integrals with sufficient accuracy), except in the sense that waveform details will be
1077 missed if they occur entirely between time steps. As long as the channel segments are made
1078 short enough, this calculation method has been shown to accurately approximate the exact field
1079 change from a tortuous channel, even when the peak amplitude, rise time, and propagation speed
1080 of the current waveform all depend strongly on position. The code has even been shown
1081 accurate in the near field by comparison with independent numerical calculations of Jens
1082 Schoene [personal communication, 2003] of the University of Florida.

1083

1084

1085 Appendix C -- Analysis of Streak Photographs

1086

1087 Relative light intensity (RLI) determinations from the streak recordings were possible
1088 because the data strips were developed with a "calibration strip" of known relative exposure.
1089 Each calibration strip was exposed to a single Xenon flash of about 3 us duration, which evenly
1090 illuminated a film strip positioned directly behind a Kodak calibration step tablet. The tablet has
1091 21 steps of known density values, thereby transmitting a 1000x range of RLI. With this
1092 information, film density can be converted reliably to RLI on a microsecond time scale, as
1093 previously demonstrated convincingly by Jordan and Uman [1983].

1094

1095 Here, a Xillix 1412 CCD camera was used to image the data and calibration film strips.
1096 The Xillix camera has an image-plane sensor of 1344 x 1035 square pixels and 12-bit output,
1097 with a specified dynamic range of >60 dB. Various tests confirmed that a factor of slightly more
1098 than a thousand in RLI could be reliably recognized with this device, comparable to the range of
the Kodak step tablet and the film emulsion itself. The data and calibration strips were imaged

1099 with the Xillix camera under identical illumination conditions; the Xillix output for known
1100 relative exposures on the calibration strip establishes a "lookup table" for values on the data strip,
1101 thereby yielding RLI values for the streak image data. Fortunately, the densities for almost all
1102 the data and calibration strips were outside the problematic "toe" and "shoulder" portions of the
1103 film-response curve, allowing good interpolation accuracy.

1104 All images rendered with the Xillix camera were scanned at 77 pixels per mm on the
1105 film, appropriate to having the film grain ultimately limit the analysis. This yields a vertical
1106 (spatial) scale of about 0.84 pixels per meter in the object plane and a typical temporal scale of
1107 about seven pixels per microsecond for the streak camera.

1108 In this analysis, eight or nine separate vertical levels were first selected for each image,
1109 being careful to avoid intense "streak lines" or scratches in the emulsion. Figure 17 for stroke
1110 8725/1 is a typical example. At each pre-selected vertical level, a horizontal strip of 1344x7
1111 pixels centered on that level was then extracted from the digital image and averaged vertically
1112 across the seven adjacent pixels (typically about 8 m of channel height) to reduce grain noise.
1113 Using the streak camera's known writing rate and the calibration information, the averaged
1114 values at each level were converted to a time series of RLI.

1115 The background RLI before the onset of any perceptible leader illumination was
1116 estimated separately for the time series of each stroke at each level and used as the zero of RLI
1117 for that particular time series. A typical example of the resulting "raw" time series is given in
1118 Figure C1, corresponding to level seven (counting upward from the lowest level, always
1119 considered level one) of stroke 8725/1. This procedure should allow the RLI to be compared
1120 between different levels of the same stroke and also between different strokes in the same flash.
1121 (Comparison between strokes in different flashes is potentially somewhat problematic, since they
1122 are normally on different pieces of film developed on different days, although in principle the
1123 film calibration should permit such a comparison as well.)

1124 To determine the true altitude and the path length along the channel that corresponds to
1125 any given level on a streak image, we projected the corresponding three-dimensional channel
1126 reconstruction from the perspective of the streak camera and then visually lined up features in
1127 the two images. (In many cases it was easier to do this with the leader image when it was
1128 visible, since it was often sharper than that of the return stroke.) In this way, for example, level
1129 seven of stroke 8725/1 (see Figure 17) was determined to be about 728 m above the surface, or

1130 about 886 m of path length of from the channel base. Interpolation was required on the nearly
1131 strait sections of channel where the lightning had followed the triggering wire, of course. (The
1132 actual bottom of the channel was obscured by an intervening tree line. Consequently, level one
1133 was taken as 30 ± 15 m altitude in each case, based on several lines of evidence.) This procedure
1134 allowed the path length corresponding to each level to be determined to an accuracy of ± 50 m or
1135 better. Based on the average 3-D stroke-propagation speeds estimated in Table 2, this
1136 corresponds to a temporal uncertainty of $\pm 0.3 \mu\text{s}$ or better for these events -- certainly adequate
1137 for our purposes.

1138 Determination of the 10 - 90% optical rise time and the peak optical amplitude are related
1139 by the choice of onset and peak RLI for the return stroke under consideration. Both
1140 determinations were made difficult by the noise on the raw RLI data (*e.g.*, Figure C1, already
1141 vertically averaged as indicated above), which became a greater problem as the stroke amplitude
1142 decreased. In an effort to minimize this noise without unduly broadening the observed rise time,
1143 the data were temporally smoothed by the application of a weighted moving average. The
1144 weighting function was a "cosine bell" [*e.g.*, Willett *et al.*, 1990, Equation A8] with an adjustable
1145 full width at half maximum (FWHM), normalized to have unity area. It was found
1146 experimentally that, as this FWHM was increased for a given time series, the ratio of apparent
1147 rise time to FWHM approached 0.80 (when the rise time became dominated by the width of the
1148 weighting function). Therefore, FWHM was kept as small as possible, consistent with the
1149 unambiguous determination of rise time, and an absolute minimum of 1.6 was imposed on this
1150 ratio.

1151 In choosing the onset and peak RLI for each stroke, we focused only on the fast-rising
1152 portion of the time series (*e.g.*, about 75.5 to 82.5 μs in Figure C1). This was done both to avoid
1153 broadening of the rise time by any light scattering either in the camera or in the film itself and to
1154 ignore the gradual rise or "hump" that is often present later in return-stroke light emissions,
1155 particularly above the surface (again see Figure C1). In general, these levels were chosen by
1156 applying excessive smoothing to find an average "baseline" level just before the onset of the fast-
1157 rising portion, and an average peak or plateau just after it, that were reasonably independent of
1158 noise spikes. In the case of large, strongly peaked RLI records (typically at measurement levels
1159 near the surface for strokes with large peak currents), however, the peak value was allowed to
1160 "float" to the maximum of the smoothed waveform as FWHM was varied.

1161 Once the onset and peak RLI were determined, 10% and 90% levels were "drawn" on the
1162 smoothed waveform for automatic determination of the last time that the 10% level was
1163 exceeded and the first time that the 90% level was exceeded, their difference being the estimated
1164 10 - 90% rise time. The FWHM of the smoothing was then gradually increased from zero until
1165 the observed rise time stabilized, but not so much that it became steadily increasing. As FWHM
1166 increased, rise time typically passed through a minimum, which was generally taken as the best
1167 value, and then slowly increased. Often, however, inconveniently located noise spikes were
1168 large enough that they caused abrupt jumps in rise time as increasing smoothing caused them to
1169 fall below one or the other RLI threshold. In these cases the determination of rise time became
1170 more subjective. Sometimes two or more values of rise time seemed consistent with the data, as
1171 illustrated in Figures C2a and C2b, for which the relevant parameters are given in the caption.
1172 Fortunately, there was normally a rather small range of deduced rise times in such cases.

1173 The optical peak amplitude of a stroke was taken as the difference between the baseline
1174 and peak values determined above. This measurement is also somewhat subjective, the more so
1175 as the stroke amplitude decreases toward the noise level.
1176

1176 Acknowledgments

1177

1178 The authors would like to thank W. Jafferis for making the field experiment possible at
1179 KSC, C. Leteinturier for making the current data available, S. Heckman for outlining an efficient
1180 calculation of channel geometry in Mathematica, J. Schoene for help validating our near-field
1181 calculations, and E.P. Krider for valuable consultations and encouragement. The field work was
1182 performed while the first author was employed by the Naval Research Laboratory in
1183 Washington, DC, with help from J.C. Bailey and R.V. Anderson. The analysis was conceived
1184 for, and begun during, a National Research Council senior associateship at the NASA GSFC,
1185 was continued while the first author was employed by the Air Force Geophysics Laboratory
1186 (sponsored in part by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research), and has been completed under
1187 National Science Foundation individual grant, ATM-00004372. Partial support was also
1188 provided by NSF grant, ATM-9627276.

1189

1189 References

1190

1191 Berger, K., R. B. Anderson, and H. Kroninger, Parameters of lightning flashes, *Electra*, 41, 23-
1192 37, 1975.

1193

1194 Boas, M.L., Mathematical Methods in the Physical Sciences, John Wiley & Sons, New York,
1195 778pp, 1966.

1196

1197 Bruce, C.E.R., and R.H. Golde, The lightning discharge, *J. Inst. Electr. Eng. (London)*, 88, 487-
1198 520, 1941.

1199

1200 Christian, H.J., V. Mazur, B.D. Fisher, L.H. Ruhnke, K. Crouch, and R.P. Perala, The
1201 Atlas/Centaur lightning strike incident, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 94, 13,169-13,177, 1989.

1202

1203 Cooray, V., and R.E. Orville, The effects of variation of current amplitude, current rise time, and
1204 return stroke velocity along the return stroke channel on the electromagnetic fields generated by
1205 return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 95, 18,617-18,630, 1990.

1206

1207 Colvin, J.D., C.K. Mitchell, J.R. Greig, D.P. Murphy, R.E. Pechacek, and M. Raleigh, An
1208 empirical study of the nuclear explosion-induced lightning seen on IVY-MIKE, *J. Geophys.*
1209 *Res.*, 92, 5696--5712, 1987.

1210

1211 Cooray, V., and R.E. Orville, The effects of variation of current amplitude, current rise time, and
1212 return stroke velocity along the return stroke channel on the electromagnetic fields generated by
1213 return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 95, 18,617-18,630, 1990.

1214

1215 Crawford, D.E., Multiple-station measurements of triggered lightning electric and magnetic
1216 fields, Masters thesis, Univ. of Fla., Gainesville, 1998.

1217

1218 Depasse, P., Statistics on artificially triggered lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 99, 18,515-18,522,
1219 1994.

1220
1221 Diendorfer, G., and M.A. Uman, An improved return stroke model with specified channel-base
1222 current, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *95*, 13,621-13,644, 1990.
1223
1224 Eriksson, A. J., Lightning and tall structures, *Trans. S. Afr. Inst. Electr. Eng.*, *69*, 2-16, 1978.
1225
1226 Fisher, R. J., G. H. Schnetzer, R. Thottappillil, V. A. Rakov, M. A. Uman, and J. D. Goldberg,
1227 Parameters of triggered-lightning flashes in Florida and Alabama, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *98*, 22,887-
1228 22,902, 1993.
1229
1230 Garbagnati, E., and G.B. Lo Pipero, Parameter von Blitzstromen, *Electrotech. Z.*, *103*, 61-65,
1231 1982.
1232
1233 Gomes, C., and V. Cooray, Correlation between the optical signatures and current wave forms of
1234 long sparks: applications in lightning research, *J. Electrostatics*, *43*, 267-274, 1998.
1235
1236 Guo, C., and E.P. Krider, The optical and radiation field signatures produced by lightning return
1237 strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *87*, 8913-8922, 1982.
1238
1239 Guo, C., and E.P. Krider, Anomalous light output from lightning dart leaders, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
1240 *90*, 13,073-13,075, 1985.
1241
1242 Hallert, B., *Photogrammetry: Basic Principles and General Survey*, McGraw-Hill Book
1243 Company, Inc., New York, 1960, 340 pp.
1244
1245 Heidler, F., Traveling current source model for LEMP calculation, in *Proc. 6th Int. Zurich Symp.*
1246 *Electromagn. Compat.*, pp. 157-162, Zurich, Mar. 1985.
1247
1248 Hill, R.D., Electromagnetic radiation from erratic paths of lightning strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
1249 *74*, 1922-1929, 1969.
1250

1251 Hubert, P., A new model of lightning subsequent stroke -- confrontation with triggered lightning
1252 observations, in *Tenth International Aerospace and Ground Conference on Lightning and Static*
1253 *Electricity (ICOLSE)*, pp. 211-215, Paris, June 10-13, 1985.

1254

1255 Idone, V.P., and R.E. Orville, Lightning return stroke velocities in the thunderstorm research
1256 international program (TRIP), *J. Geophys. Res.*, *87*, 6555-6562, 1982.

1257

1258 Idone, V.P., R.E. Orville, P. Hubert, L. Barret, and A Eybert-Berard, Correlated observations of
1259 three triggered lightning flashes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *89*, 1385-1394, 1984.

1260

1261 Idone, V.P., and R.E. Orville, Correlated peak relative light intensity and peak current in
1262 triggered lightning subsequent return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *90*, 6159-6164, 1985.

1263

1264 Jordan, D., and M.A. Uman, Variations in light intensity with height and time from subsequent
1265 return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *88*, 4903-4915, 1983.

1266

1267 Jordan, D., V.A. Rakov, W.H. Beasley, and M.A. Uman, Luminosity characteristics of dart
1268 leaders and return strokes in natural lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *102*, 22,025-22,032, 1997.

1269

1270 Kodali, V., V.A. Rakov, M.A. Uman, K.J. Rambo, G.H. Schnetzer, J. Schoene, and J. Jerauld,
1271 Triggered-lightning properties inferred from measured currents and very close electric fields,
1272 *Atmos. Res.*, *76*, 355-376, 2005.

1273

1274 Leteinturier, C., C. Weidman, and J. Hamelin, Current and electric field derivatives in triggered
1275 lightning return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *95*, 811-828, 1990.

1276

1277 Leteinturier, C., and J. Hamelin, Submicrosecond characteristics of lightning return-stroke
1278 currents, *IEEE Trans. EMC*, *33*, 351-357, 1991.

1279

1280 Le Vine, D.M., and R. Meneghini, Simulation of radiation from lightning return strokes: The
1281 effects of tortuosity, *Radio Sci.*, *13*, 801-809, 1978.

1282

1283 Le Vine, D.M. and R. Meneghini, A solution for the electromagnetic fields close to a lightning
 1284 discharge, in *International Aerospace and Ground Conference on Lightning and Static*
 1285 *Electricity (ICOLSE)*, pp. 70-1 - 70-10, Fort Worth, Texas, June, 1983.

1286

1287 Le Vine, D.M., and M. Kao, The effects of current risetime on radiation from tortuous lightning
 1288 channels, Proceedings 8th International Conference on Atmospheric Electricity, Uppsala,
 1289 Sweden, 509-514, 1988.

1290

1291 Le Vine, D.M., J.C. Willett, and J.C. Bailey, Comparison of fast electric field changes from
 1292 subsequent return strokes of natural and triggered lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *94*, 13,259-13,265,
 1293 1989.

1294

1295 Le Vine, D.M., and J.C. Willett, Comment on the transmission-line model for computing
 1296 radiation from lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *97*, 2601-2610, 1992.

1297

1298 Le Vine, D.M., and J.C. Willett, The influence of channel geometry on the fine scale structure of
 1299 radiation from lightning return strokes, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *100*, 18,629-18,638, 1995.

1300

1301 Lin, Y.T., M.A. Uman, and R.B. Standler, Lightning return stroke models, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *85*,
 1302 1571-1583, 1980.

1303

1304 Mach, D.M., and W.D. Rust, Photoelectric return-stroke velocity and peak current estimates in
 1305 natural and triggered lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *94*, 13,237-13,247, 1989.

1306

1307 Mach, D.M., and W.D. Rust, Two-dimensional speed and optical risetime estimates for natural
 1308 and triggered dart leaders, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *102*, 13,673-13,684, 1997.

1309

1310 Master, M.J., M.A. Uman, Y.T. Lin, and R.B. Standler, Calculations of lightning return stroke
 1311 electric and magnetic fields above ground, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *86*, 12,127-12,132, 1981.

1312

1313 Mattos, M.A. da F., and C. Christopoulos, A nonlinear transmission line model of the lightning
1314 return stroke, *J. Phys. D, Appl. Phys.*, 23, 40-46, 1990.
1315
1316 Mazur, V., B.D. Fisher, and J.C. Gerlach, Lightning strikes to an airplane in a thunderstorm, *J.*
1317 *Aircraft*, 21, 607-611, 1984.
1318
1319 Mazur, V., B.D. Fisher, and P.W. Brown, Multistroke cloud-to-ground strike to the NASA F-
1320 106B airplane, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 95, 5471-5484, 1990.
1321
1322 Mazur, V., and J.-P. Moreau, Aircraft-triggered lightning: processes following strike initiation
1323 that affect aircraft, *J. Aircraft*, 29, 575-580, 1992.
1324
1325 Murphy, D.P., J.R. Greig, R.E. Pechacek, M. Raleigh, E. Laikin, and S. Hauver, Nuclear
1326 explosion induced lightning: a laboratory simulation, NRL Memo. Rept. 5688, US Naval
1327 Research Laboratory, Washington, DC, February 4, 1986.
1328
1329 Nucci, C.A., G. Diendorfer, M.A. Uman, F. Rachidi, M. Ianoz, and C. Mazzetti, Lightning return
1330 stroke models, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 95, 20,395-20,408, 1990.
1331
1332 Olsen, R.C., III, D.M. Jordan, V.A. Rakov, M.A. Uman, and N. Grimes, Observed on-
1333 dimensional return stroke propagation speeds in the bottom 170 m of a rocket-triggered lightning
1334 channel, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 31, L16107, doi:10.1029/2004GL020187, 2004.
1335
1336 Rakov, V.A., and M.A. Uman, Review and evaluation of lightning return stroke models
1337 including some aspects of their application, *IEEE Trans. EMC*, 40, 403-426, 1998.
1338
1339 Rakov, V.A., M.A. Uman, K.J Rambo, M.I. Fernandez, R.J. Fisher, G.H. Schnetzer, R.
1340 Thottappillil, A. Eybert-Berard, J.P. Berlandis, P. Lalande, A. Bonamy, P. Laroche, and A.
1341 Bondiouu-Clergerie, New insights into lightning processes gained from triggered-lightning
1342 experiments in Florida and Alabama, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 103, 14,117-14,130, 1998.
1343

1344 Reazer, J.S., A.V. Serrano, L.C. Walco, and H.D. Burket, Analysis of correlated electromagnetic
1345 fields and current pulses during airborne lightning attachments, *Electromagnetics*, 7, 509-539,
1346 1987.

1347

1348 Schoene, J., M.A. Uman, V.A. Rakov, V. Kodali, K.J Rambo, and G.H. Schnetzer, Statistical
1349 characteristics of the electric and magnetic fields and their time derivatives 15 m and 30 m from
1350 triggered lightning, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 108, 4192, doi:10.1029/2002JD002698, 2003.

1351

1352 Schonland, B.F.J., D.J. Malan, and H. Collens, Progressive lightning, 2, *Proc. Roy. Soc. London*,
1353 *Ser. A*, 152, 595-625, 1935.

1354

1355 Strawe, D.F., Non-linear modeling of lightning return strokes, in *Proc. Fed. Aviat.*
1356 *Administra./Florida Inst. Technol. Workshop Grounding Lightning Technol.*, FAA-RD-79-6, pp. 9-
1357 15, Melbourne, FL, March, 1979.

1358

1359 Thottappillil, R. and M.A. Uman, Comparison of lightning return-stroke models, *J. Geophys.*
1360 *Res.*, 98, 22,903-22,914, 1993.

1361

1362 Uman, M.A., and D.K. McLain, Lightning return stroke current from magnetic and radiation
1363 field measurements, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 75, 5143-5147, 1970.

1364

1365 Uman, M.A., *The Lightning Discharge*, Academic Press, Inc., Orlando, 377pp., 1987.

1366

1367 Uman, M.A., Natural and artificially-initiated lightning and lightning test standards, *Proc. IEEE*,
1368 76, 1548-1565, 1988.

1369

1370 Uman, M.A., V.A. Rakov; G.H. Schnetzer, K.J. Rambo, D.E. Crawford, and R.G. Fisher, Time
1371 derivative of the electric field 10, 14, and 30 m from triggered lightning strokes, *J. Geophys.*
1372 *Res.*, 105, 15,577-15,595, 2000.

1373

1374 Vecchi, G., D. Labate, and F. Canavero, Fractal approach to lightning radiation on a tortuous
1375 channel, *Radio Sci.*, 29, 691-704, 1994.
1376

1377 Wang, D., N. Takagi, T. Watanabe, V.A. Rakov, M.A. Uman, K.J. Rambo, and M.V. Stapleton,
1378 A comparison of channel-base currents and optical signals for rocket-triggered lightning strokes,
1379 *J. Geophys. Res.*, 104, 2143-2150, 1999.
1380

1381 Wang, D., V.A. Rakov, M.A. Uman, N. Takagi, T. Watanabe, D.E. Crawford, K.J. Rambo, G.H.
1382 Schnetzer, R.G. Fisher, and Z.-I. Kawasaki, Attachment process in rocket-triggered lightning
1383 strokes, *Atmos. Res.*, 76, 412-422, 2005.
1384

1385 Willett, J.C., J.C. Bailey, V.P. Idone, A. Eybert-Berard, and L. Barret, Submicrosecond
1386 intercomparison of radiation fields and currents in triggered lightning return strokes based on the
1387 transmission-line model, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 94, 13,275-13,286, 1989.
1388

1389 Willett, J.C., J.C. Bailey, C. Leteinturier, and E.P. Krider, Lightning electromagnetic radiation
1390 field spectra in the interval from 0.2 to 20 MHz, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 95, 20,367-20,387, 1990.
1391

1392 Willett, J.C., D.M. Le Vine, M. Kao, and V.P. Idone, Calculated and observed electric fields of
1393 rocket-triggered-lightning return strokes with known channel geometries, *EOS*, 70, 1015, 1989
1394 (presented at the Fall Annual Meeting of the American Geophysical Union, San Francisco, CA,
1395 December).
1396

1397 Willett, J.C., D.M. Le Vine, and V.P. Idone, Lightning-channel morphology revealed by
1398 return-stroke radiation-field waveforms, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 100, 2727-2738, 1995.
1399

1400 Willett, J.C., and D.M. Le Vine, 3-D channel reconstruction for triggered lightning return
1401 strokes, *EOS*, 76, Supplement, p.F118, 1995 (presented at the Fall Annual Meeting of the
1402 American Geophysical Union, San Francisco, CA, December).
1403

1404 Willett, J.C., and D.M. Le Vine, On the current distribution in lightning subsequent return
1405 strokes, in *Proceedings, 10th International Conference on Atmospheric Electricity*, Osaka,
1406 Japan, 10-14 June 1966, International Commission on Atmospheric Electricity, pp. 492-495
1407 (printed but not presented because of insufficient travel funds), 1996.
1408
1409 Willett, J.C., and D.M. Le Vine, Lightning return-stroke current waveforms aloft, from measured
1410 field change, current, and channel geometry, presented at the Fall Annual Meeting of the
1411 American Geophysical Union, San Francisco, CA, December, 2002.
1412
1413 Willett, J.C., and D.M. Le Vine, Lightning return-stroke current waveforms aloft, from measured
1414 field change, current, and channel geometry, in *Proceedings, 12th International Conference on*
1415 *Atmospheric Electricity*, Versailles, France, 9-13 June, International Commission on
1416 Atmospheric Electricity, 2003.
1417

1417 Figure Captions

1418

1419 Figure 1 -- An example of our "convolution smoothing" of the measured current waveform
1420 (black curve) to produce different wave shapes, $I(t_i, s)$ in Equation 7, at different heights. The
1421 corresponding values of kernel time scale, $\tau(s)$, and 10 - 90% rise time are tabulated in the figure.

1422

1423 Figure 2 -- Two examples of truncated, smoothed, and extrapolated channel-base-current
1424 waveforms. (a) Full 15 μ s time series, illustrating extrapolations. (b) First 1 μ s, illustrating
1425 onset truncation and noise smoothing.

1426

1427 Figure 3 -- Measured field change for stroke 8732/2 (black) compared to that calculated when
1428 the measured current waveform propagates at a constant speed of 1.71×10^8 m/s without
1429 changing either shape or amplitude (green).

1430

1431 Figure 4 -- Similar to Figure 3, but this time convolution smoothing ($\tau_{max} = 4.36 \mu$ s, $L_\tau = 7084$ m)
1432 is included to produce the green curve and then decreasing TLM velocity ($v_{min} = 2.1 \times 10^8$ m/s,
1433 $v_{max} = 2.6 \times 10^8$, $L_{v1} = 500$ m) is added to produce the red curve.

1434

1435 Figure 5 -- TLM-velocity profiles [$v(s)$, solid curves] and current-front effective-velocity profiles
1436 [$v_{eff}(s)$, dots] for the two calculations shown in Figure 4 (colors correspond).

1437

1438 Figure 6 -- Similar to Figure 4 except that the red curve has been further modified by a
1439 decreasing amplitude factor ($a_{min1} = 0.7$, $L_{a1} = 60$ m, $a_{min2} = 0.6$, $L_{a2} = 400$ m).

1440

1441 Figure 7 -- Profile of the amplitude factor [$a(s)$, red curve] and the corresponding relative profile
1442 of charge deposition on the channel by the model return stroke shown in Figure 6 (green).

1443

1443 Figure 8 -- TLM- and front-velocity profiles, as in Figure 5, for stroke 8732/1, which required
1444 propagation-speed adjustment, as well as amplitude adjustment, in order to match both the peak
1445 and the subsequent structure of $E_m(t)$. The solid green curve is for $v_{min} = 2.0 \times 10^8$ m/s, $v_{max} =$
1446 2.3×10^8 , and $L_{v1} = 500$ m. The red curve adds the parameters, $v_{ampl} = 0.7 \times 10^8$ m/s and $L_{v2} =$
1447 60 m.

1448
1449 Figure 9 -- Computed field-change waveforms (colors) corresponding to the velocity profiles in
1450 Figure 8 are compared with observed field change (black).

1451
1452 Figure 10 -- TLM-velocity (solid) and front-velocity (dots) profiles for stroke 8728/11. The
1453 parameters for the solid curve are $v_{min} = 2.7 \times 10^8$ m/s, $v_{max} = 3.0 \times 10^8$, and $L_{v1} = 500$ m.

1454
1455 Figure 11 -- The effect of a very rapid amplitude-factor decrease in a case with the parameters,
1456 $\tau_{max} = 1.16 \mu\text{s}$, $L_\tau = 1851$ m, $v_{min} = 2.3 \times 10^8$ m/s, $v_{max} = 3.0 \times 10^8$, $L_{v1} = 500$ m, and as given in
1457 the caption of Figure 12.

1458
1459 Figure 12 -- Similar to Figure 7 but shown on an expanded height scale for the parameters, a_{min1}
1460 $= 0.69$, $L_{a1} = 5$ m, $a_{min2} = 0.35$, $L_{a2} = 1000$ m, that correspond to the red curve in Figure 11.

1461
1462 Figure 13 -- Two different current-waveform extrapolations for stroke 8725/4.

1463
1464 Figure 14 -- Model field-change waveforms (green and red, corresponding to the similarly
1465 colored current waveforms in Figure 13) are compared with the observed field change (black).

1466
1467 Figure 15 -- Observed (black) and modeled (red) field-change waveforms for all 24 return
1468 strokes in our data set. (a) collects the events from three flashes for which we could analyze only
1469 two strokes each. (b), (c), and (d) each show several strokes from a single flash. The scales are
1470 V/m versus μs .

1471
1472 Figure 16 -- Measured and extrapolated current waveforms corresponding to the field-change
1473 waveforms of Figure 15. The scales are kA versus μs .

1474
1475 Figure 17 -- A typical streak image of leader/return-stroke sequence for stroke 8725/1 is shown
1476 as rendered by the Xillix camera. The analysis levels chosen for this event are illustrated by
1477 white horizontal bars. The vertical separation between level one (the lowest) and level nine (the
1478 highest) in this image corresponds to about 980 m at the range of the lightning channel. The
1479 horizontal extent of the image corresponds to about 125 μ s of time. See Appendix C for further
1480 details.

1481
1482 Figure 18 -- Comparison of optical and electrical results as a function of path length. The left-
1483 hand panels show peak-relative-light-intensity and peak-current profiles, while the right-hand
1484 panels show 10 - 90% rise-time profiles of RLI and of current. Each flash has its own row of
1485 two panels showing all strokes for which both optical data and electrical inferences are available
1486 in that flash. Optical results are plotted with solid symbols and lines, whereas electrical results
1487 have hollow symbols connected by dashed lines.

1488
1489 Figure 19 -- Similar to Figure 17 but for stroke 8725/3, which has an especially bright leader.

1490
1491 Figure A1 -- Still-camera images of flash 8732 from the NRL site (a), located about 5.2 km east
1492 of the triggering site and using a 55 mm lens, and from the SUNY site (b), located about 2.2 km
1493 SSE of the triggering site and using a 24 mm lens.

1494
1495 Figure A2 -- Camera locations and orientations at the NRL (subscript N) and SUNY (subscript
1496 S) sites relative to the triggering site -- the origin, O, of the (x, y, z) coordinate system. (a) D_i and
1497 h_i represent the relative ranges and heights of the two cameras. The NRL site is taken to be just
1498 above the x-axis. Angle α_P represents the co-azimuth of the SUNY site. (b) The definition of
1499 the camera-azimuth angle at the SUNY site, γ_S . (c) The (simplified -- see text) definition of the
1500 camera-elevation angle at the NRL site, α_N .

1501

1501 Figure A3 -- A heuristic illustration of the channel-reconstruction method used in this paper.
1502 The locations of the two cameras are indicated by P_1 (representing NRL) and P_2 (representing
1503 SUNY, except for a change in the sign of α_P for convenience of illustration), with the other
1504 parameters as in Figure A2a. Point r on the channel in the first idealized image defines the ray,
1505 l_r , which projects onto the second image as the line, l'_r . This line intersects that imaged channel
1506 at point, s' , which in turn defines a second ray, $l_{s'}$, and a point on the 3-D channel, identified as
1507 (r, s') -- see text.
1508
1509 Figure A4 -- Magnified portions of idealized images from the NRL (a) and SUNY (b) cameras,
1510 showing a major channel kink, leading to multiple solutions. The graph axes give the absolute
1511 elevation and azimuth angles, (θ_i, φ_i) , in radians. Digitized points on the two images are
1512 numbered consecutively from the channel base upward. The "lines", l'_r and $l'_{s'}$, where the
1513 "solution plane" corresponding to point $r = 155$ on the NRL image cuts both images are indicated
1514 in red. See text for interpretation.
1515
1516 Figure A5 -- Two views of the 3-D reconstructed channel for flash 8732, with (blue) and without
1517 (red) the barrel-distortion correction to the SUNY lens. The scales of the (x, y, z) axes are in
1518 meters relative to the location of the triggering site.
1519
1520 Figure A6 -- The same two views as in Figure 5, but showing all six reconstructed flashes used
1521 in this study.
1522
1523 Figure A7 -- Electric-field changes computed for stroke 8732/2 using the current model inferred
1524 in this paper (see the section, "Detailed Example of Fitting Procedure") together with the two
1525 channel reconstructions shown in Figure A5. The blue curve uses the barrel-distortion
1526 correction, whereas the red curve does not.
1527
1528 Figure C1 -- "Raw" relative light intensity, after averaging seven pixels vertically and after zero
1529 subtraction but before any temporal smoothing, at level seven of stroke 8725/1 (see Figure 17).
1530

1531 Figure C2 -- Similar to Figure C1, except that temporal smoothing has been added, the
1532 "baseline" and peak magnitudes of the fast-rising portion of the return-stroke RLI have been
1533 indicated in blue, and the corresponding 10 - 90% levels have been shown in green. (a) The
1534 "cosine-bell" smoothing comprises 13 horizontal pixels of the streak image in this case, for a
1535 FWHM of 0.81 μs , yielding a 10 - 90% rise time of 3.51 μs . (b) Here the smoothing comprises
1536 27 pixels, FWHM = 1.78 μs , and 10 - 90% rise time is 3.78 μs . "Baseline" and peak RLI are
1537 0.185 and 1.010, respectively, in both cases.

1538

Table 1 -- Free Parameters in Current Model

Event	Geometry		Kernel Scale, τ (s)		TLM Velocity, v (s)					Ampl. Factor, a (s)				Onset @Chnl. Top (μ s)		
	Wire Tip (m)	Chnl. Top (m)	τ_{max} (μ s)	L_r (m)	Initial Slope (μ s/km)	V_{min} (10^8 m/s)	V_{max} (10^8 m/s)	L_{v1} (m)	V_{amp1} (10^8 m/s)	L_{v2} (m)	Const. Slope (m/s/m)	a_{min1}	L_{a1} (m)		a_{min2}	L_{a2} (m)
(Flsh/Stroke)																
8715/2	184	1240			0.817	2.50	3.00	150	0.00			0.65	100	1.00		5.91
8715/3	184	1240			0.653	2.50	3.00	150	0.00			0.78	50	0.80	200	5.91
8715/4	184	1240			0.653	2.50	3.00	150	0.00			0.80	20	0.77	200	5.91
8715/6	184	1240			1.037	3.00			0.00			0.80	30	0.79	150	5.19
8715/7	184	1240			0.653	3.00			0.00			0.75	5	0.74	75	5.19
8715/8	184	1240			0.817	2.75	3.00	75	0.00			0.77	20	0.55	1000	5.55
8715/9	184	1240			0.817	3.00			0.00			0.59	35	1.00		5.19
8715/10	184	1240			0.653	2.50	3.00	150	0.00			0.73	5	0.85	200	5.91
8717/3	269	2220			0.935	2.10	2.60	70	0.40	700		0.45	130	1.00		10.94
8717/5	269	2220			0.935	2.10	2.60	70	0.40	700		0.55	130	1.00		10.94
8725/1	370	1842	0.663	782	0.848	2.20	3.00	400	0.00			0.69	40	0.52	400	8.73
8725/2	370	1842	0.663	782	0.848	2.20	3.00	400	0.00			0.81	5	0.52	200	8.73
8725/3	370	1842	0.663	782	0.848	2.10	3.00	400	0.00			0.58	10	0.64	500	9.01
8725/4	370	1842	1.691	845	2.001	0.75	2.15	100	0.85	800		0.50	150	1.00		18.09
8725/5	370	1842			0.682	2.30	2.70	100	0.00			0.70	5	0.50	500	8.85
8726/1	552	1704			0.236		3.00									
8726/2	552	1704	1.160	1851	0.627	1.80	2.60	30	0.40	500	-100000	0.46	10	0.90	300	8.97
8726/3	552	1704	1.160	1851	0.627	2.30	3.00	500	0.00			0.80	30	0.50	400	9.48
8726/4	552	1704	1.160	1851	0.627	1.80	2.60	30	0.40	500		0.69	5	0.35	1000	7.43
8726/5	552	1704	1.160	1851	0.627	2.40	3.00	300	0.00			0.80	30	0.50	400	9.46
8728/10	171	1754	0.792	814	0.973	2.70	3.00	500	0.00			0.68	70	0.65	500	8.13
8728/11	171	1754	0.727	531	1.369	2.70	3.00	500	0.00			0.75	100	0.50	400	8.13
8732/1	197	1844			0.458	2.00	2.70	60	0.30	500		0.70	80	0.64	300	9.75
8732/2	197	1844	4.360	7084	0.615	2.10	2.60	500	0.00			0.70	60	0.60	400	9.22

Table 2 -- Representative Values of Current Behavior

Event	10-90% Rise Time of Current					Front Velocity, v_{eff} (s)					Amplitude Factor, a (s)					
	Sfc. (μ s)	10m (μ s)	30m (μ s)	100m (μ s)	300m (μ s)	1000m (μ s)	Ave. (10^8 m/s)	10m (10^8 m/s)	100m (10^8 m/s)	300m (10^8 m/s)	1000m (10^8 m/s)	10m	30m	100m	300m	1000m
(Flsh/ Stroke)																
8715/2	0.296	0.300	0.327	0.470	0.951	2.50	1.72	1.60	1.70	1.72	1.75	0.97	0.91	0.78	0.67	0.65
8715/3	0.179	0.180	0.196	0.329	0.764	1.99	1.85	1.90	1.85	1.82	1.85	0.95	0.88	0.75	0.66	0.63
8715/4	0.189	0.191	0.215	0.344	0.729	2.17	1.84	1.88	1.83	1.83	1.82	0.91	0.82	0.73	0.66	0.62
8715/6	0.175	0.183	0.228	0.436	1.050	3.39	1.74	1.52	1.70	1.75		0.93	0.84	0.72	0.65	0.63
8715/7	0.186	0.190	0.213	0.353	0.759	2.22	2.04	1.90	1.93	2.05	2.08	0.76	0.69	0.61	0.56	0.56
8715/8	0.191	0.193	0.215	0.360	0.794	2.58	1.84	1.70	1.78	1.83	1.86	0.91	0.81	0.74	0.68	0.55
8715/9	0.356	0.358	0.375	0.501	0.991	2.81	1.87	1.68	1.75	1.87		0.90	0.76	0.61	0.59	0.59
8715/10	0.270	0.268	0.275	0.375	0.757	2.12	1.84	1.88	1.82	1.83	1.84	0.76	0.72	0.69	0.64	0.62
8717/3	0.138	0.136	0.163	0.377	0.898	2.57	1.60	1.70	1.61	1.60	1.58	0.96	0.89	0.70	0.50	0.45
8717/5	0.111	0.116	0.152	0.335	0.854	2.57	1.60	1.65	1.65	1.62	1.55	0.97	0.91	0.76	0.59	0.55
8725/1	0.553	0.544	0.536	0.609	0.964	1.83	1.95	1.70	1.74	1.86	2.02	0.92	0.81	0.64	0.52	0.39
8725/2	0.433	0.432	0.437	0.550	0.969	1.76	1.95	1.63	1.72	1.83	2.00	0.82	0.76	0.66	0.51	0.42
8725/3	0.355	0.357	0.369	0.481	0.879	1.80	1.90	1.68	1.74	1.83	1.93	0.73	0.59	0.54	0.49	0.40
8725/4	0.162	0.171	0.249	0.541	1.400	3.09	0.93	1.11	1.20	1.01	0.90	0.97	0.92	0.75	0.45	0.45
8725/5	0.159	0.161	0.175	0.297	0.700	2.02	1.74	1.70	1.71	1.71	1.73	0.73	0.68	0.64	0.54	0.40
8726/1	0.888	0.875	0.871	0.871	0.944	1.54	1.84	2.76	2.36	2.21	1.76	0.66	0.48	0.45	0.43	0.42
8726/2	0.491	0.494	0.514	0.586	0.831	1.71	1.62	1.83	1.62	1.61	1.61	0.93	0.84	0.72	0.59	0.43
8726/3	0.269	0.266	0.268	0.358	0.720	1.91	1.96	1.90	1.92	1.97	1.97	0.73	0.68	0.65	0.57	0.41
8726/4	0.339	0.340	0.349	0.421	0.705	1.61	1.62	1.88	1.62	1.60	1.60	0.93	0.84	0.72	0.59	0.43
8726/5	0.323	0.322	0.316	0.412	0.828	2.09	1.93	1.90	1.91	1.90	1.95	0.79	0.68	0.63	0.57	0.44
8728/10	0.400	0.402	0.416	0.579	1.050	2.23	2.14	1.55	1.70	1.88	2.28	0.95	0.87	0.71	0.58	0.47
8728/11	0.216	0.223	0.273	0.522	1.120	2.15	2.18	1.30	1.60	1.87	2.41	0.96	0.90	0.75	0.56	0.41
8732/1	0.410	0.410	0.416	0.448	0.682	1.57	1.72	2.17	1.80	1.70	1.70	0.95	0.88	0.71	0.55	0.46
8732/2	0.408	0.408	0.413	0.494	0.870	2.09	1.71	1.70	1.71	1.72	1.71	0.94	0.86	0.69	0.55	0.44

Table 3 -- Optical Parameters from Streak Photographs

Event (Flsh/ Stroke)	Level	Reconstructed		RLI		Rise Time	
		Height (m)	Path (m)	Baseline	Amplitude	10-90% (μ s)	Error (μ s \pm)
8715/9	1	30	30	0.0	3.6	1.3	0.07
8715/9	2	144	144	0.8	1.5	0.9	0.07
8715/9	3	274	299	0.5	1.5	1.3	0.07
8715/9	4	407	480	0.9	2.2	1.7	0.14
8715/9	5	488	597	0.6	1.5	1.1	
8715/9	6	675	864	0.4	1.6	4.2	0.21
8715/9	7	787	983	0.5	1.8	2.7	0.49
8715/9	8	919	1128	0.5	1.6	2.6	0.48
8715/9	9	1021	1240	0.5	1.5	4.0	0.77
8715/10	1	30	30	0.1	2.3	2.0	
8715/10	2	144	144	0.1	1.4	1.7	
8715/10	3	274	299	0.0	1.2	2.8	0.07
8715/10	4	407	480	0.3	0.8	2.6	
8715/10	5	488	597	0.1	0.9	4.7	
8715/10	6	675	864	0.0	0.8	4.6	
8715/10	7	787	983	0.1	0.6	3.8	
8715/10	8	919	1128	-0.1	0.6	4.9	
8715/10	9	1021	1240	0.0	0.5	5.7	0.84
8725/1	1	30	30	0.0	1.8	1.6	
8725/1	2	149	150	0.1	1.1	2.3	
8725/1	3	267	269	0.2	0.9	1.8	
8725/1	4	394	409	0.3	0.9	2.8	
8725/1	5	515	580	0.2	0.8	1.4	
8725/1	6	603	734	0.2	0.7	3.4	
8725/1	7	728	886	0.2	0.8	3.7	0.13
8725/1	8	858	1077	0.2	0.5	3.0	0.06
8725/1	9	1011	1280	0.0	0.6	5.7	0.20
8725/2	1	30	30	0.0	1.5	0.8	
8725/2	2	149	150	0.2	0.7	1.8	
8725/2	3	267	269	0.1	0.7	2.2	
8725/2	4	394	409	0.2	0.7	2.0	
8725/2	5	515	580	0.1	0.7	4.2	
8725/2	6	603	734	0.1	0.6	3.1	0.14
8725/2	7	728	886	0.1	0.4	2.0	0.50
8725/2	8	858	1077	0.0	0.5	5.5	0.41
8725/2	9	1011	1280	0.1	0.4	5.3	0.07
8725/3	1	30	30	0.2	3.1	1.2	
8725/3	2	149	150	1.1	2.2	1.2	

8725/3	3	267	269	1.0	2.1	1.2	
8725/3	4	394	409	1.0	1.4	1.2	
8725/3	5	515	580	1.2	1.4	1.9	
8725/3	6	603	734	0.9	1.6	2.8	
8725/3	7	728	886	1.0	1.3	3.0	
8725/3	8	858	1077	0.7	1.5	4.2	
8725/3	9	1011	1280	0.5	1.3	4.5	
8725/5	1	30	30	0.0	0.6	1.2	
8725/5	2	149	150	0.0	0.4	2.4	
8725/5	3	267	269	0.0	0.3	1.2	
8725/5	4	394	409	0.0	0.3	3.5	
8725/5	5	515	580	0.0	0.3	6.3	1.42
8725/5	6	603	734	0.1	0.2	4.7	0.54
8725/5	7	728	886	0.0	0.2	5.8	0.55
8725/5	8	858	1077	0.1	0.2	3.9	0.54
8725/5	9	1011	1280	0.0	0.2	7.2	0.88
8726/1	1	30	30	0.1	2.6	0.9	
8726/1	2	151	151	0.8	2.2	1.4	
8726/1	3	269	270	0.7	1.8	1.6	
8726/1	4	388	390	0.5	1.7	2.0	
8726/1	5	510	513	0.5	1.6	2.3	
8726/1	6	627	642	0.7	1.6	1.6	0.34
8726/1	7	817	951	0.6	1.6	3.0	
8726/1	8	969	1167	0.7	1.5	2.1	0.21
8726/1	9	1098	1321	0.4	1.2	4.9	0.34
8726/2	1	30	30	0.2	3.0	0.9	
8726/2	2	151	151	0.0	1.0	1.4	
8726/2	3	269	270	0.1	1.0	2.2	0.07
8726/2	4	388	390	0.0	0.8	2.1	0.07
8726/2	5	510	513	-0.1	0.6	1.6	
8726/2	6	627	642	0.0	0.6	2.0	
8726/2	7	817	951	0.0	0.7	2.6	
8726/2	8	969	1167	0.1	0.5	4.5	0.68
8726/2	9	1098	1321	0.0	0.5	6.0	0.68
8726/3	1	30	30	0.0	1.0	1.3	0.07
8726/3	2	151	151	0.0	0.5	1.7	0.07
8726/3	3	269	270	0.1	0.5	2.4	0.07
8726/3	4	388	390	0.0	0.4	3.6	
8726/3	5	510	513	0.1	0.4	3.0	
8726/3	6	627	642	0.1	0.3	3.4	
8726/3	7	817	951	0.0	0.3	4.7	0.14
8726/3	8	969	1167	0.1	0.3	5.1	0.27
8726/3	9	1098	1321	0.0	0.2	6.8	0.07
8726/4	1	30	30	0.0	1.5	1.0	0.14

8726/4	2	151	151	0.0	0.9	1.4	
8726/4	3	269	270	0.0	0.6	1.4	
8726/4	4	388	390	0.0	0.5	1.4	0.14
8726/4	5	510	513	0.0	0.4	1.9	
8726/4	6	627	642	0.0	0.4	2.0	0.06
8726/4	7	817	951	0.0	0.4	2.8	0.07
8726/4	8	969	1167	0.0	0.3	4.6	0.13
8726/4	9	1098	1321	0.0	0.1	2.2	0.07
8728/10	1	30	30	0.1	3.2	1.5	
8728/10	2	139	139	0.6	2.0	1.3	
8728/10	3	253	273	0.5	1.9	1.9	
8728/10	4	394	472	0.3	1.5	2.3	
8728/10	5	526	665	0.5	1.3	2.7	
8728/10	6	643	851	0.6	1.4	3.1	
8728/10	7	738	1136	0.5	1.3	4.2	
8728/10	8	814	1273	0.2	0.7	4.0	0.40
8728/11	1	30	30	0.1	1.8	1.6	
8728/11	2	139	139	0.2	1.0	1.9	
8728/11	3	253	273	0.1	1.1	1.9	
8728/11	4	394	472	0.1	1.0	2.0	
8728/11	5	526	665	0.1	0.8	2.9	0.07
8728/11	6	643	851	0.2	0.7	3.9	
8728/11	7	738	1136	0.0	0.7	4.4	
8728/11	8	814	1273	0.0	0.3	4.8	0.14
8732/1	1	30	30	0.2	2.2	0.9	0.07
8732/1	2	150	150	0.1	1.6	0.9	0.07
8732/1	3	269	295	0.3	2.0	2.1	
8732/1	4	395	547	0.1	1.8	3.2	
8732/1	5	509	725	0.1	1.6	2.8	
8732/1	6	598	981	0.1	1.1	3.2	0.07
8732/1	7	639	1287	0.0	1.1	5.4	0.14
8732/1	8	705	1415	0.0	1.1	4.1	
8732/1	9	773	1534	0.0	0.7	4.6	
8732/2	1	30	30	0.2	2.3	1.7	0.07
8732/2	2	150	150	0.2	1.5	1.8	
8732/2	3	269	295	0.1	1.4	2.5	
8732/2	4	395	547	0.1	1.6	3.6	
8732/2	5	509	725	0.1	1.3	3.2	0.35
8732/2	6	598	981	0.1	1.0	4.7	
8732/2	7	639	1287	0.1	1.0	4.6	
8732/2	8	705	1415	0.1	0.9	4.6	0.14
8732/2	9	773	1534	0.0	0.7	4.6	

Table 4 -- Model Peak Current (kA) vs. Path Length

Event (Flsh/ Stroke)	Path Length (m)					
	0	10	30	100	300	1000
8715/9	32.7	29.3	24.9	19.9	18.4	16.8
8715/10	15.4	11.7	10.9	10.4	9.2	7.8
8725/1	20.1	18.4	16.0	12.5	9.8	7.1
8725/2	16.3	13.3	12.2	10.5	8.0	6.3
8725/3	43.0	31.3	25.2	23.0	20.0	15.8
8725/5	11.7	8.6	7.8	7.1	5.5	3.4
8726/1	38.3	25.1	18.4	17.0	16.4	15.8
8726/2	26.6	24.8	22.3	18.8	14.8	9.9
8726/3	16.2	11.8	10.9	10.3	8.9	6.2
8726/4	22.2	20.7	18.6	15.7	12.1	8.0
8728/10	26.8	25.5	23.3	18.8	14.9	12.0
8728/11	15.8	15.2	14.1	11.3	7.9	5.4
8732/1	17.9	17.1	15.6	12.5	9.5	7.3
8732/2	16.6	15.7	14.1	11.3	9.0	6.7
Mean Scaled (see text)	1.58	1.33	1.17	1.00	0.82	0.63
Stdev. Scaled	0.24	0.11	0.08	0.00	0.07	0.12

Table 5 -- Comparison Among Values Averaged Over Strokes

Parameter	Path Length above Surface						Averaged
	0 m	10 m	30 m	100 m	300 m	1000 m	
10-90% Rise Time of Current Waveform:							
Average (μs)	0.312	0.313	0.332	0.460	0.884	2.18	
Std. Dev. (μs)	0.172	0.168	0.158	0.126	0.165	0.47	
# Samples	24	24	24	24	24	24	
10-90% Rise Time of Relative Light Intensity:							
Average (μs)			1.3		2.0	3.8	
Std. Dev. (μs)			0.4		0.6	1.0	
# Samples			14		18	20	
Average Path (m)			30		303	1062	
Std. Dev. Path (m)			0		49	86	
Effective Current-Propagation Speed:							
Average (10^8 m/s)		1.76		1.75	1.78	1.81	1.80
Std. Dev. (10^8 m/s)		0.30		0.20	0.22	0.30	0.24
# Samples		24		24	24	22	24
2-D Average Optical-Propagation Speed:							
Average (10^8 m/s)							1.5
Std. Dev. (10^8 m/s)							0.1
# Samples							14
Charge-Amplitude Multiplier:							
Average	1.00	0.88	0.79	0.68	0.58	0.49	
Std. Dev.	0.00	0.10	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.09	
# Samples		24	24	24	24	24	
Peak Amplitude of Current Waveform:							
Average (kA)	22.8	19.2	16.7	14.2	11.7	9.2	
Std. Dev. (kA)	9.4	7.1	5.6	4.6	4.4	4.3	
# Samples	14	14	14	14	14	14	
Amplitude of Relative Light Intensity:							
Average			2.2		1.1	0.9	
Std. Dev.			0.9		0.6	0.5	
# Samples			14		18	20	
Average Path (m)			30		303	1062	
Std. Dev. Path (m)			0		49	86	

Table 6 -- Correlations with Leader Relative Brightness

Event	RLI Ratio	$a(100)$	$v_{eff}(10)/v_{TM}$
8715/2		0.78	1.06
8715/3		0.75	1.20
8715/4		0.73	1.23
8715/6		0.72	1.08
8715/7		0.61	1.40
8715/8		0.74	1.16
8715/9	0.36	0.61	1.35
8715/10	0.10	0.69	1.35
8717/3		0.70	1.12
8717/5		0.76	1.11
8725/1	0.23	0.64	1.41
8725/2	0.17	0.66	1.32
8725/3	0.59	0.54	1.62
8725/4		0.76	0.96
8725/5		0.64	1.44
8726/1	0.37	0.45	2.63
8726/2	0.04	0.72	1.35
8726/3		0.65	1.44
8726/4	0.00	0.72	1.34
8726/5		0.63	1.50
8728/10	0.32	0.71	1.23
8728/11	0.13	0.75	0.98
8732/1	0.05	0.71	1.46
8732/2	0.08	0.69	1.34

Table A1 -- Camera-orientation angles, as defined in Figure A2. α_i represents elevation relative to the horizontal, and $-\gamma_i$ represents azimuth relative to the direction to the triggering site. Subscript "N" stands for the NRL site, and "S" stands for SUNY.

Flash:	8715	8717	8725	8726	8728	8732
Parameter						
α_N (deg.)	9.98	9.65	10.08	9.96	9.84	9.87
γ_N (deg.)	1.32	1.34	1.97	1.74	1.89	2.02
γ_S (deg.)	-0.77	-1.33	-1.61	-1.74	-1.16	-1.68

Figure 1

Convolution Smoothing (Stroke 8717/5)

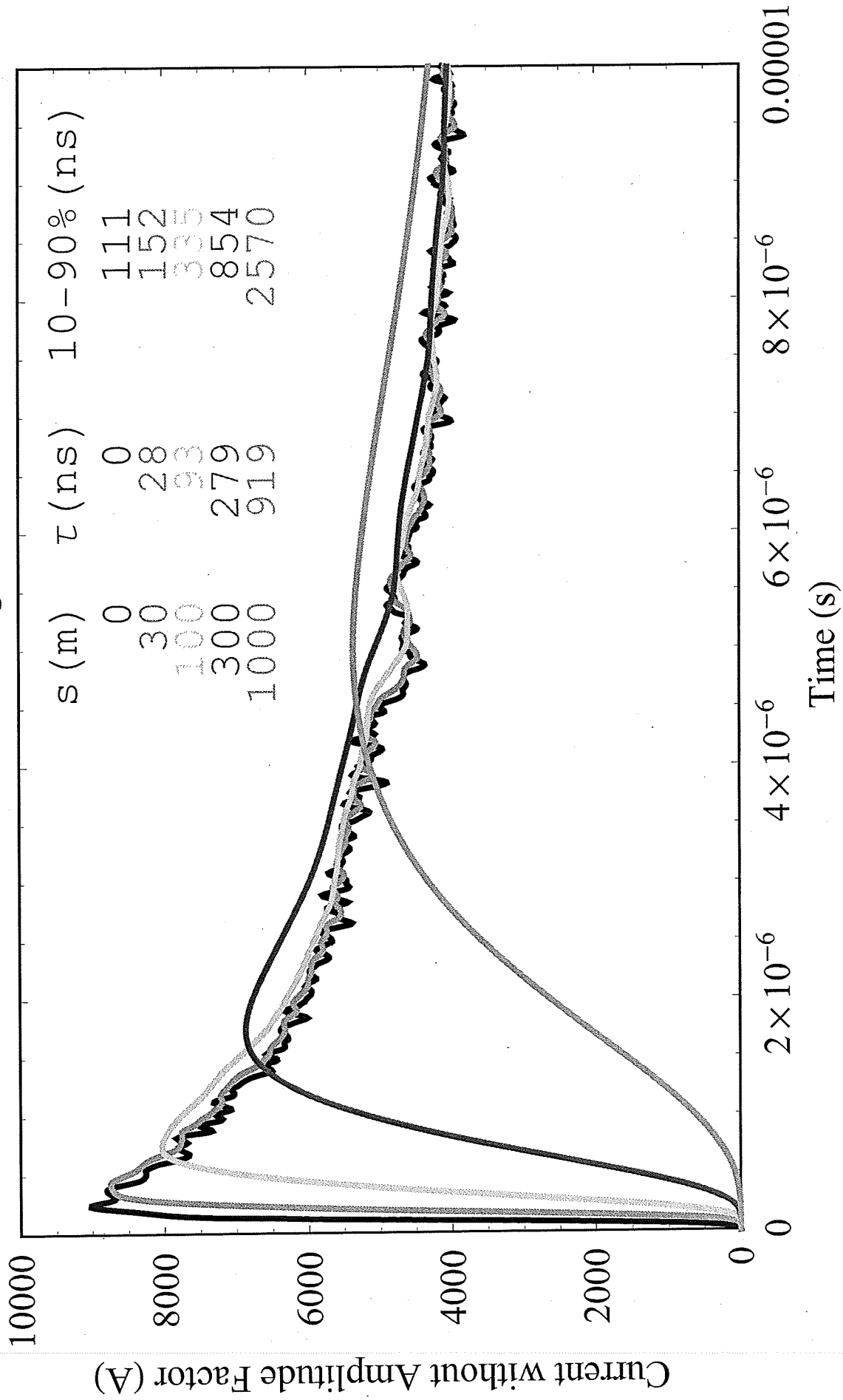


Figure 2a

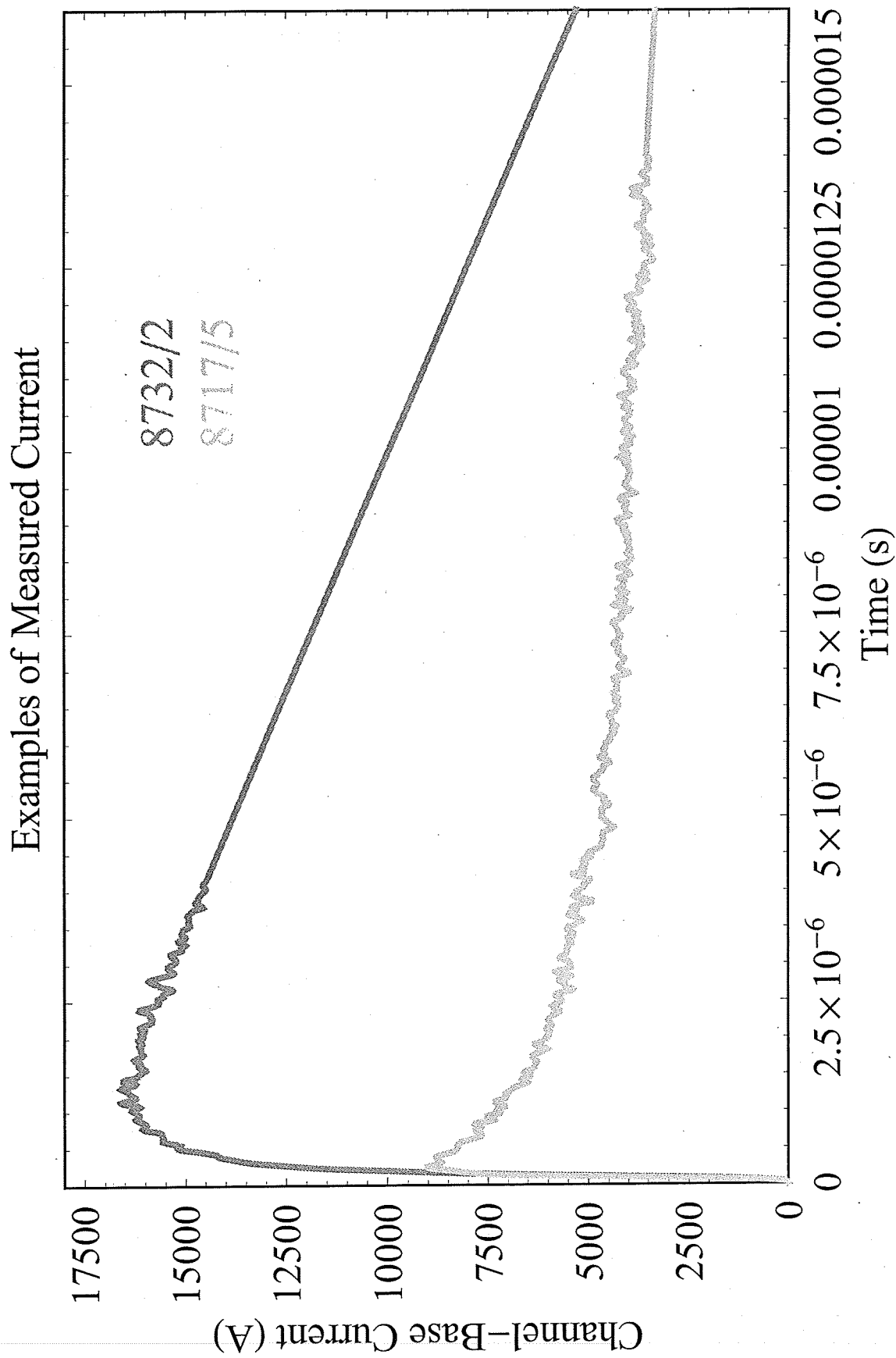


Figure 2b

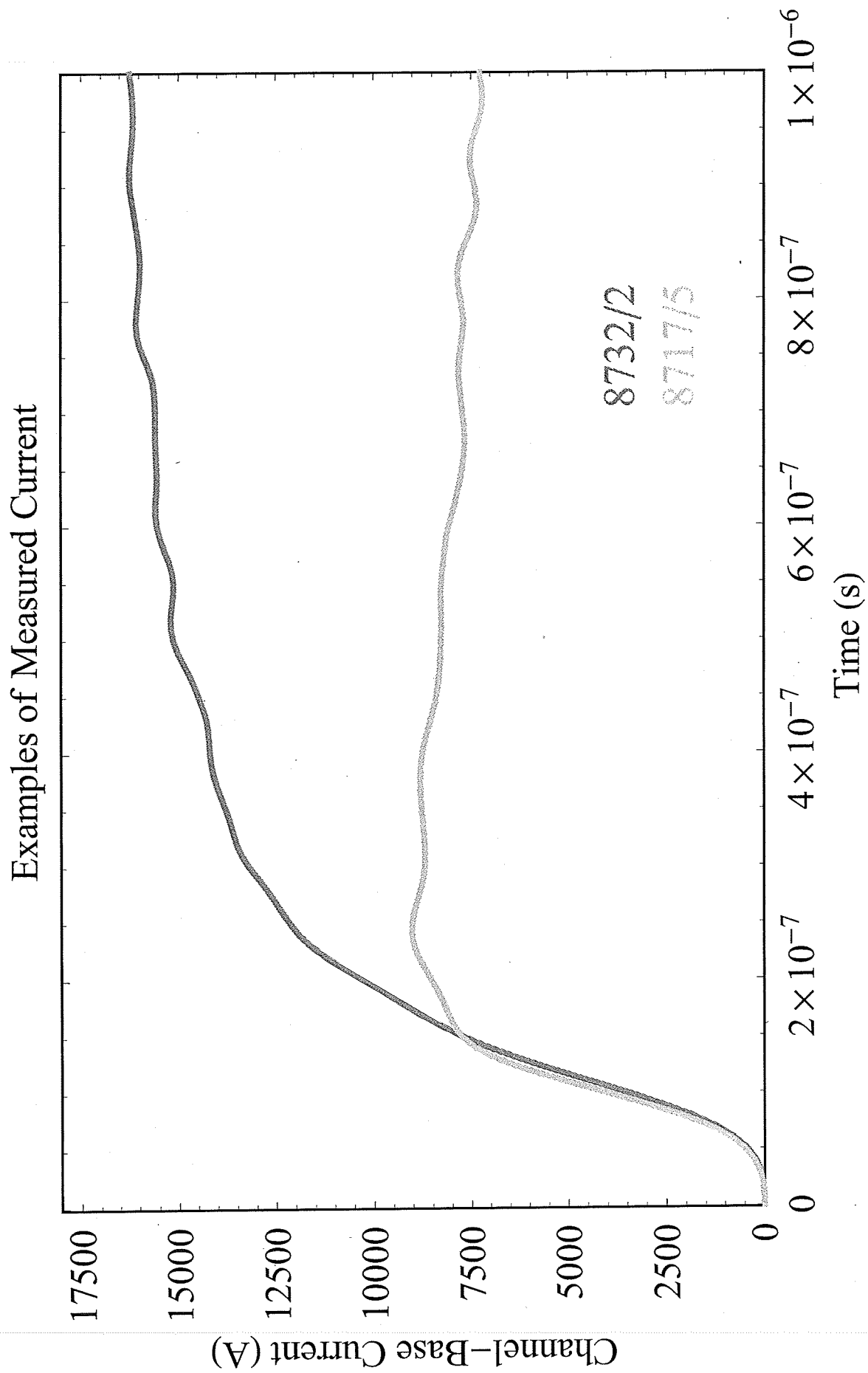


Figure 3

8732/2 -- Pure TLM

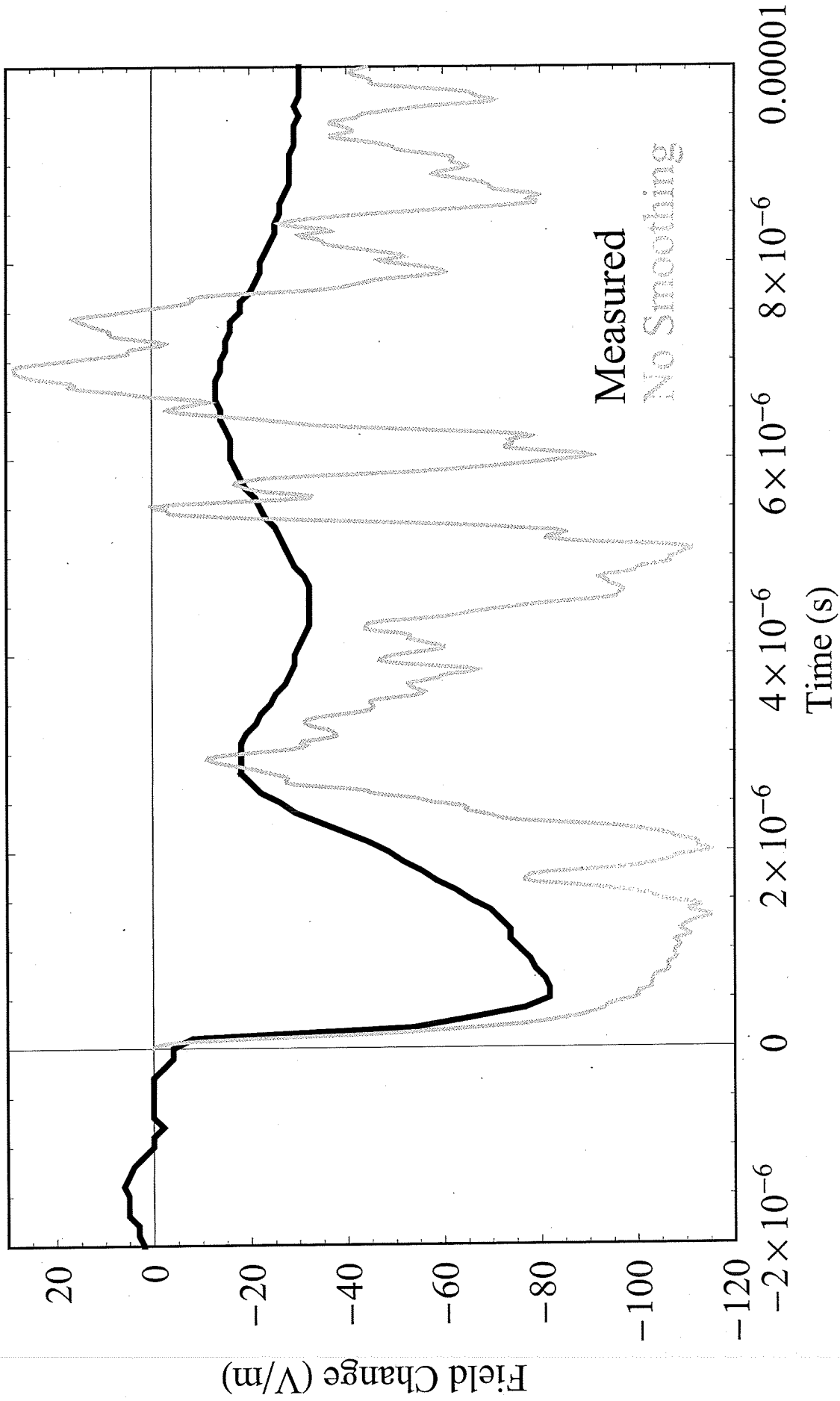


Figure 4

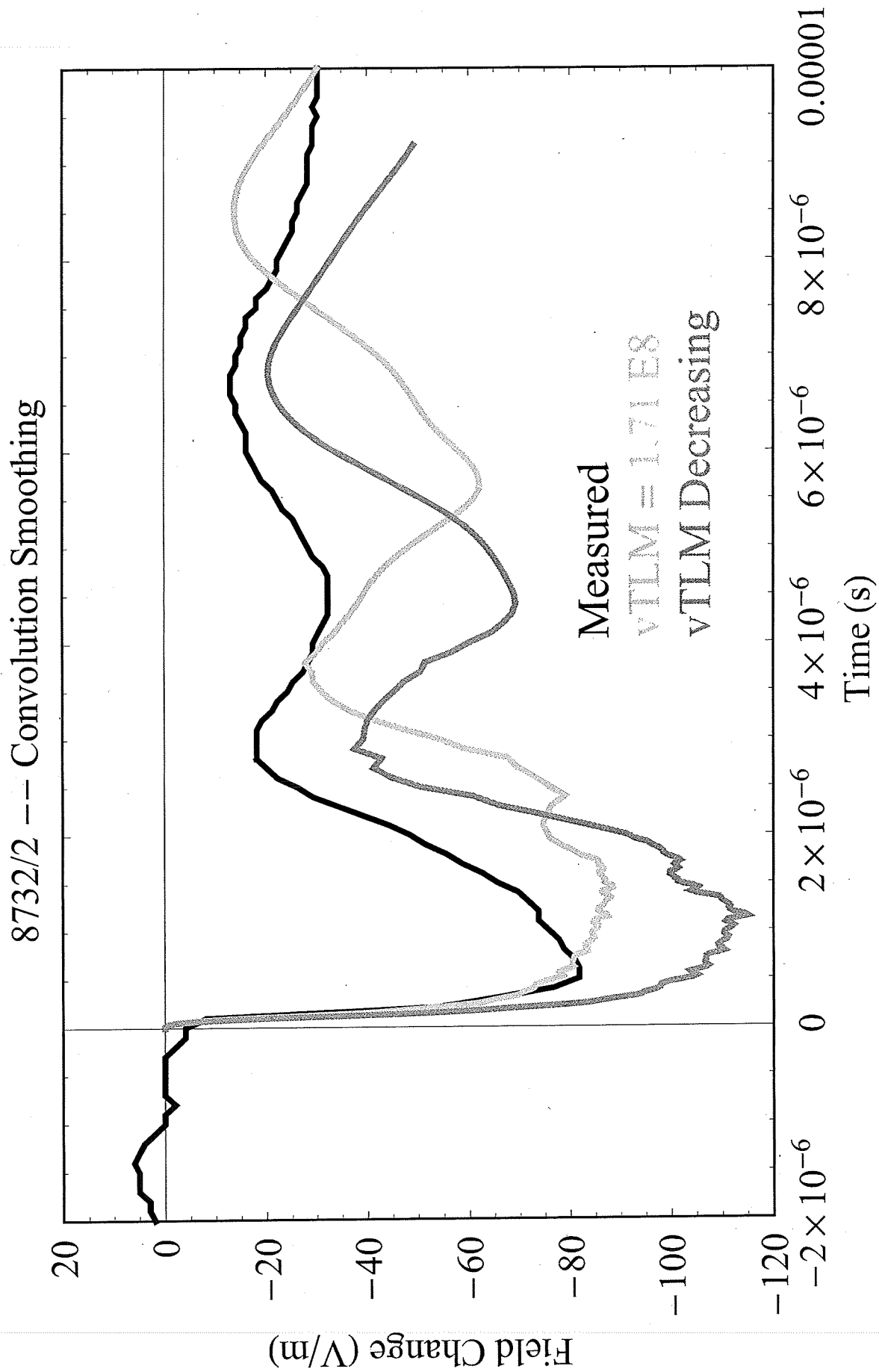


Figure 5

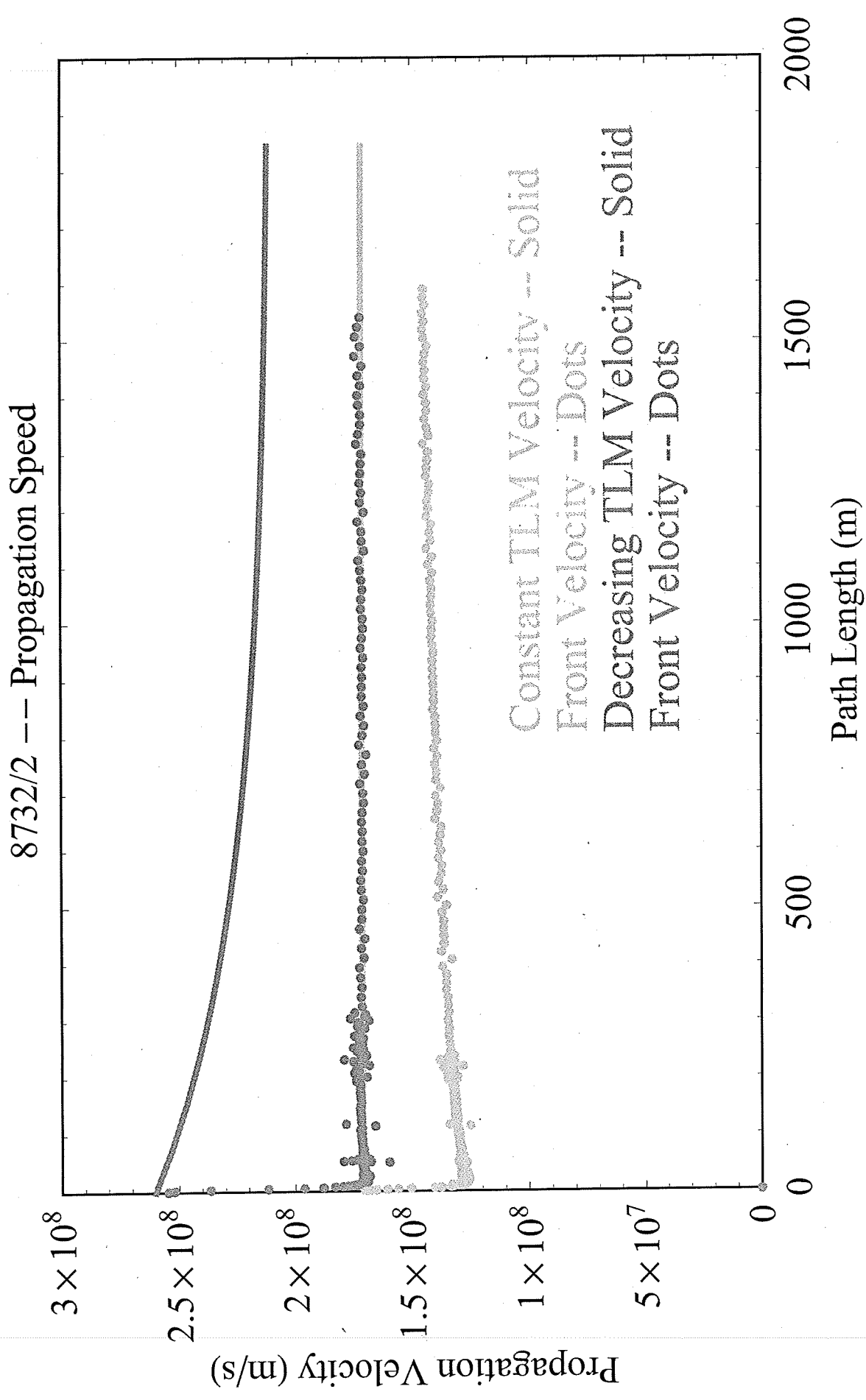


Figure 6

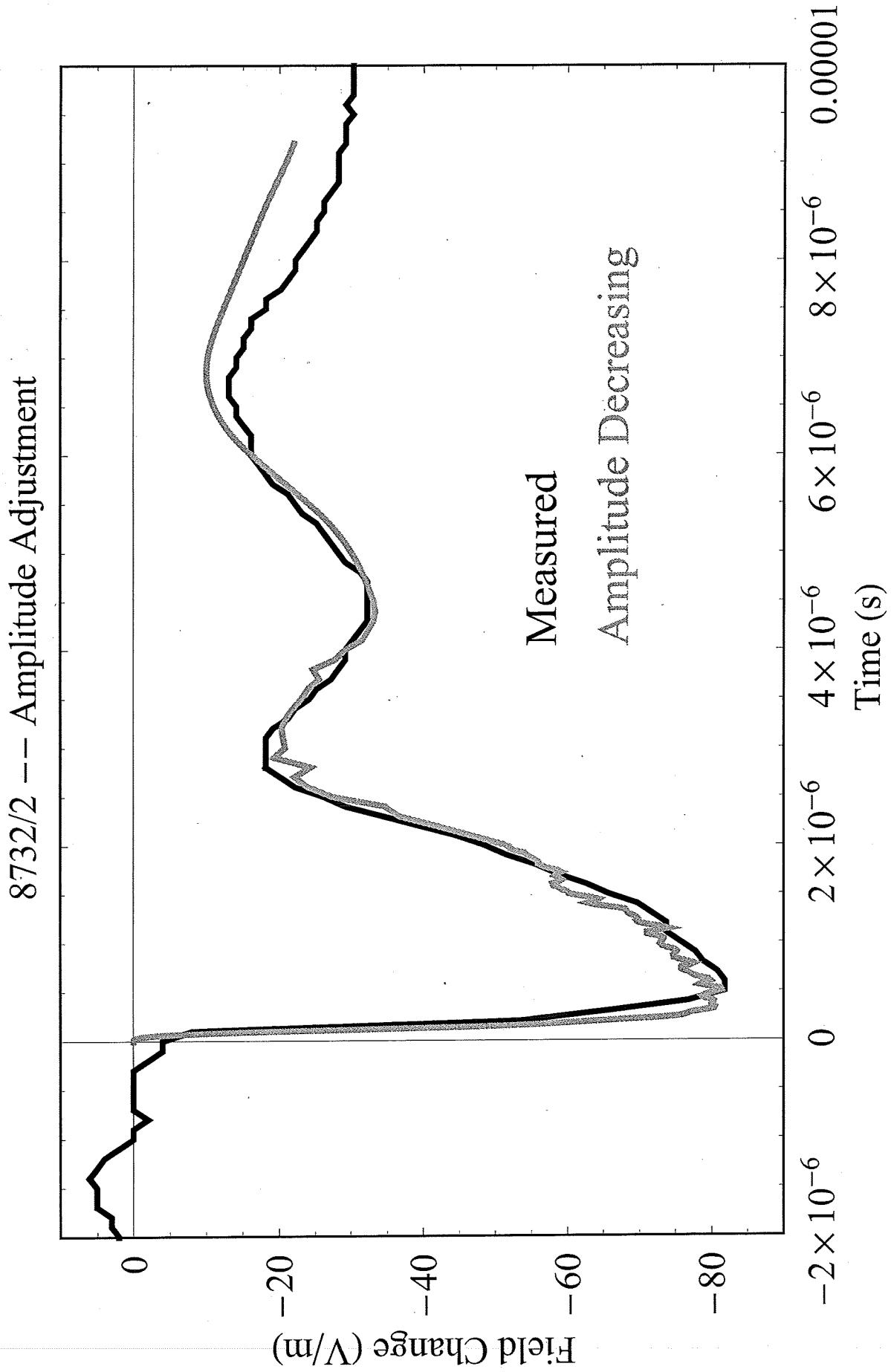


Figure 7

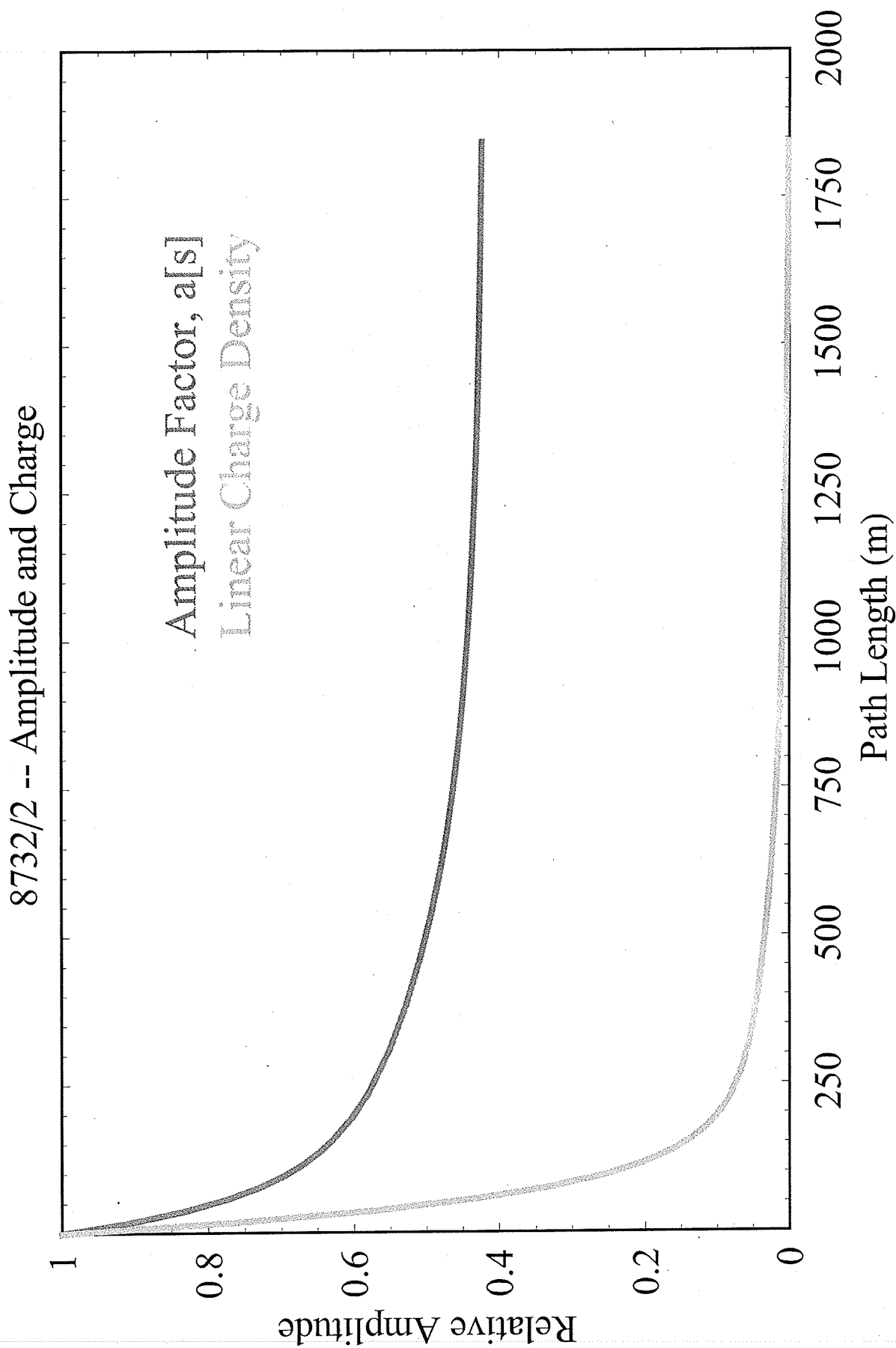


Figure 8

8732/1 --- Velocity Adjustment

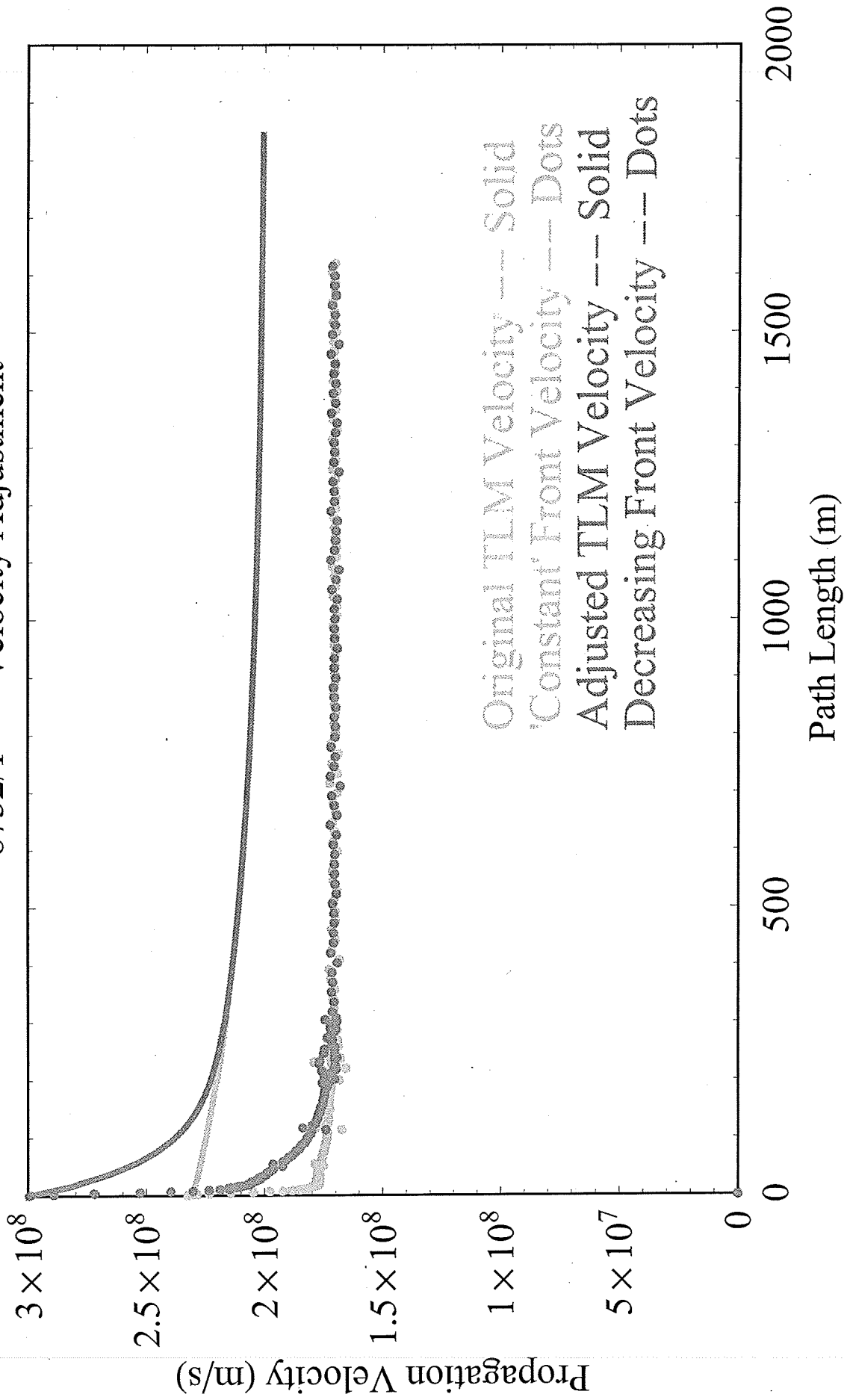


Figure 9

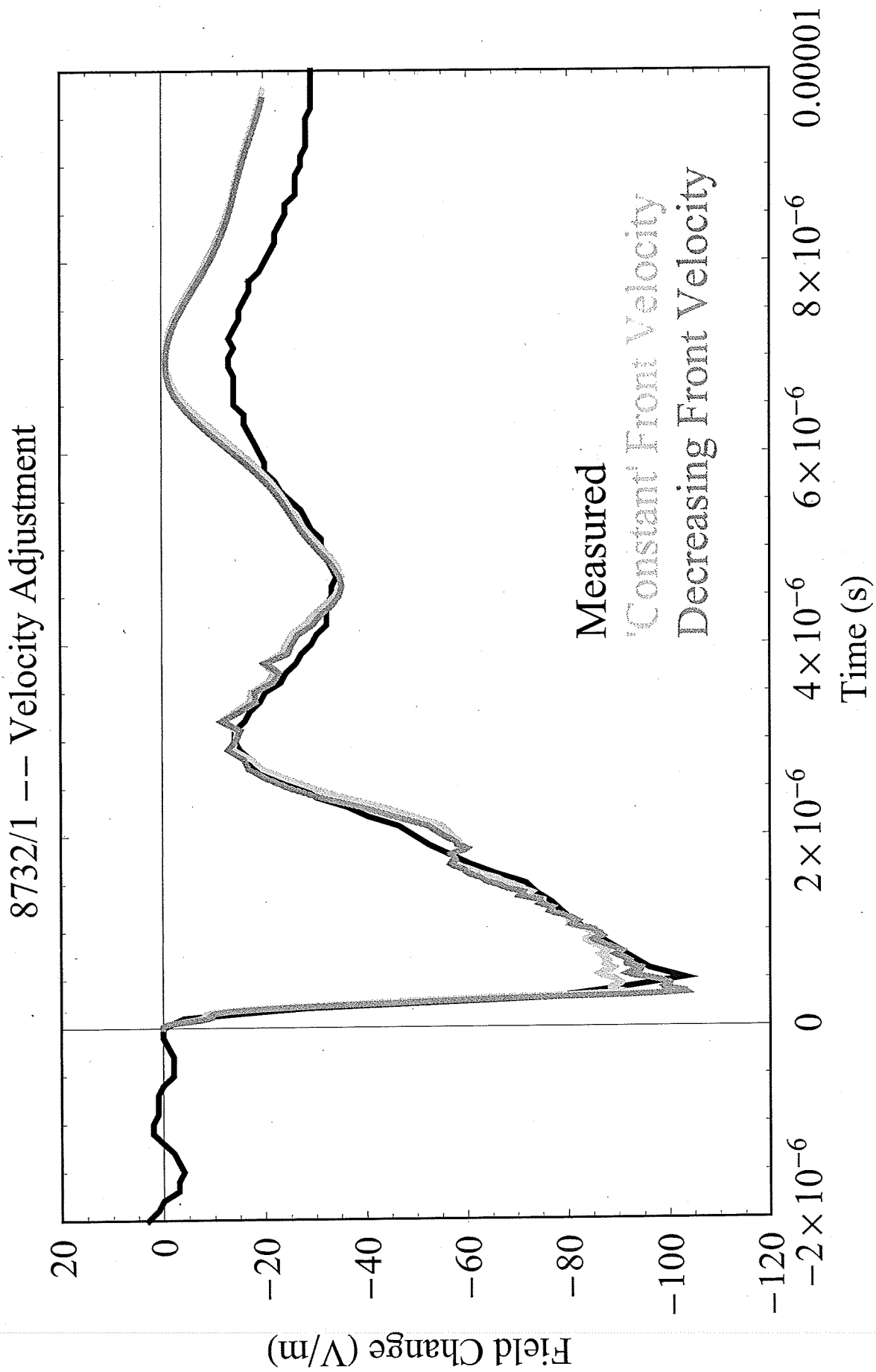


Figure 10

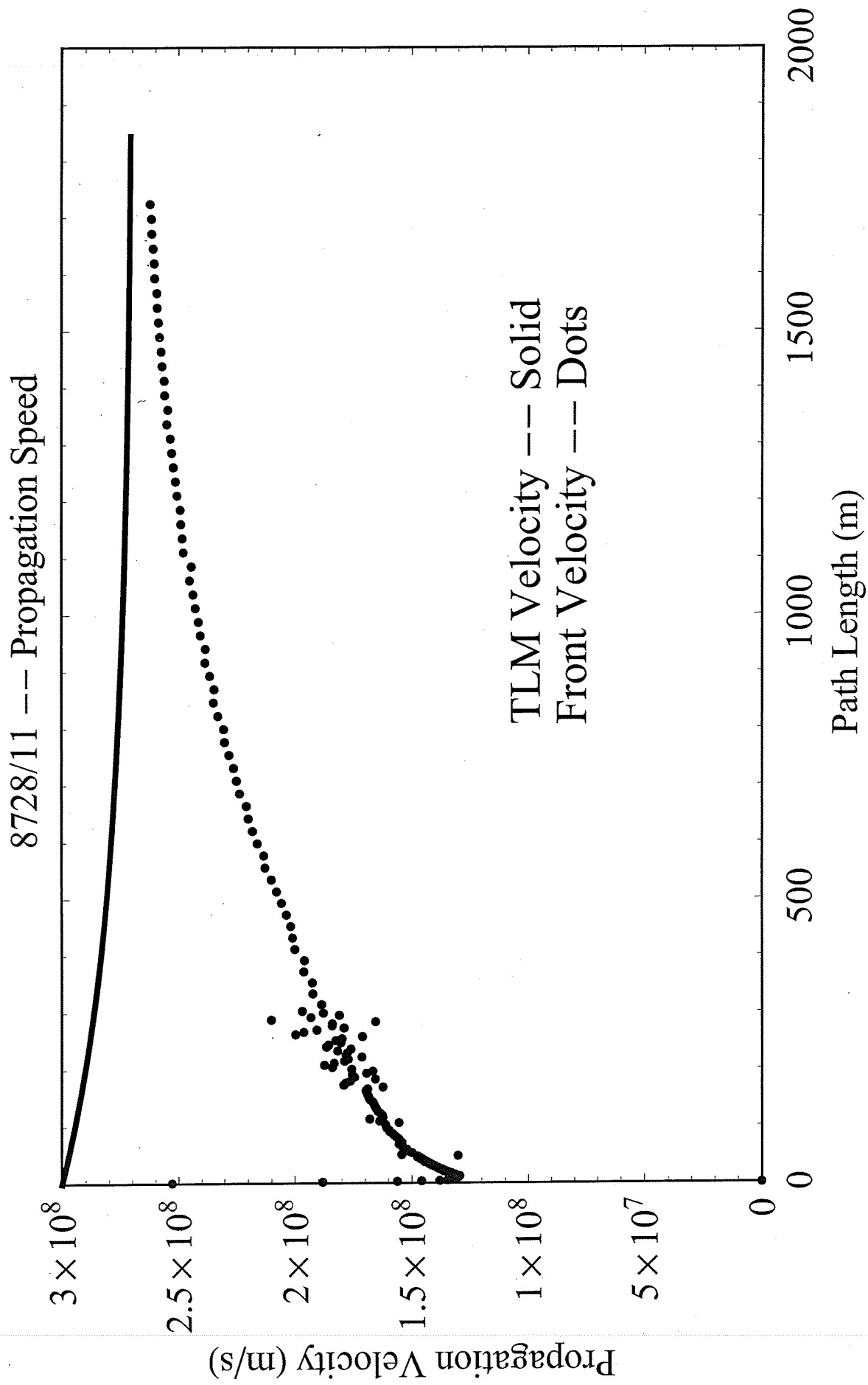


Figure 11

8726/3 --- Amplitude-Scale Adjustment

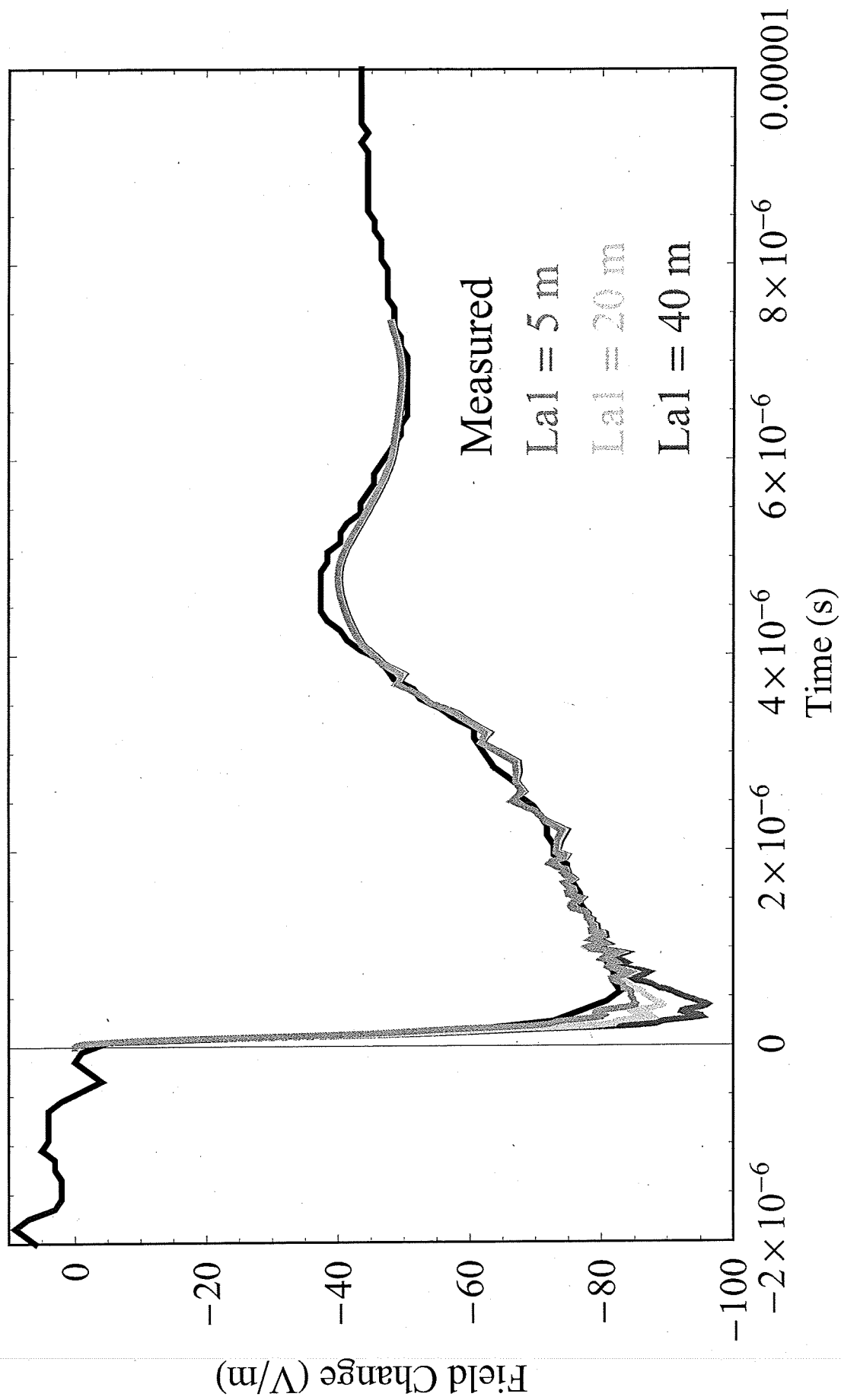


Figure 12

8726/3 --- Amplitude and Charge

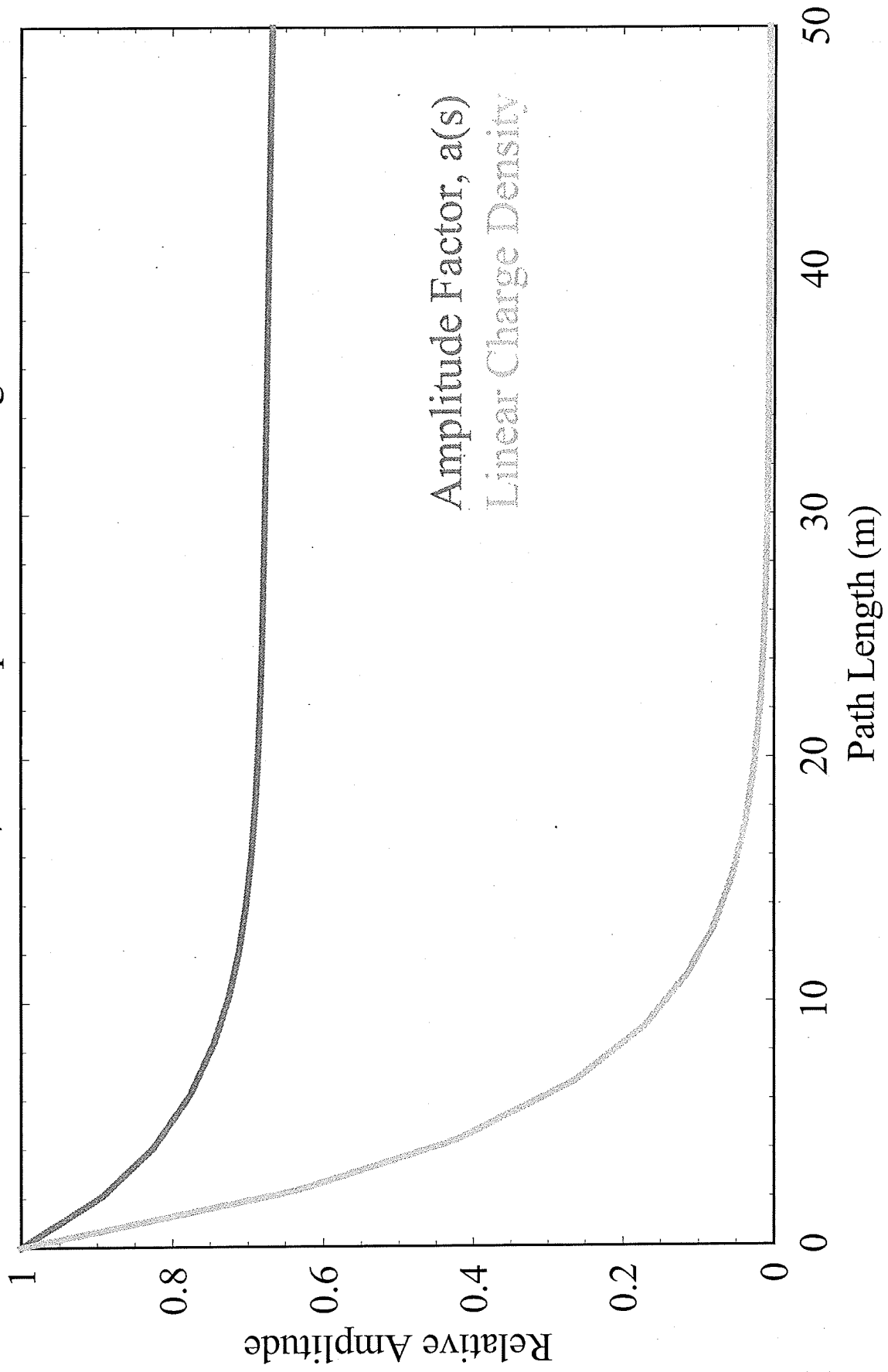


Figure 13

Different Current Extrapolations for 8725/4

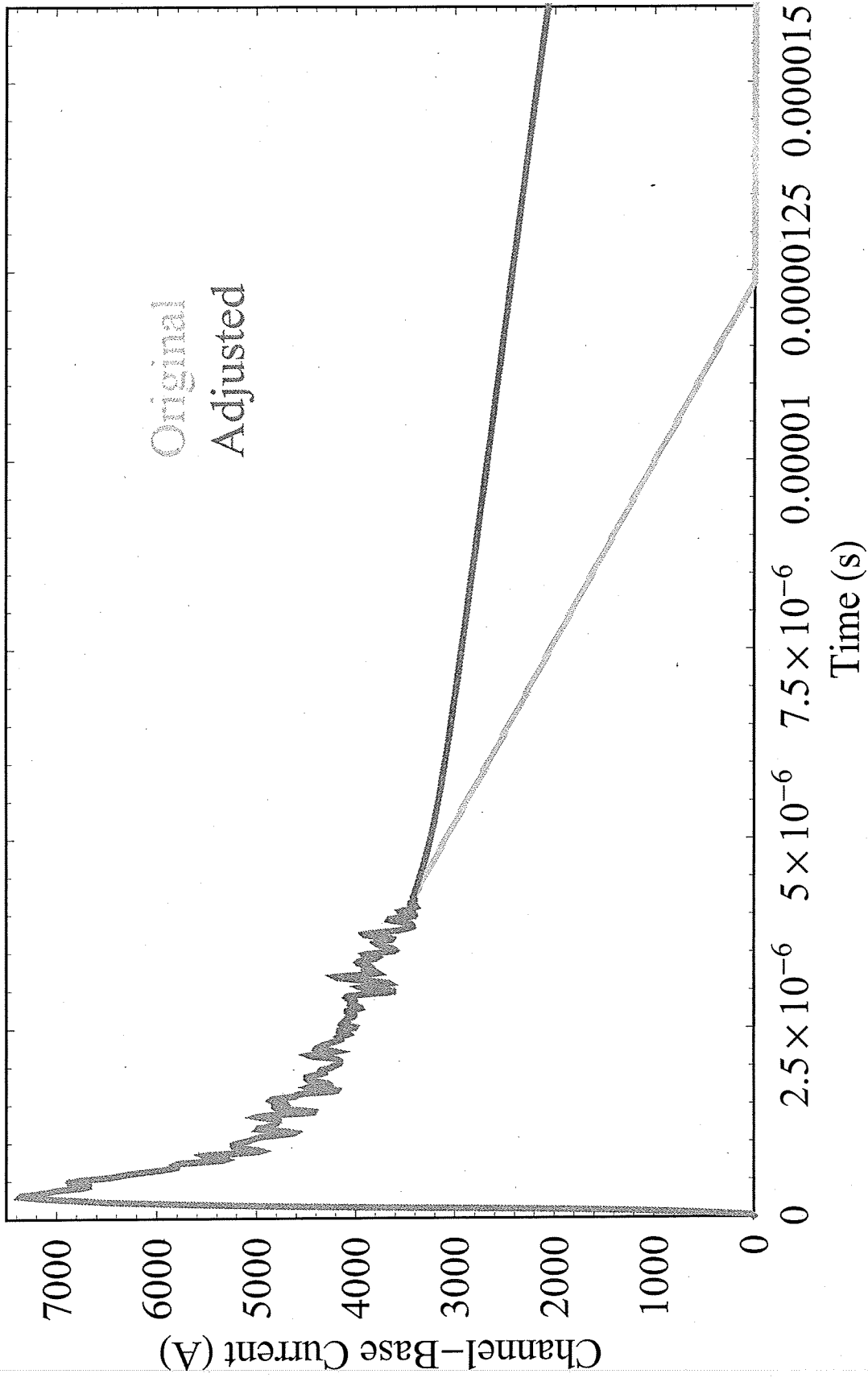
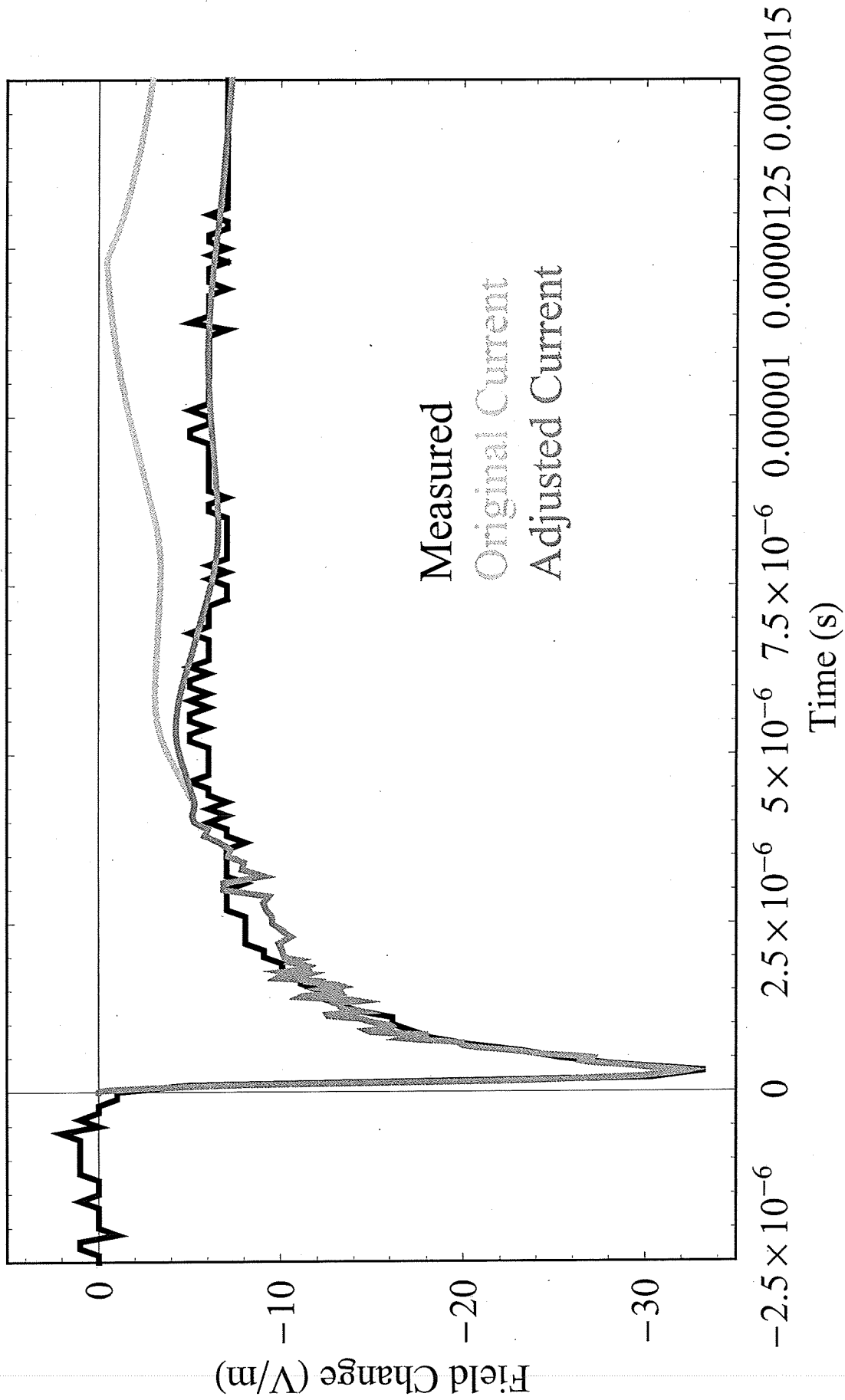


Figure 14

8725/4 -- Current Adjustment



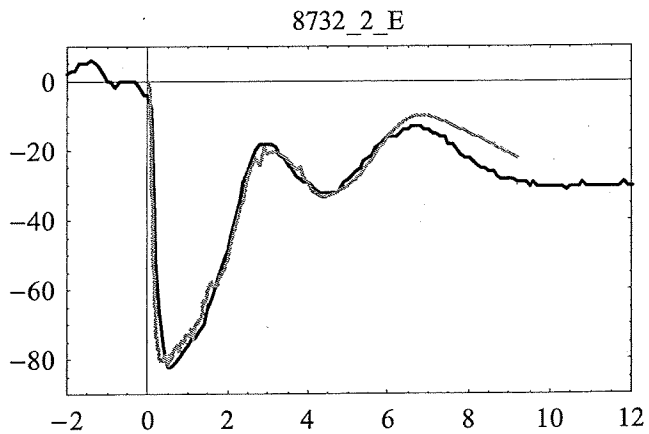
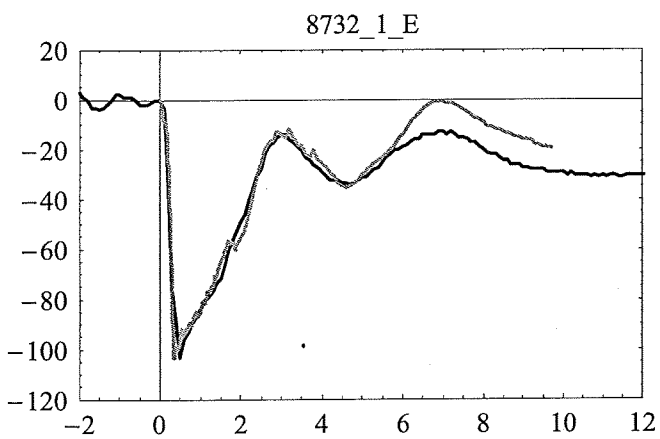
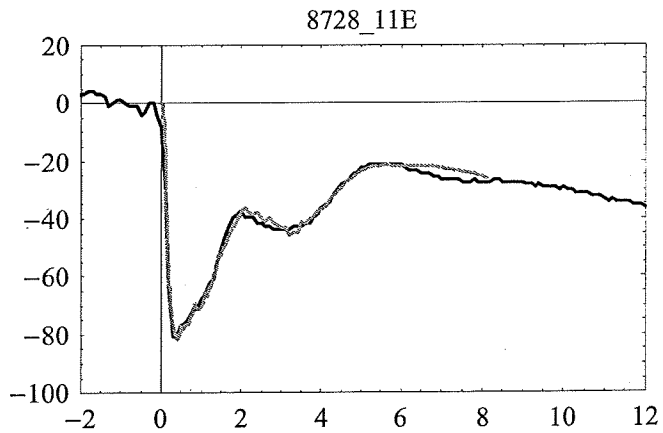
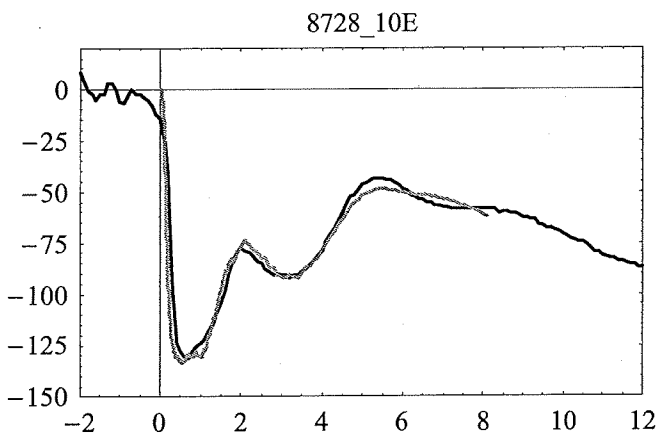
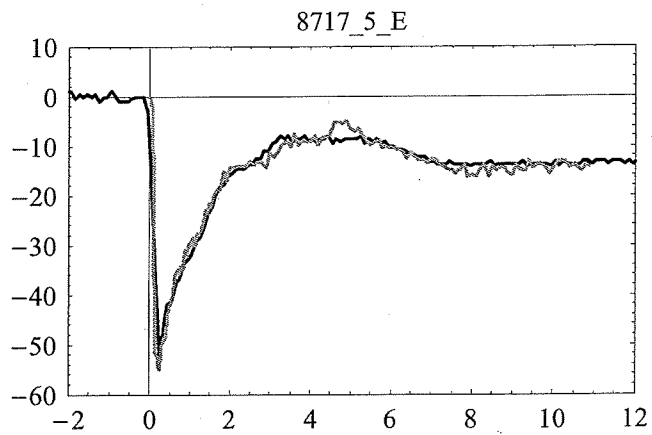
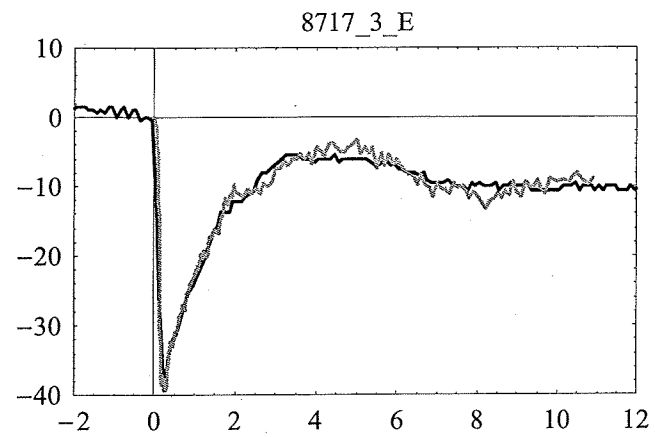


Figure 15a

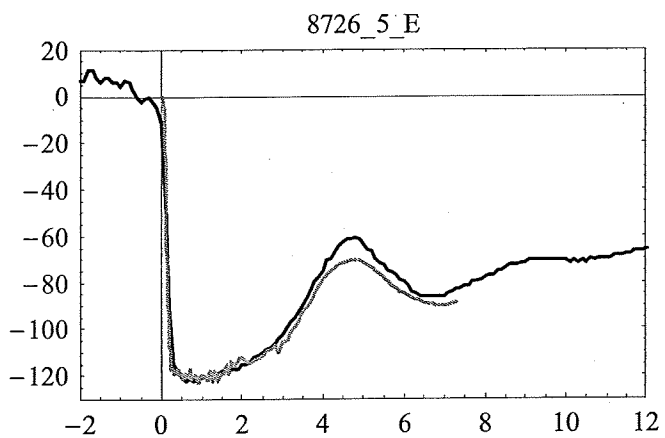
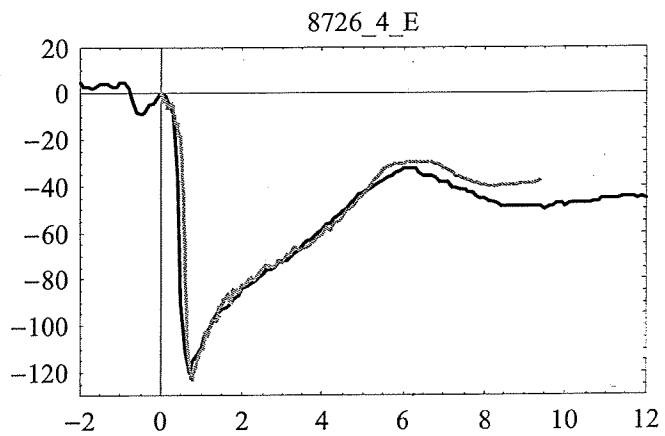
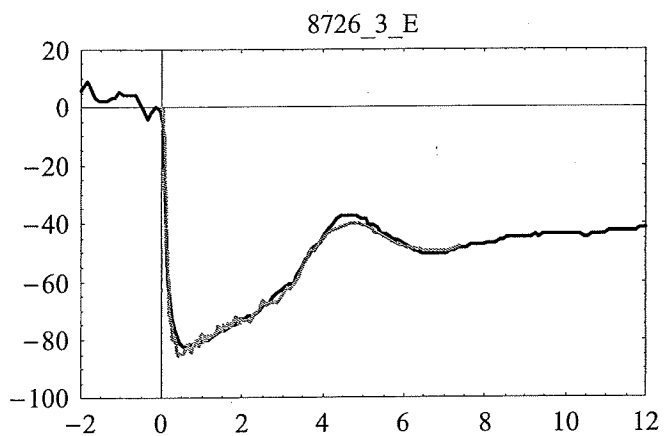
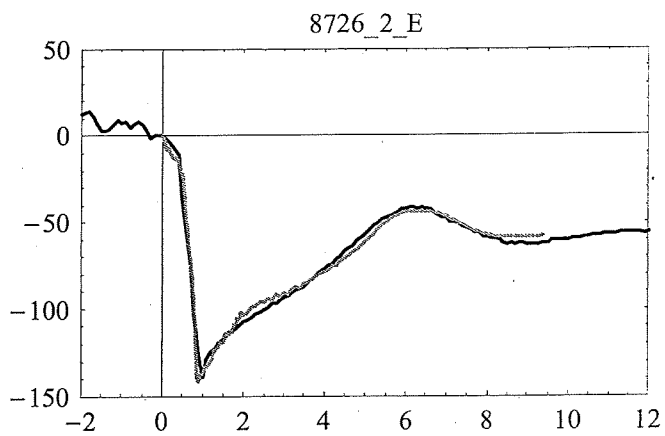
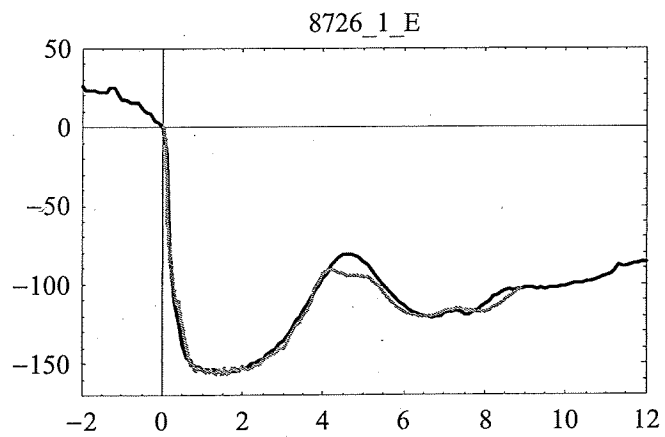


Figure 15b

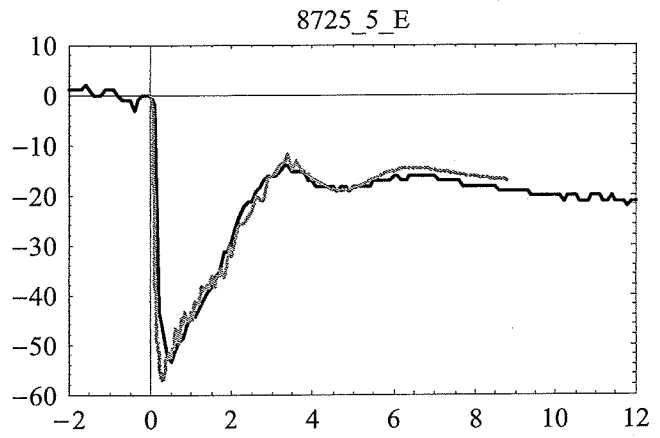
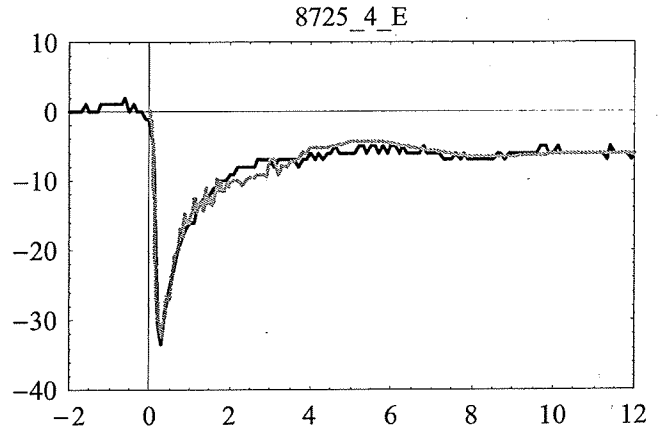
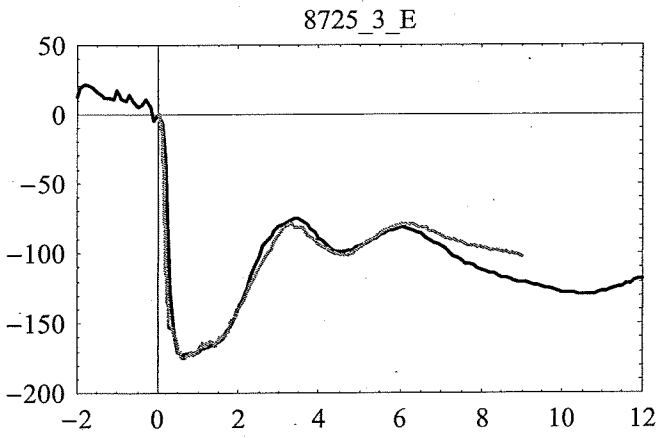
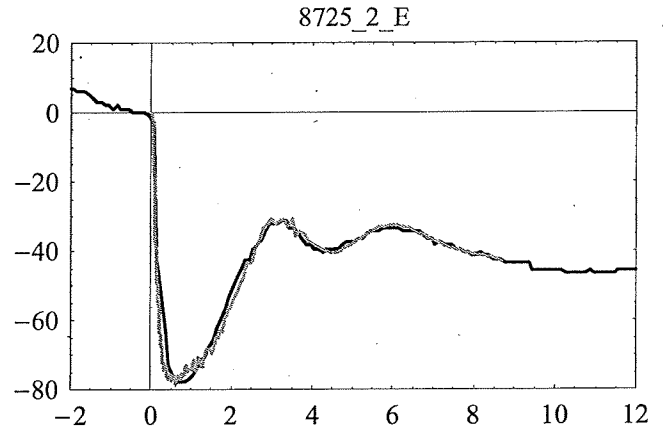
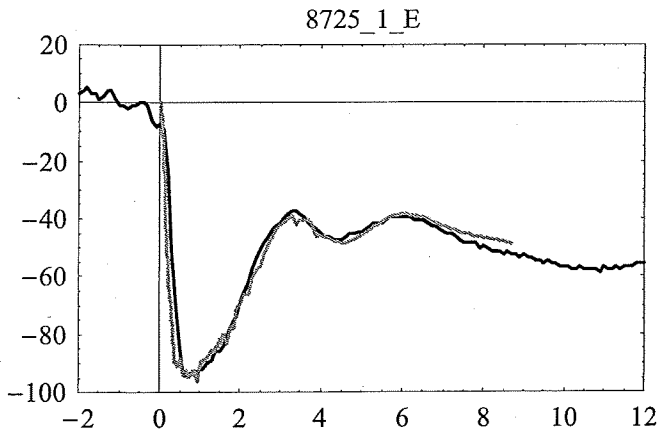


Figure 15c

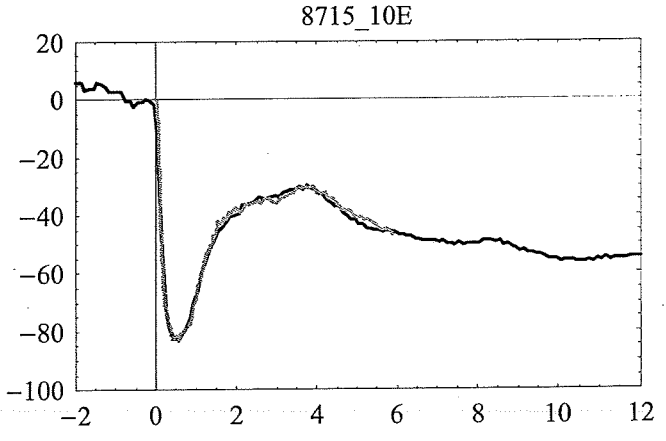
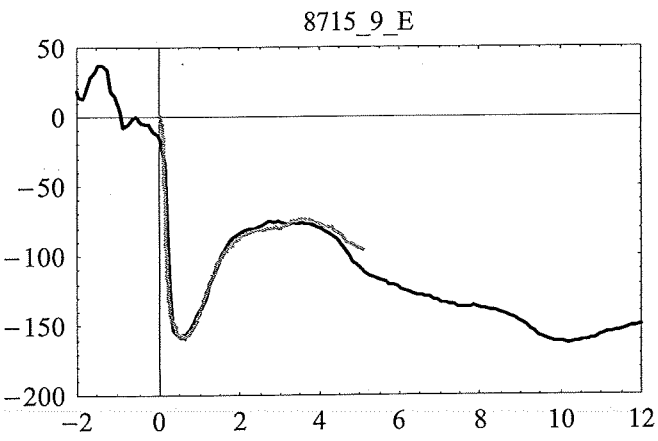
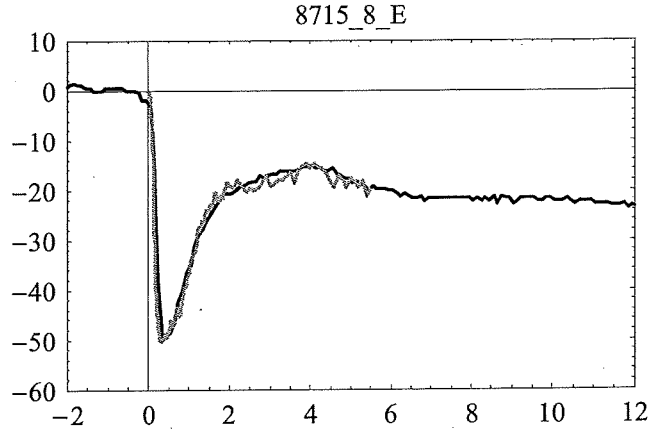
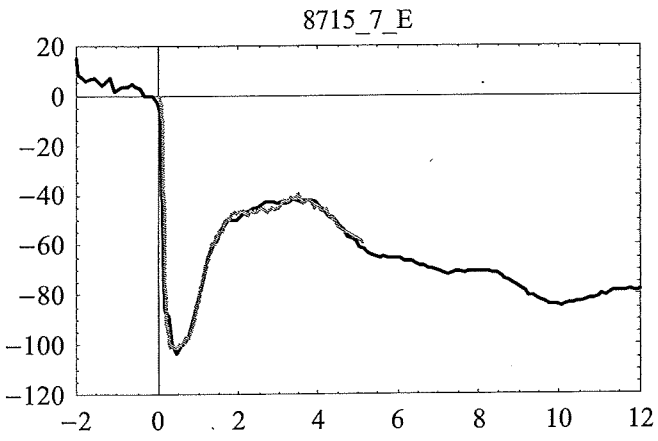
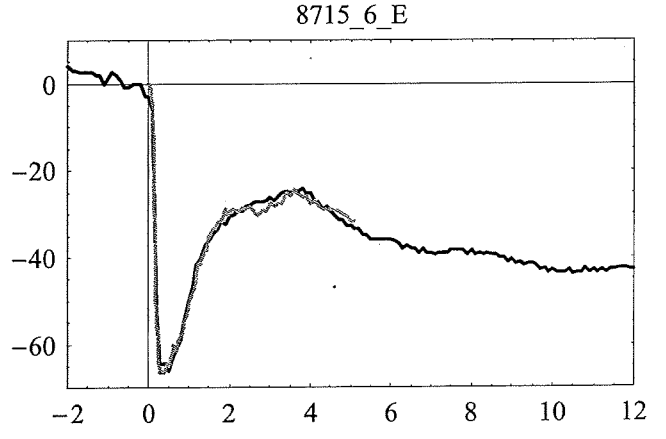
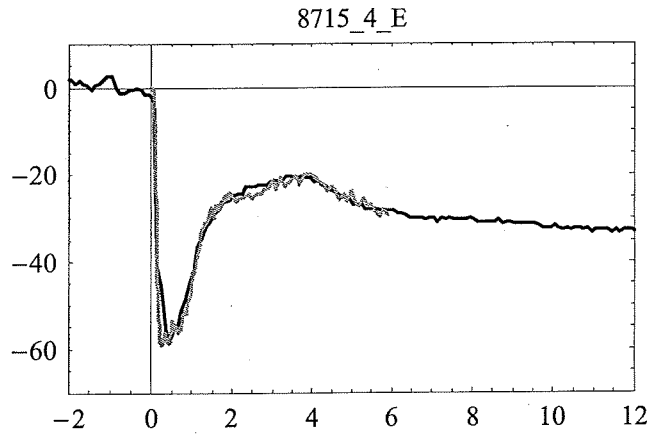
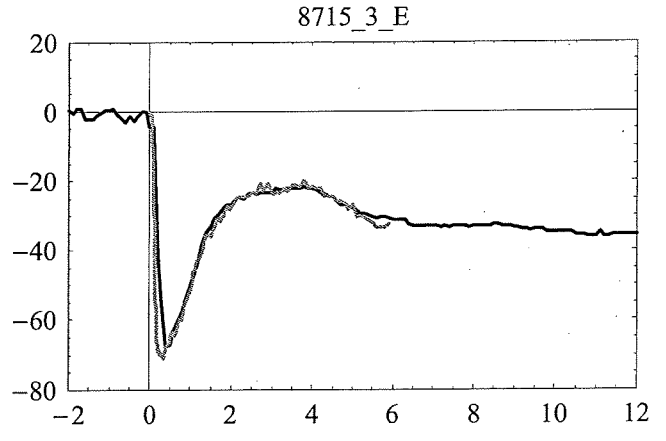
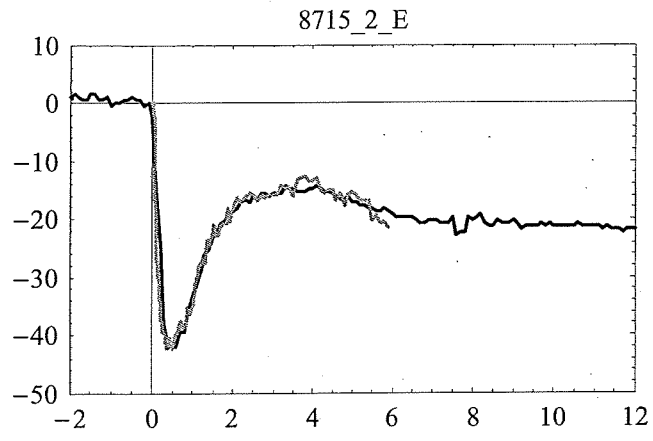


Figure 15d

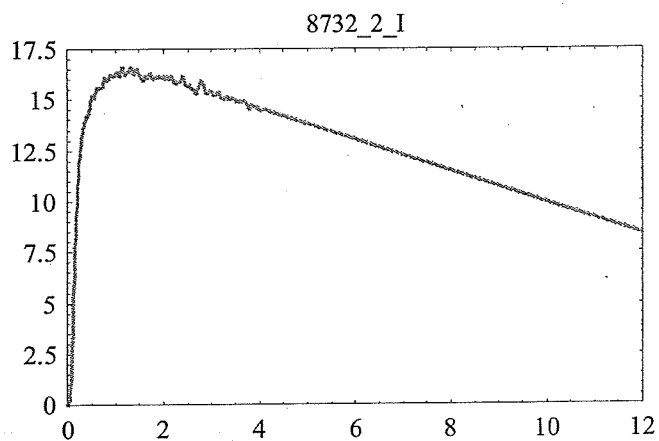
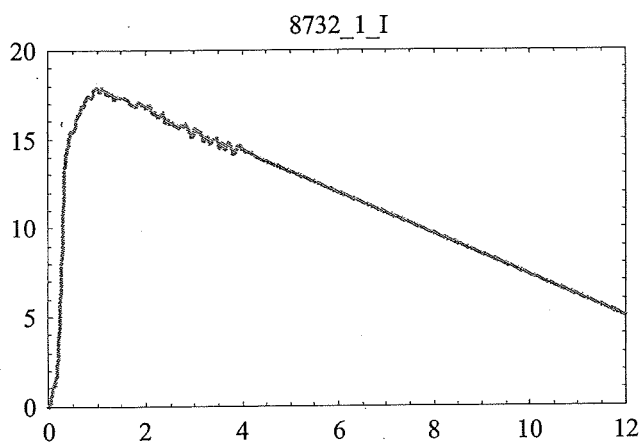
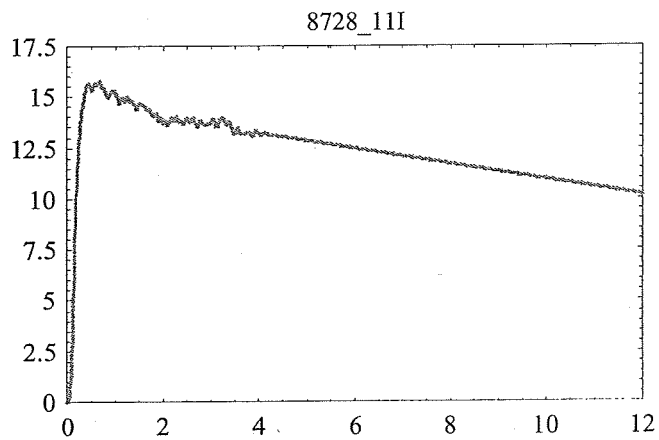
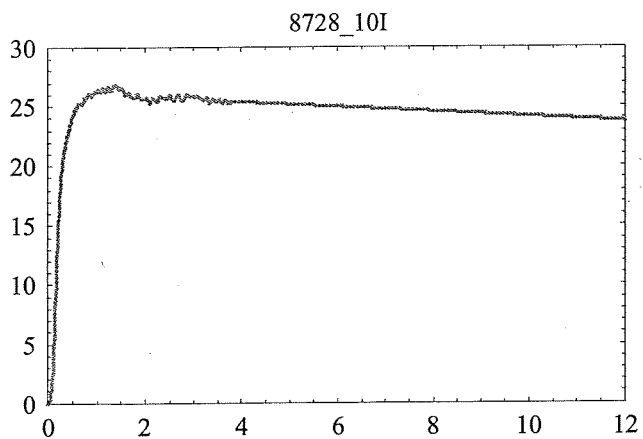
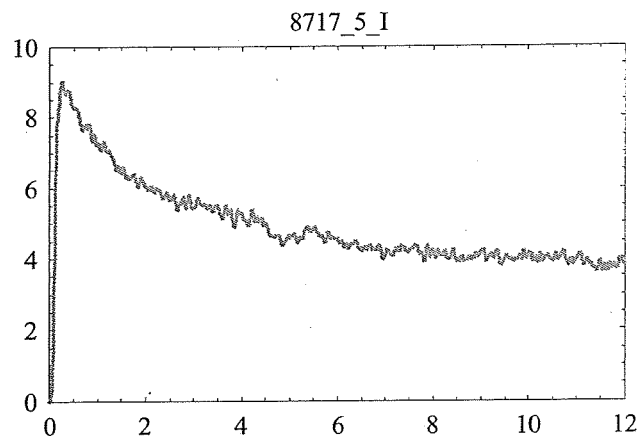
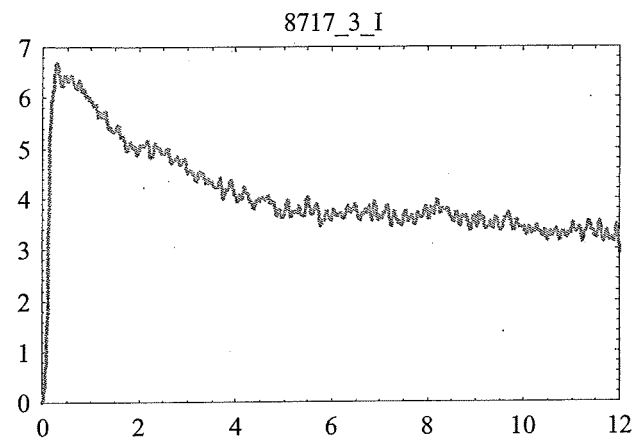


Figure 16a

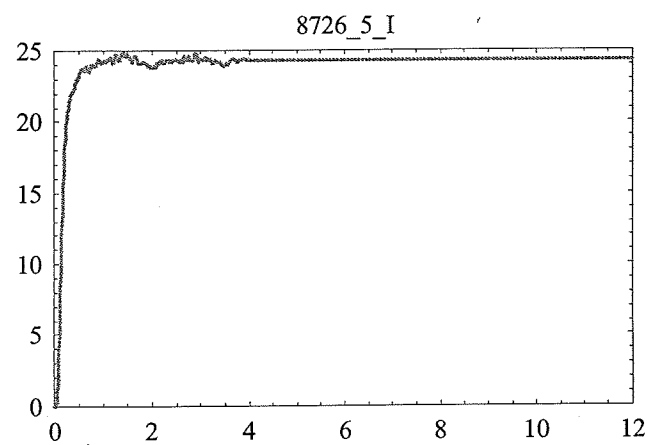
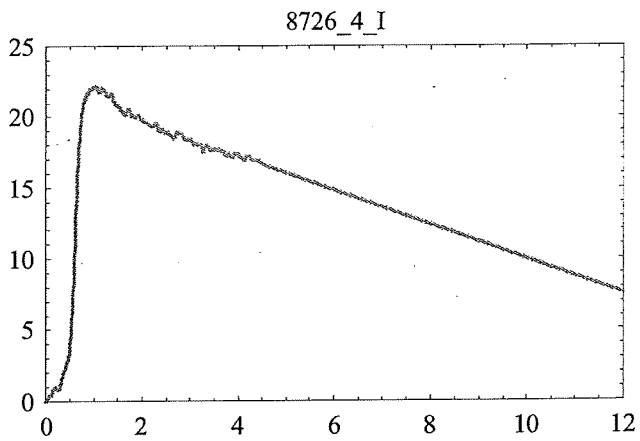
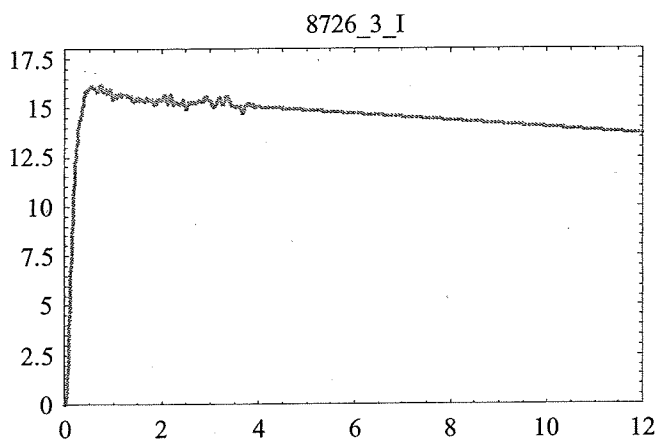
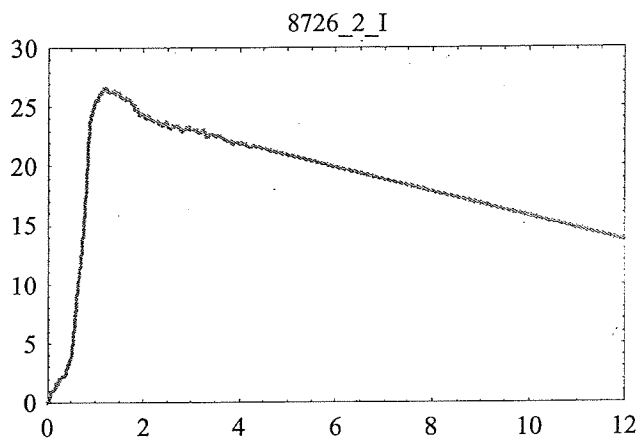
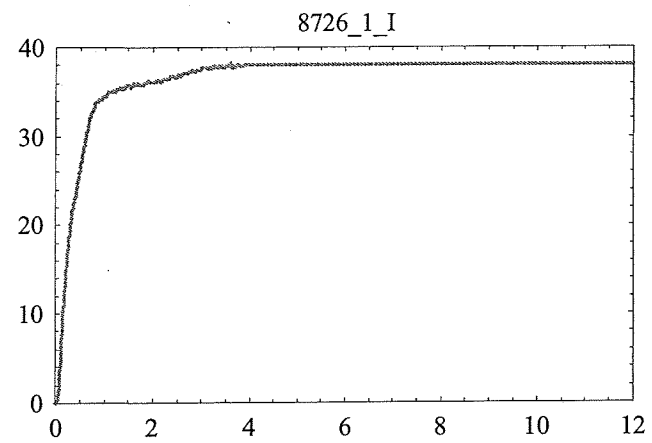


Figure 16b

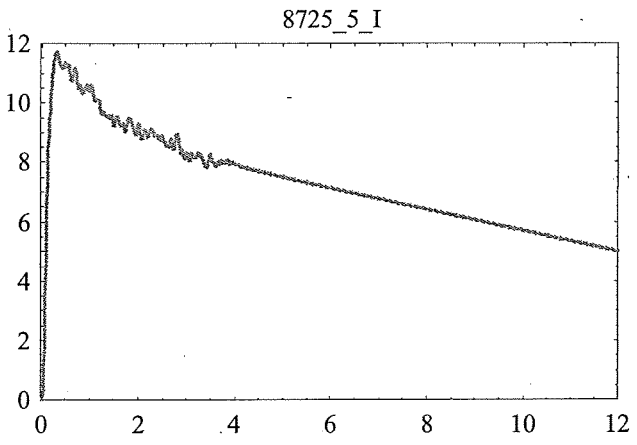
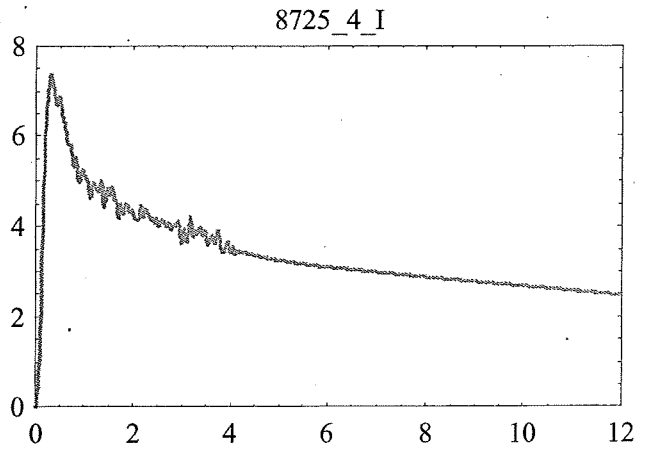
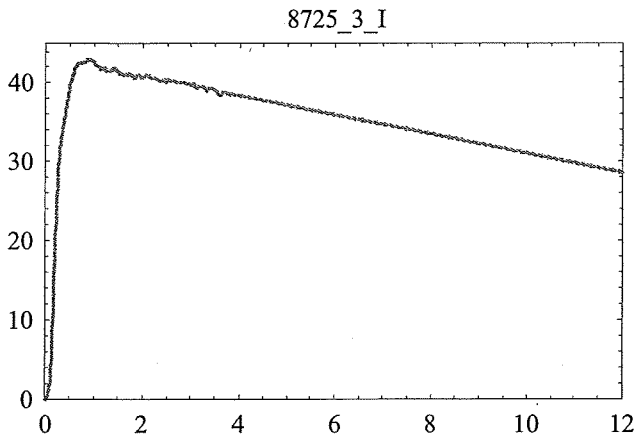
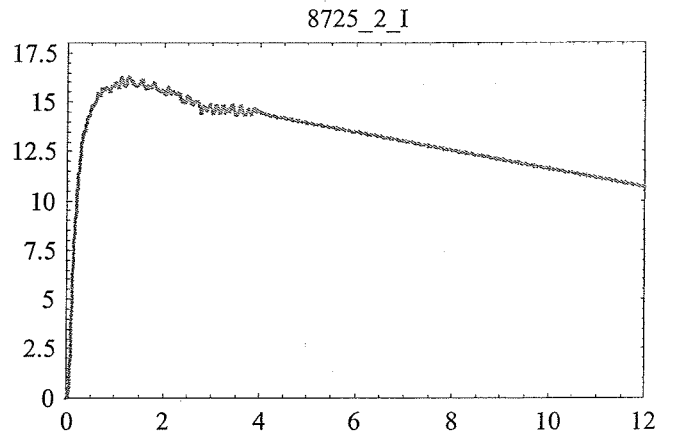
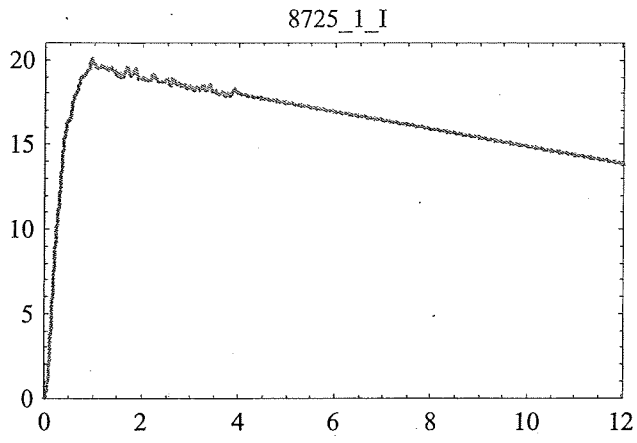


Figure 16c

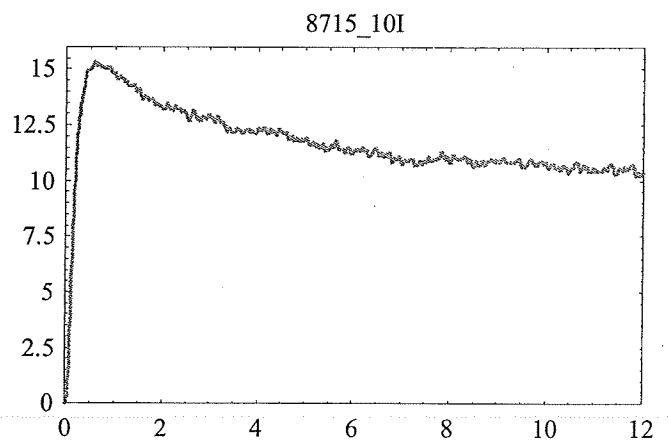
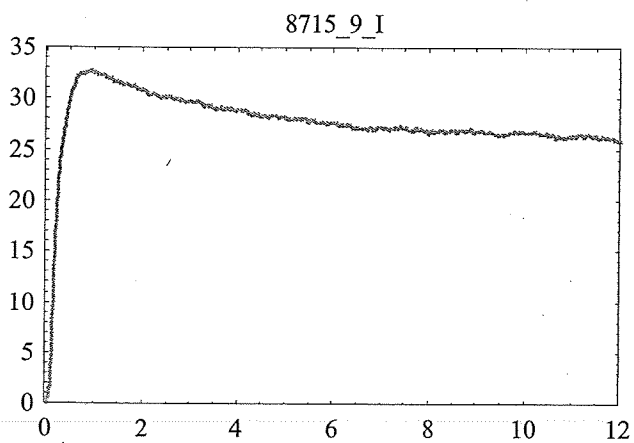
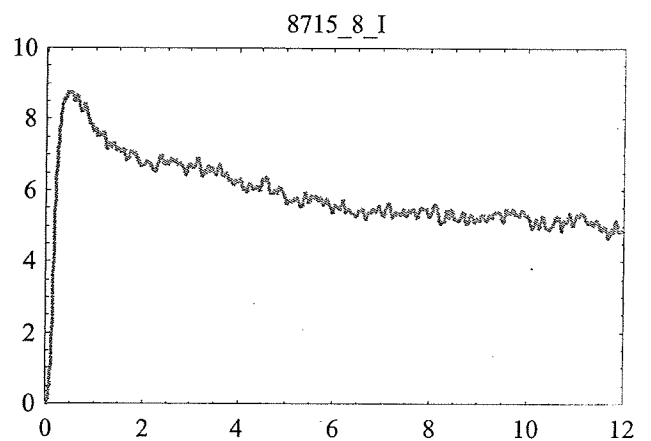
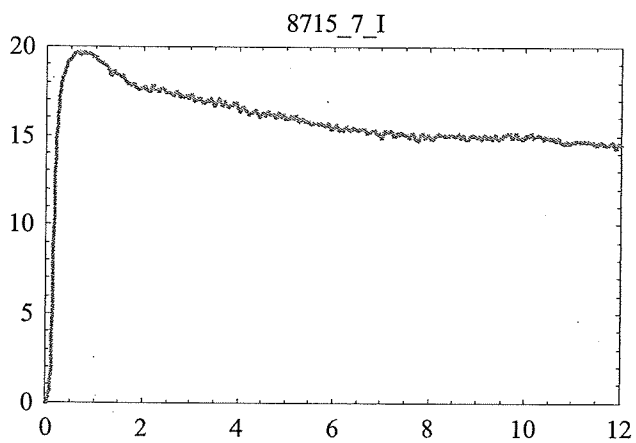
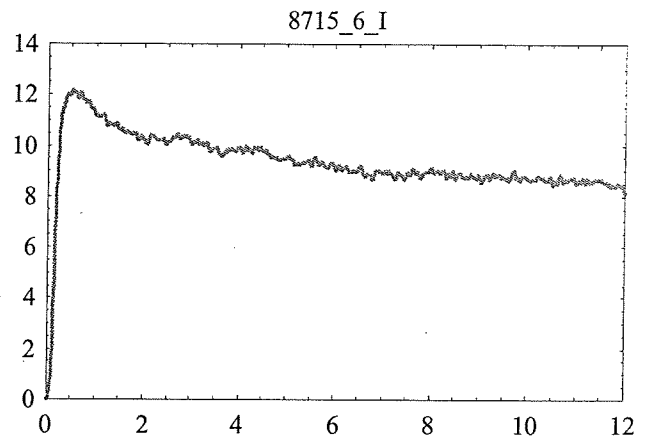
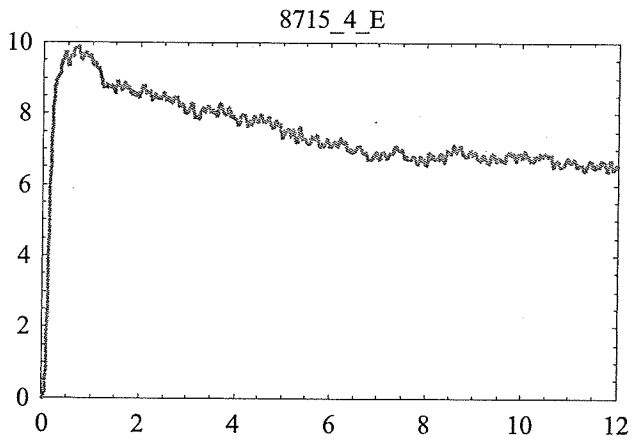
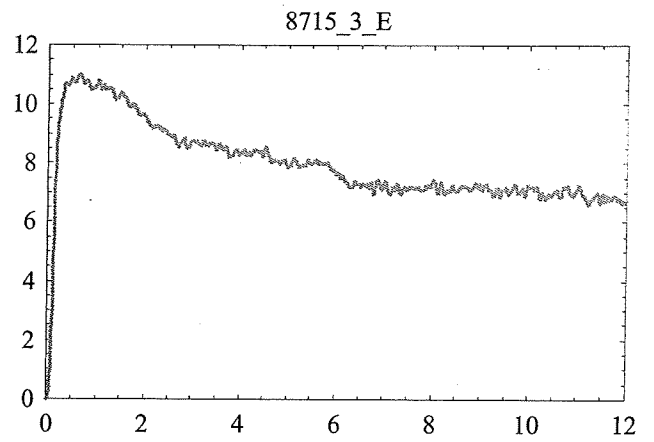
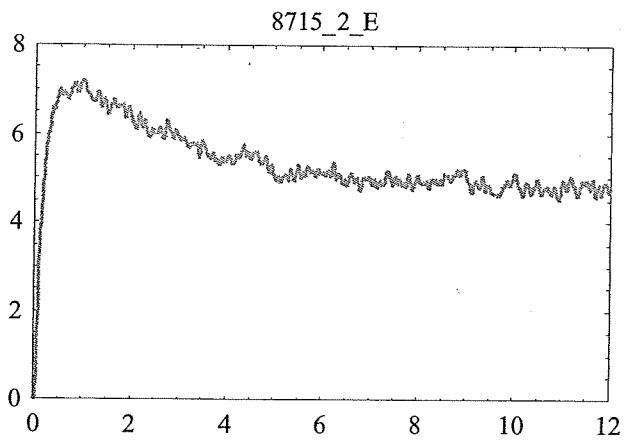


Figure 16d

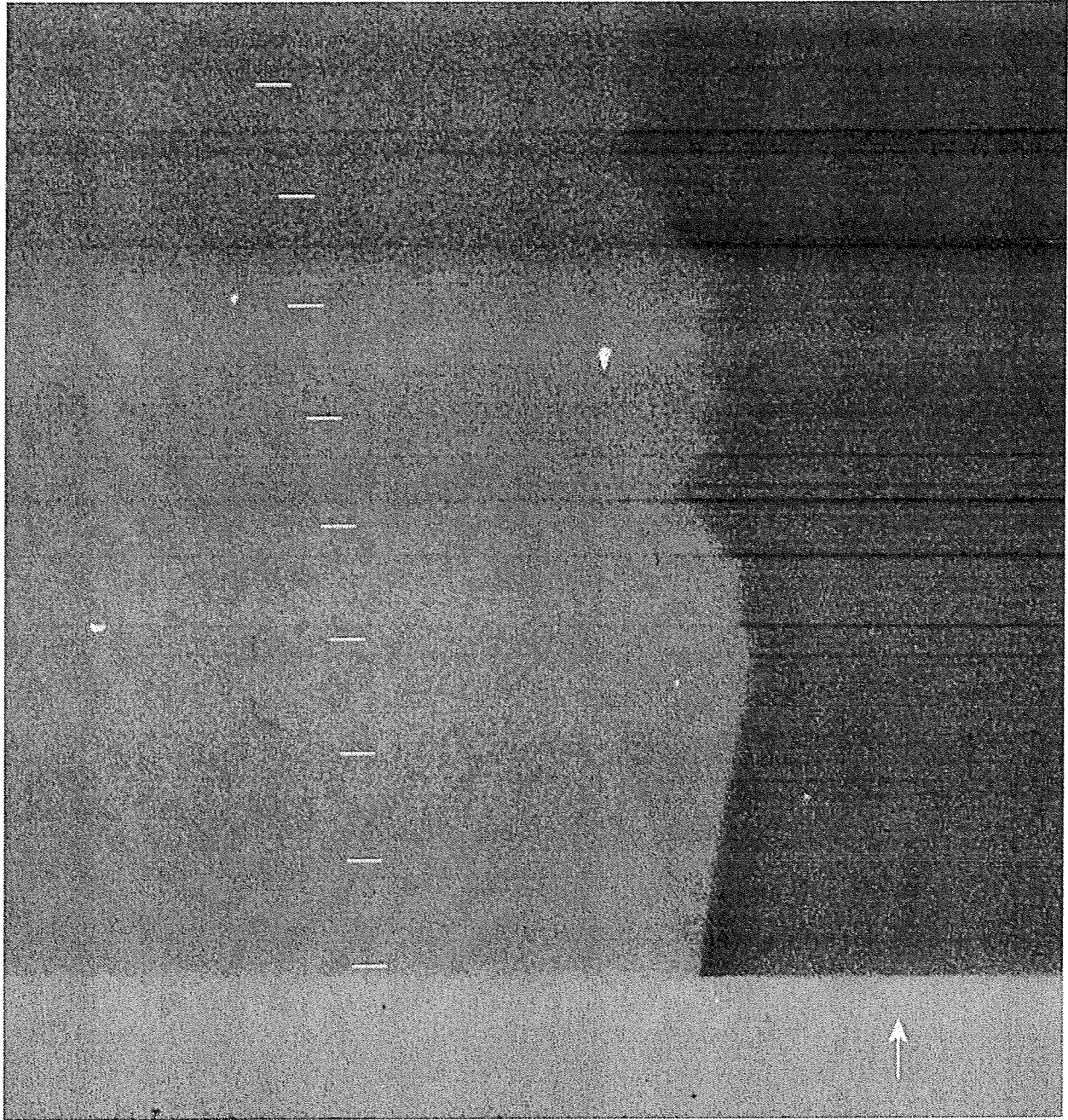
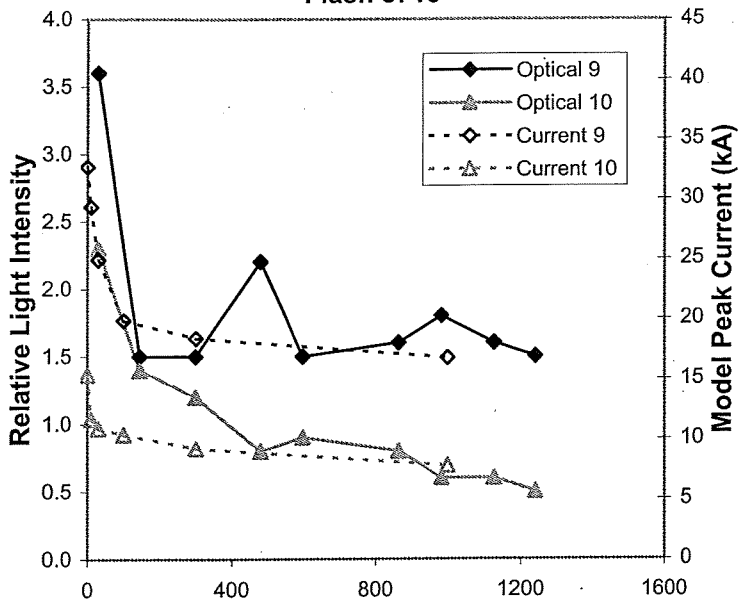


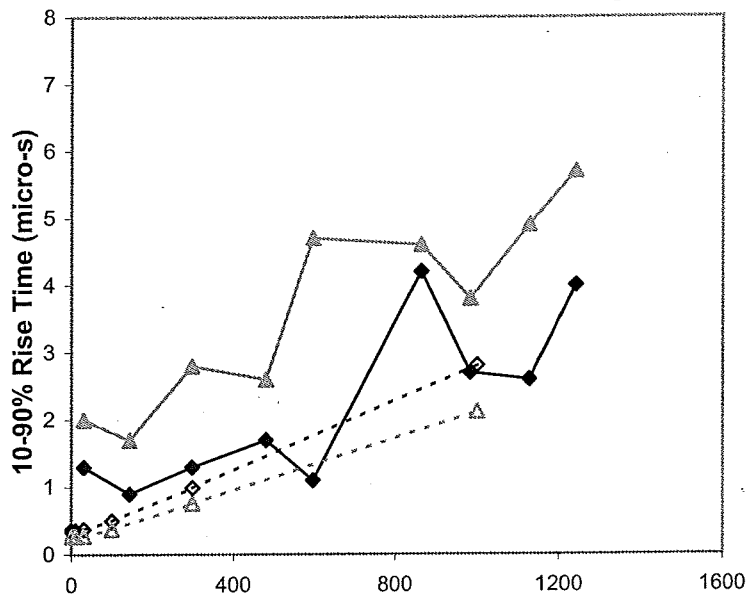
Figure 17

Flash 8715

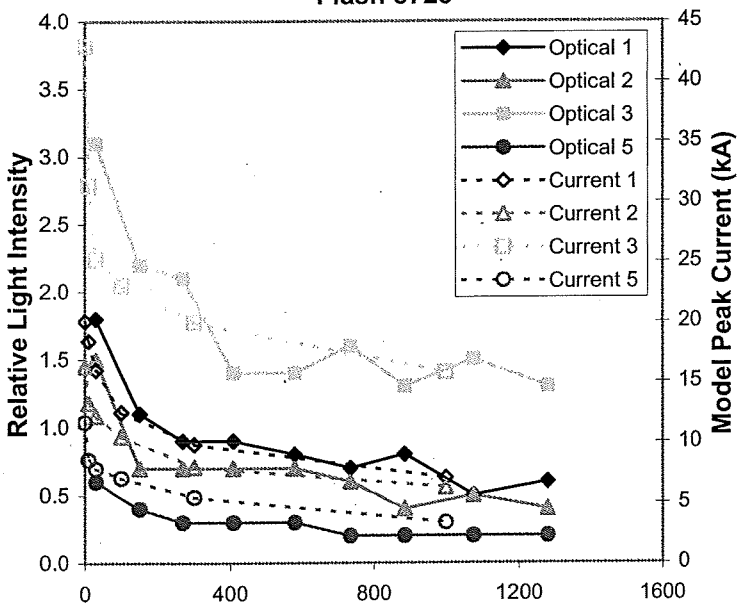


Flash 8715

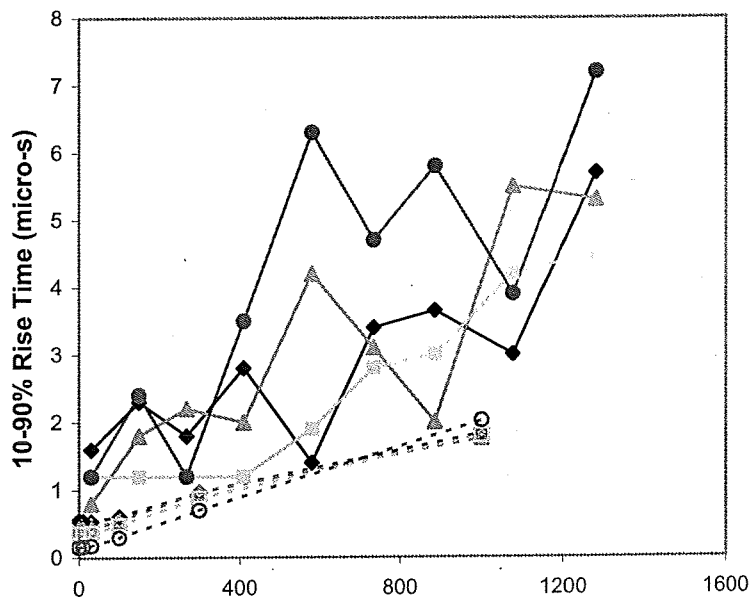
Figure 18a



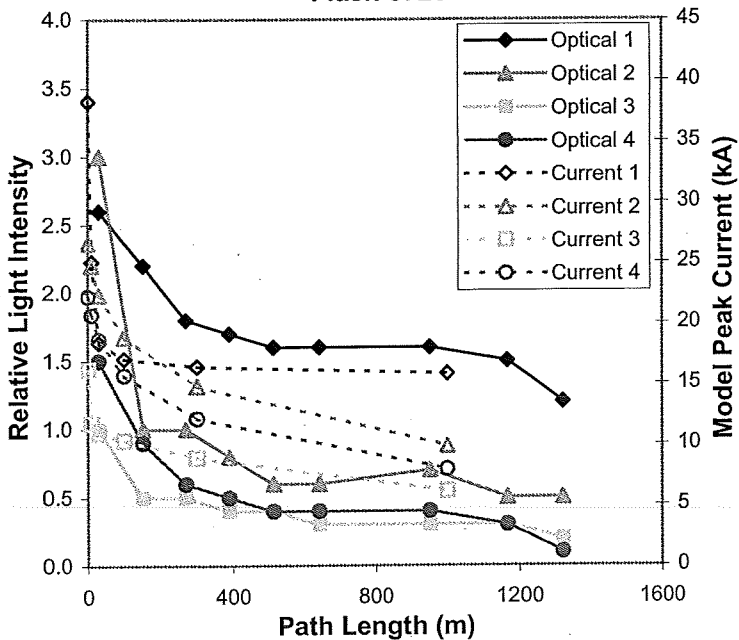
Flash 8725



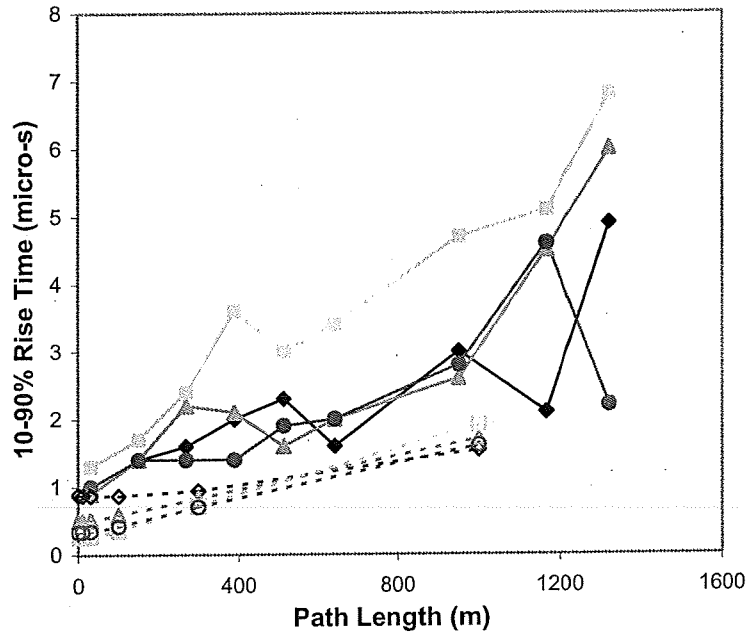
Flash 8725



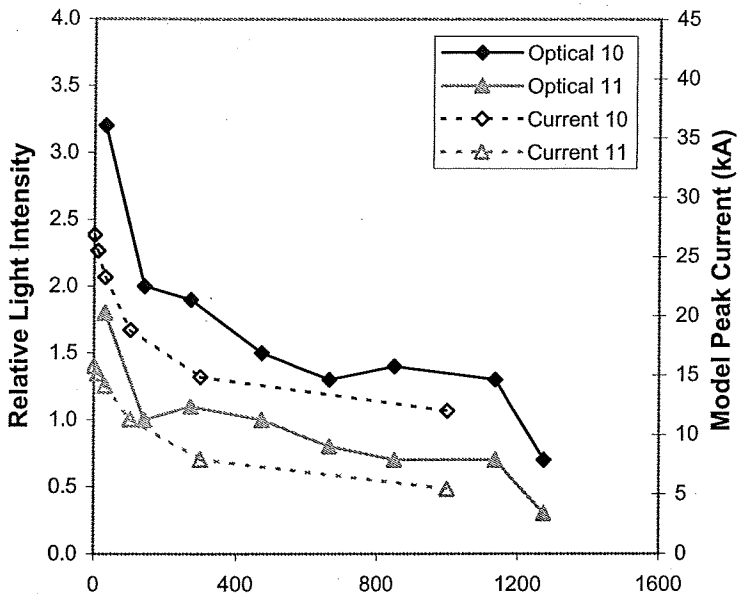
Flash 8726



Flash 8726

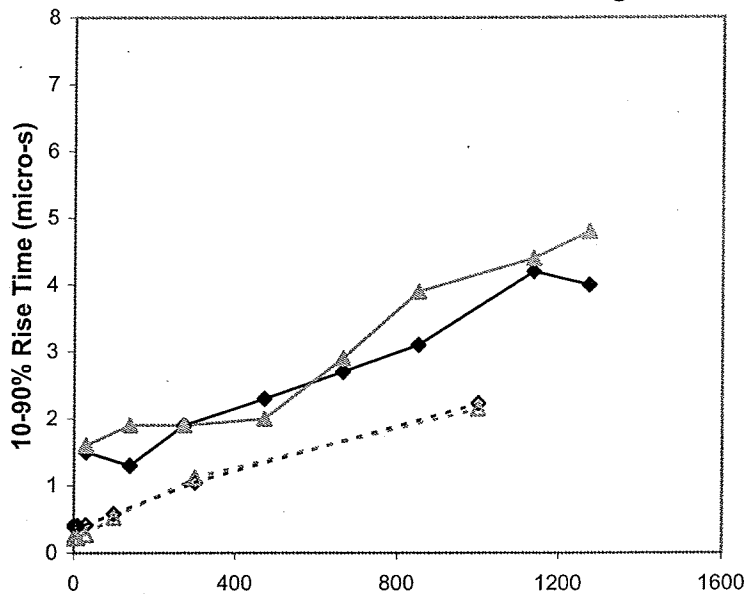


Flash 8728

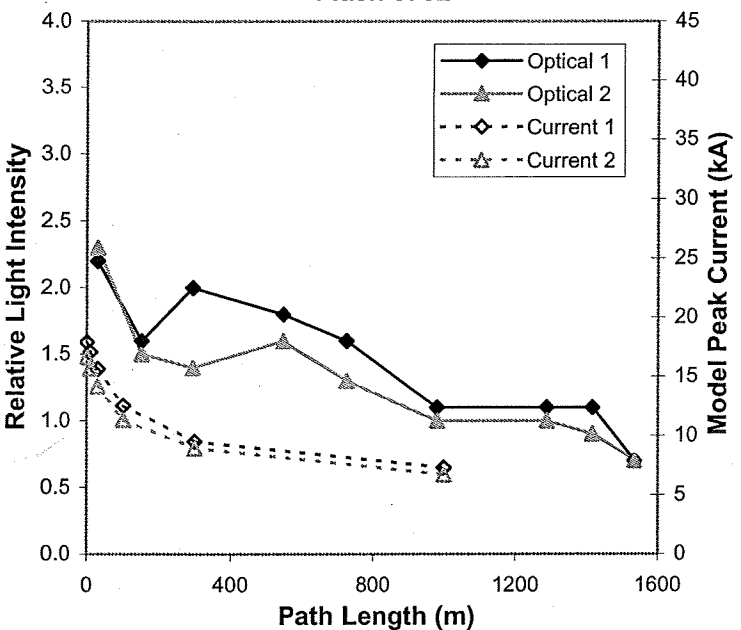


Flash 8728

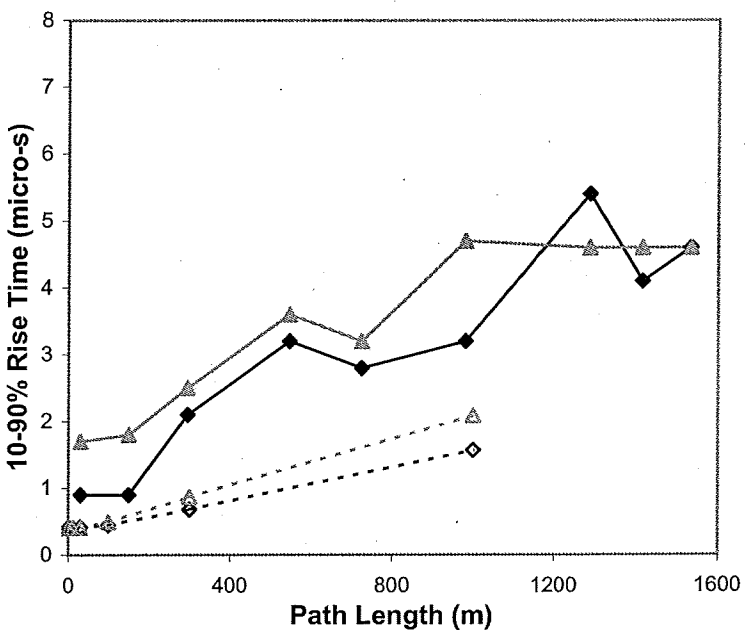
Figure 18b



Flash 8732



Flash 8732



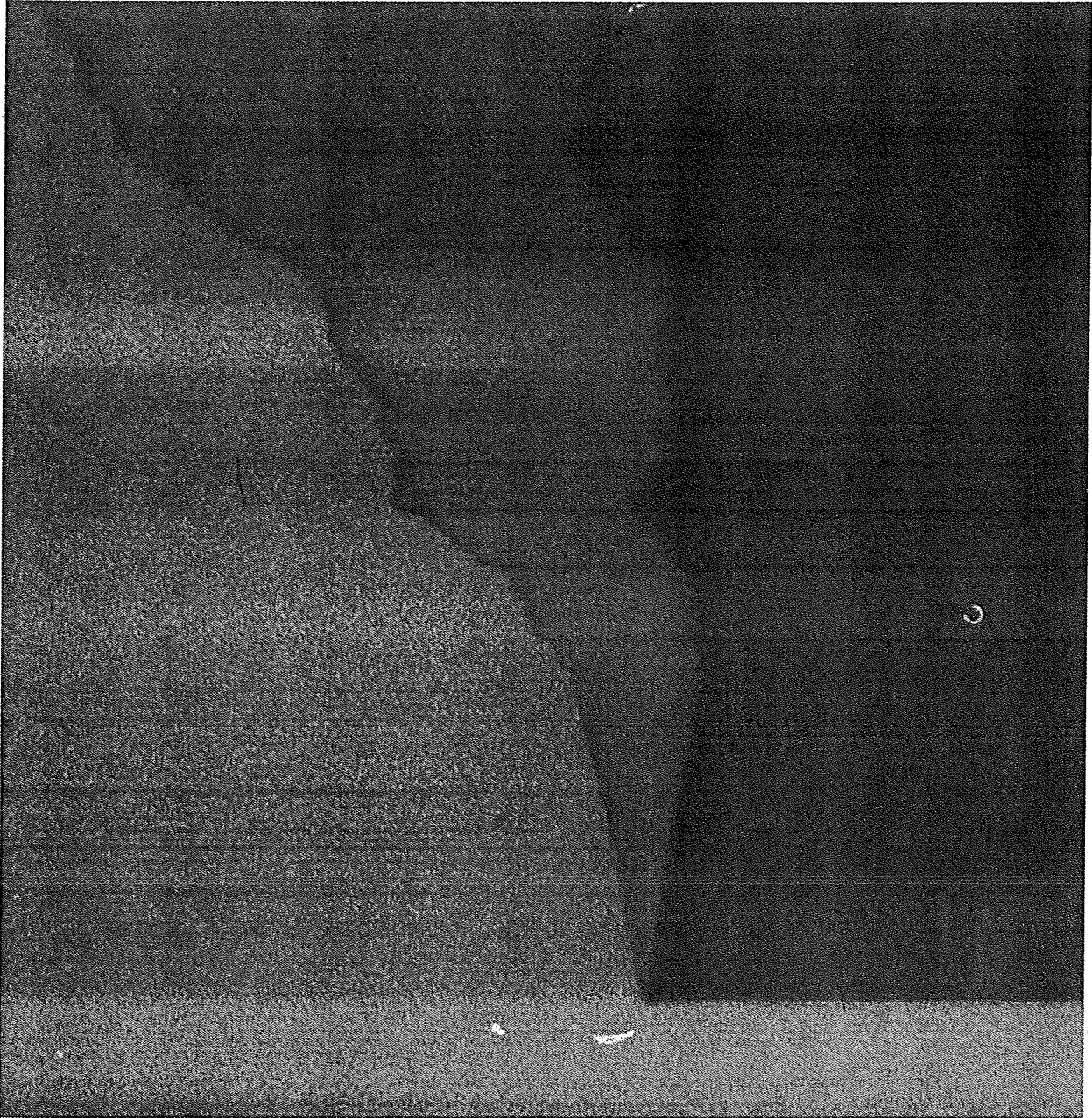
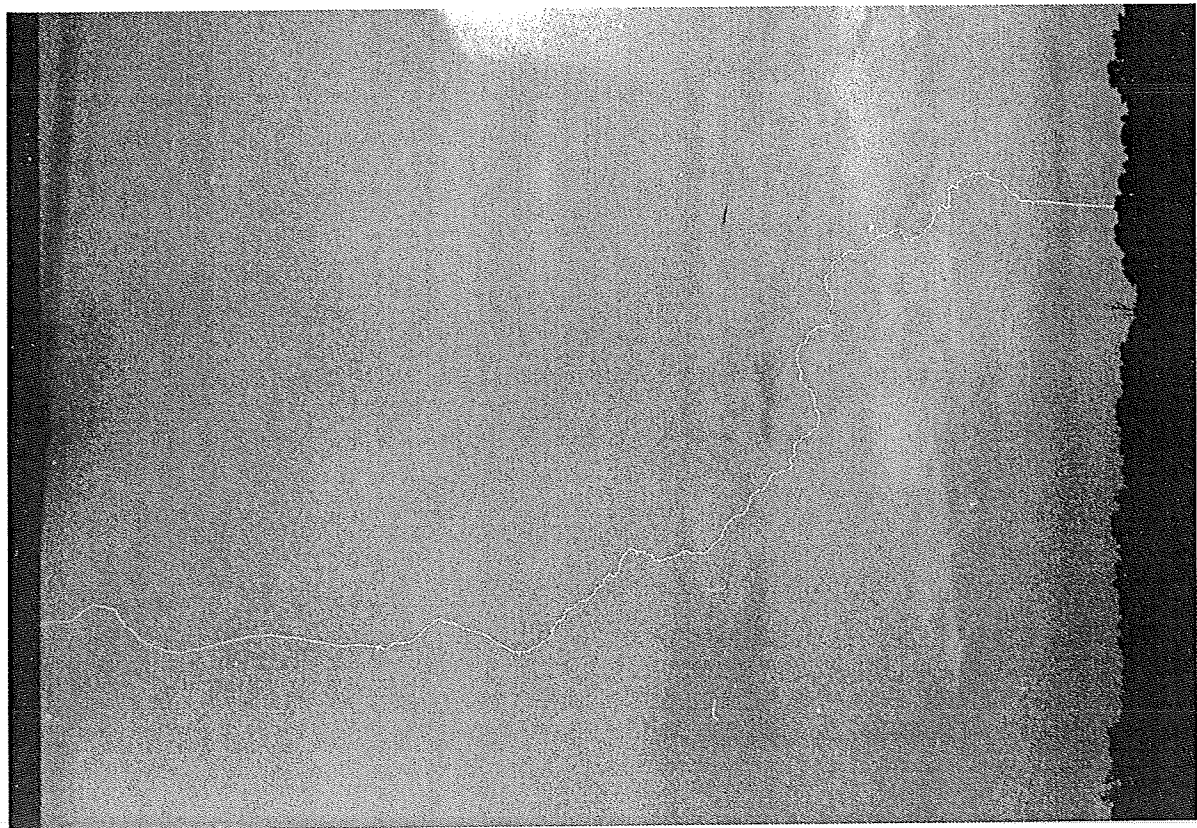
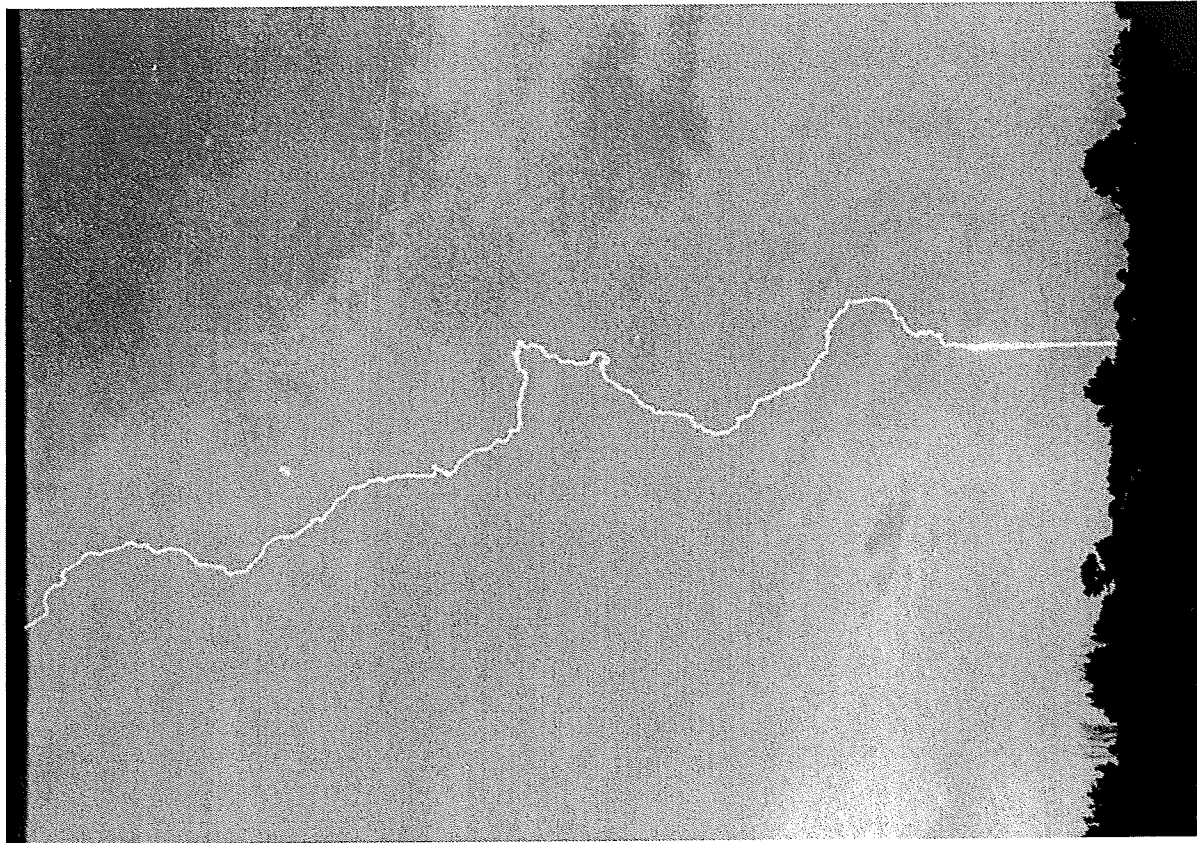


Figure 19



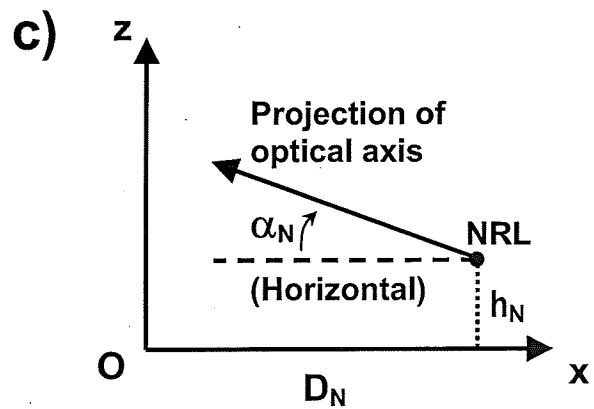
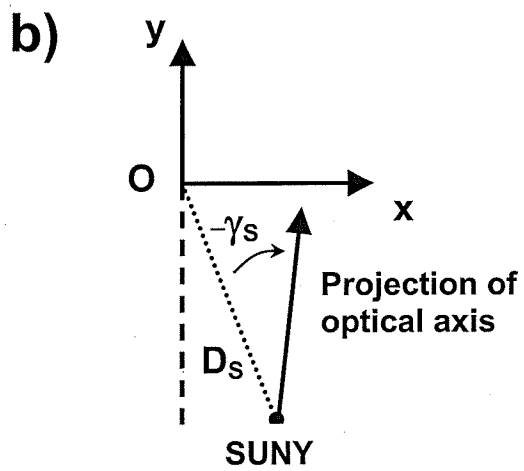
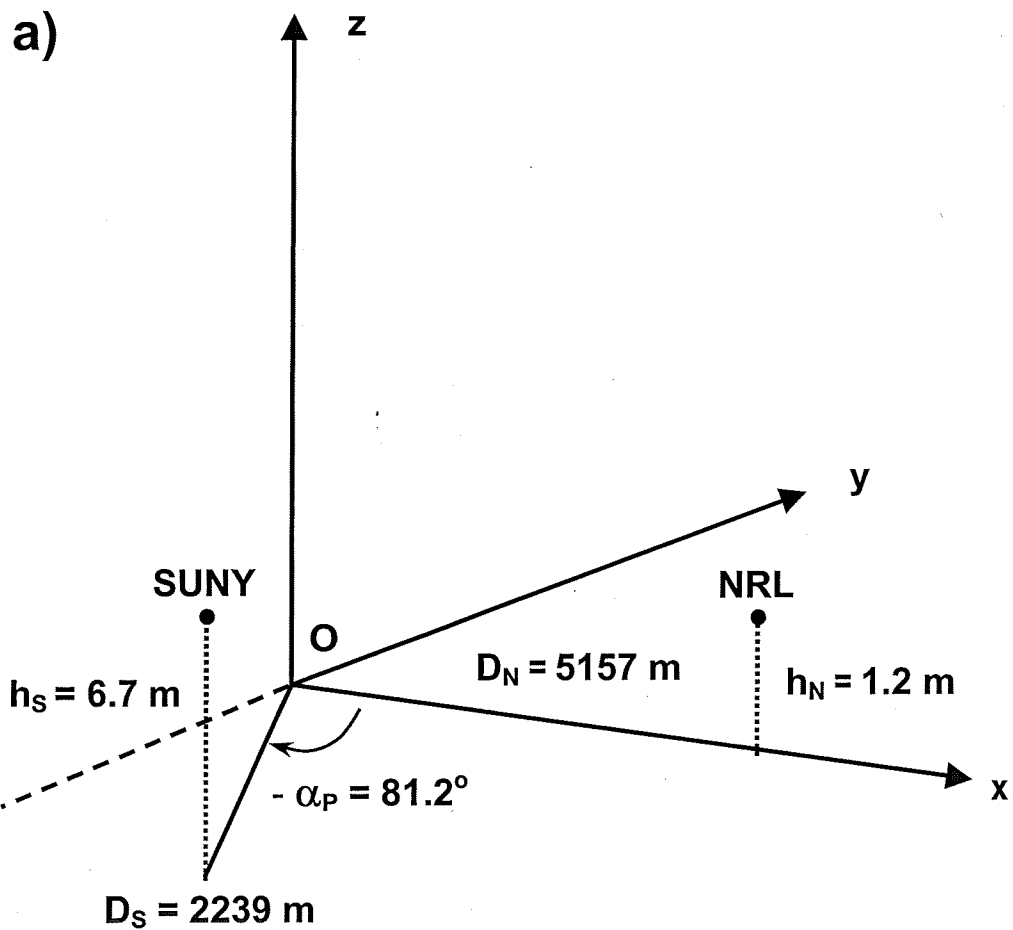


Figure A2

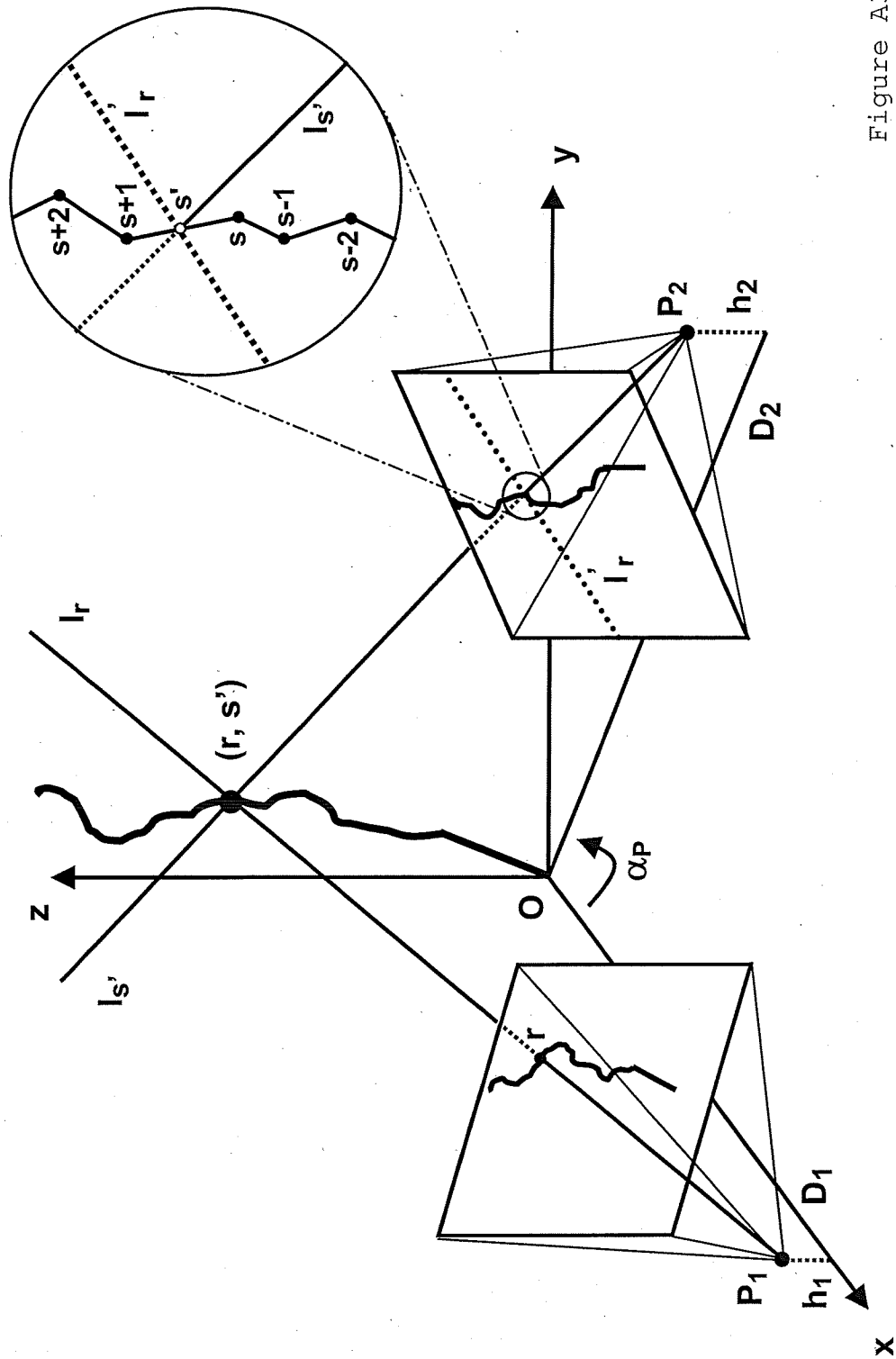


Figure A3

Figure A4a

8732 NRL Absolute Image Angles

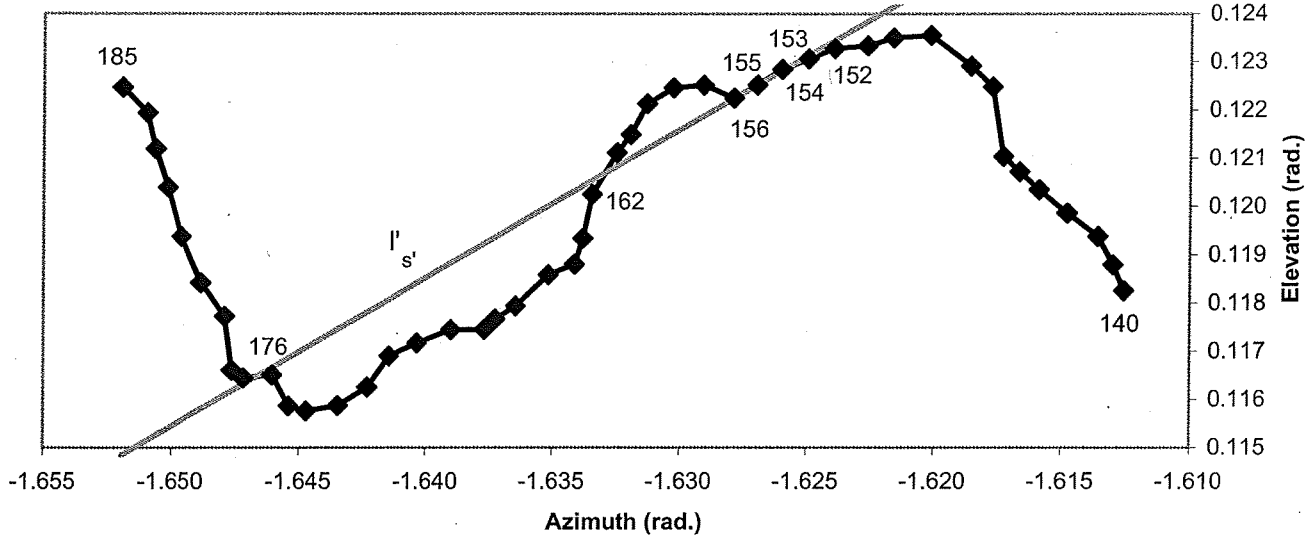


Figure A4b

8732 SUNY Absolute Image Angles

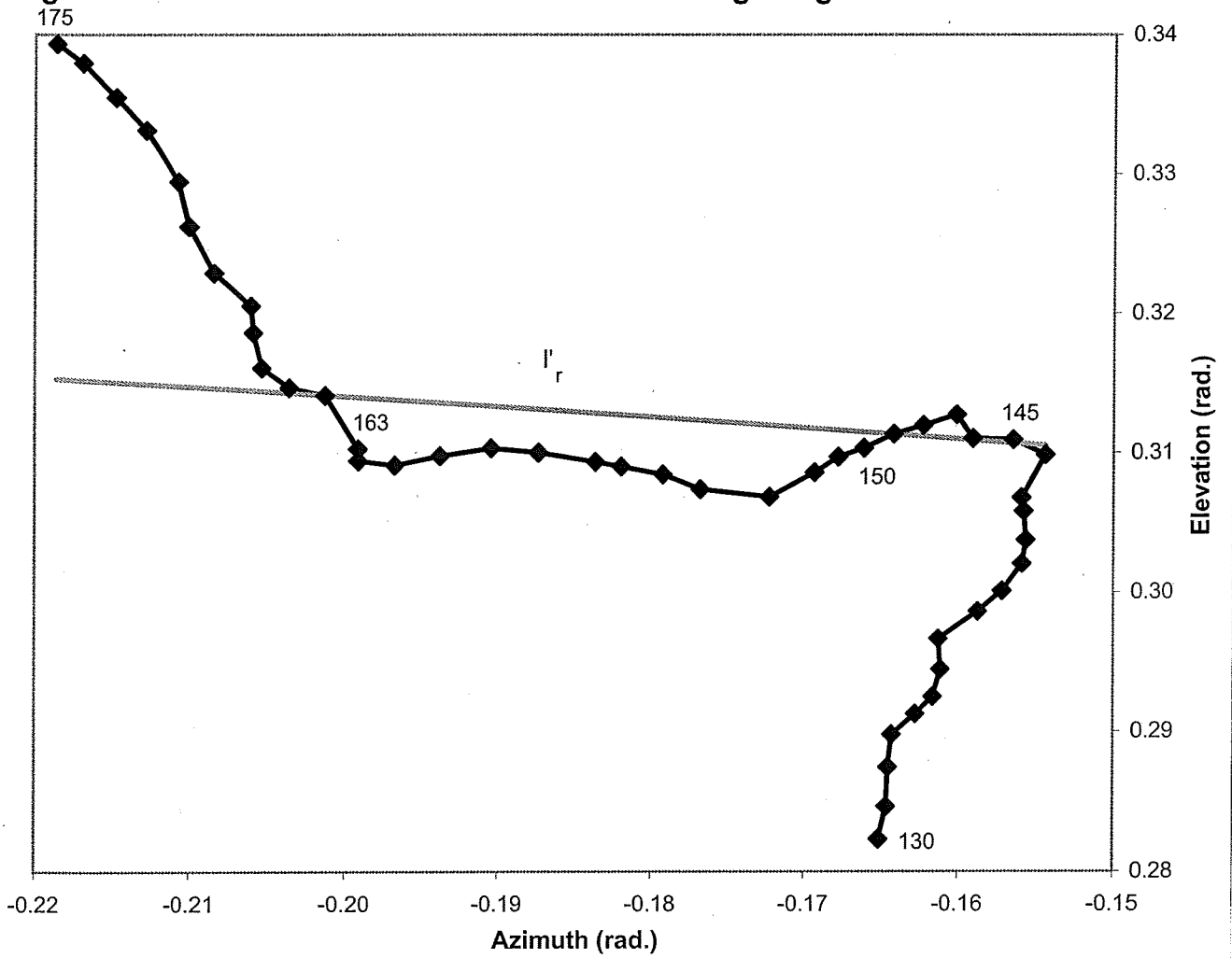


Figure A5a

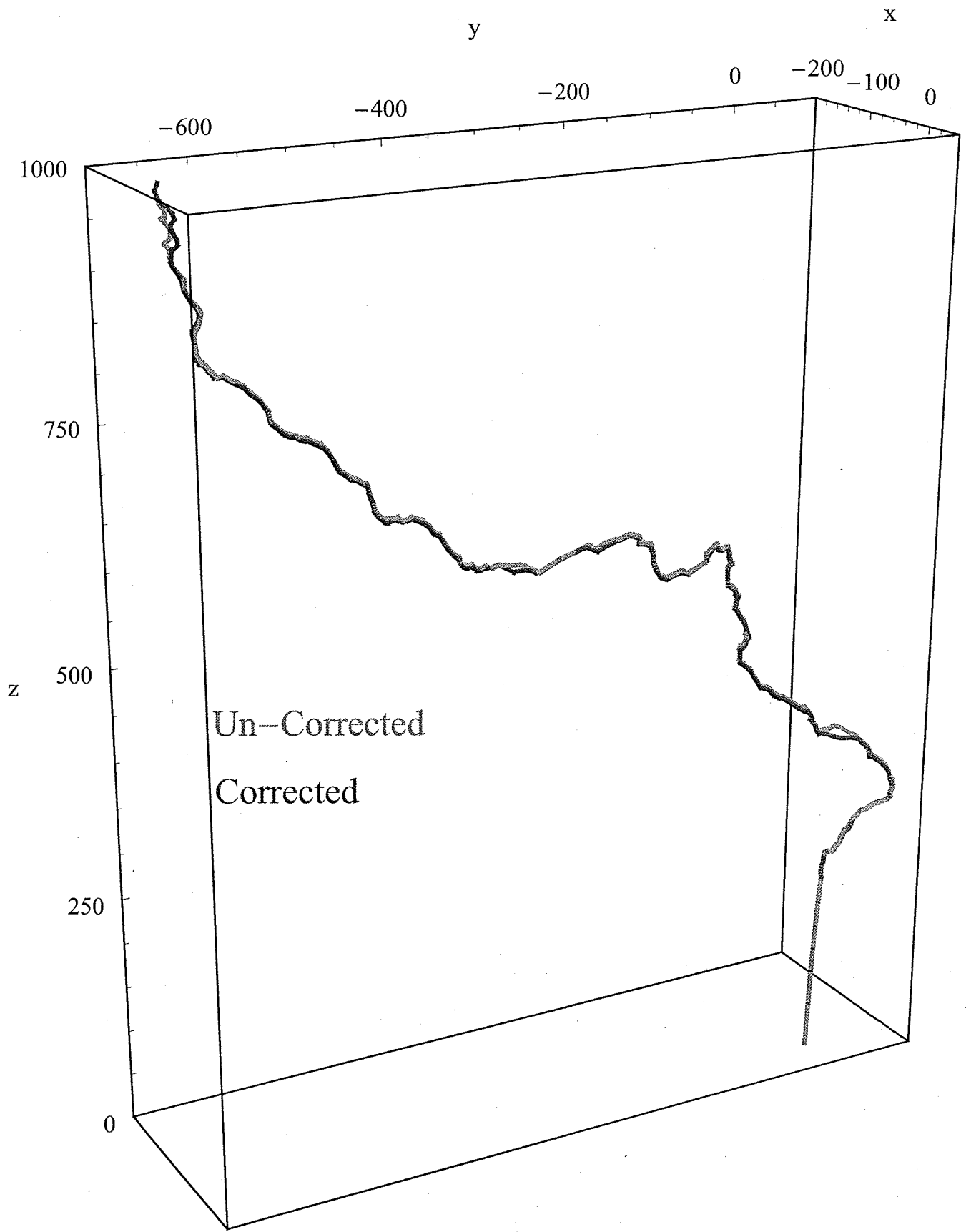


Figure A5b

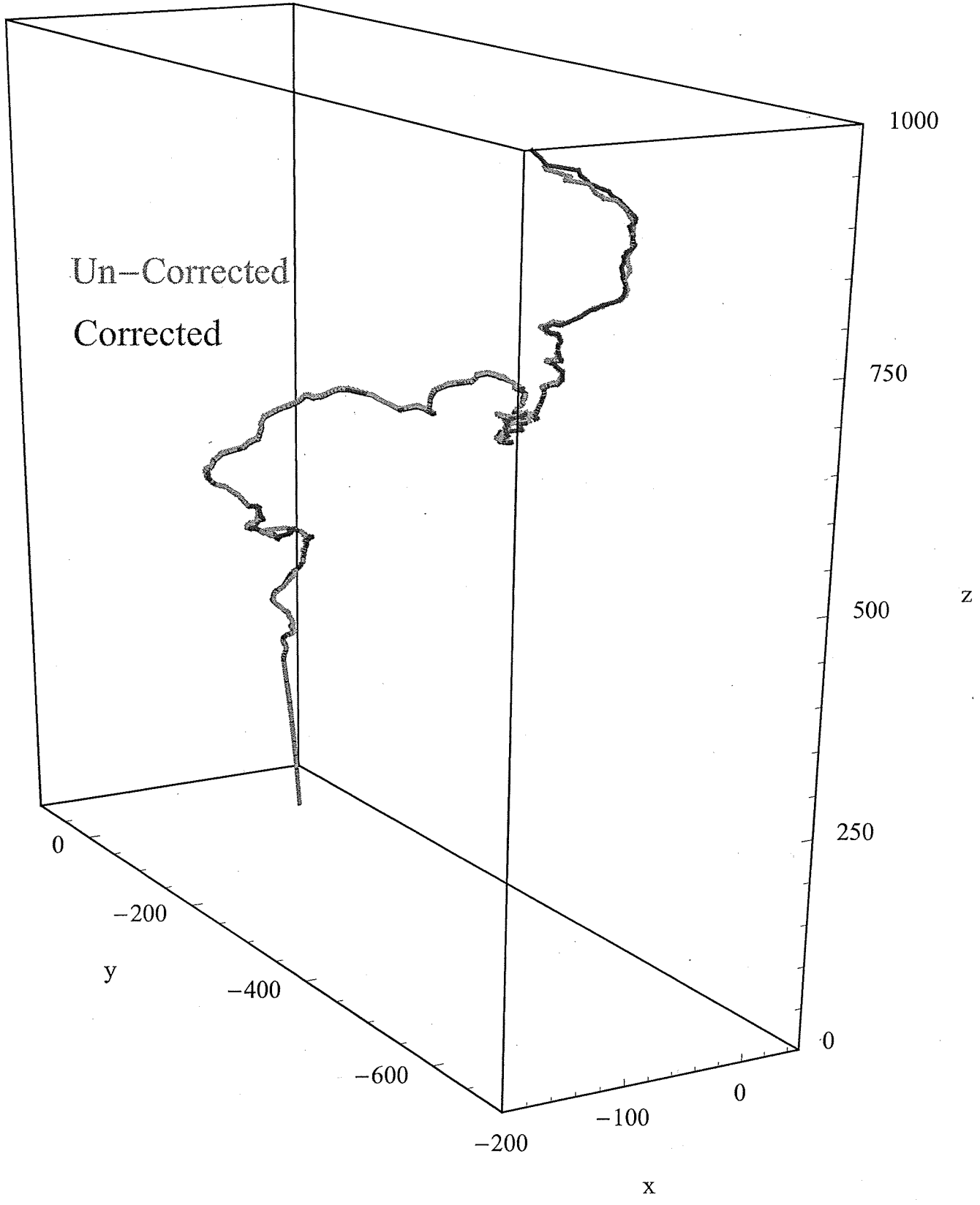


Figure A6a

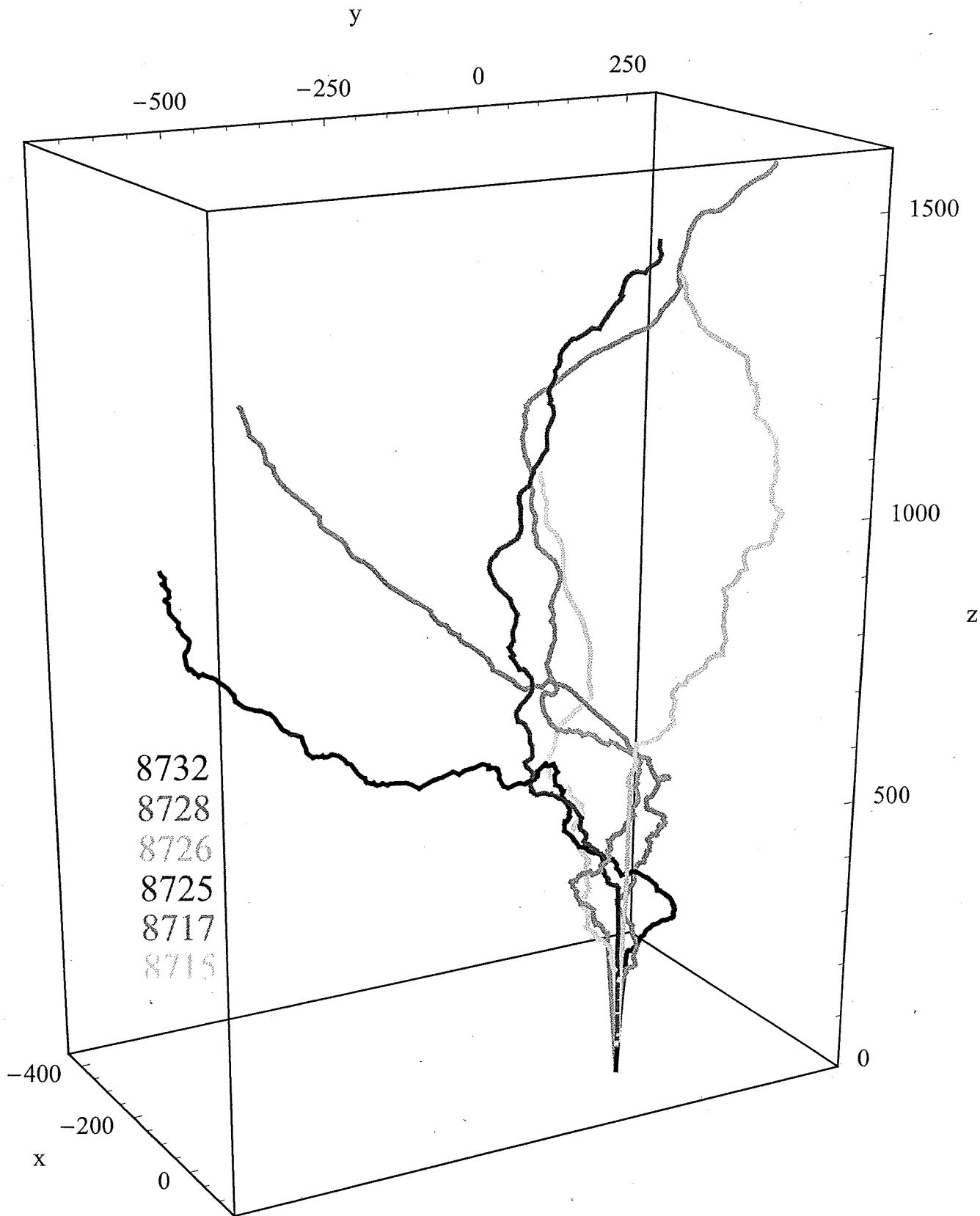


Figure A6b

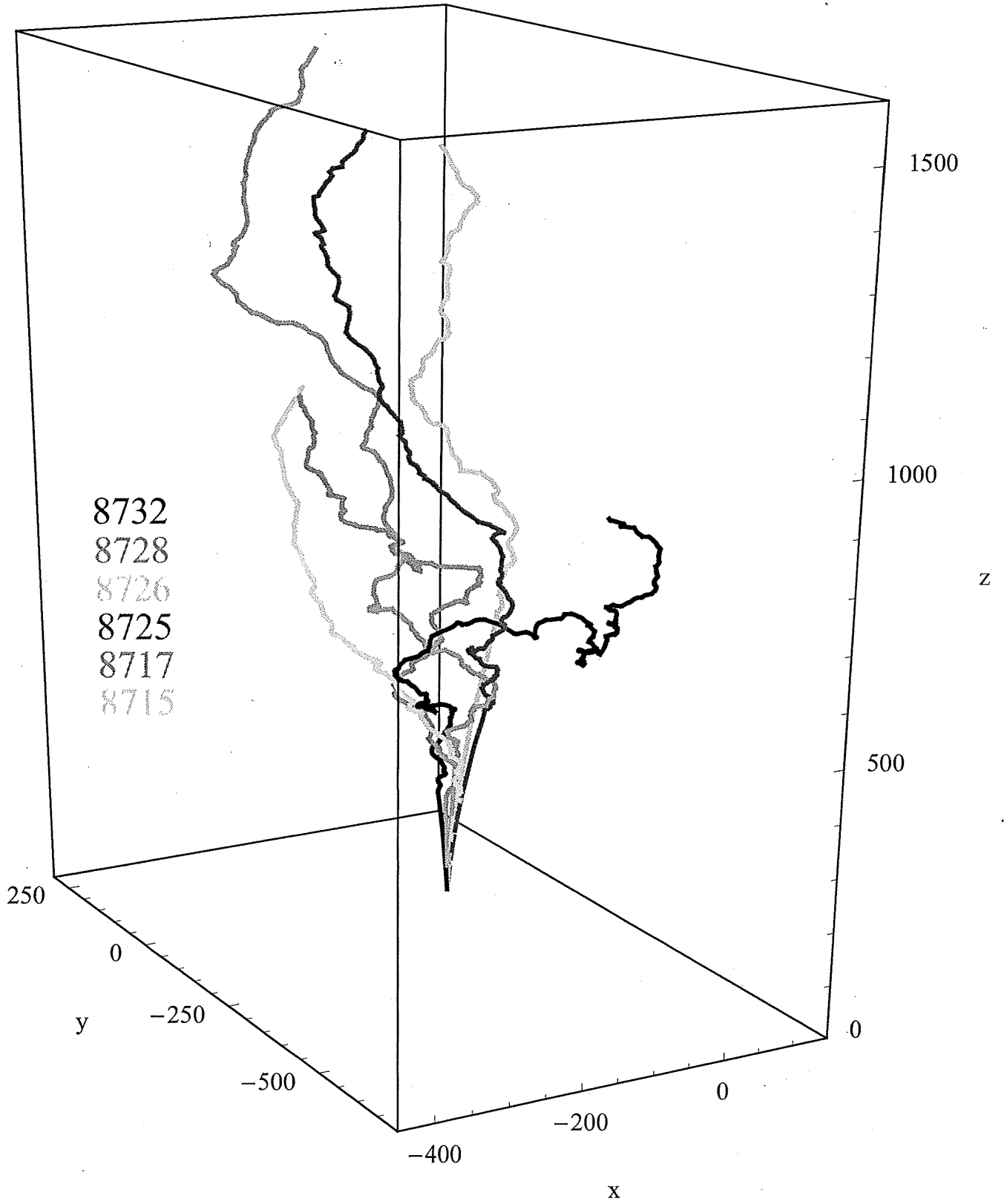
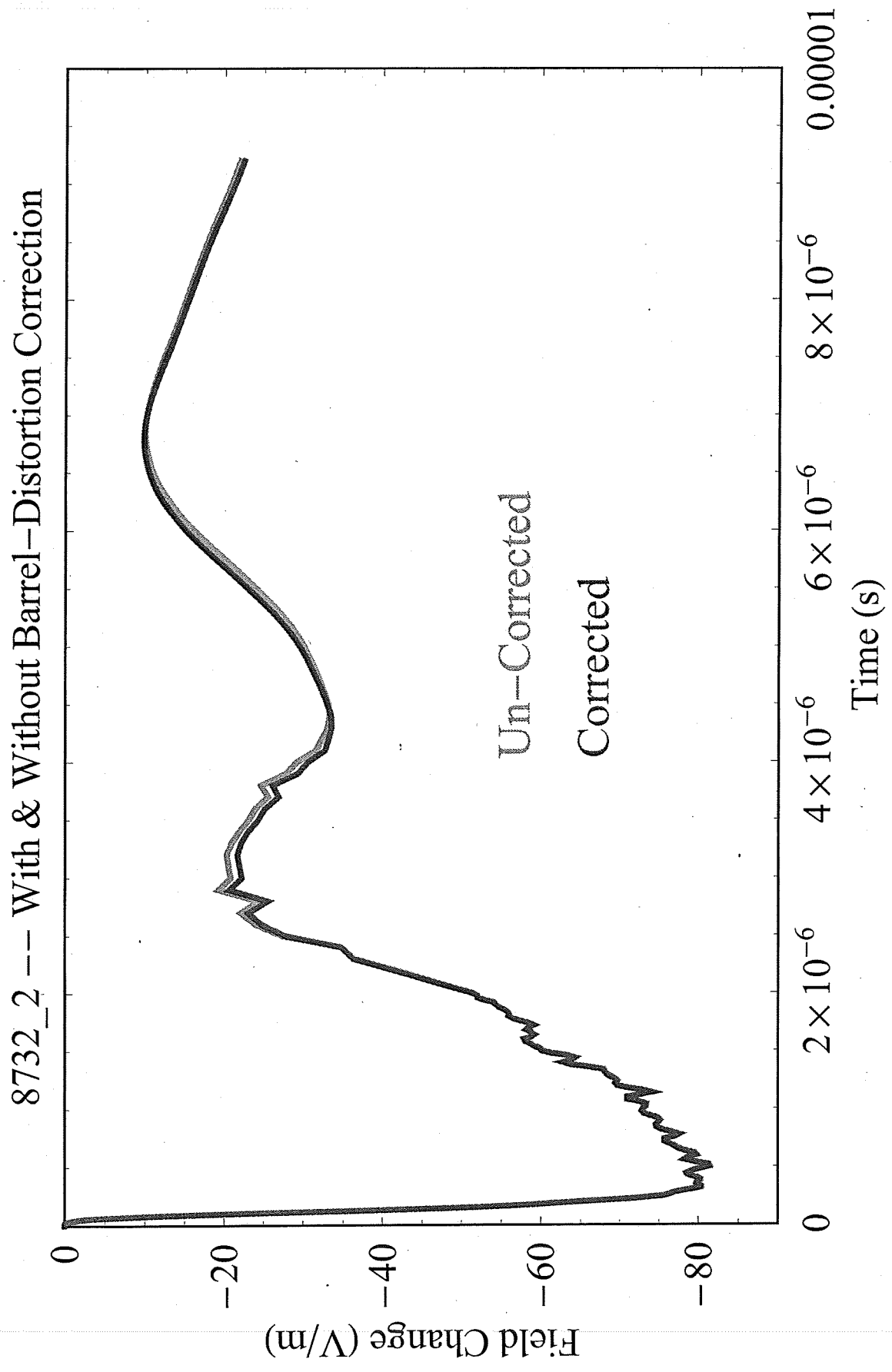


Figure A7



Stroke 8725/1, Level 7

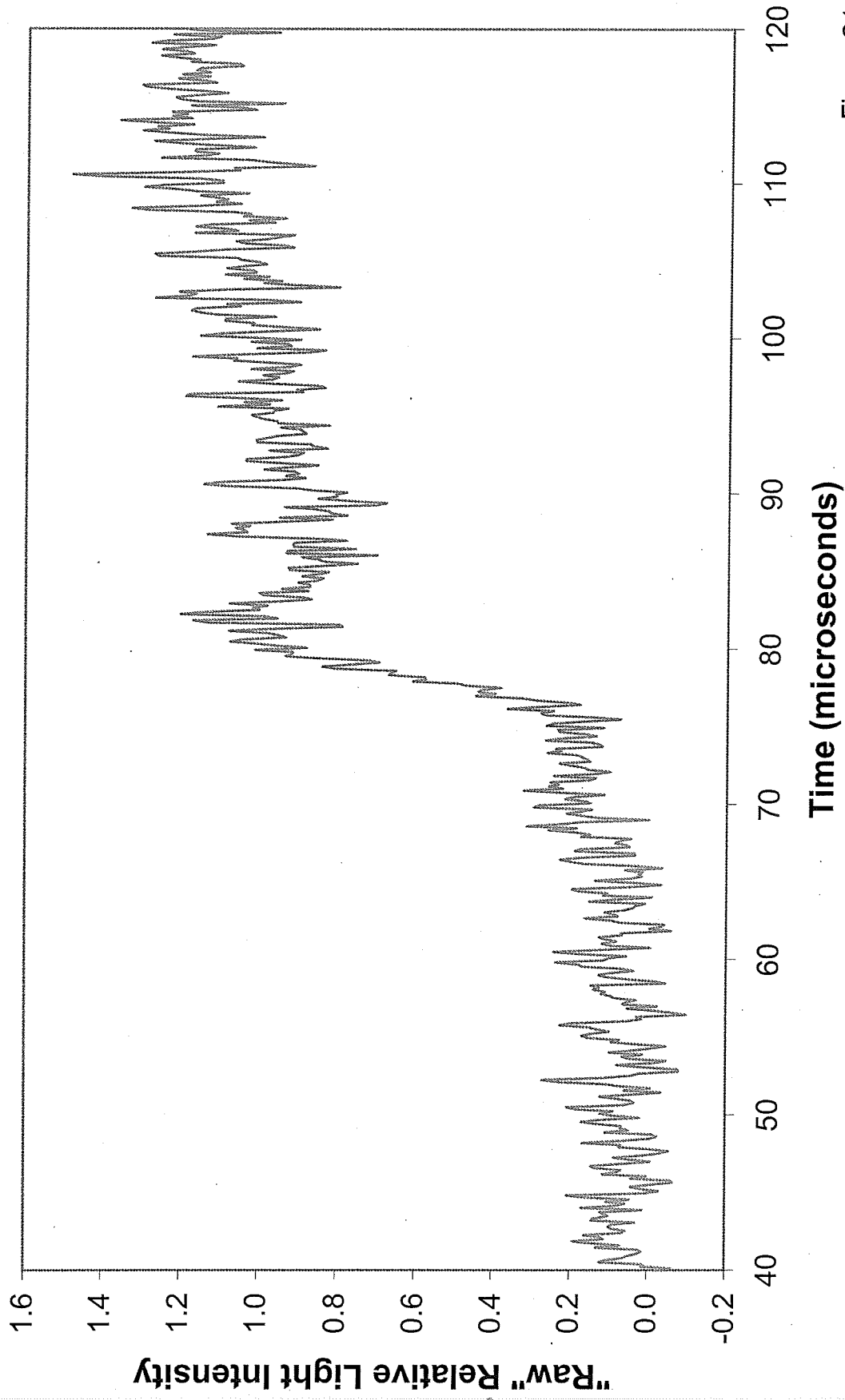


Figure C1

Stroke 8725/1, Level 7

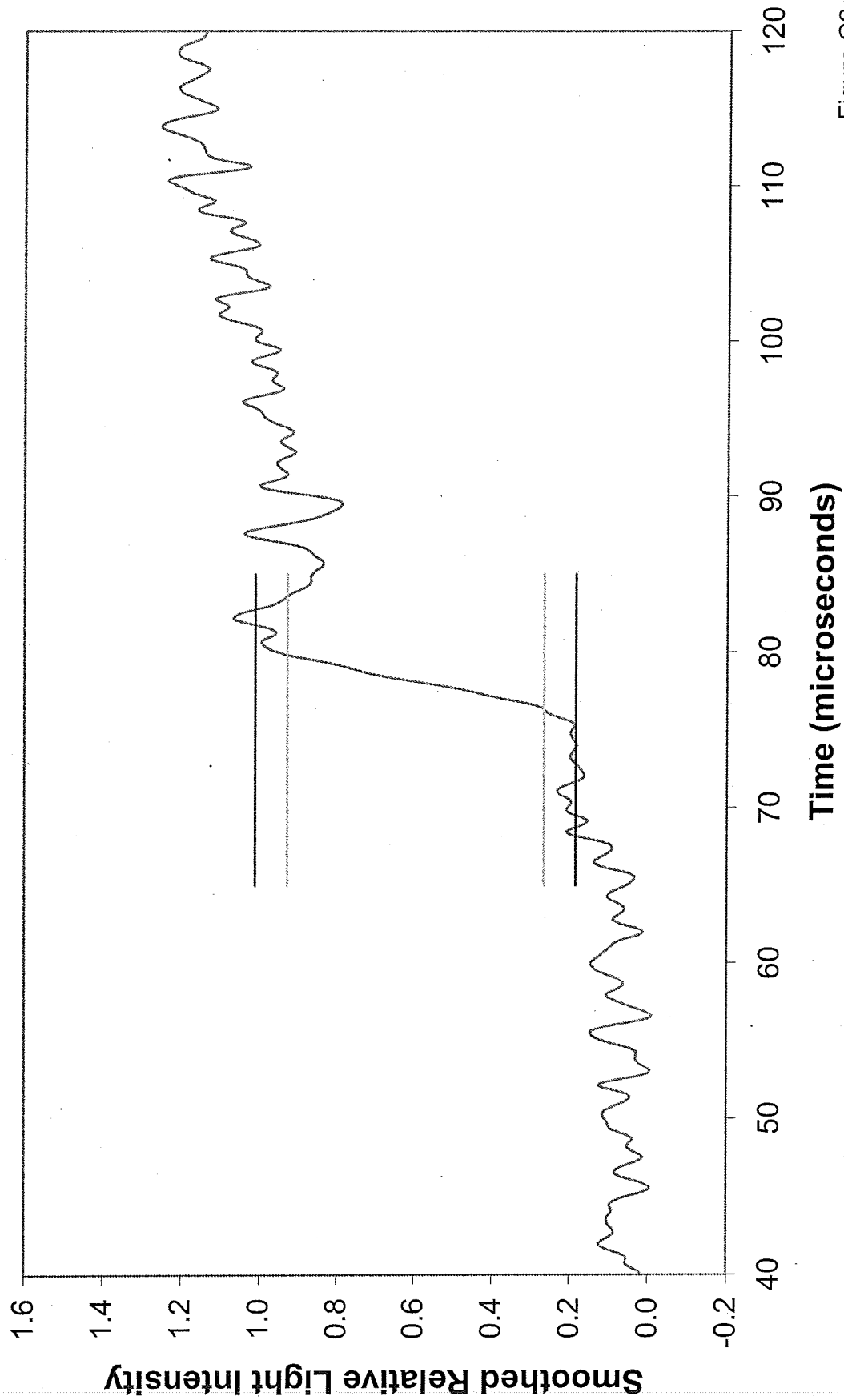


Figure C2a

Stroke 8725/1, Level 7

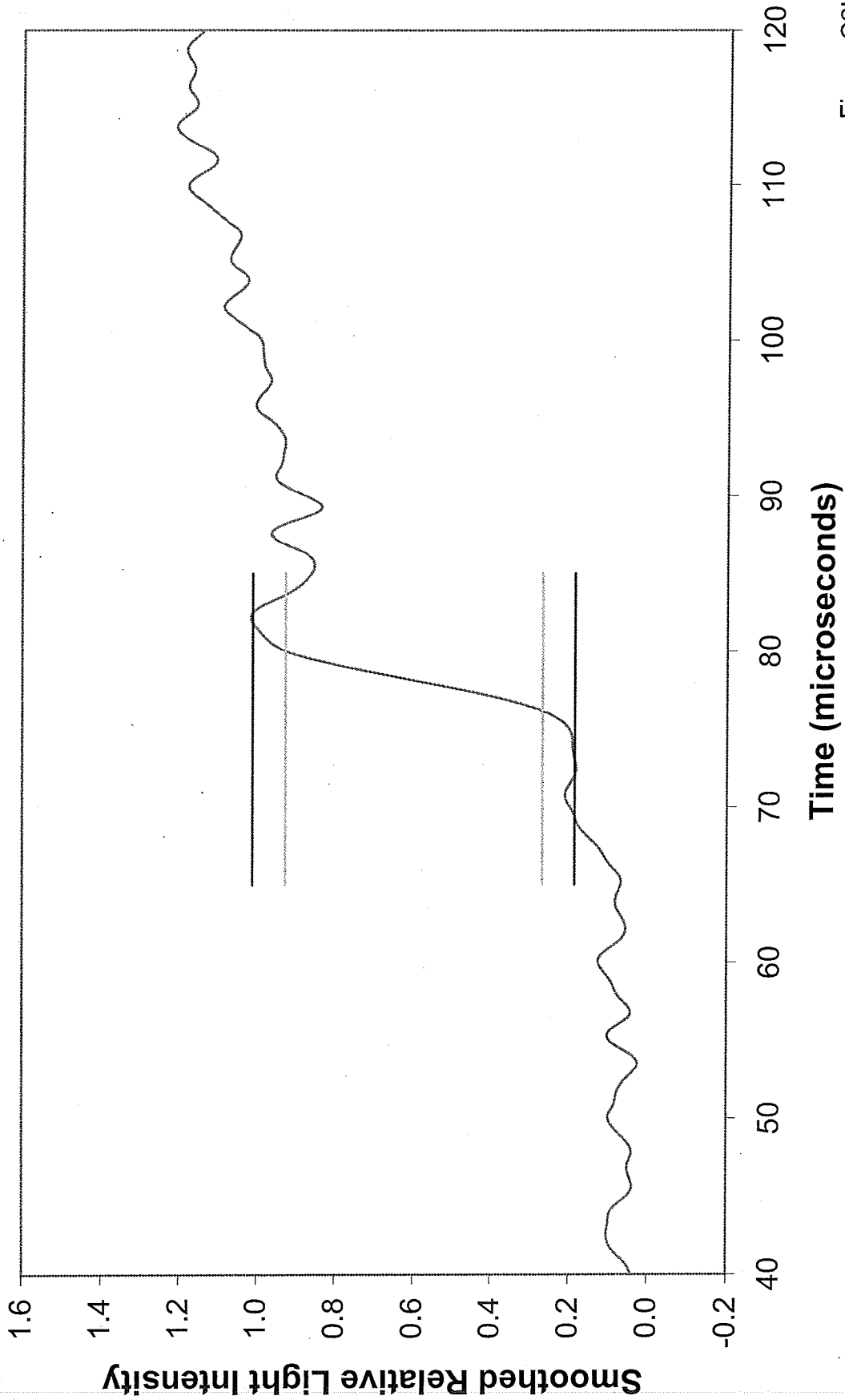


Figure C2b

LIGHTNING RETURN-STROKE CURRENT WAVEFORMS ALOFT, FROM
MEASURED FIELD CHANGE, CURRENT, AND CHANNEL GEOMETRY

J.C. Willett, D.M. Le Vine and V.P. Idone

Return strokes (the bright channel associated with cloud-to-ground lightning) are the most powerful lightning processes. They are also responsible for most of the damage lightning does (to buildings, trees and aircraft) and for starting forest fires. Understanding the hazard associated with lightning requires information about the current in return strokes: The information available is largely limited to measurements at the base of the channel (where it touches the ground). Very little information is available about the current "aloft", which is important for understanding lightning process and for assessing the hazard to aircraft and space vehicles.

This paper describes remote sensing research that uses the electromagnetic fields radiated by return strokes to infer the magnitude and evolution of current as it propagates along the channel. It consists of two parts: (a) reconstruction of lightning channels from stereo photographs; and (b) using these channels to infer the behavior of the current above the ground from current waveforms measured at the channel base and the radiated electric field waveforms. Among the interesting results are the important role channel "tortuosity" plays in the shape of the radiated fields and an abrupt increase in rise-time and decrease in amplitude just above ground.

LIGHTNING RETURN-STROKE CURRENT WAVEFORMS ALOFT, FROM
MEASURED FIELD CHANGE, CURRENT, AND CHANNEL GEOMETRY

J.C. Willett¹, D.M. Le Vine², and V.P. Idone³

¹P.O. Box 41, Garrett Park, MD 20896

²Code 614.6, NASA/GSFC, Greenbelt, MD 20771

³ES-351, SUNY, 1400 Washington Ave., Albany, NY 12222

Abstract

Three-dimensional reconstructions of six rocket-triggered lightning channels are derived from stereo photographs. These reconstructed channels are used to infer the behavior of the current in return strokes above the ground from current waveforms measured at the channel base and electric-field-change waveforms measured at a range of 5.2 km for 24 return strokes in these channels. Streak photographs of 14 of the same strokes are analyzed to determine the rise times, propagation speeds, and amplitudes of relative light intensity for comparison with the electrical inferences. Results include the following: 1) The fine structure of the field-change waveforms that were radiated by subsequent return strokes can be explained, in large part, by channel geometry. 2) The average 10 - 90% rise time of the stroke current increased by about a factor of seven in our sample, from an observed $0.31 \pm 0.17 \mu\text{s}$ at the surface to an inferred $2.2 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{s}$ at 1 km path length above the surface. 3) The three-dimensional propagation speed of the current front averaged $1.80 \pm 0.24 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ over channel lengths typically greater than 1 km. 4) Assuming that the measured current was entirely due to the return stroke forced an unreasonably large and abrupt reduction in inferred current amplitude over the first few tens of meters above the surface, especially in cases when the leader was bright relative to its stroke. Therefore, a significant fraction of the current at the surface was probably due to the leader, at least in such cases. 5) Peak return-stroke currents decreased by approximately $37 \pm 12\%$ from 100 m to 1 km of path length above the surface. Because of uncertainty about how to partition the measured current between leader and return stroke, we are unable to infer the variation of current amplitude near the ground.