

## Sources of Reactive Nitrogen in the Upper Troposphere During SONEX

S. C. Liu<sup>1</sup>, H. Yu<sup>1</sup>, B. Ridley<sup>2</sup>, Y. Wang<sup>1</sup>, D. D. Davis<sup>1</sup>, Y. Kondo<sup>3</sup>, M. Koike<sup>3</sup>, B. E. Anderson<sup>4</sup>, S. A. Vay<sup>4</sup>, G. W. Sachse<sup>4</sup>, G. L. Gregory<sup>4</sup>, H. Fuelburg<sup>5</sup>, A. Thompson<sup>6</sup>, and H. Singh<sup>7</sup>

**Abstract.** The relationship among NO<sub>y</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, ultra-fine condensation nuclei (CN), and other trace gases in the upper troposphere (UT) and lower stratosphere (LS) observed during SONEX are analyzed with the goal to identify and quantify the sources of NO<sub>y</sub> in the UT. We use N<sub>2</sub>O to separate upper tropospheric air from stratospheric influenced air and focus our analysis to the former. The distributions of NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> show remarkable similarity when they are plotted as a function of N<sub>2</sub>O. The only difference between NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> is found in upper tropospheric air where a large number of data points have high values of both NO<sub>y</sub> and the NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio. Major sources contributing to these high NO<sub>y</sub> values are found to be emissions from lightning and surface sources transported to the UT by convection.

### Introduction

Nitrogen oxides, i.e. NO<sub>x</sub> (NO+NO<sub>2</sub>) are key trace gases in the tropospheric photochemistry. Photochemical reactions involving NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> are a major source of tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>. Because the lifetime of NO<sub>x</sub> is short and the sources are small, NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in most parts of the troposphere are extremely low. As a result, NO<sub>x</sub> is usually the rate-limiting precursor of O<sub>3</sub>.

As O<sub>3</sub> in the UT is an effective greenhouse gas (Fishman et al., 1979), an environmental concern is the possible increase of O<sub>3</sub> in the UT due to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from subsonic aircraft (e.g. Singh et al., 1999). However, a quantitative evaluation of the increase in O<sub>3</sub> has turned out to be difficult and highly uncertain. A major contributor to the uncertainty is the lack of knowledge about the budget of NO<sub>x</sub> and other reactive nitrogen species in the UT.

Concurrent observations of total reactive nitrogen or NO<sub>y</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub> + N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + NO<sub>3</sub> + HNO<sub>3</sub> + HO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub> + PAN + other organic nitrates), NO and tracers such as N<sub>2</sub>O, O<sub>3</sub>, CN, CH<sub>4</sub>, CO and others in the stratosphere have been shown to be valuable for studying the budgets of NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> (e.g. Murphy et al., 1993; Ridley et al., 1994). The study by Murphy et al. (1993) is particularly interesting in addressing

NO<sub>y</sub> sources in the UT. By examining the ratio of NO<sub>y</sub> to O<sub>3</sub> as a function of potential temperature observed from ER-2 aircraft over Punta Arenas, Stavanger, and Darwin during various airborne experiments, they were able to deduce that lightning was a major source of NO<sub>y</sub> in the tropical UT and LS, confirming findings of modeling studies (Tuck, 1976; Kley et al., 1981; Ko et al., 1986).

In this work, we study the budget of NO<sub>y</sub> by examining the relationship among NO<sub>y</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, CN, N<sub>2</sub>O, and other trace gases in the UT and LS observed on board the NASA DC-8 aircraft during SONEX. SONEX was an airborne field campaign conducted in October-November 1997 in the vicinity of the North Atlantic Flight Corridor to study the impact of aircraft emissions on NO<sub>x</sub> and ozone (Singh et al., 1999). Following the work of Murphy et al. (1993), we will take advantage of the near-inert characteristics of O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> in the LS and UT. In these regimes, the O<sub>3</sub> lifetime against photochemical sink is on the order of a year, except inside the polar vortex (Brasseur and Solomon, 1986; Liu and Trainer, 1988).

### Characteristics of NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> as a Function of N<sub>2</sub>O

Figures 1a-1c depict the mixing ratios of NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>, and the NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio as a function of N<sub>2</sub>O for all observations above 7 km. The observations used here are those from the 10 second merged data set as described by Singh et al. (1999). N<sub>2</sub>O is used because it is a tracer that gives a good measure of the influence of stratospheric air. The smaller the N<sub>2</sub>O mixing ratio is, the larger is the stratospheric influence. This is reflected clearly by the excellent anti-correlation between O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O in Fig. 1a which is typical for mid-latitude air observed near the tropopause (e.g. Murphy et al., 1993). In this study, 312 ppbv is chosen to represent the mixing ratio of N<sub>2</sub>O at the tropopause based on an examination of the vertical distributions of N<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>3</sub>. The regime with mixing ratio of N<sub>2</sub>O greater than 312 ppbv will be called upper tropospheric air (UTA) and below the value as the stratospheric influenced air (SIA). There is an uncertainty of about 1 ppbv in the determination of this tropopause value of N<sub>2</sub>O. The uncertainty is small enough that it has a negligible effect on the major results of this work.

The relationship between NO<sub>y</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O (Fig. 1b) is similar to that of O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, especially when the stratospheric influence is significant. This can be seen in Fig. 1b for the regime below 312 ppbv of N<sub>2</sub>O where the distribution of NO<sub>y</sub> is very similar to that of O<sub>3</sub>. The similarity between NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> in the SIA was observed consistently in a number of experiments before (e.g. Fahey et al., 1990; Murphy et al., 1993; Weinheimer et al., 1993) and is expected as both O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> have their major stratospheric sources in the upper stratosphere. In addition, the ratio of NO<sub>y</sub> to N<sub>2</sub>O in the SIA is in good agreement with previous observations (e.g.

<sup>1</sup>Georgia Institute of Technology

<sup>2</sup>National Center for Atmospheric Research

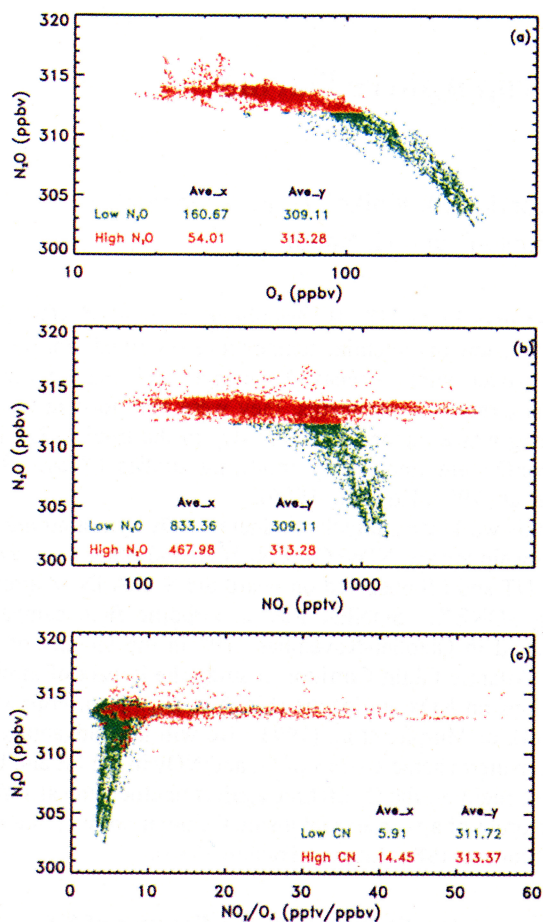
<sup>3</sup>Nagoya University

<sup>4</sup>NASA Langley Research Center

<sup>5</sup>Florida State University

<sup>6</sup>NASA Goddard Space Flight Center

<sup>7</sup>NASA Ames Research Center



**Figure 1a.** Correlation between O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O for all data points above 7 km; 1b, same as 1a except for NO<sub>y</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O; 1c, same as 1a except for NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O.

Loewenstein et al., 1993; Murphy et al., 1993). The only significant difference between NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> is in the UTA where NO<sub>y</sub> deviates from the smooth profile of SIA by having significant number of data points with large mixing ratios. Both the difference and the similarity between NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> are highlighted by the plot of the NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio against N<sub>2</sub>O in Fig. 1c. The ratio is nearly a vertical straight line in the SIA. In contrast, there is a long horizontal tail of high NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio in the UTA as a result of large increases in NO<sub>y</sub> mentioned above.

The nearly vertical distribution of NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio in Fig. 1c is substantiated by the fact that the median value of NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio increases by only about 70% from the lowest 10% of N<sub>2</sub>O to the highest 10% of N<sub>2</sub>O. In contrast, corresponding changes in the median values of O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 1a) and NO<sub>y</sub> (Fig. 1b) are greater than a factor of five. This drastic reduction in the variability suggests that NO<sub>y</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> distributions in the UTA and the SIA are controlled by common factors or processes. One of the processes may be the exchange process between the UT and the LS that may have a strong influence on the O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> distributions in both the SIA and the UTA.

#### Identifying the Sources of NO<sub>y</sub> in the UTA

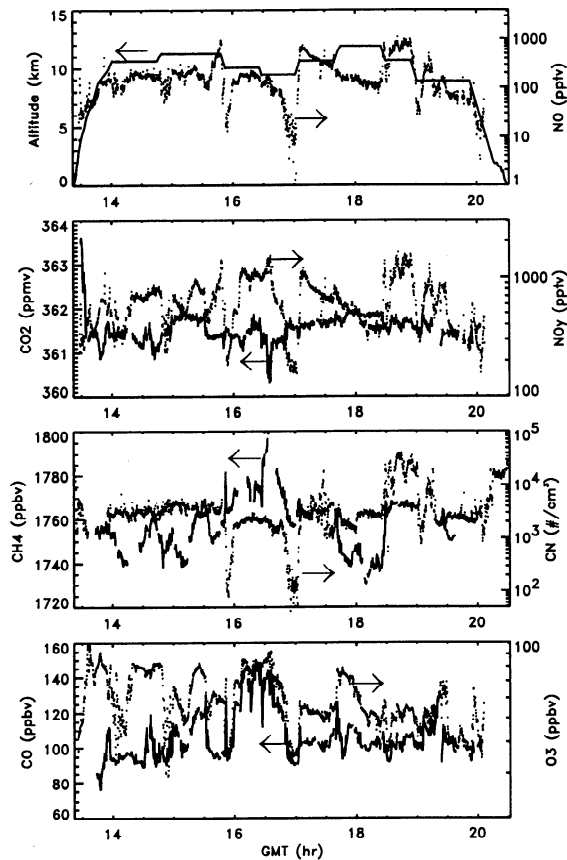
What is the NO<sub>y</sub> source(s) in the UTA? In order to address this question, an obvious approach is to examine data points

with high NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio. Fig. 1c indicates that NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio of  $10 \times 10^{-3}$ , above which about 20% of the data points reside, is a reasonable cut-off value for high NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> because it is close to the top quartile cut-off value and it clearly separates the high NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> tail from the rest of the data. The time periods and flight numbers of these points are plotted and examined (not shown). The major contributing flights listed in decreasing importance are flights 14, 12, 10, 3, and 9. A general description of the flight tracks and characteristics of these flights is presented in Singh et al. (1999). These five flights contribute to about 80% of the total points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> >  $10 \times 10^{-3}$ . An examination of the lightning frequency observed and back trajectories during each flight indicates that these were the very flights with significant occurrences of lightning or convective activities upwind. This strongly suggests that NO emissions from lightning or some other NO<sub>x</sub> sources related to convection are the predominant sources of NO<sub>y</sub>. This notion is also supported by the fact that most of the points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> >  $10 \times 10^{-3}$  have high concentrations of CN (> 5000 cm<sup>-3</sup>, red points in Fig. 1c) which are known to be produced in the convection (Ridley et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1999). Of course, high CN may also indicate emissions from aircraft (e.g. Schlager et al., 1997; Anderson et al., 1999). However, aircraft contrails are characterized by short pulses/spikes of CN and NO<sub>y</sub> of several seconds to a few minutes (e.g. Zheng et al., 1996; Wang et al., 1999) rather than the long pulses evident in flights 10, 12 (Fig. 2), and 14.

A strong piece of evidence supporting lightning or some other NO<sub>x</sub> sources related to convection as the dominant sources of the high NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> data points can be seen in Fig. 1c. In this figure there are a total of 1,241 data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> >  $10 \times 10^{-3}$ , 1239 of them in the UTA but only 2 points in the SIA. This large disparity is also seen in the distribution of the absolute levels of NO<sub>y</sub> (Fig. 1b), e.g. there are significant number of points with NO<sub>y</sub> increments of 1000 pptv or more above the median value (325.5 pptv) in the UTA (red points), but not a single point with such increment in the SIA (green points). Such a large disparity can only be explained by sources of NO<sub>y</sub> that reside only in the troposphere. These sources can be lightning and/or surface sources, but not emissions from aircraft, because the North Atlantic Flight Corridor often cross into the LS in this season (Baughcum et al., 1996). This was confirmed by back-trajectory study of Koike et al., (1999) and Kondo et al. (1999) who showed a large number of aircraft flights occurred in the SIA.

The absolute value of NO<sub>y</sub> can be used to calculate an upper limit of the aircraft contribution to the high NO<sub>y</sub> values in the UTA. This is done by first calculating the occurrence of data points with NO<sub>y</sub> increments of 325.5 pptv (median UTA NO<sub>y</sub>) above the median NO<sub>y</sub> level of each 1 ppbv bin of N<sub>2</sub>O. We find that 29 points occur in the SIA while 877 points occur in the UTA, i.e. a ratio of 3.3%. The value 3.3% is more than a factor of ten smaller than the ratio of number of data points in the SIA vs. that in the UTA ( $2532/6158 = 0.41$  or 41%). By assuming all the high NO<sub>y</sub> values observed in the SIA are from aircraft emissions, we can calculate an upper limit of the aircraft contribution to the high NO<sub>y</sub> values in the UTA to be  $3.3\%/0.41 = 8\%$ .

Once the aircraft emissions are excluded as a major source of data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> >  $10 \times 10^{-3}$ , the major contributing sources can be identified relatively easily as they each tend to



**Figure 2.** Time series of mixing ratios of key trace species and altitude observed during flight 12, November 3, 1997. The y-coordinates are denoted by arrows.

have unique characteristics in their relationship with various tracers. Zheng et al. (1995) was successful in using the correlation between NO<sub>y</sub> and other trace gases such as CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O to identify surface sources, lightning emissions, and stratospheric influence. We apply their method in the following analysis and an example is illustrated in Fig. 2 for flight 12 on November 3, 1997. Surface pollution can be clearly identified for the time period from about 1610 to 1645 Universal Time (UT). During this period the CO mixing ratio reached more than 145 ppbv. CH<sub>4</sub> was also above normal and the CN levels were also below normal. Interestingly the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>y</sub> ratio was low at 0.23, suggesting extensive atmospheric processing and significant production of O<sub>3</sub>. Indeed, O<sub>3</sub> was high at about 85 ppbv. In contrast, a lightning source of NO<sub>y</sub> can be seen between 1830 to 1850 UT during which NO<sub>y</sub>, NO, and CN were all substantially elevated. The ratio of NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>y</sub> was about 0.7, while O<sub>3</sub> was at a moderate level of about 55 ppbv, as expected from fresh emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>. In addition, both CO and CH<sub>4</sub> were substantially lower than those of the surface pollution case.

When the above method is applied to all UTA points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>, we obtain the following results: about 50% of the points are due to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from lightning, and about 20% due to convection of surface sources. The rest are not identified because of lack of clear signatures. They could be due to a mixture of sources, including lightning, surface sources, aircraft (< 8%) and other unknown sources. The average NO<sub>y</sub> mixing ratio of all points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> >

10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> is 1017 pptv (1239 points). Assuming the median NO<sub>y</sub> mixing ratio (325.5 pptv) of the entire UTA data points (6158 points) as the background value of NO<sub>y</sub>, we can calculate the contribution of the points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> to the upper tropospheric NO<sub>y</sub> by calculating the average difference between the 1239 points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> and the background value, i.e. (1017 – 325.5) × 1239 / 6158 = 139.1 pptv. This is a lower limit because we include only the difference as the contribution. In reality, the points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> also contribute to the background NO<sub>y</sub>. This lower limit is highly significant, representing about 30% of the total NO<sub>y</sub> observed in the UTA (above 7 km) during SONEX. This translates to a lower limit of 21% (i.e. 30% × 70%) contribution by lightning and convection.

From the above discussion, aircraft emissions contribute less than 8% to the NO<sub>y</sub> increments with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>, which is equivalent to (30% × 8% = 2.4%) of the total NO<sub>y</sub> observed. Why the contribution is so low? Why are the contrails hardly noticed? If we can't see them in the data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> > 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>, can they still contribute significantly to the background NO<sub>y</sub> distribution? In the following, we attempt to address these questions.

Contrails of subsonic aircraft were observed frequently before, often with NO<sub>y</sub> spikes larger than several ppbv and time intervals of the spikes significantly greater than the 10 seconds data resolution used in this study (e.g. Zheng et al., 1995; Schlager et al., 1997). Therefore, the answer to the first two questions is most likely that the majority of aircraft contrails observed during SONEX were relatively old so that the NO<sub>y</sub> levels in the contrails were diluted too much to raise the NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio above 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>. This suggests that aircraft emissions may contribute significantly to the data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> < 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>, including the background level of NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> (6.6 × 10<sup>-3</sup> in the UTA). To address this problem, we have made a similar study of the contributing sources for the data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> between 7 × 10<sup>-3</sup> and 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup>. A total of 1466 data points are found in the UTA. The previously identified convection/lightning flights (14, 12, 10, 3, and 9) and time periods contribute about 60% to the total number of these data points. Although this again suggests the importance of lightning and surface sources, it does not rule out aircraft emissions as a major contributor to the other 40% of the points. Unfortunately, it is difficult to even make a qualitative identification of the contributing sources of these 40% of points because most of the points are from aged emissions that are characterized by low values of NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>y</sub> ratio, low CN (< 5000 cm<sup>-3</sup>), and small spikes. The average NO<sub>y</sub> level with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> between 7 × 10<sup>-3</sup> and 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> is 434.5 pptv, merely 109 pptv above the median value. If we apply the earlier method of calculating the lower limit of contribution to the NO<sub>y</sub> abundance in the UTA, the 60% and 40% correspond to only 3.3% and 2.2% of the total NO<sub>y</sub>, respectively. Thus, even if all 40% of the data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> between 7 × 10<sup>-3</sup> and 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> were from aircraft emissions, the contribution to the total NO<sub>y</sub> observed in the UT (above 7 km) during SONEX would be only 2.2%.

## Conclusions

By examining the distributions of NO<sub>y</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio as a function of N<sub>2</sub>O, we have found that the data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio greater than 10 × 10<sup>-3</sup> contribute more than 30% to the NO<sub>y</sub> abundance in the UTA observed during

SONEX. The major sources (> 70%) contributing to these points are emissions from lightning and surface sources transported to the UT by convection, while the contribution from aircraft emissions is < 8%. For data points with NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub> ratio between  $7 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $10 \times 10^{-3}$ , lightning and surface sources also appear to be the major sources, but aircraft emissions may account for as much as 40%. However, this 40% corresponds to only about 2% of the total NO<sub>y</sub> abundance in the UTA. Finally, a few important points of caution are needed: first, our results apply only to the region sampled during SONEX; second, our method of analysis applies only to data points with relatively high ratios of NO<sub>y</sub>/O<sub>3</sub>; third, the method used in this study cannot be applied to the background level of NO<sub>y</sub> which accounts for about 60% of the NO<sub>y</sub> abundance in the upper tropospheric air observed during SONEX.

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- S.C. Liu, H. Yu, Y. Wang, D.D. Davis, School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332-0340 (e-mail: shaw.liu@cas.gatech.edu)
- B. Ridley, NCAR, PO Box 3000, Boulder, CO 80303.
- Y. Kondo, M. Koike, Solar Terrestrial Environment Lab, Nagoya University, 3-13 Honohara, Toyokawa Aichi, 442 Japan (e-mail: kondo@stelab.nagoya-u.ac.jp)
- B.E. Anderson, S.A. Vay, G.W. Sachse, G.L. Gregory, Atmospheric Sciences Division, NASA Langley Research Center, Mail Stop 483, Hampton, VA 23681, (e-mail: b.e.anderson@larc.nasa.gov)
- H. Fuelburg, Dept. of Meteorology, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL 32306-4520
- A. Thompson, National Aeronautics & Space Administration, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD 20771 (e-mail: thompson@gator1.gsfc.nasa.gov)
- H. Singh, NASA Ames Research Center, Mail Stop 245-5, Moffett Field, CA 94035 (e-mail: hanwant\_singh@qmgate.arc.nasa.gov)

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