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A quantitative re-examination of lightning as a predictor of peak winds in tropical cyclones.

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X - 2 WHITTAKER ET AL.: LIGHTNING IN TROPICAL CYCLONES We use the World Wide Lightning Location Network (WWLLN) to investigate 3 lightning strike variations in eight years of category 4 and 5 tropical cyclones. 4 A cross correlation analysis is performed between the lightning and maximum 5 sustained wind variations, giving lag and lead times related to the peak linear 6 correlation for each tropical cyclone. There is a moderate to strong correlation 7 between lightning and wind variations. Using a lightning collection window 8 of < 500 km, we confirm the general results of previous studies that lightning 9 can be used on a ~ 1 day timescale to predict the evolution of the winds in 10 tropical cyclones. Investigation of different lightning collection window sizes 11 indicates the lightning lead times are highly dependent upon the window size. 12 Smaller collection windows have modal lightning lead times of ~ 2.75 and 0 13

days, indicating that the lightning location inside the cyclone is as important
as the total lightning variation.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Overview

Accurate forecasting of tropical cyclones is of great importance for communities where 16 landfall might occur. The most likely future path of a tropical cyclone can be modeled 17 [e.g., McAdie and Lawrence, 2000] with low error (160 nautical miles for the North Atlantic 18 in 2000-2005, DeMaria, Knaff and Sampson [2007]). Improvements to these forecasts has 19 meant that the lead-time for hurricane warnings issued by the National Hurricane Center 20 increased from 3 days to 5 days in 2003, with the incorrectly modeled cyclones being 21 monitored and tested [e.g., Brennan and Majumdar, 2011]. However, while the global 22 forecasting models are successful at predicting the track of the cyclone, they are not 23 as good at predicting the wind intensities [Rappaport et al., 2009; DeMaria, Knaff and 24 Sampson, 2007]. 25

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Early studies on tropical cyclones gave no detail of their electrical activity [e.g., Simpson 27 and Riehl, 1981, while later studies observe lightning activity mainly in the rainbands 28 with occasional eyewall activity linked to supercell development [Lyons and Keen, 1994]. 29 Lightning in the eyewall was later characterized as rare, requiring updrafts stronger than 30 10 ms^{-1} [Black and Hallett, 1999]. Willis et al. [1994] showed that a rapid electric field 31 gradient is formed when the tropical cyclone exhibits strong vertical velocities with charge 32 separation forming from the interaction of graupel and small ice particles. Recently 33 researchers have been investigating the lightning within tropical cyclones in an attempt 34 to better understand storm structure and the changes in wind intensity [e.g., Thomas 35 et al., 2010; Fierro and Reisner, 2011; Reinhart et al., 2014]. Price, Mustafa and Yair 36

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[2009] performed an analysis of 56 category 4 and 5 tropical cyclones, and concluded that 37 lightning flash rates have a typical 30 hour lead on the maximum winds in a tropical 38 cyclone. In a similar style, Pan, Qie and Wang [2014] performed a study of super and 39 weak typhoons which resulted in lightning lead times of 30 and 60 hours respectively. 40 Abarca and Corbosiero [2011] showed that lightning flash density is higher when tropical 41 cyclone wind speeds are increasing, leading to a study of rapid intensification changes by 42 DeMaria et al. [2012], who concluded that lightning can be used to improve short term 43 (24 hour) predictions of wind intensification. 44

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⁴⁶ Our paper re-examines the study of *Price, Mustafa and Yair* [2009] and we aim to test the
⁴⁷ validity of their conclusions and extend their method to a much larger storm dataset. In
⁴⁸ this study we will henchforth refer to all high category tropical storms as tropical cyclones,
⁴⁹ regardless of their basin of origin and thus include hurricanes and typhoons.

1.2. Data sources

We are using data from the International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS v03r05), a World Meteorological Organization Tropical Cyclone Programme endorsed database for the wind, pressure and location of the tropical cyclones [*Knapp et al.*, 2010]. We restrict our observations to those recorded by WMO endorsed stations. We use lightning data (version Reloc-B) from the ground based World Wide Lightning Location Network (WWLLN). WWLLN is a global network consisting of over 65 detection stations using Very Low Frequency (3-30 kHz) receivers to detect lightning flashes using a

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time-of-group-arrival technique. A recent description of the WWLLN network operation and characteristics can be found in *Hutchins et al.* [2012] and at *http://wwlln.net*.

2. Recreating the results of Price et al., 2009.

2.1. Overview of results and conclusions

Price, Mustafa and Yair [2009] (hereafter referred to as Price), investigated a dataset of 59 58 tropical cyclones for 2005 to 2007 said to be classified as category 4 and 5 (>114 kts) on 60 the Saffir-Simpson scale [Saffir, 1973; Simpson, 1974]. Their tropical cyclone subset was 61 mainly focused in the West Pacific (40%) but also included cyclones in the West Atlantic, 62 East Pacific and Indian Oceans. Price used WWLLN to determine the total lightning 63 within the tropical cyclone using a $10^{\circ} \ge 10^{\circ}$ square window centered on the eye. The 64 maximum sustained wind and pressure data for each cyclone was taken from the National 65 Hurricane Center and the Joint Typhoon Warning Center with 6 hour resolution and then 66 smoothed using a 24 hour running average. The same averaging method was used on the 67 lightning data by collating the sub microsecond resolution lightning strike data into 6 hour totals and then applying a 24 hour running average. A comparison between average 69 wind speeds and lightning strike rate was then performed. 70

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⁷² Price reported a positive correlation (r = 0.82) of strong significance (>90%) between ⁷³ the variation in winds and lightning for 56 of the 58 cyclones. The peak correlation had ⁷⁴ a variable time offset, with the lightning leading the winds by as much as 6 days in some ⁷⁵ cases, and in others the lightning lagged the winds by up to 3 days. The mean and median ⁷⁶ lead time of the lightning variability was reported as 30 hours. When each tropical cyclone

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⁷⁷ was compared using this 30 hour lead time, 31 events showed a positive correlation with
⁷⁸ 19 of these showing a statistical significance > 90%. We begin by comparing the IBTrACS
⁷⁹ database to the WWLLN lightning data for the Price storm set.

2.2. Reanalysis of the data

Using IBTrACS, 38 of the 58 cyclones used by Price have a maximum sustained wind 80 speed below the 114 kt category 4 limit defined by the Saffir-Simpson scale. Using tropical 81 cyclone 'Sonca' as an example, Price's supplementary material showed that the smoothed 82 peak winds reach ~ 115 kts whereas the un-smoothed IBTrACS maximum wind speed for 83 this cyclone is only 100 kts (the smoothed peak is 90 kts). The 'Sonca' winds in Price 84 develop the same way over time as the IBTrACS data, showing a single wind peak just 85 before 25 April 2005, although there is a constant offset in wind speeds at all times. It 86 should be noted that these 38 cyclones with a maximum sustained wind <114 kts still 87 fall under the Hong Kong Observatory classification of a 'severe Typhoon' (equivalent 88 to a category 4 classification with a lower limit of 81 kts). However, we note that the 89 magnitude differences between Price and IBTrACS are not important in this study as the 90 cross correlation procedure to determine peak lag and lead times involves subtracting the 91 mean from each data set, centering the data around 0 regardless of its original magnitude. 92

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We begin, in a similar style to Price, with Hurricane Dennis. This tropical cyclone was tracked between 5-15 July 2005. To perform the running average we initially attempted using the average of 4 time bins (a 24 hour period), however an even number of bins requires an interpolated time value to be used. This interpolation was tested and did not

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reproduce the Price wind and pressure results. The number of bins was increased to 5 (a 98 30 hour period), allowing use of whole time bins and correctly reproducing the wind and qq pressure variation. The wind and pressure variation in Hurricane Dennis is shown in panel 100 a) of Figure 1. However, the lightning strike variation using the same 30 hour average 101 approach produces different results from Price as shown in panel b) of Figure 2. We see a 102 similar shape in the smoothed lightning activity with the second peak at approximately 103 the same activity rate as Price. However, the initial lightning activity peak is lower 104 than Figure 2c in Price and the third peak is much higher. We have attempted multiple 105 methods to reproduce Price's values including: median averaging, larger and smaller time 106 windows to average over, different total lightning flash bin sizes, introducing bias to the 107 averaging and using older WWLLN products with no improvement. The reproduction 108 of hurricane Dennis has been independently performed by three of the authors and all 109 have reproduced the variability shown in Figure 1b. We perform a cross correlation of the 110 wind and lightning strike data seen in our Figure 1, taking the time difference associated 111 with the peak value, then shift the two data sets and perform a linear correlation. For 112 hurricane Dennis, we find the lightning leads the winds by 30 hours with a correlation of 113 0.96 and a statistical significance over 99.9%. This is very close to the Price values for 114 this storm of 24 hours and a correlation of 0.95. The small differences are most likely to 115 arise from our inability to perfectly reproduce the Price lightning curve. The direct wind 116 to pressure correlation was also calculated giving a linear correlation value of -0.98. 117

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¹¹⁹ We repeated this process for all 58 tropical cyclones in the Price dataset, but included two

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extra conditions. The first condition is that the first and last two time bins of the wind 120 and lightning data are removed after the running average is performed. This removal 121 ensures that the data points which do not have sufficient neighboring values to average 122 over are not included. The second condition is that the cross correlation time difference 123 between the lightning and wind values are limited to +6 days and -3 days as Price reports 124 no differences outside these limits. Our analysis of the direct wind and pressure relation 125 is highly negatively correlated as expected, with a mean correlation of -0.988 and median 126 correlation of -0.993. The varying lightning to wind correlations for the Price cyclones are 127 given in panel c) of Figure 1. Each tropical cyclone is given a symbol similar to Price's 128 Figure 4, based on the statistical significance of the result as shown in the legend. The 129 average correlation of the 58 cyclones has a mean of 0.72 and median of 0.73, in comparison 130 to the mean correlation value of 0.82 given by Price. Three cyclones ('Khanun', 'Sidr' 131 and 'Wipha') have a statistical significance < 90% (~85% for all three). 132

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Panel d) of Figure 1 shows the distribution of the tropical cyclone lag data for comparison 134 to Price's Figure 3. Here a positive lag indicates that the lightning variation leads the 135 wind variation. The time resolution of the lag distribution is set to 6 hours (grey bars). 136 Again, the distribution does not match the specific values seen in Price. A summation of 137 the distribution in Figure 3 in Price exceeds 200%, suggesting some errors in this figure. 138 Despite the difference, we still find mean and median lag times close to the 30 hour values 139 reported by Price. The mean lag time for our analysis is +24 hours with a median value 140 of +27 hours. These average lag times are indicated on panel d) by the solid (mean) and 141

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dashed (median) lines. As a final test the three cyclones with statistical significance less
than 90% are removed and the averages recalculated, giving little change to the mean lag
(+24 hours) and providing a median lag of +24 hours. Smoothing the lag distribution
data across 5 bins (30 hours, solid blue line) produces a distribution which looks closer to
Price's Figure 3.

¹⁴⁸ We conclude that while there appear to be issues in the results presented by Price, their ¹⁴⁹ approach does indicate that there is a moderate to strong correlation between lightning ¹⁵⁰ and wind variations, with the lightning leading the wind by approximately 1 day.

3. Repeating the method for a larger subset of storms

3.1. Identifying tropical cyclones

The Price analysis approach is now extended to a larger and longer tropical cyclone 151 dataset. Classification of cyclones by wind intensity depends upon its basin of origin. 152 NOAA's Hurricane Research Division identifies 7 basins of origin for tropical cyclones 153 which can be split into 5 regions. These regions are Hurricanes (West Atlantic and 154 East Pacific north of the equator to the International Dateline), Typhoons (International 155 Dateline to 1100 longitude north of the equator), Australian TC (100° eastwards to -156 120° longitude, south of the equator), Indian TC (30° to 100° longitude both sides 157 of the equator), and any other location (including the Mediterranean). The intensity 158 classifications for each area are included in Table 1 with the maximum sustained wind 159 speeds converted to knots. The hurricane classification is from the latest update of the 160 Saffir-Simpson wind scale at the National Hurricane Center, the typhoon classification is 161

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taken from the Hong Kong Observatory and the Australian classification is taken from the Australian Bureau of Meteorology. The classifications for the Indian Ocean basins are taken from the Indian Regional Specialized Meteorological Center, who use 7 categories (1 to 4, 5(i), 5(ii) and 6) for tropical storms. These have been matched up to be consistent with those of other agencies in Table 1. For our larger cyclone dataset only category 4 and 5 tropical cyclones (equivalent to 5(ii) and 6 in the case of those with Indian Ocean basin of origin) will be included.

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The basin of origin is determined by the latitude and longitude of the first maximum 170 sustained wind speed data point in the IBTrACS database for each cyclone. We find 144 171 tropical cyclones which can be classified as category 4 or 5 between January 2005 and 172 February 2013 ($\sim 20\%$ of the tropical cyclone list for these dates). The initial position of 173 the 144 tropical cyclones are shown in panel a) of Figure 2. The color of each start position 174 represents the peak maximum sustained wind speed of the cyclone ranging from 85 to 160 175 kts. All 58 cyclones in the Price dataset passed the minimum sustained wind speeds to 176 be classed as a category 4 or 5 tropical cyclone using the classifications in Table 1 and 177 are included in this 8 year dataset. 178

3.2. Analysis of the 8 year tropical cyclone dataset

Panel b) of Figure 2 shows the 8 year dataset in a similar style to panel c) of Figure 1. The *x*-axis indicates the start date of the tropical cyclone instead of the name of the storm. Each data point symbol relates to the category of the tropical cyclone. The maximum sustained wind speed, basin of origin and the mean/median/total lightning strikes in the

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cyclone were examined and no relation to the linear correlation or optimal lag value was 183 found. There are two tropical cyclones not plotted which have a negative correlation value 184 ('Carina' in 2006, r = -0.15 and 'Roke' in 2011, r = -0.35). The mean (0.74) and median 185 (0.78) linear correlations are very close to the 3 year dataset of Price shown in panel c) 186 of Figure 1, indicating that the Price tropical cyclones are a fair sample of the larger 187 population. Panel c) of Figure 2 shows the distribution of lag times in a similar style to 188 panel d) of Figure 1. Once again the mean (29 hours) and median (30 hours) lags are 189 very similar to the ~ 1 day timescale discussed in both Price and DeMaria et al. [2012]. 190

3.3. Lightning strike collection window

¹⁹¹ To collect the 6 hour lightning strike totals, Price used a $10^{\circ} \ge 10^{\circ}$ square window. Up ¹⁹² to now we also used the same window size and shape but now investigate a window more ¹⁹³ suited to the shape of a tropical cyclone. The $10^{\circ} \ge 10^{\circ}$ square is changed to a circular ¹⁹⁴ window with a radius set in km rather than degrees. At the equator 10° is ~1100 km so we ¹⁹⁵ rerun the analysis on the 8 year dataset for radii ranging from 500 km down to 100 km in ¹⁹⁶ 100 km increments as well as a 50 km radius. A range of toroidal rings were also calculated.

¹⁹⁸ A comparison of the circular to square window is performed by investigating the 500 ¹⁹⁹ km radius circular window centered on the cyclone. As expected there are only small ²⁰⁰ changes in the results between the 500 km radial and 10° square window. The circular ²⁰¹ window giving both mean and median lags of 30 hours (in comparison to 29 and 30 hours ²⁰² from the square window) and the median linear correlation was 0.76. In Section 2.2 we ²⁰³ described an initial condition limiting the cross correlation to +6 and -3 days to match

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the Price approach. We now remove this limitation for analysis of the individual circular 204 lightning collection windows, the lag distribution smoothing (e.g., panel c of Figure 2) is 205 also reduced to a more conservative 3 bin distance (18 hours). The cross correlation and 206 linear correlation was performed for each cyclone and lightning radial distance window 207 described above. The 300 km radius window resulted in the highest linear correlation of 208 lightning to wind variability with r = 0.80, shown in panel a) of Figure 3. A full table 209 including each radial distance collection window with the average correlations and lags 210 are included in the supplementary material. 211

4. Discussion

We find broadly similar results to Price when we extend their approach to a longer 8 212 year dataset of tropical cyclones. However, while the typical linear correlations give values 213 in the range of 0.7 to 0.8, this does not necessarily indicate a true ability to match the 214 evolving wind and lightning variation. Visual inspection of each of the 144 cyclones was 215 performed to investigate the accuracy of the cross correlation procedure. We plotted: the 216 lightning against winds in a similar style to panel b) of Figure 1, the lag times against 217 cross correlation value, and the time shifted lightning data with wind data to determine 218 the accuracy of the variation matching process. This inspection found 3 cyclones where 219 the wind and lightning variation show no similarities and a further 8 instances of the 220 cross correlation performing poorly, giving a failure rate of $\sim 8\%$. The two sources of cross 221 correlation failure were; double peaked winds with the lightning peak(s) linked to the 222 wrong wind peak, and lightning data which had a sharp lightning strike gradient at the 223 beginning or end of the data (an example is shown in the supplementary material). This 224

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²²⁵ large gradient in the 6 hour lightning strike total forced the cross correlation procedure ²²⁶ to match poorly and resulted in lags > 84 hours and < -84 hours (3.5 days).

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In Section 3.3 we noted that a 300 km radius resulted in the best median linear correlation, 228 shown in panel a) of Figure 3. While the mean and median lags show a value similar to 229 that quoted by Price, the lags show a double peak distribution at +66 hours (2.75 days) 230 and 0 hours, with these average values sitting between them. Taking the average provides 231 little to no information in this specific case. We further investigate these peaks by looking 232 at radial distances smaller than 300 km. Panel b) of Figure 3 shows the < 50 km radial 233 distance which has only a single clear peak between 0 and +6 hours. Molinari et al. [1994], 234 used a distance less than 40 km as corresponding to evewall lightning in hurricane Andrew, 235 while Zhang et al. [2012] determined lightning at < 60 km was eyewall lightning. We can 236 therefore assume that our < 50 km radial window is providing correlations predominately 237 for eyewall lightning. Molinari, Moore and Idone [1999] showed that lightning density 238 in tropical cyclones is bi-modal as a function of radial distance, with one distribution in 239 the evewall and the other in the rainband region (150-300 km). Investigation of other 240 radial distances, including the 150-300 km region, provides no other single peaks in the 241 lag distribution. When looking at the < 300 km circular window in panel a) of Figure 3, 242 it is interesting to note that Pan, Qie and Wang [2014] found a modal lightning lag of 243 +60 hours (2.5 days) when looking at weak tropical cyclones in the Northwest Pacific 244 (using a < 600 km radius window). DeMaria et al. [2012] also determined that inner core 245

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lightning outbreaks are "a signal that an intensification is coming to an end", (i.e., the
peak winds have been reached).

5. Conclusions

We have recreated the Price approach for a set of 58 tropical cyclones but were unable 248 to duplicate the exact results that were found in this study. However, we confirmed their 249 broad conclusions that lightning variability seems to be correlated to wind variability 250 and that on average, the lightning variation leads the wind variation by ~ 1 day. The 251 Price approach has been extended from the original 3 years of data to an 8 year dataset 252 which returns broadly similar lag and correlation results when using a lightning collection 253 window of 10° square or of 500 km radius. The cross correlation matching between wind 254 and lightning only has an $\sim 8\%$ failure rate. We have calculated both the 10° x 10° square 255 lightning detection window, a radial distance in kilometers, and performed the lightning 256 to wind cross correlation for a range of circular distances including toroidal rings. The 257 highest correlations were found for the < 300 km radial window with a median linear 258 correlation of 0.8. The calculated lag time for each tropical cyclone using this < 300 km 259 collection window, shows a double peak distribution at 0 and +66 hours, at this smaller 260 radius a median or mean lag is not appropriate. The eyewall lightning at distances < 50261 km from the center of the storm provides only a single peak around a zero time lag. 262

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These results suggest that the predictive timescale of lightning is highly dependent upon which region of the cyclone is investigated. When using a spatially large lightning collection window our results agree with other studies of high category tropical cyclones

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[e.g., *Price, Mustafa and Yair*, 2009; *DeMaria et al.*, 2012; *Pan, Qie and Wang*, 2014] of a ~1 day value. When we look at the region containing the eyewall we find a 0 day value, indicating that eyewall lightning cannot be used to predict the wind evolution. When we consider the < 300 km region (rainband and eyewall) we find a double peaked structure at ~3 days (agreeing with *Pan, Qie and Wang* [2014] for weak tropical cyclones) and 0 days. This 0 day lag is independent of the eyewall correlation peak, confirmed by the 150-300 km window showing the same double peak structure.

Acknowledgments. This work was funded by a University of Otago Research Grant. 274 The tropical cyclone data was taken from the IBTrACS database and the lightning 275 data came from the WWLLN network, both described in the data sources section. 276 The information on tropical cyclone wind classification was taken from the following 277 websites: NOAA-National Hurricane Center (www.nhc.noaa.gov/aboutsshws.php), 278 Australian Bureau of Meterology, (www.bom.gov.au/cyclone/faq), Regional Specialized 279 Meteorological Centre, New Delhi, (*www.rsmcnewdelhi.imd.gov.in*/), and the Hong Kong 280 Observatory, (www.weather.gov.hk/informtc/class.htm). Information on the splitting of 281 tropical cyclone identification regions was obtained from the NOAA-Hurricane Research 282 Division, (www.aoml.noaa.gov/hrd/tcfaq/F1.html). The authors wish to thank the World 283 Wide Lightning Location Network (*http://wwlln.net*), a collaboration among over 50 284 universities and institutions, for providing the lightning location data used in this paper. 285

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Table 1: The intensity classification for categories of tropical cyclones in different regions based upon maximum sustained wind speeds. The categories defined by the New Delhi RSMC are more numerous and the equivalent categories are included in brackets. Descriptions of the basin locations are given in the text. Wind speeds are converted to knots.

Category	Hurricanes	Typhoon	Australian TC	Indian TC
1	> 64	> 34	> 34	> 34 (3)
2	> 83	> 48	> 48	> 48 (4)
3	> 96	> 64	> 64	> 64 (5i)
4	> 113	> 81	> 86	> 91 (5ii)
5	> 137	> 100	> 107	> 120(6)



line) Figure 1: Recreation of the Price, Mustafa and Yair [2009] study using IBTrACS and WWLLN, with a 10° square window.a) blue solid line) showing a double peak around 0.75 days (18 hours). indicates the statistical significance. ${f d}$) The distribution of peak correlation time lags (a 30 hour smoothing is shown by the The wind (solid) and pressure (dashed) in Hurricane Dennis. **b)** Our processing of the wind (thin line) and lightning (thick in Hurricane Dennis. ဂ The linear correlation coefficients for each of the Price 58 tropical cyclones. The symbol

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Figure 3: The 8 year dataset analysed using a circular window, in km rather than degrees, centered on the storm. **a**) The distribution of lags using a 300 km radial distance window for the lightning detection. **b**) The distribution of lags using a 50 km radial distance, this distance is most likely comprised of eyewall lightning.

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