



Dynamic lightning NO_x production rates obtained with space-based low-Earth orbiting and geostationary lightning imagers

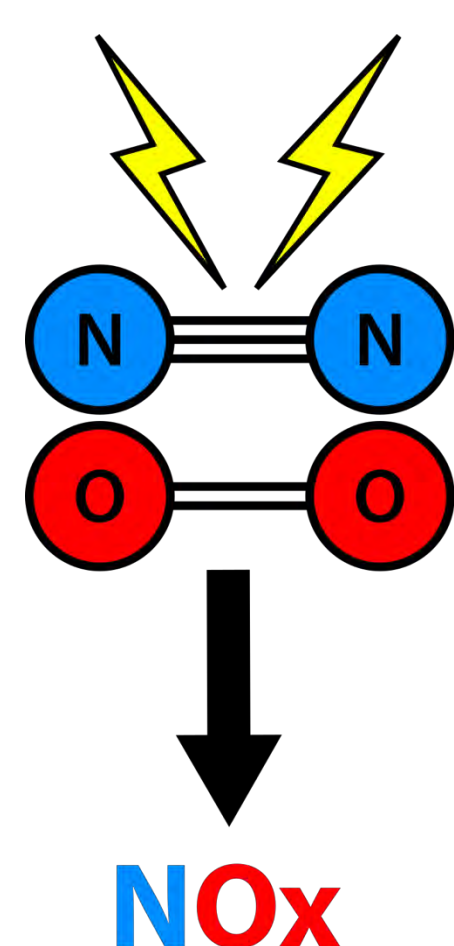
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We derive spatially and hourly varying lightning NO_x production rates with satellite observations of lightning energies for improved representation of NO_x sources in models

1 NO_x formation from lightning

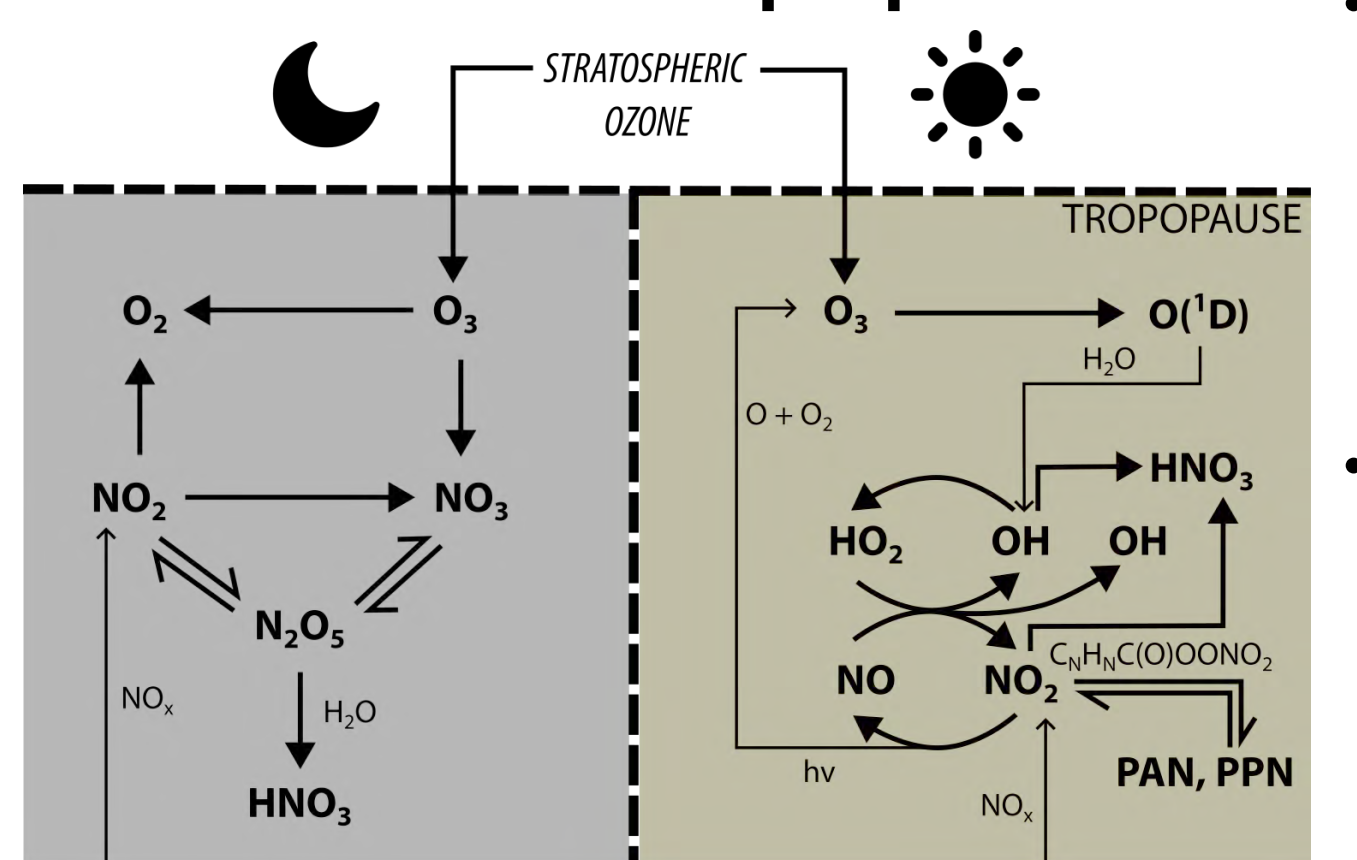
- Lightning-produced NO_x is the most dominant source of NO_x throughout most of the troposphere.
- High-energy lightning discharges break apart N₂ and O₂ molecules, that then recombine as NO, which rapidly reacts to form NO_x.



Lightning NO_x forms through N₂ and O₂ breakdown

2 Tropospheric NO_x chemistry and influence on O₃

The formation of tropospheric ozone

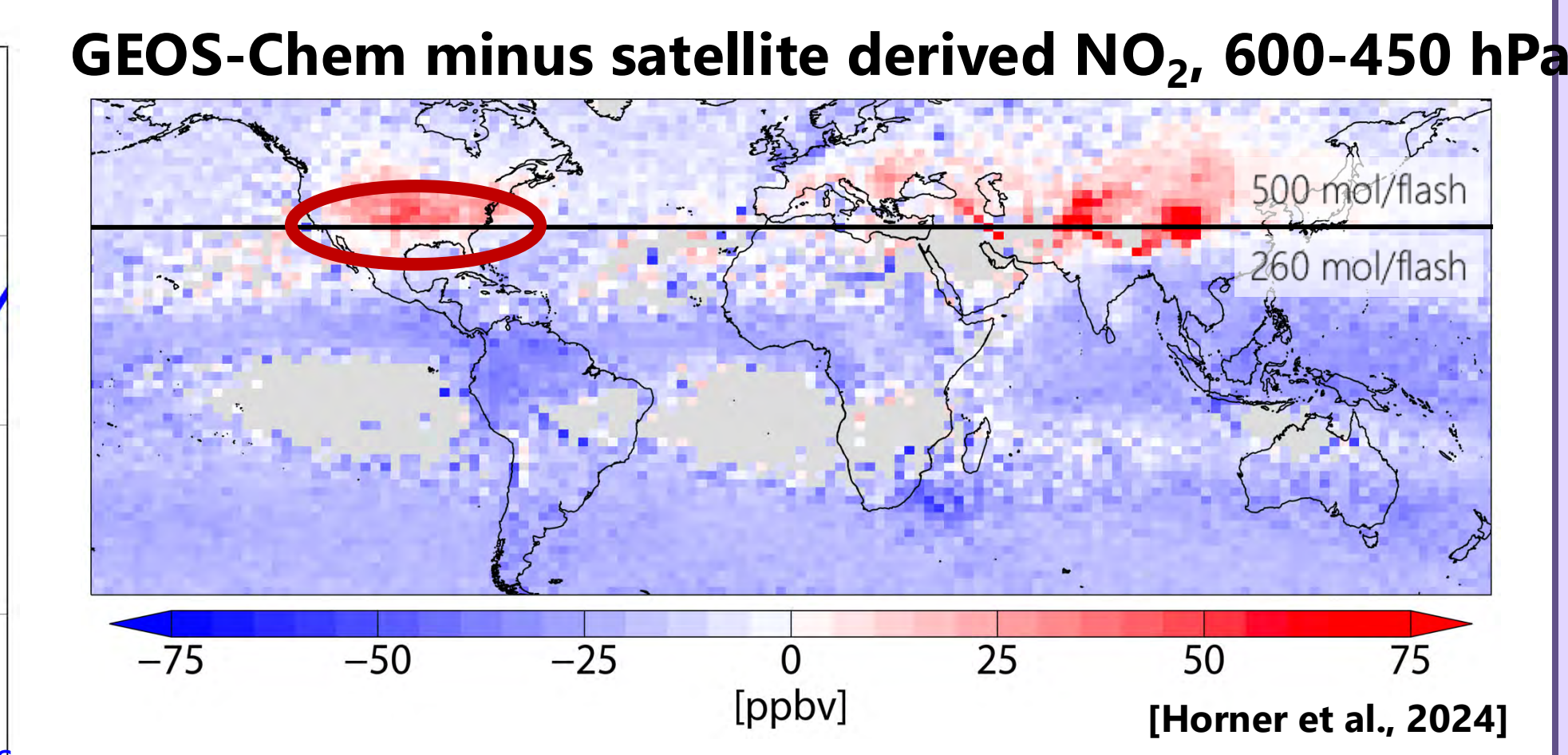
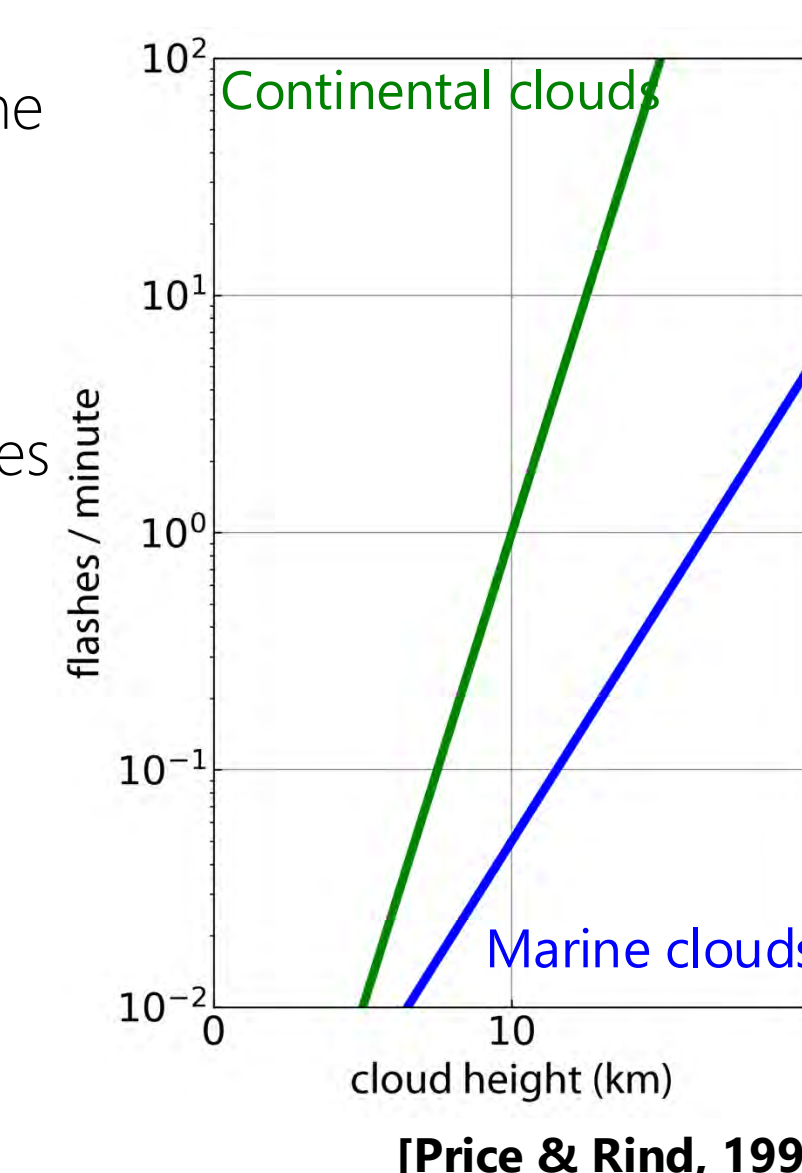


NO_x drives O₃ formation while reservoir compounds like PAN, PPN and N₂O₅ redistribute NO_x

- NO_x initiates O₃ formation and drives radical cycles involving OH and HO₂, which influence the atmosphere's oxidation capacity.
- Compounds like PAN, PPN, and nighttime N₂O₅ act as temporary NO_x reservoirs, enabling redistribution across different regions before releasing NO₂ back into the atmosphere.

3 The current representation of lightning NO_x in atmospheric chemistry models

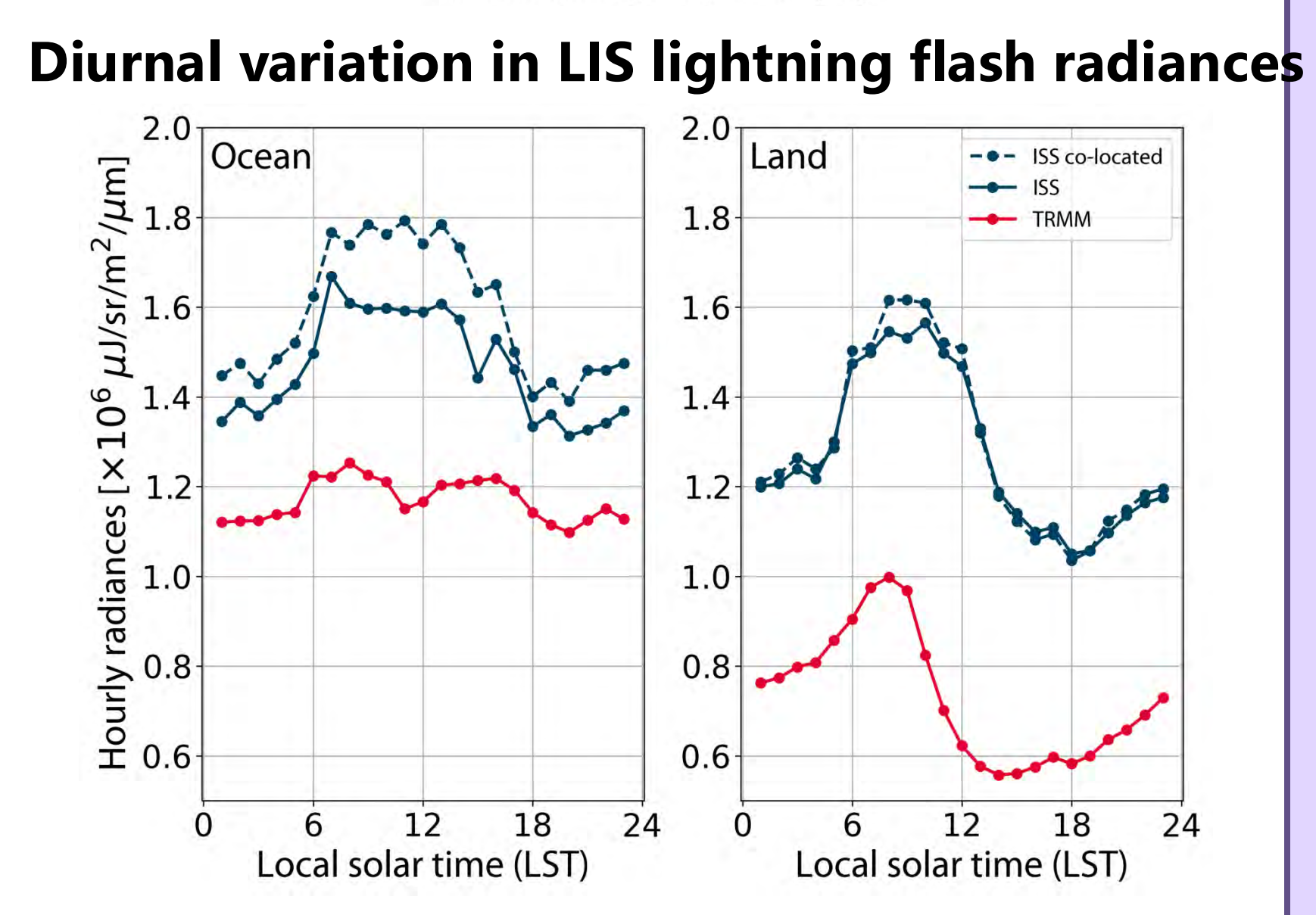
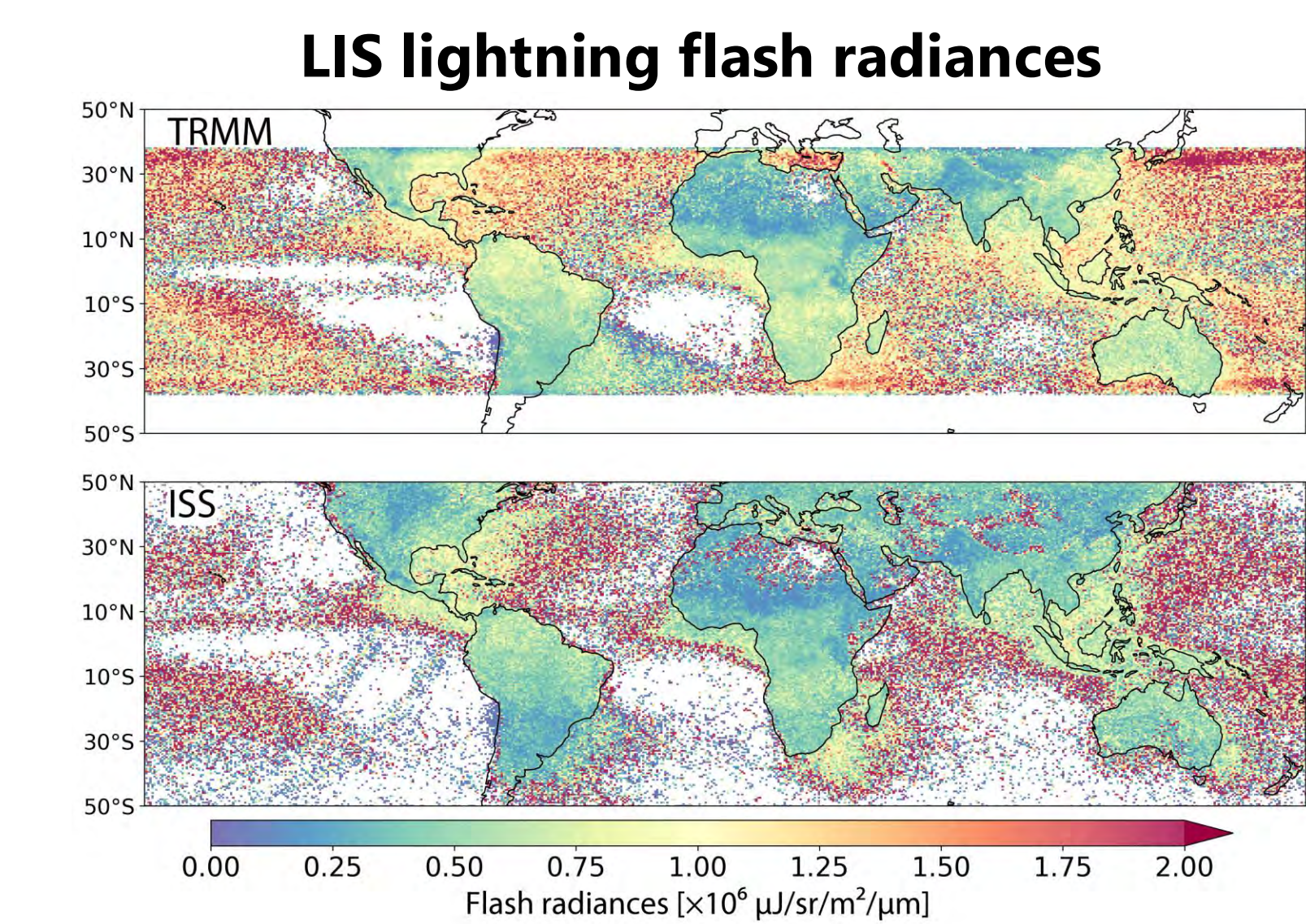
- Lightning flash rates are calculated using the relationship with cloud-top height.
- Flash rates are adjusted with local scaling factors to match lightning flash climatologies from space-based detectors (Murray et al., 2012).
- NO_x emissions are calculated using static production rate of 500 mol/flash in the northern midlatitudes and 260 mol/flash everywhere else.



Highly parameterised lightning NO_x production rates lead to upper troposphere NO_x model biases in GEOS-Chem

4 Lightning flash energies from the Lightning Imaging Sensor

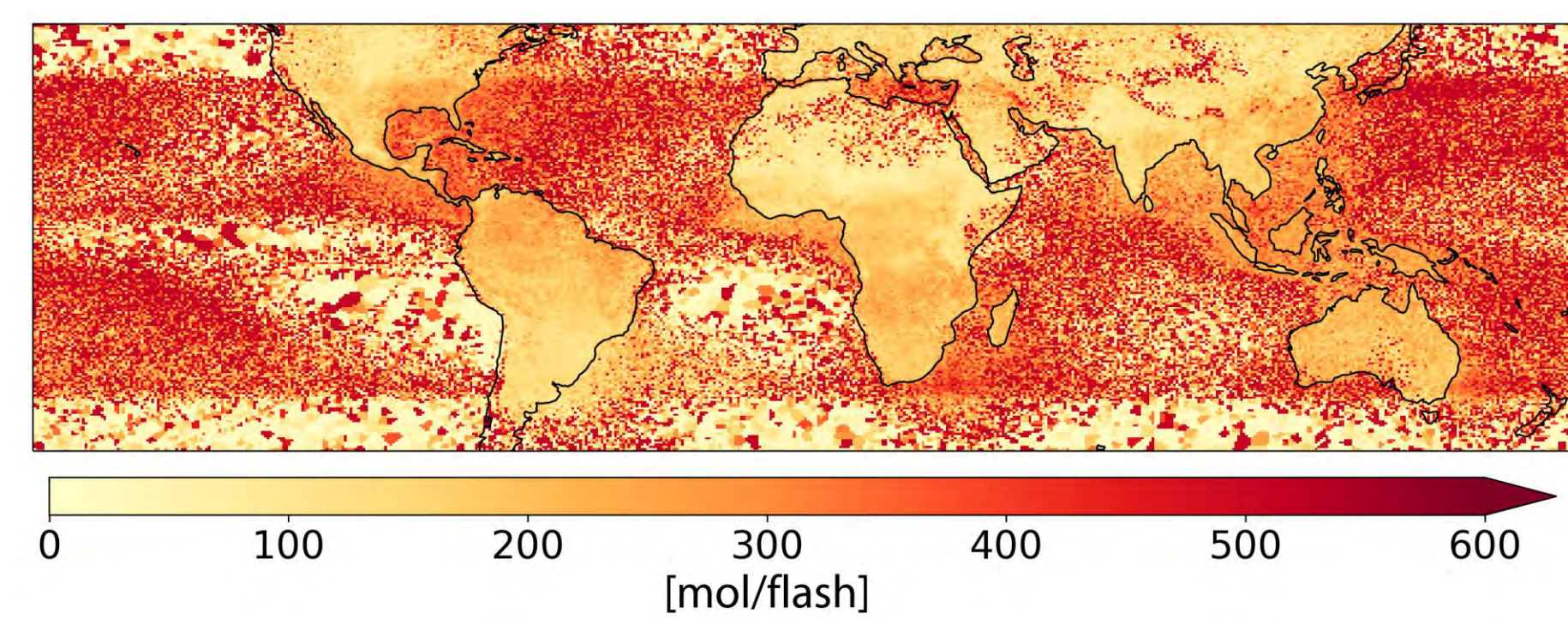
- Lightning Imaging Sensors (LIS) onboard the TRMM satellite and the International Space Station measures lightning flash energies that can constraint NO_x production.
- Flash radiances are ~60% greater over oceans than land, driven by oceanic conductivity, larger storms, and cloud microphysics.
- ISS-LIS (International Space Station) radiances are 31% greater than TRMM-LIS (Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission), with a greater difference between ocean and land.
- Flash radiances over land peak at 7-10 LST due to overnight charge build-up, while ocean radiance stays elevated from 5-18 LST due to temperatures.



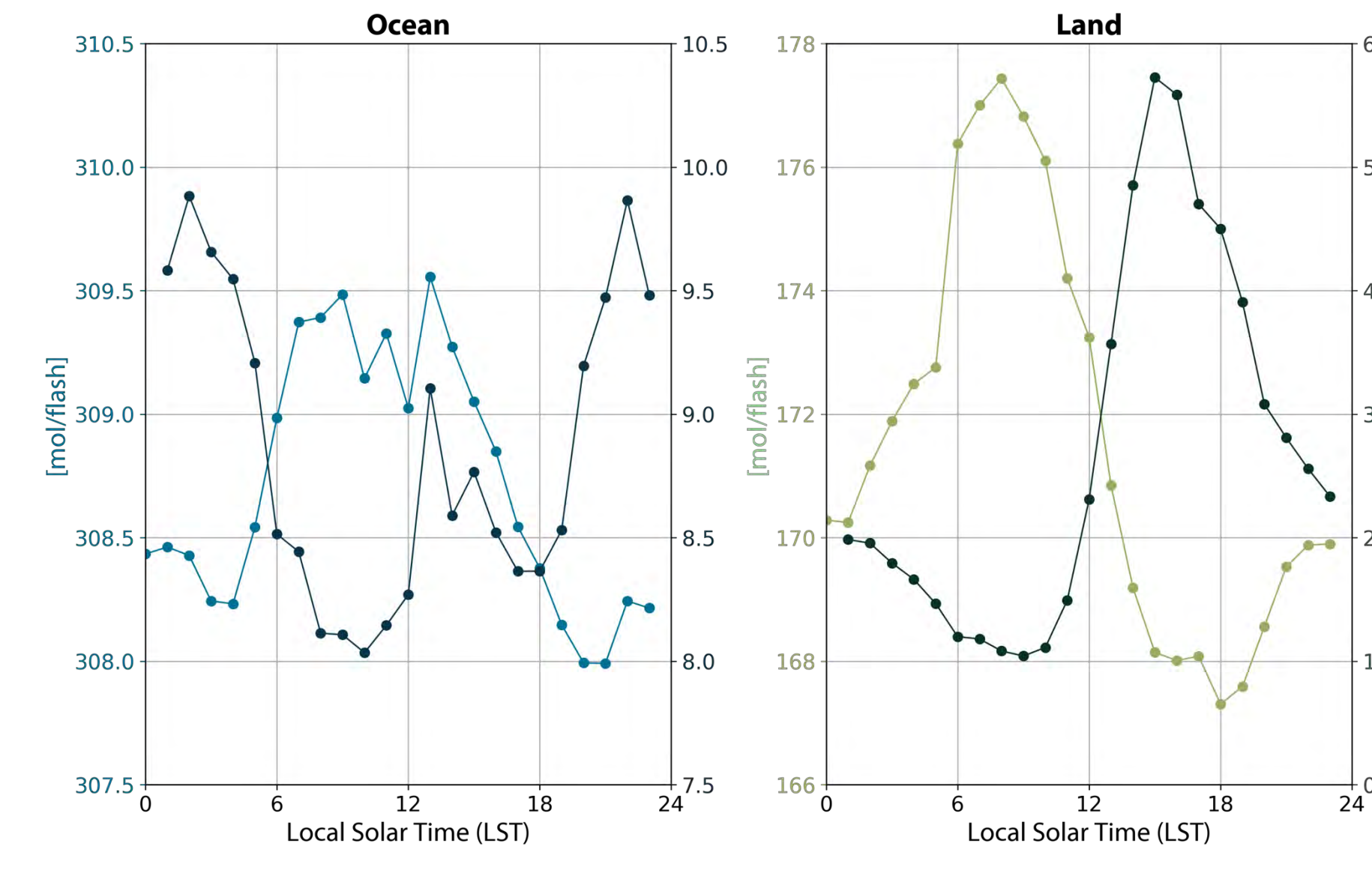
LIS flash radiances are higher over oceans than land, with ISS-LIS exceeding TRMM-LIS

5 Calculating lightning NO_x production rates from flash radiances

New LIS derived lightning NO_x production rates



Diurnal variation in lightning NO_x production rates and flash counts



The β-method is adapted to estimate lightning NO_x production rates using LIS flash radiant energy

Wu et al. (2023) estimated lightning NO_x production rates using satellite-based lightning optical energy from the Geostationary Lightning Mapper

$$P = \frac{y}{\beta' N_A} \Sigma Q$$

Thermochemical NO_x yield: 9×10^5 mol/J

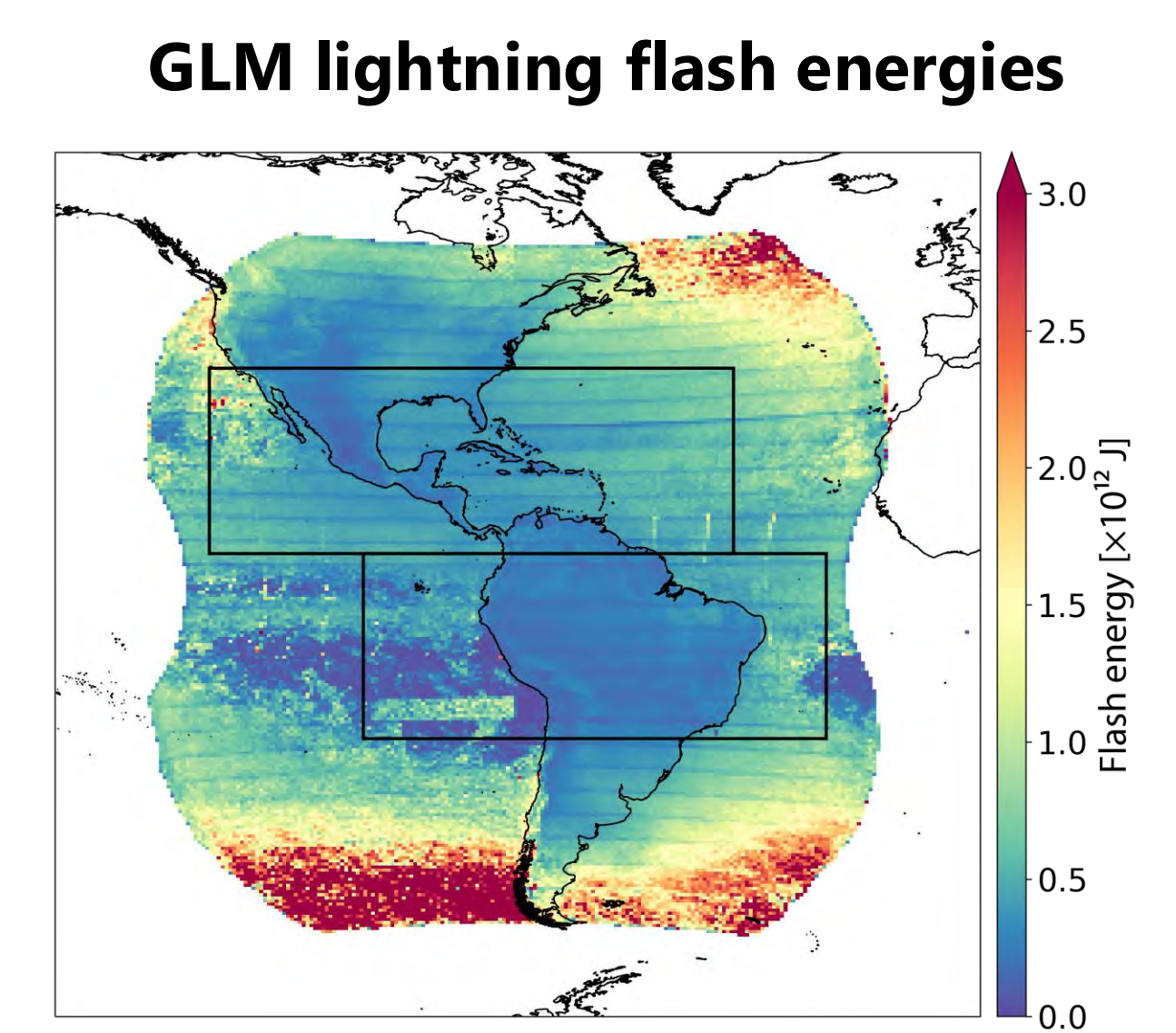
Radiances from satellite

We adapt this so-called β-method (Koshak et al., 2017) to use LIS flash radiances (μJ/sr/m²/μm) instead of optical energies (J), assuming a proportional relationship between lightning optical energy and NO_x production:

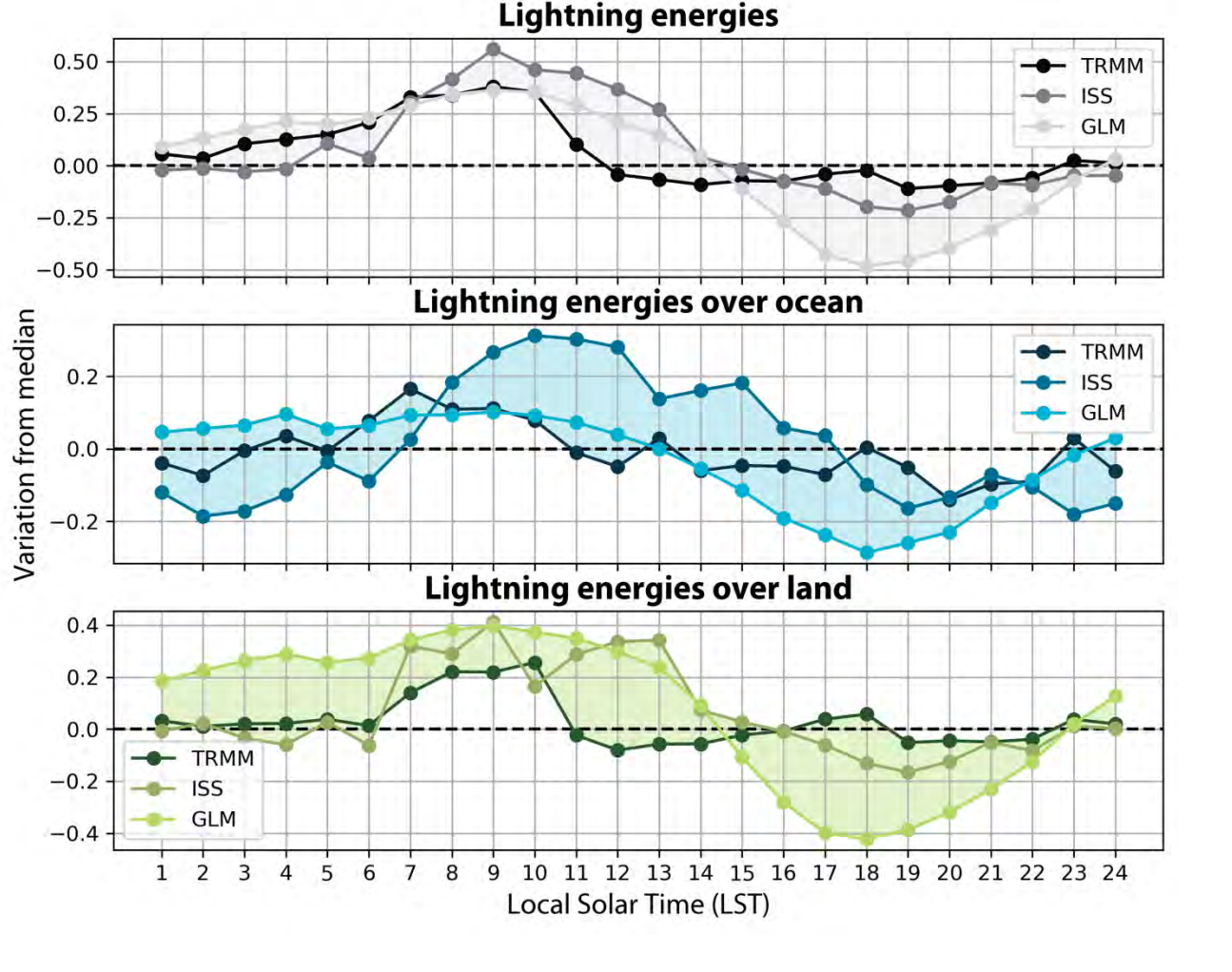
$$\beta' = \frac{y}{N_A} \left(\frac{\bar{Q}}{P} \right)$$

6 Evaluation using the Geostationary Lightning Mapper

- Normalising GLM, TRMM, and ISS lightning energy data enables direct comparison, revealing a similar morning peak (9:00 LST) in over land, 10-55% higher than average.
- GLM peaks earlier over oceans (4:00 LST) than land (9:00 LST) due to its continuous geostationary coverage, while ISS consistently peaks between 9:00-10:00 LST over both land and ocean and TRMM peaks at 7:00 LST over ocean and 10:00 LST over land.
- These morning peaks align with increased convection driven by solar heating, which destabilises the lower atmosphere, enhances updrafts, and intensifies thunderstorms, leading to higher



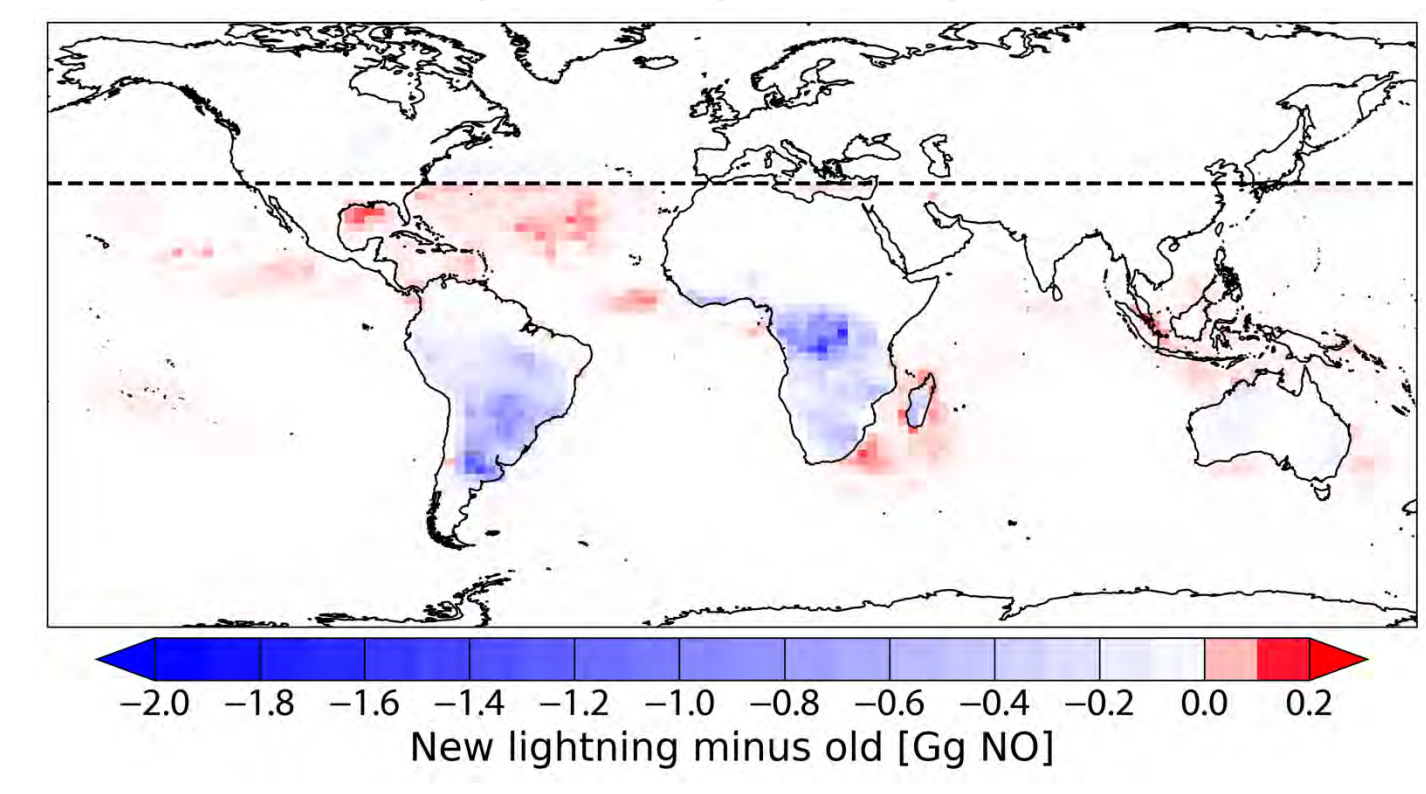
Diurnal variation in flash energies



Data show morning peaks, driven by solar heating and atmospheric convection

7 Impact on simulated lightning NO_x emissions

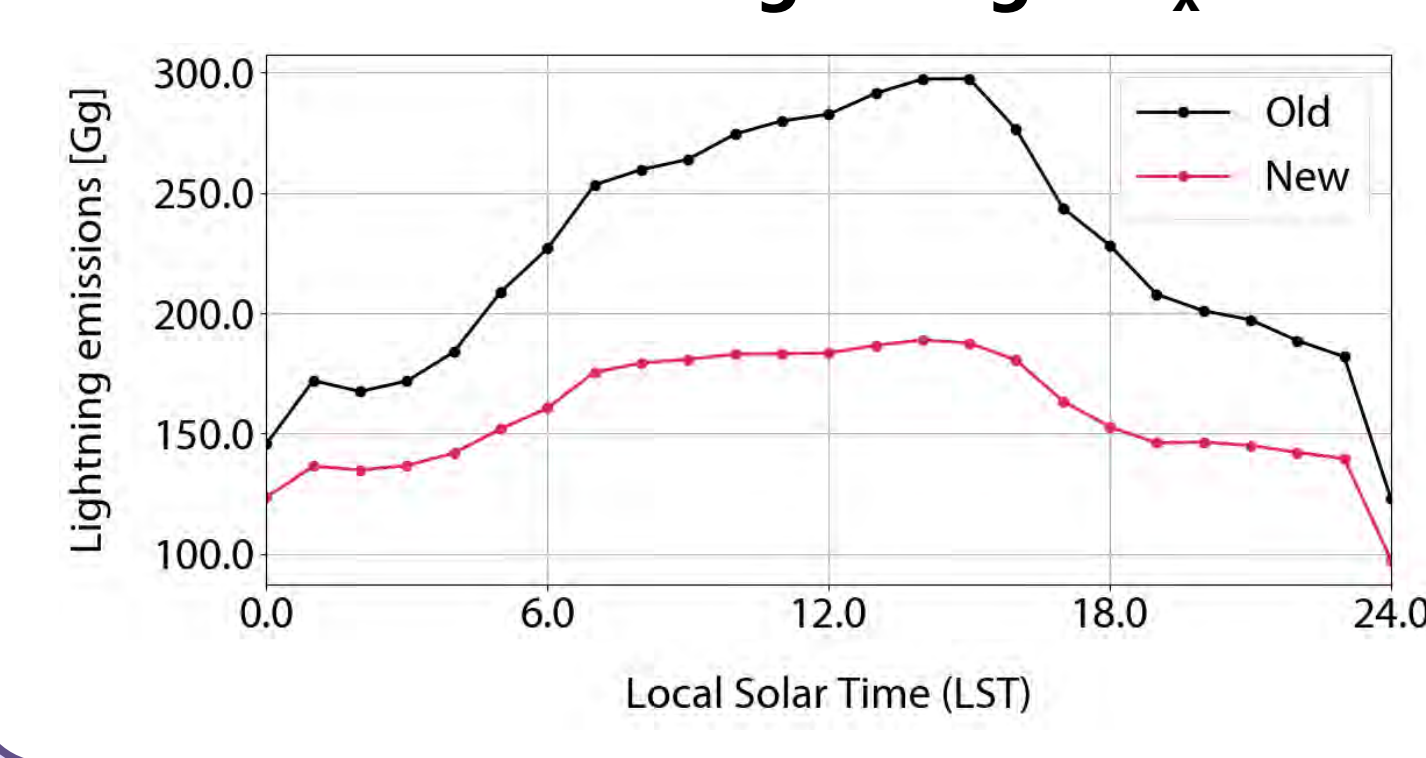
Annual change in lightning NO_x emissions



Updated lightning NO_x production rates decrease global lightning NO_x emissions from 5.5 ± 0.2 Tg N yr⁻¹ to 3.6 ± 0.1 Tg N yr⁻¹ between 2015-2019. Global lightning NO_x emissions peak in JJA (1.14 ± 0.04 Tg N yr⁻¹) and a minimum in DJF (0.65 ± 0.03 Tg N yr⁻¹).

- NO_x emissions increase in tropical/subtropical areas (e.g., Central America, Gulf of Mexico, South Africa) due to higher energy marine lightning flashes, while parts of the tropics (Central Africa, South America) show significant decreases due to updated lower lightning NO_x production rates (decrease from 260 mol/flash to 220 & 180 mol/flash respectively).
- NO_x emissions peak between 13-16 LST but the variability is dampened because the previous parameterisation has no diurnal

Diurnal variation in lightning NO_x emissions

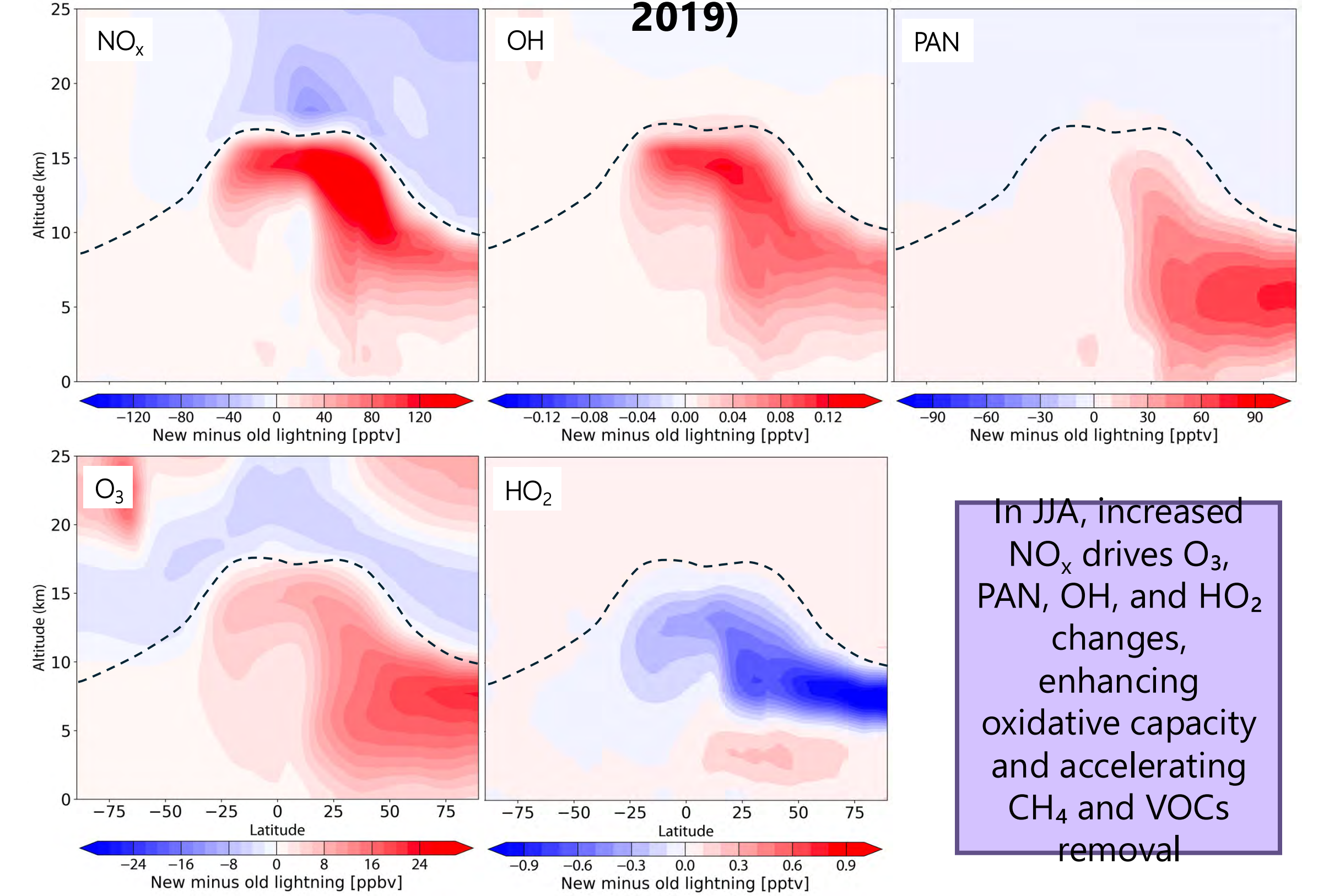


Updated lightning NO_x production rates reduce global lightning NO_x emissions from 5.5 TgN yr⁻¹ to 3.6 TgN yr⁻¹

8 Impact of updated lightning NO_x on tropospheric composition

- In June-August (JJA) NO_x increases up to 190 pptv despite the global decline in lightning NO_x emissions because of convective uplift of localised increases that occur in the subtropics.
- This drives northern hemisphere O₃ increases of 25 ppbv due to O₃'s longer lifetime and poleward transport. PAN enhancements (>65 pptv) occur across 20-90°N. OH increases up to 0.13 pptv, driven by enhanced O₃ photolysis and HO₂ decreases by up to 0.95 pptv due to enhanced OH cycling with NO, maintaining oxidative balance.
- The same spatial changes are seen in other seasons of the year though the magnitude is smaller because of the reduced convective

Changes in atmospheric composition from updated lightning (JJA 2019)



In JJA, increased NO_x drives O₃, PAN, OH, and HO₂ changes, enhancing oxidative capacity and accelerating CH₄ and VOCs removal

Key References

Price, C. & D. Rind (1992), Journal of Geophysical Research, 97(D9), Murray et al. (2012), Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 117(D20), Horner et al. (2024), Atmospheric Chemistry & Physics, 24(11), Wu et al. (2023), Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 128(4), Koshak et al. (2017), 16th Annual CMAS Conference.

Acknowledgements

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