

1 **Characteristics of North European winter lightning related to a high positive mode of the**  
2 **North Atlantic Oscillation**

3

4

5 Ivana Kolmašová

6 Department of Space Physics, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Czech. Acad. Sci., Prague,  
7 Czechia

8 Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University, Prague, Czechia

9

10 Ondřej Santolík

11 Department of Space Physics, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Czech. Acad. Sci., Prague,  
12 Czechia

13 Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University, Prague, Czechia

14

15 Kateřina Rosická

16 Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles University, Prague, Czechia

17

18

19

20 Corresponding author: I. Kolmašová, Institute of Atmospheric Physics of the Czech Academy of

21 Sciences, Boční II 1401, 141 00 Prague 4, Czechia (iko@ufa.cas.cz)

22

23

24

25

26

27

28 **Abstract**

29 The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) is a large-scale alternation of atmospheric masses between  
30 the Icelandic Low and Azores High pressure systems. It has a strong effect on European winter  
31 climate especially in its positive mode, which manifests itself by above-average precipitation and  
32 severe winter storms in the North Atlantic region. In this study, we use the World Wide  
33 Lightning Location Network data and investigate properties of lightning which occurred in  
34 Northern Europe during a severe winter 2014/2015, when NAO was in its strongest positive  
35 mode over the last two decades. We found that the diurnal distribution of winter lightning was  
36 nearly random, nevertheless superbolts with energies above one megajoule surprisingly appeared  
37 at night and in the morning hours. They were concentrated above the ocean close to the western  
38 coastal areas. We show for the first time that winter lightning in the North Atlantic, including  
39 superbolts, were predominantly single stroke flashes.

40

41 **Plain language summary**

42 One hundred years ago, unexpected occurrence of winter lightning above the British Islands and  
43 Northern Europe attracted attention of the British Meteorological Office, asking readers of the  
44 Nature journal to assist in investigation of winter thunderstorms by sending postcards with  
45 reports of observed lightning flashes. Today, we still do not fully understand these spectacular  
46 and potentially dangerous natural phenomena but have new possibilities to detect them.  
47 Lightning strokes excite electromagnetic pulses, which are now routinely used to localize  
48 lightning by triangulation techniques based on networks of radio receivers. In this study, we use  
49 the World Wide Lightning Location Network data and investigate properties of lightning which  
50 occurred in the north European region during a severe winter 2014/2015. Here we show that the

51 diurnal distribution of winter lightning was nearly random, nevertheless superbolts with energies  
52 above one megajoule surprisingly appeared at night and in the morning hours. They were  
53 concentrated above the ocean close to the western coastal areas. We show for the first time that  
54 winter lightning in the North Atlantic, including superbolts, were predominantly single stroke  
55 flashes.

## 56 **Key words**

57 Winter lightning, North Atlantic Oscillation, superbolts

58

## 59 **Key points:**

- 60 • North Atlantic winter superbolts appeared mostly at night and in the morning hours.
- 61 • They were concentrated above the ocean close to the western coastal areas.
- 62 • Detected winter lightning were predominantly single stroke flashes.

63

64

65

## 66 **1. Introduction**

67 Thunderstorms, which occur during winter months, are often accompanied by very strong  
68 gusty winds, heavy precipitation in a form of snow, rain or hail, and occasionally by very  
69 energetic lightning (Schultz & Vavrek, 2009). Damaging forces of medieval winter  
70 thunderstorms have already been reported in very old written historical records. One of the oldest  
71 entries describes a thunderstorm occurring in central Bohemia in February 1395 (Munzar &  
72 Franc, 2003). Numerous disastrous fires caused by winter lightning were reported from several  
73 European countries in 1555–1556 (Munzar & Franc, 2003).

74           At the beginning of the twentieth century, unexpected occurrence of winter lightning  
75 above the British Islands and Northern Europe attracted attention of the British Meteorological  
76 Office, asking readers of the Nature journal to assist in investigation of winter thunderstorms by  
77 sending postcards with reports of the time, position and number of observed lightning flashes (  
78 Cave, 1916; 1923). As a result, monthly amounts of flashes eyewitnessed by the Nature readers  
79 living in different parts of the British Islands were published (Bower, 1926; 1927).

80           Approximately at the same time when these postcards were inspected, the British  
81 climatologist Sir Gilbert Walker introduced a term North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) for a large  
82 scale alternation of atmospheric masses between the Icelandic Low and Azores High pressure  
83 (Walker, 1925). NAO controls the variability of the winter climate in the North Atlantic region,  
84 being responsible for approximately 40% of the winter fluctuations of the tropospheric pressure  
85 fields (Pinto & Raible, 2012). The strength of NAO is described by the monthly NAO index. Its  
86 calculation is based on the difference between normalized mean sea-level pressure strengths of  
87 the Azores High and the Icelandic Low. A positive NAO phase is characterized by an intensified  
88 Azores High and deeper Iceland Low. This situation leads to a stronger meridional pressure  
89 gradient over the North Atlantic region. Unusually high positive values of the NAO index were  
90 observed to manifest themselves by above-average precipitation and severe winter storms over  
91 British Isles and other parts of northwestern and northern Europe including occurrence of  
92 extreme cyclones (Pinto et al., 2009).

93           A winter-time meteorological scenario which can lead to an ascent of the air warmer than  
94 its surroundings - a condition necessary for generation of thunderclouds - is the spread of a cold  
95 air over a warmer lake, ocean or sea water (Williams, 2018). Therefore, there are only three  
96 regions at the northern hemisphere where the winter storms regularly produce numerous

97 lightning flashes: Japan, Mediterranean and the USA (Montanyà et al., 2016). Thundersnow  
98 events were searched in the World Wide Lightning Location Network (WWLLN) (Rodger et al.,  
99 2004) data from 2010-2015 in regions with low surface temperatures (Adhikari & Liu, 2019).  
100 The majority of snow lightning events were found to occur over high mountainous regions. Low-  
101 elevation events were observed exclusively in continental and coastal areas with slightly higher  
102 occurrence during evening and pre-midnight hours. The WWLLN data from 2010 to 2018 were  
103 also examined (Holzworth et al., 2019) with a focus on superbolts with stroke energies above 1  
104 MJ, it means with energies by three orders of magnitude larger than the mean energy of all  
105 lightning strokes detected by WWLLN. The distribution of superbolts globally peaked in the  
106 Northern Hemisphere winter from November to February in the European North Atlantic region  
107 and in the Mediterranean, and appeared only over water. Lightning data from the Optical  
108 Transient Detector from 1995 to 2000 for the North Atlantic Ocean and western Europe were  
109 analyzed (de Pablo & Soriano, 2007) with respect to the NAO. The authors found a correlation  
110 between positive NAO indexes and increases of lightning rates at latitudes above 50°N.

111         The number of strokes per flash (flash multiplicity) is an interesting quantity which is  
112 thought to reflect variations in climate and terrain (Schulz et al., 2005). The flash multiplicity is  
113 unfortunately very sensitive to both the detection efficiency of a given lightning location system  
114 and the algorithm used for grouping the strokes into a multi-stroke flash. Parameters, which  
115 determine inclusion of individual strokes into a flash are the maximum inter-stroke distance, the  
116 maximum inter-stroke time interval and/or the maximum total duration of a flash. Different  
117 combinations of parameters were used in different studies (Schulz et al., 2005; Pédeboy, 2012;  
118 Rakov & Huffines, 2003) where a typical maximum inter-stroke distance was 10 - 20 km, a  
119 typical maximum inter-stroke interval was 0.5 s - 1s, and typical maximum flash duration was 1-

120 2 s. A study of cold season lightning flashes (Adhikari & Liu, 2019) shows that 55 % of flashes  
121 contain only one stroke, 20 % had a multiplicity of 2, and remaining 25 % of flashes were  
122 composed of more than 2 strokes. About 16% of flashes were positive, with a larger fraction of  
123 single stroke flashes. In another study conducted in Austria (Schulz et al., 2005), a multiplicity of  
124 negative lightning flashes was  $\sim 2.5$  in contrast with a multiplicity of  $\sim 1.2$ - $1.3$  of positive  
125 lightning flashes.

126 In the present paper we report results of our analysis of lightning detected by WWLLN in  
127 the north European region during the winter 2014/2015, which exhibited the largest positive  
128 NAO index in the last two decades. We investigate the temporal and spatial distribution of  
129 lightning flashes with respect to their energies and multiplicity. We especially focus on  
130 superbolts with energies above 1 MJ.

## 131 **2. Data set**

132 The variation of NAO monthly indexes during last two decades provided by the Climate  
133 Prediction Center of the Weather National Service NOAA is plotted in Fig. 1a by a black line.  
134 The median values for winter seasons (October – March) vary from -1.2 to 1.4 and are  
135 represented by blue rectangles in Fig. 1a. The winter season 2014/2015 exhibited the highest  
136 positive value of the NAO (highlighted by a red oval in Fig. 1a), when the NAO indexes reached  
137 even 1.9 in December 2014 and 1.8 in January 2015. During this winter, newspapers in the UK,  
138 Germany, Poland, and Scandinavia reported extremely strong storms, which caused huge power  
139 outages, damages of buildings, and collapses of traffic paralyzing the daily life. The strongest  
140 storms got their names “Dagmar“, “Elon“, “Felix“, “Egon“, “Rachel“ (Fig. 1b), or “Hermann“  
141 by different news reports in countries affected by storms (“Snow and ice bring severe weather  
142 alert,” 2015; “Storm Rachel brings a month’s rain in one day Scot Region.,” 2015; “Stormen

143 Dagmar har ramt Jylland,” 2015). The occurrence of strong lightning was also manifested by  
144 formation of a particular type of dispersed radio signals– so called daytime tweek atmospherics,  
145 which were found to originate in the north European lightning strokes. These usual night time  
146 signals were untypically observed during the day. After propagating in the sub-ionospheric  
147 waveguide, they were recorded at a low-noise observing site in the South of France and reported  
148 (Santolík & Kolmašová, 2017) for the first time in Europe.

149 We used the WWLLN data and investigated properties of lightning, which were detected  
150 in the north European region from October 2014 to March 2015. We analyzed spatial and  
151 temporal distribution of lightning strokes, their energies and multiplicity, while focusing on  
152 extremely dangerous superbolts with sub-megajoule energies. We limited the area of our interest  
153 by 50°N, 20°W and by 60°E. Our dataset consists of more than 90 thousand localized lightning  
154 detections. For the majority of strokes, WWLLN also delivered estimates of their energy and  
155 errors in the energy calculations. The information about the number of the WWLLN stations  
156 entering the algorithms for localization and energy estimation of individual strokes is also  
157 available. To create a subset of strokes with reliable energy estimates we excluded all cases with  
158 relative experimental errors greater than 70%, and with energy estimates based on less than 3  
159 stations. Applying these criteria for the reliability of energy estimates (Roger et al., 2017) we  
160 reduced the original dataset by 17 %. The stroke energies ranged across five orders of magnitude  
161 from tens of J up to units of MJ, with a heavy-tail distribution (see Supporting Fig. 1). The mean  
162 stroke energy was  $0.1 \pm 0.3$  MJ; the median stroke energy was 1.3 kJ. The strokes occurring in  
163 colder months of December, January and February were ten times stronger (mean energy of  $0.2$   
164  $\pm 0.5$  MJ, median energy of 6 kJ, Supporting Fig. 2) than strokes hitting the North Atlantic in

165 October, November and March (mean energy of  $0.02 \pm 0.1$  MJ, median energy of 600 J,  
166 Supporting Fig. 3).

### 167 **3. Spatial and temporal distribution of lightning strokes**

168 The map on Fig. 2a shows the distribution of all detected lightning strokes plotted in  $0.5^\circ$   
169  $\times 0.5^\circ$  bins. They occurred predominantly above the ocean but with a higher concentration close  
170 to the western coastal areas, which were hit by up to 430 strokes per bin during the analyzed  
171 period of 6 months, i.e., one stroke per  $3.3 \text{ km}^2$ . There was nearly no lightning activity detected  
172 above the continent. The temporal distribution of lightning strokes with reliable energy estimates  
173 plotted as a function of the local time is represented in Fig. 2b by a gray line. The lightning  
174 discharges occurred nearly randomly during the day and night and their distribution did not  
175 exhibit a typical afternoon peak. Nevertheless, if we calculated the median energy in 1-hour local  
176 time bins (shown by a black line in Fig. 2b), a surprising peak arose around the local midnight.  
177 The strokes detected during the night had median energy values of about 3 kJ, three times higher  
178 than during the day. This effect is possibly even underestimated as the signals generated by  
179 daytime lightning are more attenuated when propagating in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide and  
180 we can thus expect a lower number of reliably detected weak strokes during the day which would  
181 shift the median daytime energies to higher values.

### 182 **4. Spatial and temporal distribution of superbolts**

183 Now we limit our dataset to extraordinary strong lightning and selected only superbolts –  
184 lightning strokes with energies above 1 MJ. Superbolts represented only 2.6 % of detected  
185 strokes with reliable energy estimates. Similarly as in (Holzworth et al., 2019) we analyzed  
186 separately superbolts with energies between 1 and 2 MJ and superbolts with energies above 2  
187 MJ, which are respectively represented in the map in Fig. 3a by blue and red dots. The superbolts

188 appeared exclusively above the seawater with higher occurrence rates close to the western  
189 coastline of British Islands, Norway and Denmark. A few superbolts were detected even at high  
190 latitudes above 65°N. Temporal distributions of superbolts in Fig. 3b clearly show that  
191 superbolts only rarely struck in the afternoon and that the most energetic strokes with energies  
192 above 2 MJ preferred to appear in the night and morning hours. The majority of superbolts  
193 occurred during the three coldest months in the middle of the winter season (see Supporting  
194 Figures 4 and 5).

## 195 **5. Flash multiplicity**

196 To investigate the multiplicity of flashes detected by WWLLN, we analyzed the whole  
197 dataset to find multi-stroke flashes consisting of strokes with striking points closer than 10 km,  
198 the inter-stroke intervals below 500 ms, and occurring within 1 s. This grouping procedure  
199 resulted in 83 % of single-stroke flashes and 17 % of multi-stroke flashes. The number of  
200 strokes in individual multi-stroke flashes varied from two to twelve. The multiplicity from the  
201 whole dataset is illustrated in Fig. 4a by gray columns. In the reduced dataset with reliable  
202 energies, the energy ratio of the second stroke and the first stroke  $E2/E1$  in all multiple flashes  
203 varied over eight orders of magnitude (Fig. 4b, solid line) with a median value of 0.16. The  
204 energy ratio of the third stroke and the first stroke  $E3/E1$  shows similar properties as  $E2/E1$ , just  
205 for a smaller number of cases, with the median value reaching 0.11.

206 When we limited our dataset only to energies above 1 MJ (yellow columns in Fig. 4a),  
207 we found a similar percentage of subsequent strokes but only very exceptionally with  
208 multiplicities larger than 3. We also found that the superbolts struck just once: in the rare cases  
209 when subsequent strokes occurred, they never reached the superbolt energies above 1 MJ.  
210 Median energy ratios  $E2/E1$  and  $E3/E1$  in multiple flashes with superbolts are therefore

211 extremely low, respectively reaching only  $4 \cdot 10^{-4}$  and  $3 \cdot 10^{-4}$ . This means that they are by nearly  
212 three orders of magnitude weaker than subsequent strokes collected from the entire data set.

## 213 **6. Discussion and summary**

214 An extreme North Atlantic Oscillation observed in winter 2014/2015 shifted tracks of numerous  
215 severe storms and deep depressions across the North Atlantic Ocean into Northern Europe. Our  
216 analysis of more than ninety thousand lightning strokes detected by WWLLN showed that  
217 lightning predominantly occurred above the ocean and along the western coastal areas. This is  
218 consistent with the results of the global superbolt study (Holzworth et al., 2019), but we also  
219 show the same effect for weaker lightning. Our results are very different from the distribution of  
220 snow lightning (Adhikari & Liu, 2019), indicating that lightning strokes considered in our study  
221 were detected mainly during rainstorms. As the surface seawater was warmer due to the NAO  
222 positive phase (Qu et al., 2012), the temperature difference between the air and the surface was  
223 more pronounced at night. This scenario probably led to the formation of heavily electrified  
224 thunderclouds. As a result, the most energetic strokes appeared exclusively at night and in the  
225 morning hours and nearly 3 % of the detected lightning strokes were superbolts with an energy  
226 above 1 MJ. The obtained large fraction of single stroke flashes (83 % of all events) strongly  
227 suggests an excessive amount of positive lightning which are known to have a low multiplicity  
228 (Adhikari & Liu, 2019; Schulz et al., 2005). We showed that the superbolts also were  
229 predominantly single stroke flashes (86%) and that their subsequent strokes never reached  
230 megajoule energies. This effect may occur due to the fact that the total amount of the charge  
231 available in the thundercloud for the whole flash was mostly neutralized during the first stroke  
232 and other energetic strokes could not be produced shortly after the first one. These unusual

233 lightning characteristics are probably related to a special microphysical composition of  
234 thunderclouds, which allowed initiation of extra strong discharges.

235 Our results show that numerous very energetic and thus dangerous lightning hit the  
236 British Islands and Northern Europe during the extreme phase of the NAO. In connection with  
237 successful efforts to improve decadal climate predictions in the North Atlantic region (Müller et  
238 al., 2012; Boer et al., 2016), our findings may be used to predict a severe thunderstorm season  
239 with particularly dangerous nighttime lightning discharges in the coastal areas whenever an  
240 extreme NAO is forecasted.

241

#### 242 **Acknowledgements**

243 The work of IK, OS and KR was supported by the GACR grant 20-09671S and by European  
244 Regional Development Fund-Project CRREAT (CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/15\_003/0000481). We are  
245 grateful to the NEODAAS/University of Dundee for providing the NOAA19 infrared image. The  
246 monthly mean NAO indexes are available at  
247 [https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/norm.nao.monthly.b5001.current.as](https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/norm.nao.monthly.b5001.current.ascii)  
248 [cii](https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/norm.nao.monthly.b5001.current.ascii). The procedure used for the determination of NAO indexes is available on the link:  
249 <https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/data/teledoc/teleindcalc.shtml>.

250 **Authorship:** OS and IK designed the study, interpreted the results and wrote the paper. IK and  
251 KR performed the data analysis.

252 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

253

254

255

256 **References**

- 257 Adhikari, A., & Liu, C. (2019). Geographical Distribution of Thundersnow Events and Their  
258 Properties From GPM Ku-Band Radar. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*.  
259 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JD028839>
- 260 Boer, G. J., Smith, D. M., Cassou, C., Doblas-Reyes, F., Danabasoglu, G., Kirtman, B., et al.  
261 (2016). The Decadal Climate Prediction Project (DCPP) contribution to CMIP6.  
262 *Geoscientific Model Development*. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-3751-2016>
- 263 Bower, S. M. (1926). Winter thunderstorms, 1925 [9]. *Nature*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/116901a0>
- 264 Bower, S. M. (1927). Winter thunderstorms [7]. *Nature*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/120842b0>
- 265 Cave, C. J.P. (1923). Winter thunderstorms [12]. *Nature*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/110877c0>
- 266 Cave, Charles J.P. (1916). Winter thunderstorms [3]. *Nature*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/096426c0>
- 267 Craig J. Rodger, James B. Brundell, Robert H. Holzworth, Emma Douma, S. H. (2017). The  
268 World Wide Lightning Location Network (WWLLN): Update on new dataset and improved  
269 detection efficiencies. *2017 32th URSI General Assembly and Scientific Symposium, URSI*  
270 *GASS 2017*.
- 271 Holzworth, R. H., McCarthy, M. P., Brundell, J. B., Jacobson, A. R., & Rodger, C. J. (2019).  
272 Global Distribution of Superbolts. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*.  
273 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JD030975>
- 274 Montanyà, J., Fabró, F., Van Der Velde, O., March, V., Rolfe Williams, E., Pineda, N., et al.  
275 (2016). Global distribution of winter lightning: A threat to wind turbines and aircraft.  
276 *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*. <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-16-1465-2016>
- 277 Müller, W. A., Baehr, J., Haak, H., Jungclaus, J. H., Krger, J., Matei, D., et al. (2012). Forecast  
278 skill of multi-year seasonal means in the decadal prediction system of the Max Planck  
279 Institute for Meteorology. *Geophysical Research Letters*.  
280 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012GL053326>
- 281 Munzar, J., & Franc, M. (2003). Winter thunderstorms in central Europe in the past and the  
282 present. *Atmospheric Research*, 67–68, 501–515. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-8095(03)00062-0)  
283 [8095\(03\)00062-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-8095(03)00062-0)
- 284 de Pablo, F., & Soriano, L. R. (2007). Winter lightning and North Atlantic Oscillation. *Monthly*  
285 *Weather Review*. <https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR3429.1>
- 286 Pédeboy, S. (2012). IDENTIFICATION OF THE MULTIPLE GROUND CONTACTS  
287 FLASHES WITH LIGHTNING LOCATION SYSTEMS Stéphane. In *22nd International*  
288 *Lightning Detection Conference*.
- 289 Pinto, J. G., & Raible, C. C. (2012). Past and recent changes in the North Atlantic oscillation.  
290 *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.150>
- 291 Pinto, J. G., Zacharias, S., Fink, A. H., Leckebusch, G. C., & Ulbrich, U. (2009). Factors  
292 contributing to the development of extreme North Atlantic cyclones and their relationship  
293 with the NAO. *Climate Dynamics*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-008-0396-4>

- 294 Qu, B., Gabric, A. J., Zhu, J. N., Lin, D. R., Qian, F., & Zhao, M. (2012). Correlation between  
295 sea surface temperature and wind speed in Greenland Sea and their relationships with NAO  
296 variability. *Water Science and Engineering*. [https://doi.org/10.3882/j.issn.1674-](https://doi.org/10.3882/j.issn.1674-2370.2012.03.006)  
297 [2370.2012.03.006](https://doi.org/10.3882/j.issn.1674-2370.2012.03.006)
- 298 Rakov, V. A., & Huffines, G. R. (2003). Return-stroke multiplicity of negative cloud-to-ground  
299 lightning flashes. *Journal of Applied Meteorology*. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(2003)042<1455:RMONCL>2.0.CO;2)  
300 [0450\(2003\)042<1455:RMONCL>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(2003)042<1455:RMONCL>2.0.CO;2)
- 301 Rodger, C. J., Brundell, J. B., Dowden, R. L., & Thomson, N. R. (2004). Location accuracy of  
302 long distance VLF lightning location network. *Annales Geophysicae*, 22(3), 747–758.  
303 <https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-22-747-2004>
- 304 Santolík, O., & Kolmašová, I. (2017). Unusual Electromagnetic Signatures of European North  
305 Atlantic Winter Thunderstorms. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1). [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-13849-4)  
306 [017-13849-4](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-13849-4)
- 307 Schultz, D. M., & Vavrek, R. J. (2009). An overview of thundersnow. *Weather*.  
308 <https://doi.org/10.1002/wea.376>
- 309 Schulz, W., Cummins, K., Diendorfer, G., & Dorninger, M. (2005). Cloud-to-ground lightning in  
310 Austria: A 10-year study using data from a lightning location system. *Journal of*  
311 *Geophysical Research D: Atmospheres*. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2004JD005332>
- 312 Snow and ice bring severe weather alert. (2015). *The Times*, p. ProQuest Central. ISSN  
313 01400460.
- 314 Storm Rachel brings a month's rain in one day Scot Region. (2015). *The Daily Telegraph*,  
315 (ProQuest Central.), ISSN 03071235.
- 316 Stormen Dagmar har ramt Jylland. (2015, January 9). In *Politiken*. Retrieved from  
317 <http://politiken.dk/indland/vejret/art5559714/Stormen-Dagmar-har-ramt-Jylland>
- 318 WALKER, G. T. (1925). CORRELATION IN SEASONAL VARIATIONS OF WEATHER—  
319 A FURTHER STUDY OF WORLD WEATHER 1 . *Monthly Weather Review*, 53(6), 252–  
320 254. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493\(1925\)53<252:cisvow>2.0.co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1925)53<252:cisvow>2.0.co;2)
- 321 Williams, E. (2018). Lightning activity in winter storms: A meteorological and cloud  
322 microphysical perspective. In *IEEJ Transactions on Power and Energy*.  
323 <https://doi.org/10.1541/ieejpes.138.364>

324

325

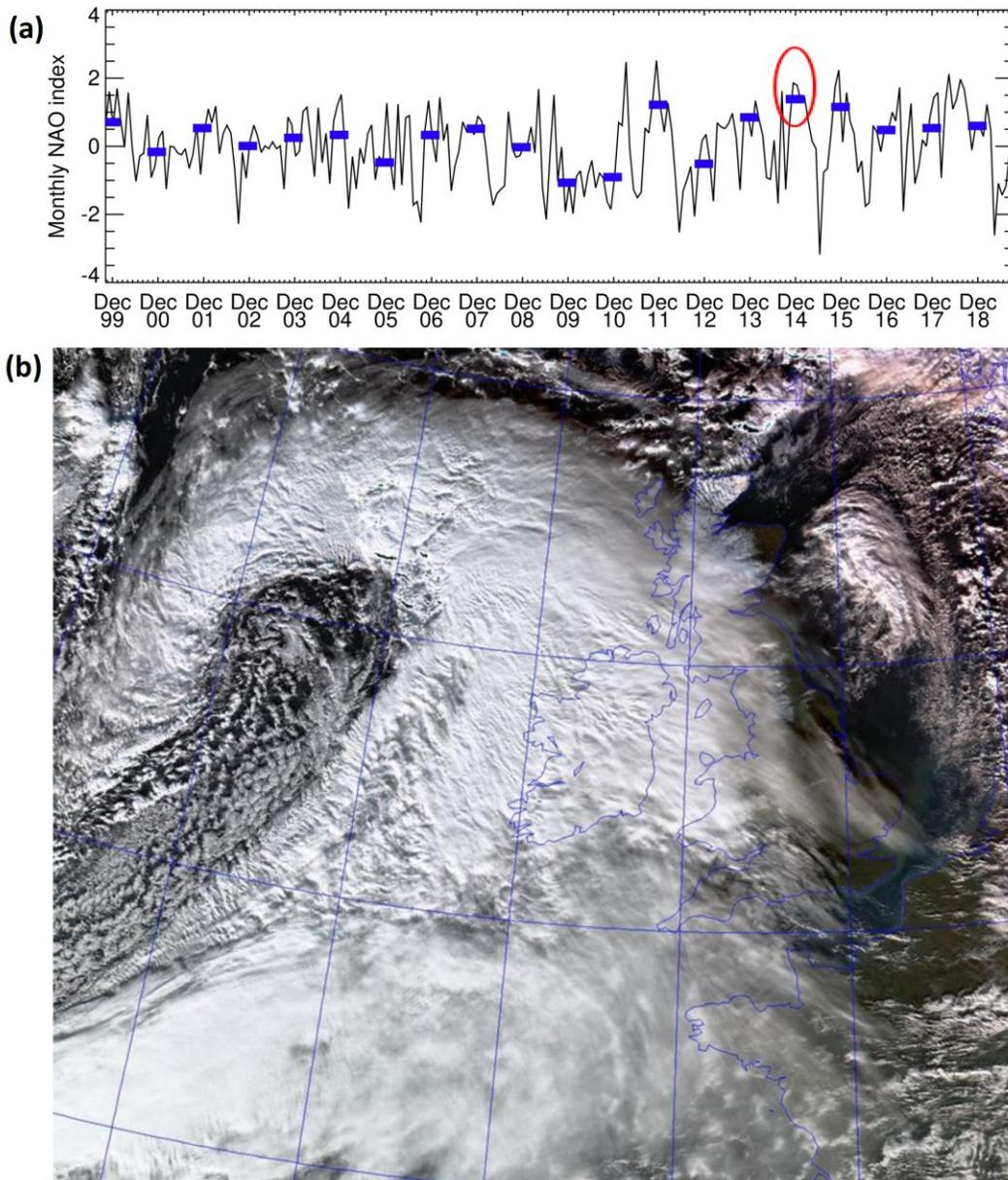
326

327

328

329

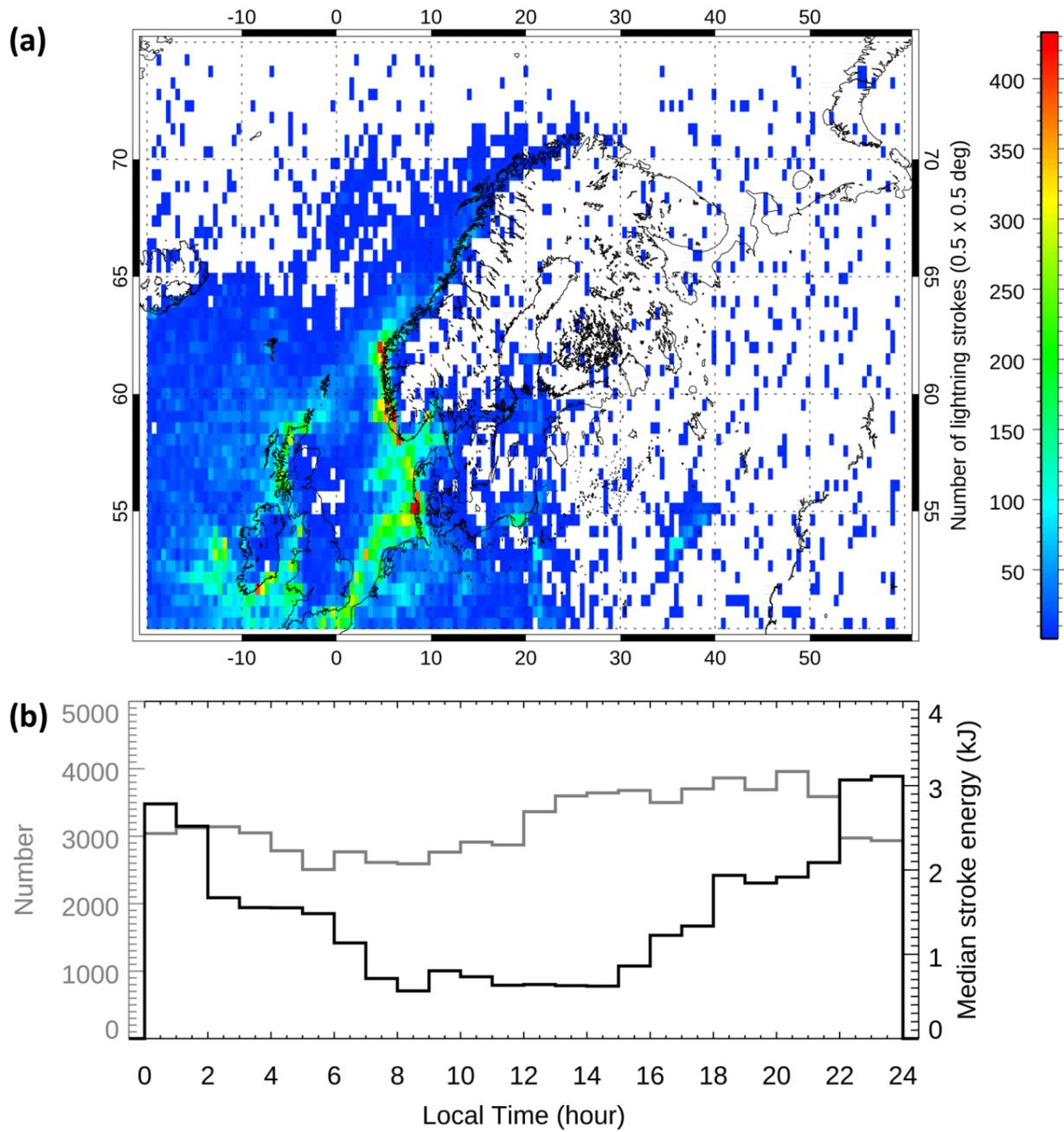
330 **Figure 1:**



331

332

333 **Fig. 1 a)** Variation of the monthly NAO index (black line) together with the October-March  
334 median values (blue rectangles). The red oval identifies the winter season exhibiting the most  
335 positive NAO index since 1999. b) Infra-red image collected by the polar-orbiting NOAA19  
336 satellite shows the storm Rachel that threatened the UK and Ireland on 14 January 2015.



338

339 **Fig. 2** a) Spatial distribution of all detected lightning strokes in the 0.5° x 0.5° bins. b) Temporal  
340 distribution of all lightning strokes (grey line) and their hourly median energies (black  
341 line) as a function of the local time.

342 **Figure 3:**

343

344

345

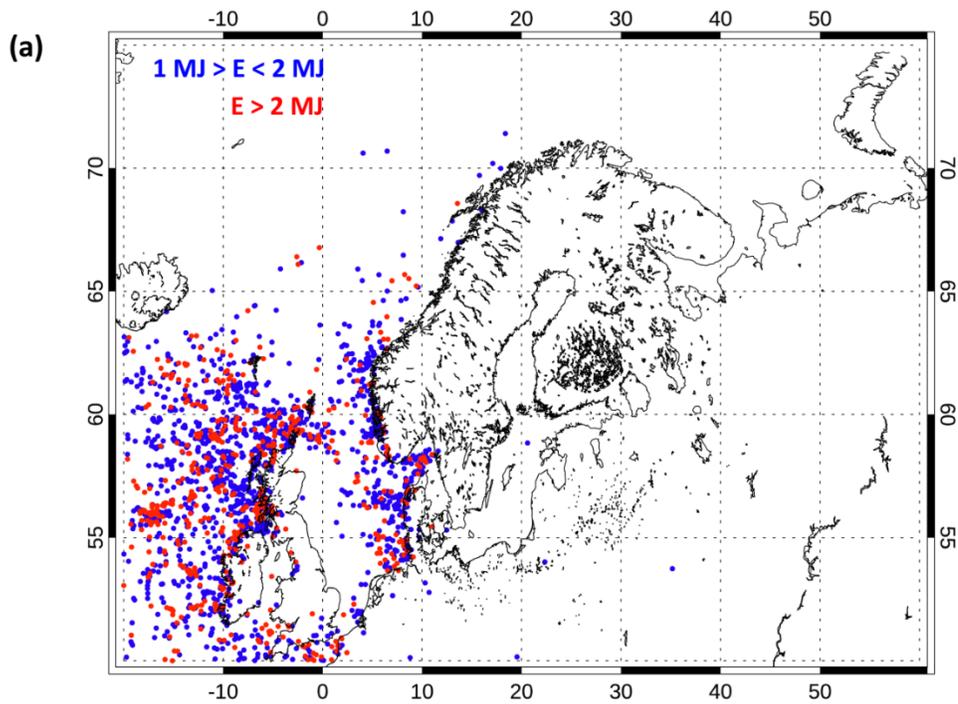
346

347

348

349

350



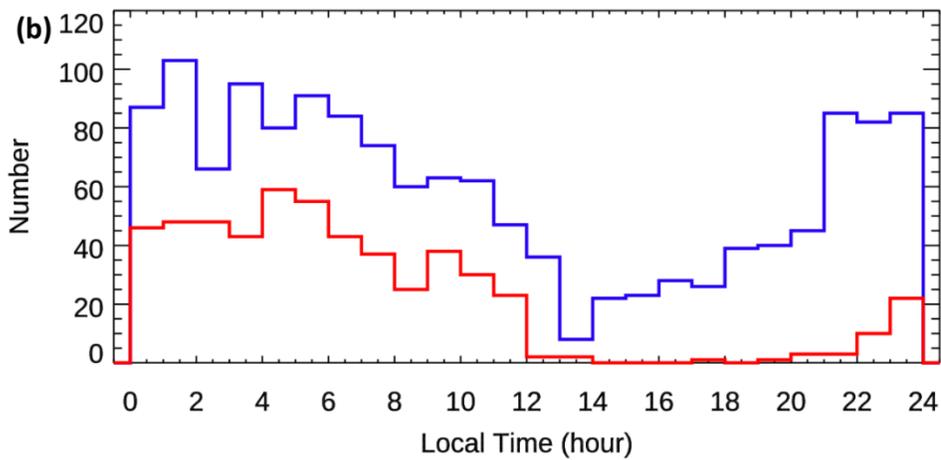
351

352

353

354

355



356

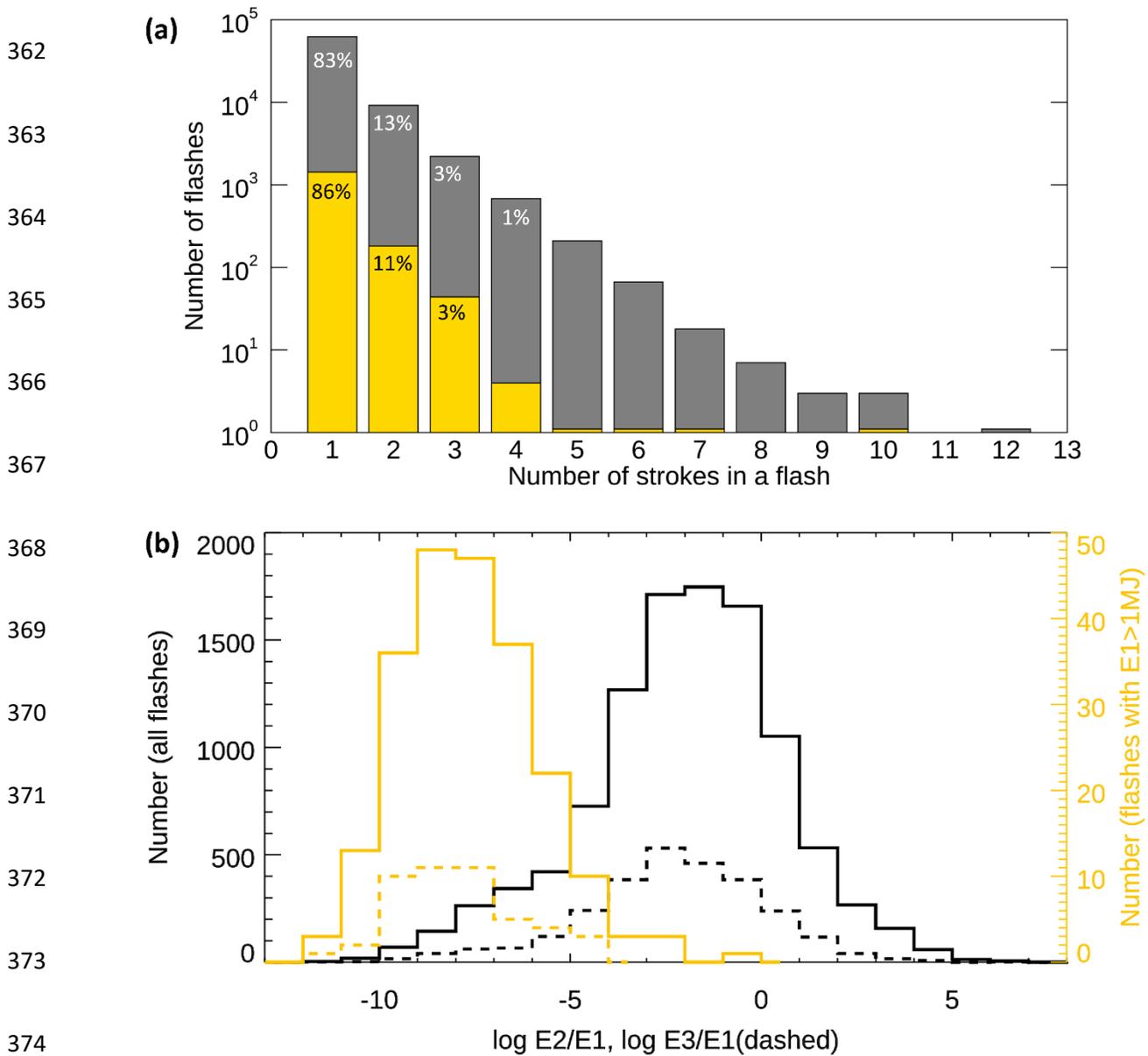
357 **Fig. 3** a) Spatial distribution of superbolts (strokes with energies between 1 and 2 MJ and above 2

358 MJ are respectively represented by blue and red color). b) Temporal distribution of

359 superbolts as a function of the local time.

360

361 **Figure 4:**



375 **Fig. 4 a)** Multiplicity determined by a grouping algorithm applied on the whole dataset (grey),  
376 multiplicity of superbolts with the energy of the first stroke in a flash exceeding 1 MJ  
377 (yellow). b) Energy ratios of the second and the first stroke (solid line) and the third and  
378 the first stroke (dashed line) within all multiple flashes (black) and within superbolt  
379 flashes (gold).