1	Daily, seasonal, and intraseasonal relationships between lightning and \mathbf{NO}_2 over the
2	Maritime Continent
3	(Supplementary material)
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1. Statistical significance of correlations

11 We elected to analyze GOME-2 NO₂ retrievals rather than SCIAMACHY retrievals in 12 hopes that the larger sample size provided by GOME-2's larger footptint would more than 13 compensate for the larger r.m.s. error of the GOME-2 retrievals. Using 3.5 years of daily GOME-2 observations in 1281 $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid boxes extending over the domain of the analysis 14 provides over 10^6 observations. Based on the Student's *t* test, we ascertained that the 99% 15 16 significance level for composite correlation coefficients between daily NO₂ concentrations and lightning flashes in $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid boxes that were used to construct the regression maps in Fig. 2 is 17 18 0.02. This significance level was obtained by making the conservative assumption that, of the 19 100 reference grid boxes used in the analysis, 50 are independent. Assuming that all 100 are 20 independent implies that correlation coefficients of 0.01 are significant at the 99% level. The 21 observed composite correlations are on the order of 0.05 to 0.07. The high level of significance 22 of the correlations is evidenced by the smoothness of the patterns.

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24 2. Further specifics on the performance of WWLLN

WWLLN's stroke detection efficiency has been compared in detail to simultaneous observations by the far more sensitive Los Alamos Sferic Array [*Smith et al.*, 2002]. The WWLLN detection efficiency was found in this manner to depend primarily on stroke current amplitude, and not directly on stroke type [*Jacobson et al.*, 2006]. Thus, although not a "total lightning" detection system, WWLLN is biased toward high current alone, and has no overt selection for ground strokes over cloud strokes. To that extent, WWLLN might be expected to serve as a reasonable interim proxy for lightning NO_x production, at least for the period before total-lightning monitors are operational. WWLLN data do not contain any indication of strokealtitude.

34 The median global very low frequency (VLF) stroke power measured by WWLLN is 3 × 10^{6} W, more than three orders of magnitude smaller than that indicated by previous 35 measurements, which have shown the power radiated by strokes to be near 10¹⁰ W [Krider and 36 37 *Guo*, 1983]. However, this apparent discrepancy is due to the difference in methodology. 38 Previous measurements were of broad band peak power taken in the near field (within 100 km of 39 the lightning stroke), whereas WWLLN measures the r.m.s. power in the 6-18 kHz band in the 40 far field. With these factors accounted for, the median power is comparable to the previously reported value of 10¹⁰ W [Krider and Guo, 1983]. 41

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43 3. Sensitivity tests on daily lightning/NO₂ relationship and NO₂/stroke estimate

44 Figure 2 in *Virts et al.* [2011] shows the results of a composite lag regression analysis of 45 daily lightning frequency and tropospheric NO₂ column density fields over Indonesia (see text 46 for details). To test the robustness of these results, we have conducted a series of sensitivity 47 studies, varying the following aspects of the analysis (note that for each estimate of NO₂ 48 production, a WWLLN detection efficiency of 10% was assumed).

Cloud fraction threshold The results shown in *Virts et al.* [2011] were obtained by
 analyzing only tropospheric NO₂ retrievals classified as "meaningful" by the GOME-2
 research team's algorithms [*Boersma et al.*, 2004]. To test the impact of cloudy
 observations, the composite lag regression analyses were repeated with NO₂ time series
 that incorporated only observations for which the FRESCO cloud fraction [*Koelemeijer et al.*, 2011] was below 0.1 (Fig. S1).

Sample size Although it is clearly desirable to choose reference boxes for which there is
 sufficient lightning to provide a day-to-day signal, our selection of the 100 grid boxes
 with the highest annual-mean lightning frequencies is somewhat arbitrary. Lag
 regression analyses performed using reference boxes with lightning frequencies in the top
 50 and 500 are shown in Fig. S2.

Location of reference boxes To test whether our results are sensitive to possible
 changes in the NO₂ plume from surface sources along the Indonesian islands, the lag
 regression analysis was repeated using a set of reference boxes located over water or over
 less polluted land areas (Fig. S3). The associated composite NO₂ regression patterns are
 shown in Fig. S4.

65 Comparison of Figs. S1, S2, and S4 and Fig. 2 in the text shows that the spatial pattern 66 and temporal evolution of the NO₂ field are robust with respect to variations in the analysis 67 protocol. The production efficiencies estimated on the basis of these various protocols were used 68 to obtain the estimated range of 1 to 2×10^{25} NO₂ molecules per stroke put forth in *Virts et al.* 69 [2011].

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71 4. MJO correlation maps

Figure S5 shows maps of correlations between the MJO index and clouds, lightning, and NO₂, analogous to Fig. 4 in the text. It is evident that the MJO signal in lightning and NO₂ over the eastern Indian Ocean is strongest just to the west of Sumatra, within the region in which mesoscale circulations driven by land/sea contrasts and terrain play an important role in triggering convection.

5.

Alternative explanations for NO₂ patterns

In this section we examine three factors that can influence tropospheric NO₂ column
retrievals and discuss whether they could produce the NO₂ patterns shown in *Virts et al.* [2011].

- Tropopause height variations. Tropospheric NO₂ vertical column densities are
 obtained from total atmospheric slant column densities by subtracting an assumed
 stratospheric NO₂ column and dividing by a tropospheric air mass factor [*Boersma et al.*,
 2004]. The MJO modulates cold-point tropopause height; however, these variations are
 on the planetary scale [e.g., *Zhang*, 2005; *Virts and Wallace*, 2010] and thus cannot
 explain the more localized NO₂ patterns in Figs. 4 and S5.
- 87 **Transport of non-lightning NO**₂. NO₂ produced by surface sources can be transported 88 by convection to the upper troposphere, where its lifetime is longer and where it is more 89 readily visible to the satellite. Winds can also transport NO_2 horizontally, as seen in Fig. 90 2 in the text. We have demonstrated that the plume of enhanced NO_2 associated with a 91 lightning maximum is present regardless of whether we use reference boxes over the 92 ocean or over less polluted land areas (Fig. S4). In addition, the MJO NO₂ signature in 93 Figs. 4 and S5 is strongest to the west of Sumatra, where the influence of surface sources 94 of NO_2 is much lower (e.g., Fig. 1).

Cloud contamination. The dissimilarities in the cloud and NO₂ patterns in Figs. 1 and 4,
 combined with the fact that the NO₂ patterns in Figs. 2 and 4 do not change when only
 NO₂ retrievals with cloud fractions below 0.1 are included in the analysis (see, e.g., Fig.
 S1), indicate that cloud contamination is not a significant issue for these analyses, though
 it may be important for absolute quantification of the lightning NO_x source.

100	Thus, while each of these factors influences GOME-2's tropospheric NO ₂ retrievals, none
101	can account for the NO ₂ patterns associated with lightning shown in the text. Other factors that
102	impact tropospheric NO ₂ retrievals are discussed in <i>Boersma et al.</i> [2004].
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Figure S1. As in Fig. 2, but NO₂ time series were calculated using only observations with

129 FRESCO cloud fractions less than 0.1.

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Figure S2. As in Fig. 2, but regressions were calculated using the indicated number of referenceboxes.



Figure S3. Annual-mean lightning frequency in selected grid boxes over water or less pollutedland areas.



Figure S4. As in Fig. 2, but regressions were calculated using the reference boxes shown in Fig.S3.



Figure S5. As in Fig. 4, but cloud, lightning, and NO₂ are correlated with MJO indices.