

Ground Flash Density Dispersion from N_g

An observation based on 14 years of LIS data collected over Brazil

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Abstract — In this work, the year-to-year variation of ground flash density (GFD) around its long-term average, N_g , is analyzed on specific areas encompassing the state capitals of Brazil, based on data from NASA's satellite borne lightning imaging sensor (LIS), collected in the 1998-2011 period (14 years). The ratio between GFD and N_g (GFD/ N_g) was considered the most straightforward and proper to deal with the data in this work. The data set showed that from year to year the GFD/ N_g ratio can vary widely, the variation ranging from 0 up to 14 in regions with low N_g values ($N_g < 2$), and from 0 up to 6 for regions with higher N_g values ($N_g > 6$). However, the data dispersion follows well-behaved probability distributions, particularly for GFD/ N_g ratio greater than 1. For high N_g values ($N_g > 10$) the probabilities for GFD/ N_g to exceed 2, 3 and 4, are 12%, 3.5% and 0.6%, respectively. Other features about the data are discussed.

Keywords—lightning; ground flash density; GFD; N_g ; dispersion; variation; lightning protection.

I. INTRODUCTION

N_g is the average annual ground flash density (GFD), a quantity commonly used in lightning protection engineering and lightning related scientific studies. It is the number of lightning flashes to ground per square km, per year, averaged over a number of years (the longer the time, the better).

N_g “is a fundamental parameter, providing the basis for any estimation of the frequency of lightning effects upon electrical systems” [1]. Since it is a per unit area parameter, the average number of lightning flashes expected to hit a given flat area can be straightforwardly estimated by multiplying the area (in km²) by N_g . For a structure on flat ground (building, tower, overhead power line etc), an equivalent area can be attributed to it, being this area not only defined by the structure footprint, but it extends outwards by a lateral distance that is function of the structure height. Such area then becomes the equivalent collection area of the structure, meaning that the structure is expected to collect (or intercept) all lightning that would otherwise hit the same area if the structure were not there.

The reality is obviously more complex in many respects. To make things easier, the standards assume some (normally conservative) simplifications so that the task of estimating the frequency of direct lightning strikes to a structure becomes as simple as described in the previous paragraph. To name a few standards, it is worth mentioning that N_g is a primary parameter of risk assessment in the international standard on lightning

protection IEC 62305-2 [2] and standards derived from it, e.g. the Brazilian standard ABNT NBR 5419-2 [3], as well as in the American standard for lightning protection NFPA 780 [4].

As an average value taken on a yearly basis, N_g is more representative to studies involving long-term series of lightning events, affecting or expected to affect the structure under consideration. However, knowing that the GFD varies from year to year, what variation should one consider on the number of flashes to a structure with respect to the expected value based on N_g ? This work intends to show some data in this respect, based on data collected by LIS over specific spot areas in Brazil.

II. DATA SET AND GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The data used in this study come from LIS data collected and prepared by the Brazilian National Institute of Space Research (INPE) for the Brazilian Electric System National Operator (ONS) and for the Brazilian standard on lightning protection ABNT NBR 5419-2 [3]. A description of the application of LIS data for GFD maps in Brazil and further references can be found in [5] and [6].

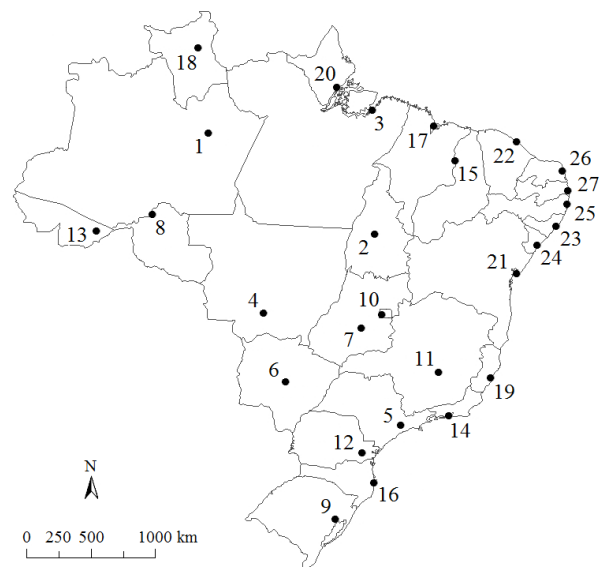


Fig. 1. Brazil and its 26 States and the Federal District (Brasília, #10). The State capitals and Brasília are indicated by numbers (1 to 27), ordered according to the N_g values in their respective district areas.

In this work, more specifically, the data correspond to those adapted for the Brazilian standard [3], taken in the 1998-2011 period (14 years), with cell size of about 25 x 25 km. The presented Ng values in this work can be a bit different from those read in [3] or provided by INPE webpage [7], which provides Ng values over Google Maps, because the data in [3] and [7] were numerically interpolated to smaller cells of 12.5 x 12.5 km.

The study covers 27 separate areas in the country, arbitrarily chosen at the 26 state capitals of Brazil, and Brasília, the country capital. The 27 cities are located on the map in Fig. 1, numbered and ordered from the highest Ng (#1) to the lowest (#27). The considered areas are in fact the district areas governed by these cities, which are state capitals too. The cities (or districts) are listed in Table I, with their respective numbers of cells, ranging from 1 to 9 cells of 25 x 25 km (625 km²) each, totaling 149 cells, or 93125 km², an area larger than many countries.

The cells have fixed size and they are disposed to cover the entire district area. The area covered by the cells will normally exceed the actual district area. As an example, the eight cells required to cover the São Paulo district area are shown in Fig. 2. Note that the district areas are not proportional to the city sizes or populations.

TABLE I. LIST OF CITIES, NO. OF CELLS AND NG

#	City (district)	Qty. cells	Ng ^a	Min – max Ng dispersion
1	Manaus	6	16.4	7.7 – 23
2	Palmas	6	12.5	8.7 – 17
3	Belém	6	12.2	5.2 – 16
4	Cuiabá	6	11.3	8.0 – 13
5	São Paulo	8	10.9	7.9 – 14
6	Campo Grande	8	10.8	6.2 – 18
7	Goiânia	6	7.9	6.8 – 9.7
8	Porto Velho	8	7.6	5.0 – 12
9	Porto Alegre	5	7.3	5.5 – 9.0
10	Brasília	9	7.2	4.5 – 11
11	Belo Horizonte	4	6.9	4.4 – 9.8
12	Curitiba	4	6.5	5.6 – 8.0
13	Rio Branco	8	6.5	4.5 – 8.4
14	Rio de Janeiro	4	5.7	2.8 – 10
15	Teresina	6	5.0	3.2 – 9.0
16	Florianópolis	6	4.5	2.7 – 7.4
17	São Luís	6	3.8	0.6 – 7.7
18	Boa Vista	8	3.6	2.0 – 5.4
19	Vitória	4	2.0	1.4 – 2.8
20	Macapá	7	2.0	0.8 – 3.3
21	Salvador	5	0.6	0.2 – 0.8
22	Fortaleza	4	0.34	0.2 – 0.6
23	Maceió	4	0.20	0.0 – 0.3
24	Aracaju	2	0.19	0.2 – 0.2
25	Recife	4	0.13	0.0 – 0.2
26	Natal	4	0.09	0.0 – 0.1
27	João Pessoa	1	0.00	0.0 – 0.0

^a. Ng in this case is the average Ng among the cells covering the district area of the respective city/district (km² year⁻¹).

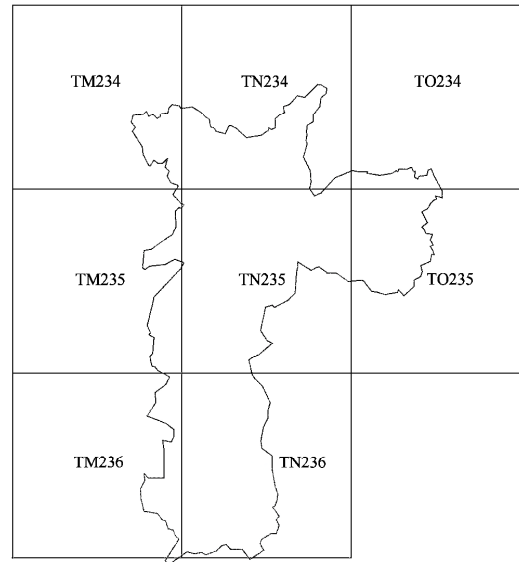


Fig. 2. Cells over São Paulo district. Distric area is 1521 km² while the area covered by the eigh cells is 5000 km².

The data set contains the quantities of lightning discharges to ground on 149 cells over 14 years (2086 values). The total number of ground flashes is about 8.423 millions, which divided by the total area of 93125 km² and by 14 years results in an overall average GFD (mean value) of 6.46 km⁻² year⁻¹. The median is 6.41 km⁻² year⁻¹, very close to the mean value.

It is convenient to make a particular distinction between Ng and GFD in this study. Ng here implies GFD averaged along the 14-year period. GFD is more freely used. In the GFD/Ng ratio presented in Section III, the GFD abbreviation appears as a variable giving the individual GFD values (per cell and per year). All GFD and Ng values are in km⁻² year⁻¹.

In order to assess the cloud to ground (CG) flash rates using the LIS data, it is required to correct the dataset considering the diurnal variation of the LIS detection efficiency (DE), which decreases to a minimum of about 70 % at noon and reaches a maximum of 88 % during the whole night. Furthermore, since the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) satellite has an orbit with 35° latitude inclination, the sampling time near the tropics is significantly higher than over the equator. This affects directly the number of lightning events detected by the sensor causing a spatial bias from south to north. In order to get the CG flash rate values from the total lightning information provided by LIS, the average IC/CG ratio of 1.5 (60 % IC and 40 % CG) was adopted for the whole country. The ratio was assessed comparing the LIS total lightning data and LF network CG data for two different regions of Brazil: Rondônia State (very closer to Amazon basin) and the Southeastern region. The results revealed that the IC/CG ratio did not present a significant difference between the two regions [8].

Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 show the distribution of Ng values among the 149 cells. The bars between 0-1, 1-2 and so on indicate the amount of cells having Ng values in the intervals 0-1, 1-2 etc. The intervals are separated by integers, and in this study the values were distributed by using their exact values from data set (not necessarily that accurate), for example, 0.999 falls into 0-1

interval while 1.001 falls in the 1-2 interval. All distributions presented in this study followed this procedure.

There is a high number of cells with low N_g values ($N_g < 1$), as it is evident in Fig. 3. In fact, there are many nulls in the data set, i.e. no lightning flash in a given cell in a given year, see TABLE II.

The cells were grouped in a few N_g ranges in order to show some characteristics of the data set according to this division, see TABLE II and TABLE III. These tables show, for example, that 71 % of data points in the range $N_g < 2$ are nulls. A few zeroes (1.5 %) also appear in the cells with $N_g > 10$, meaning that one or another cell experienced no lightning in a certain year (or, perhaps, no lightning was detected). The concentration of N_g values per cities/districts according to the N_g ranges defined in TABLE II is shown in Fig. 5.

An important information for this study is the lightning activity along the 14 years. The numbers of ground flashes along the years are presented in Fig. 6, the total and the ones in each of the defined N_g ranges (TABLE II). A steady decay of the activity for high N_g values is observed in the figure.

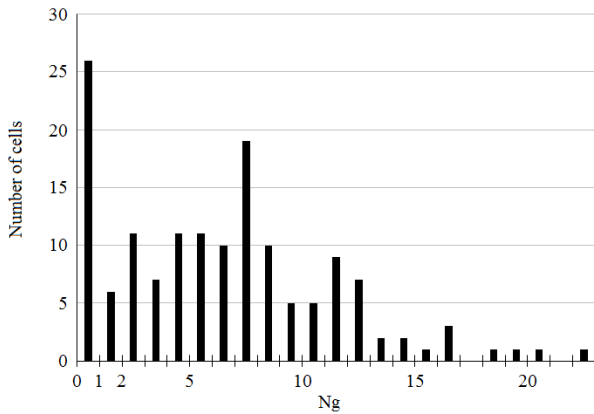


Fig. 3. Distribution of N_g values among the 149 cells. Mean value is $6.46 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$.

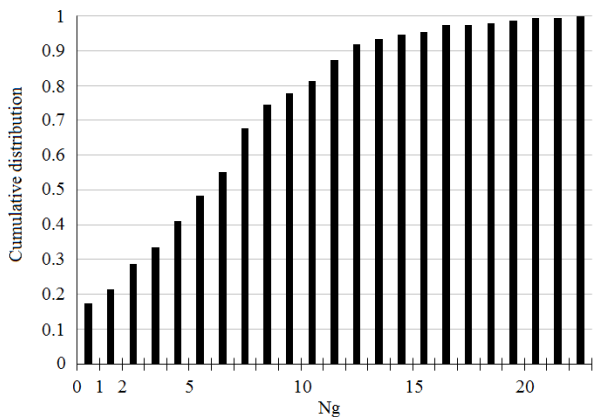


Fig. 4. Cumulative distribution of N_g values among the 149 cells. Median value is $6.41 \text{ km}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$.

TABLE II. DATA ACCORDING TO RANGES OF N_g VALUES

N_g range	Cells	Data points	Ground flashes (thousands)	Nulls (no lightning)
< 2	32	448	147.0	319 (71 %)
$2 - 5$	29	406	887.7	60 (15 %)
$5 - 10$	55	770	3506.2	19 (2.5 %)
> 10	33	462	3882.4	7 (1.5 %)
Total	149	2086	8423.3	405 (19 %)

TABLE III. MEAN AND MEDIAN VALUES IN THE N_g RANGES

N_g range	Cells	Data points	N_g mean	N_g median
< 2	32	21.5 %	0.53	0.27
$2 - 5$	29	19.5 %	3.50	3.32
$5 - 10$	55	36.9 %	7.29	7.26
> 10	33	22.1 %	13.4	12.4
Total	149	100 %	6.46	6.41

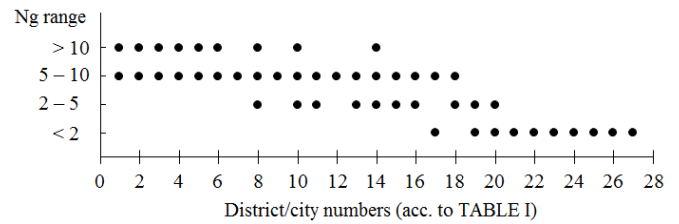


Fig. 5. Concentration of N_g values among the cells of the cities/districts, according to the N_g ranges defined in TABLE I.

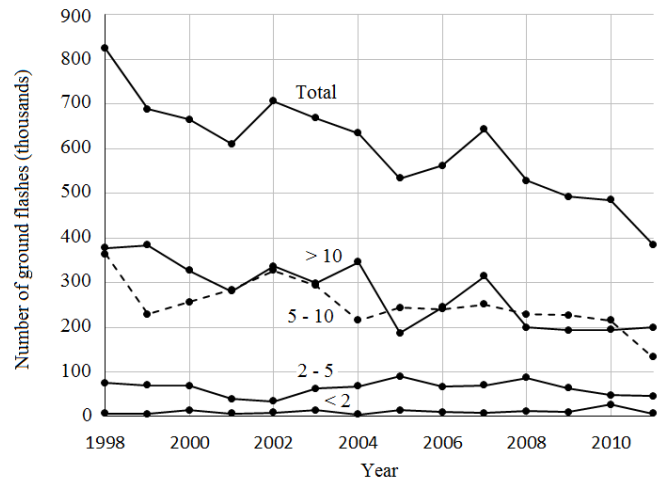


Fig. 6. Lightning activity in number of ground flashes (thousands) per year, for all cells (Total) and for the groups of cells with N_g in the indicated ranges.

III. GFD DISPERSION DATA

The 149 cells are sorted in increasing order according to their N_g values and plotted in Fig. 7 along with their corresponding minimum and maximum GFD found in the 14-year period.

The minimum and maximum GFD values of Fig. 7 are plotted in Fig. 8 as function of N_g . The minimum and maximum GFD/ N_g ratios are plotted in Fig. 9 for the 149 cells ordered as in Fig. 7.

Figures 10 to 12 show discrete probability distributions, according to the N_g ranges as defined in TABLE II. The probabilities are related to the total number of ground flashes in each of the N_g ranges.

Fig. 10 shows the discrete probability distributions for $GFD/N_g < 1$, according to the N_g ranges defined in TABLE II, in intervals from 0 to 1.

Fig. 11 shows the discrete probability distributions for $GFD/N_g > 1$, according to the N_g ranges defined in TABLE II, in the intervals 1-2, 2-3, 3-4...

Fig. 12 shows points of two distributions mingled together, with interleaved GFD/N_g intervals: values centered at 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, correspond to intervals 1 ± 0.5 , 2 ± 0.5 , 3 ± 0.5 , 4 ± 0.5 and 5 ± 0.5 . Values centered at 1.5, 2.5, 3.5 and 4.5, correspond to intervals 1.5 ± 0.5 , 2.5 ± 0.5 , 3.5 ± 0.5 and 4.5 ± 0.5 .

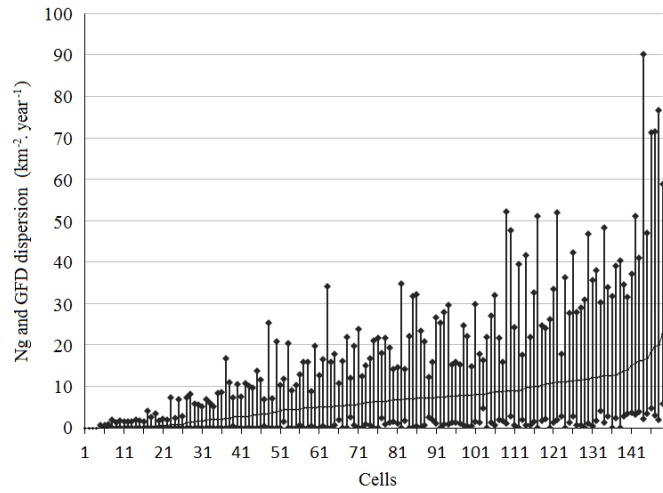


Fig. 7. N_g (solid line) of the 149 cells in increasing order and their respective maximum and minimum GFD values (vertical bars) in the 14-year period.

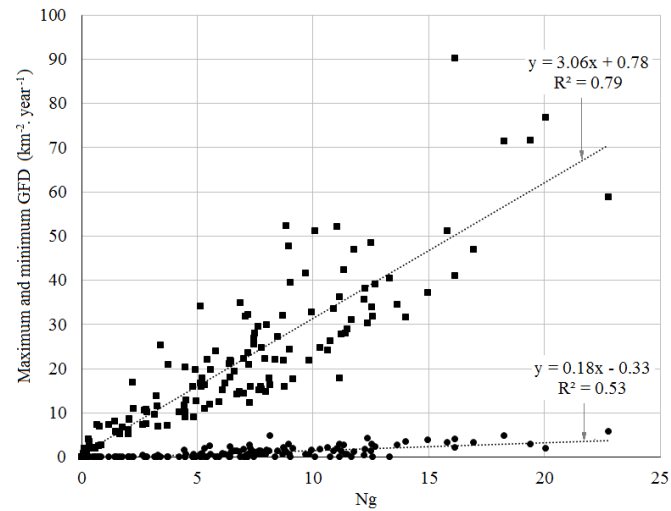


Fig. 8. Maximum and minimum GFD of the 149 cells as function of N_g .

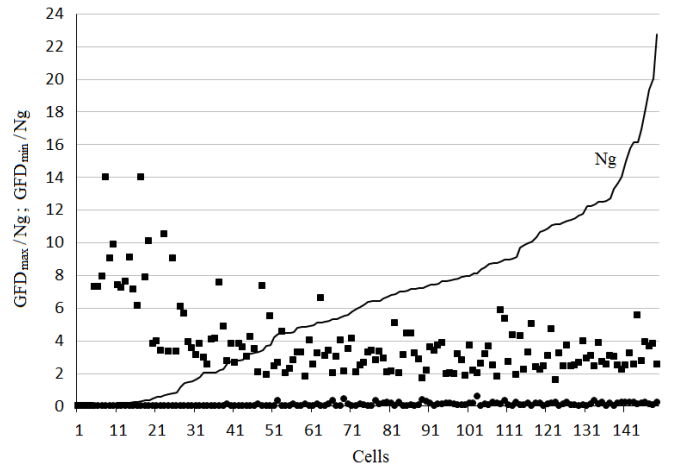


Fig. 9. N_g (solid line) of the 149 cells in increasing order and their respective maximum and minimum ratios to N_g (GFD_{max}/N_g and GFD_{min}/N_g).

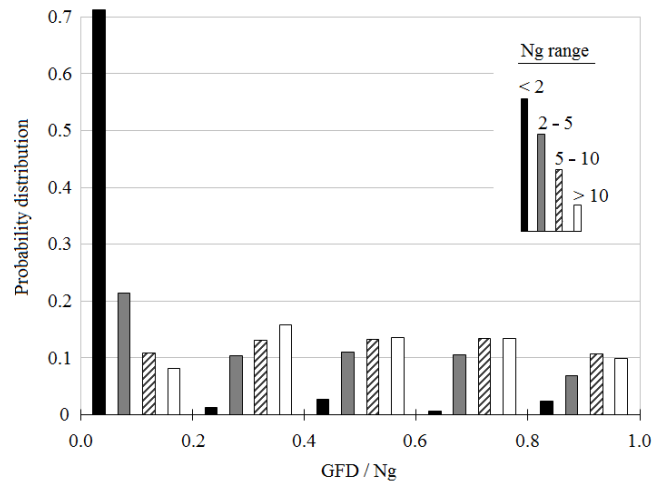


Fig. 10. Probability distributions of $GFD/N_g < 1$, for different N_g ranges.

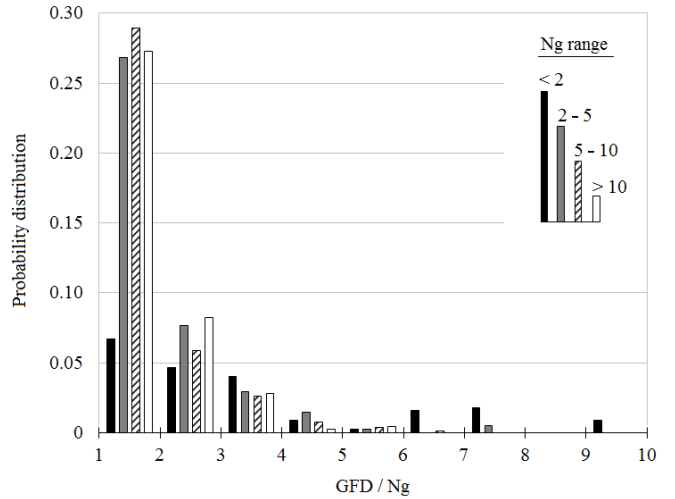


Fig. 11. Probability distributions of $GFD/N_g > 1$, for different N_g ranges.

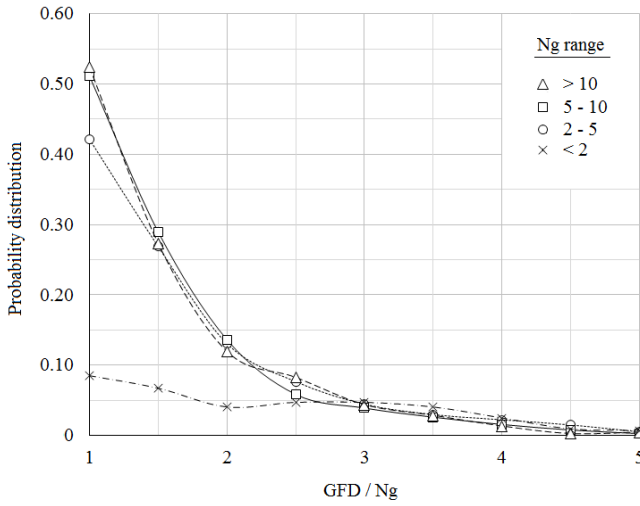


Fig. 12. Probability distributions of GFD/Ng for different Ng ranges. Two distributions are mingled together in the graph. The points on the curves are related to intervals centered at the GFD/Ng ratios ± 0.5 (see text).

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Despite the inaccuracies involved in any method for obtaining GFD: thunderstorm days (TD), lightning flash counters (LFC) or in more sophisticated techniques such as lightning location systems (LLS) and satellite imaging (LIS), this study has the advantage of dealing with relative values from the same source (LIS). It is supposed that the inherent errors in the absolute values of this data set are at least partially cancelled out when ratios are taken. The particular characteristics of lightning detection based on LIS that could affect this work was not evaluated.

The results show considerable year-to-year variation of GFD around the average (N_g), see Figures 7 to 9. Of greater concern in most cases, the GFD_{max}/N_g ratio (Fig. 9) reaches values as high as 14 for very low N_g values, falling to values between 2 and 6 as N_g increases. Most values are however concentrated between 2 and 4 for high N_g values (say $N_g > 5$). Regarding the minimum GFD values (GFD_{min}/N_g), the values are frequently very low, with many nulls, particularly in the $N_g < 2$ range, see TABLE II.

Besides the wide data dispersion, Fig. 8 suggests that the maximum GFD values are concentrated around $3N_g$ (see linear interpolation in the figure). For the minimum values, the same figure suggests something around $0.2N_g$ (even removing the zeroes, the linear interpolation remains close to $0.2N_g$). However, a more realistic approach should consider the probability of such dispersions to occur. Some probability distributions are shown in Figures 10 to 12.

The data set shows that about 2/3 of all GFD values is lower than N_g ($GFD/N_g < 1$) and, naturally, 1/3 is higher. The proportion is about 60/40 % for $N_g > 2$ and it is about 80/20 % for $N_g < 2$. TABLE IV presents such proportions. Note that while 78.3 % of GFD/N_g values are lower than 1 for $N_g < 2$, the number of nulls in this range is 71 %, see TABLE II.

The probability distributions have similar features for the N_g ranges above 2. The $N_g < 2$ range differ from the others. The

probability to get, in any year, a GFD within $N_g \pm 50\%$ is around 50 % in regions where $N_g > 5$, and 42 % for areas with moderate N_g values (2 to 5). In areas with low N_g ($N_g < 2$), the probability is around 8 % only. Note in TABLE III (N_g mean and median) and in Fig. 10 that the distribution for range $N_g < 2$ is very skewed towards zero.

For $N_g < 2$, the probability of $GFD/N_g > 1$ is low, as shown in TABLE IV. However, it was in this range ($N_g < 2$) that the highest scattering of N_g data was observed, reaching 14 times N_g . For the other ranges ($N_g > 2$), the probabilities in the 0.2 intervals of Fig. 10 ($GFD/N_g < 1$) are so that no preferential GFD/N_g ratio is evident. The probabilities of GFD to exceed some values multiples of N_g are given in TABLE V.

It is worth noting that while $GFD/N_g > 1$ is normally of greater concern in the field of lightning protection, the $GFD/N_g < 1$ affects (negatively) those researchers seeking for lightning strikes on their experimental installations. The GFD variation has been experienced by researchers observations and measurements on PIP2 buildings in São Paulo [9], where lightning activity was more exciting in a particular year and somewhat frustrating in an other year. The author was also told about another case where the researcher noticed a great variation in lightning activity from year to year.

It is also worth noting that short term analysis about the performance of power transmission and distribution lines, for example, should preferably use the actual GFD along the study period, if available, otherwise wrong conclusions can be drawn from the results if the analysis is based on N_g . The GFD variations are also important when considering lightning protection for temporary installations, where N_g loses its long term significance.

There is a significant proportion of lightning discharges that hit the ground at more than one point [10]. This, together with other factors, mostly involving the accuracy of the available N_g values, have motivated the suggestion for the adoption of higher N_g values in the lightning protection standards, even doubling it [11]. The dispersion of GFD as presented here may also suggest an increase of N_g , at least under specific conditions or situations. The increasing factor, if applicable, should take into account proper probability distributions of GFD/N_g ratios.

The dispersion of GFD as presented in this study is coherent with the dispersions appearing in other works [1][12][13][14], as shown in Fig. 13.

TABLE IV. PROPORTIONS BETWEEN $GFD/N_g < 1$ AND $GFD/N_g > 1$ (%)

	All data	Ng range			
		< 2	2-5	5-10	> 10
$GFD/N_g < 1$	65	78.3	60.3	61.3	61.0
$GFD/N_g > 1$	35	21.7	39.7	39.7	39.0

TABLE V. PROBABILITIES OF GFD TO EXCEED MULTIPLES OF N_g (%)

	All data	Ng range			
		< 2	2-5	5-10	> 10
$GFD/N_g > 2$	12	15	13	10	12
$GFD/N_g > 3$	5.4	10	5.2	3.9	3.5
$GFD/N_g > 4$	2.4	6.3	2.2	1.3	0.6
$GFD/N_g > 5$	1.6	5.4	0.7	0.5	0.4

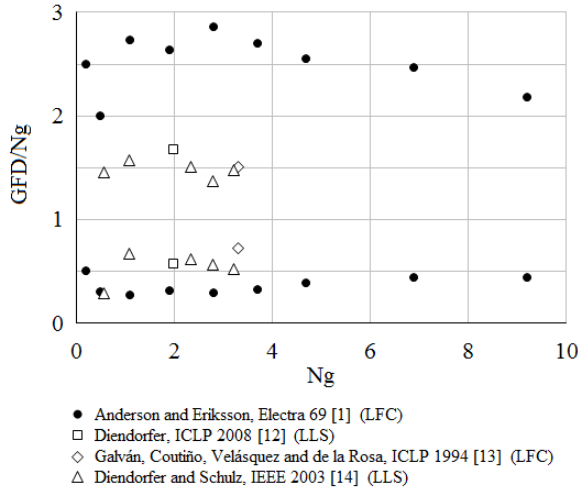


Fig. 13. Some GFD/ N_g ratios adapted from referred works.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study presents the year-to-year GFD dispersion around N_g , based on 14 years of accumulated data from LIS over 27 small areas in Brazil, corresponding to the district areas of the city capitals of the 26 Brazilian states and that of the country, totaling an area over 90 thousand km^2 from 149 cells, sized 25 x 25 km each. The data set contains 2086 GFD values (149 cells x 14 years), from which 149 N_g values are also taken.

The dispersions are presented in the form of GFD/ N_g ratios, where the GFD abbreviation was assumed as a variable giving the individual GFD values (per cell and per year) and N_g is the GFD value of each cell averaged over the 14-year period. The GFD/ N_g ratio revealed to be an interesting parameter to deal with the scattering of GFD data. The dispersion amplitudes are given as function of N_g , associated with probability distributions.

From year to year the GFD/ N_g ratio can vary widely, with variations ranging from zero up to 14 in regions with low N_g values ($N_g < 2$), and from 0 up to 6 in regions with higher N_g values ($N_g > 6$). The analyzed data indicate that the dispersions follow well-behaved probability distributions, particularly for GFD/ N_g ratio greater than 2 (GFD/ $N_g > 2$).

The data set shows that about 2/3 of all GFD values is lower than N_g (GFD/ $N_g < 1$) and, naturally, 1/3 is higher. The probabilities of GFD to exceed $2N_g$, $3N_g$ and so on are given. On the lower side (GFD/ $N_g < 1$), the probability distributions are somewhat flat from 0 to 1 (in 0.2 intervals), except for $N_g < 2$, in which the distribution is very skewed towards zero and the chances to get an year with no lightning is around 70 %.

The data is informative and useful for lightning protection designers and lightning researchers, and provide a more

perceptive view about N_g and on how widely it can vary from year to year.

There are inaccuracies in any method of GFD determination. In this work, the author speculates that the inaccuracies may be reduced by the fact that the main results come from a ratio between quantities of the same kind, subject to the same errors (e.g. detection efficiency). On the other hand, this method (LIS) may have some peculiarities that can specially affect this kind of analysis, hence the need for an analysis in this respect and a more comprehensive study, possibly based on LLS data, on a much larger dataset, which is being considered as future work.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author would like to express his gratitude to Diovane Rodolfo de Campos and Kleber Naccarato, both with the Brazilian National Institute of Space Research (INPE), for providing the data used in this study.

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