



1 Notes on the correlation between SSWs and solar activity

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## 8 **Abstract**

9 A correlation between solar activity and normalized occurrence rate of sudden stratospheric  
10 warmings (SSWs) has been found. As a proxy for solar activity, F10.7 cm radio flux has been  
11 used. In order to find the correlation, we derived a normalized occurrence rate of MSSWs  
12 based on both ERA40/ERA-Interim dataset and NCEP data. Based on this distribution, we  
13 calculated the correlation coefficient, which amounts to 0.6314, with a significance of 90.68%  
14 for ERA40/ERA-Interim, and 0.5455 for NCEP-NCAR-I, with a significance of 83.80%.  
15 Additionally, we calculate correlation coefficients for Lyman-alpha flux and sunspot numbers  
16 with the analogous method for the same period.

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18 Keywords: Middle atmosphere – composition and chemistry; Waves and tides; Middle  
19 atmosphere dynamics

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## 21 **1. Introduction**

22

23 In the middle of the last century, Scherhag (1952) and Scrase (1953) independently found an  
24 incident of sudden stratospheric warming (SSW). A corresponding mesospheric cooling has  
25 been found shortly after (Quiroz, 1969). The SSW effect is manifested in sudden and short  
26 (several days) increase in temperature (up to 60 K) in stratosphere and joint cooling in the



27 mesosphere at high and middle latitudes during winter. More strict definition of SSW one can  
28 find in any review on this subject (e.g. Butler et al., 2015). According with current knowledge  
29 (see e.g. Shepherd et al., 2014; Zülicke et al., 2018; and references therein) the genesis of the  
30 effect goes from mesopause at high latitudes toward stratosphere at middle latitudes with peak  
31 of intensity around 65° N. There are two types of sudden stratospheric warmings: minor  
32 warmings and major warmings. Minor warmings also consist of the temperature increase, but  
33 at 10 hPa it is about 30 K smaller than for major warmings. The main difference is that unlike  
34 to the major warming, during the minor one, the zonal wind weakens but does not reverse the  
35 direction (e.g. Labitzke, 1981). In this study, we consider just major sudden stratospheric  
36 warming effect.

37 SSW events play a rather important role in atmospheric investigations not only because these  
38 pronounced events have impacts on all processes in the middle atmosphere but also because  
39 they provide a natural examination of our understanding of atmospheric interactions. The first  
40 step to understanding the nature of SSWs was the theory of planetary waves (PWs)  
41 propagation by Charney and Drazin (1961), who derived the dispersion relationship for  
42 vertically propagating Rossby waves. The theoretical explanation was proposed by Dickinson  
43 (1968a,b; 1969a,b) and consists of an interaction of PWs which penetrate into the winter  
44 middle atmosphere and affect general mean circulation when they dissipate. Steady  
45 dissipating waves can weaken the zonal mean flow and maintain the winter stratosphere  
46 above radiative equilibrium temperatures (Dickinson, 1969b). This theory was confirmed by  
47 model simulations (Matsuno, 1970, 1971). Currently, this explanation is generally accepted;  
48 nevertheless, we should note that there are alternatives. For example, based on model  
49 simulations, Peters (1985 a,b) found that SSW-like effects may occur due to nonlinear wave–  
50 wave interactions. However, the role of wave–wave interaction during SSWs is not clear until  
51 the present time. Recently, Gavrilov et al. (2017) have touched upon this problem.



52 Since SSWs have been observed and modeled in numerous works (e.g. Holton, 1976;  
53 Schoeberl, 1978; Tao, 1994; Siskind et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2011, and references therein),  
54 the topic has attracted genuine interest in all fields of atmospheric science. Using a 3D model,  
55 Sonnemann et al. (2006) studied the distributions of minor chemical species in the mesopause  
56 region in time of SSWs. The most-detailed investigation of the variability of the hydroxyl  
57 airglow layer during SSWs has been represented in the work of Shepherd et al. (2010). The  
58 response of OH\* and the infrared atmospheric band has been found by satellite observations  
59 (Gao et al., 2011), and Shepherd et al. (2014) investigated the impact of this phenomenon on  
60 distributions of CO and NO<sub>x</sub> based on a joint analysis of model simulation and satellite  
61 observations. The impact of SSWs on the secondary ozone layer has been highlighted in the  
62 work of Tweedy et al. (2013) based on model simulations and in Smith et al. (2009) based on  
63 the SABER instrument onboard the TIMED satellite. The temperature and dynamic structure  
64 of the mesopause region during sudden stratospheric warmings were investigated by  
65 reanalysis data (Siskind et al., 2010) and based on a global circulation model by Zülicke and  
66 Becker (2013). A large number of works are devoted to the role and propagations of gravity  
67 waves in times of SSWs (Limpasuvan et al., 2011, 2012; McLandress et al., 2012; de Wit et  
68 al., 2014; Ern et al., 2016). Recently, an effect on the troposphere (Hinssen et al., 2011) and  
69 equatorial latitudes has been found (Bal et al., 2017). More about SSWs and related fields can  
70 be found in reviews of this subject (e.g. Holton, 1980; McIntyre, 1982; Plumb, 2010; Butler et  
71 al., 2015).

72 One of the strongest effects on the nature of Earth comes from the sun (Seppälä et al., 2014);  
73 hence, naturally, the question of what the effect of solar variations on the SSW occurrence  
74 rate arises. The strongest solar variation is the 11-year solar cycle. Labitzke and van Loon  
75 (1990) did not find any significant correlation between the 11-year solar cycle and MSSWs  
76 based on their analysis of F10.7 flux. Nevertheless, Labitzke (2004, and references therein)  
77 showed that such a correlation exists for MSSW events distributed by phases of QBO (quasi



78 biennial oscillation). This is partially in contradiction with work of Sonnemann and  
79 Grygalashvyly (2007), who found such a correlation without a relationship to QBO phases  
80 based on an analysis of Lyman-alpha flux and sunspot numbers. The reason for the  
81 discrepancy is either the difference in fluxes or methods.

82 We decided to narrow this gap in the knowledge and conduct an analysis of the solar radio  
83 flux at 10.7 cm (F10.7 flux). However, based on SSW statistics and F10.7 radio flux, we  
84 derived a normalized occurrence rate for MSSW events. The data, method, and results are  
85 described in Sect. 2, followed by concluding remarks in the last section.

86

## 87 **2. Data, Method, and Result**

88

89 We investigate the statistical connection between MSSWs and solar activity. As a proxy for  
90 solar activity, we use F10.7 radio flux ([http://lasp.colorado.edu/lisird/data/noaa\\_radio\\_flux/](http://lasp.colorado.edu/lisird/data/noaa_radio_flux/)).  
91 Because MSSWs are phenomena that commonly occur from December until March (Charlton  
92 and Polvani, 2007), we calculated monthly mean values of F10.7 radio flux for December,  
93 January, February, and March through the entire period from 1958 to 2013. The lowest mean  
94 F10.7 radio flux value did not fall below 67 solar flux units (sfu). The uppermost value did  
95 not exceed 267 sfu. We chose a difference of 25 sfu for the flux subdivision (8 subintervals)  
96 and calculated a number of monthly mean F10.7 radio flux values which fell into each  
97 subinterval (Fig. 1a).

98 Next, we calculated the mean F10.7 flux values for the month prior to the MSSWs' central  
99 day (the day when zonal mean zonal wind at 10 hPa becomes negative). In this study, we used  
100 two databases of central day. The first database combines the central day of MSSW events  
101 from ERA-40 reanalysis for the period 1958 to 1979 and ERA-interim reanalysis for the  
102 period 1979 to 2013 (Butler et al., 2017). The central days by NCEP-NCAR-I reanalysis  
103 (Butler et al., 2017) were used as the second database. Then, we calculated the number of



104 MSSWs that occurred in each F10.7 radio flux subinterval (Fig. 1b) based on two databases of  
105 central day. The dependence of MSSWs on F10.7 flux is rather negative (Fig. 1b), but we  
106 should take into account that the distribution of wintertime monthly averaged values of F10.7  
107 flux is non-uniform. The values corresponding to low solar activity occur most often, and  
108 values corresponding to high solar activity are rare. Hence, for calculations of correlation  
109 between MSSW and F10.7, MSSW occurrence rate should be normalized. We calculated the  
110 MSSWs' occurrence rate normalized to the occurrence rate of F10.7 flux values as shown in  
111 Sonnemann and Grygalashvyly (2007):

$$112 \quad R^i = \frac{\left( \frac{N_{\text{MSSW}}^i}{N_{\text{F10.7}}^i} \right) \sum N_{\text{MSSW}}^i}{\sum \left( \frac{N_{\text{MSSW}}^i}{N_{\text{F10.7}}^i} \right)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 8, \quad (1)$$

113 where  $N_{\text{F10.7}}^i$  and  $N_{\text{MSSW}}^i$  are the number of F10.7 flux values and number of MSSWs in  
114 subinterval  $i$ , respectively.

115 Fig. 1c illustrates dependence between the normalized occurrence rate of MSSWs and the  
116 values of F10.7 flux according to Eq. (1) for ERA and NCEP-NCAR-I databases. We  
117 conducted the correlation analysis for the normalized occurrence rate of MSSWs and the  
118 F10.7 flux values with 8 subdivisions (Fig. 1d). The correlation coefficient equals 0.6314 for  
119 the ERA case and 0.5455 for the NCEP-NCAR-I case. The significance amounts to 90.68%  
120 and 83.80% for ERA and NCEP-NCAR-I, respectively. The results demonstrate a distinct  
121 statistical connection between the normalized MSSW events and the F10.7 flux values. Our  
122 correlation coefficients are smaller than those of Sonnemann and Grygalashvyly (2007),  
123 probably, because we use different periods.

124 It is not the aim of this contribution to discuss consequences and reasons, but a possible  
125 explanation for the correlation is the impact of solar activity either on PWs strength and  
126 activity or on propagation conditions (e.g. Arnold and Robinson, 1998; Fröhlich and Jacobi,  
127 2004). Recently, Koval et al. (2018) found that solar activity might affect meridional



128 temperature gradients and consequently change the vertical structure of the zonal wind and  
129 PWs' propagation conditions. This may point to a potential explanation. Another one  
130 possibility to explain obtained correlation is the interaction of cosmic rays (which anti-  
131 correlate with solar activity) with atmosphere, and, particularly, with stratosphere, and have  
132 an impact on climate (see Fig. 7 in Usoskin (2017) and corresponding discussion).

133 The F10.7 radio flux differs by the nature from the Lyman-alpha flux and sunspot numbers  
134 (Bruevich et al., 2014; Mei et al., 2018). Thus, the information about correlation coefficients  
135 for the same database and method potentially can be useful to identify possible reasons of  
136 correlation. Hence, such correlation coefficients with corresponding significance are  
137 calculated and stored in the Table 1.

138

### 139 **3. Summary**

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141 We investigated the statistical relationship between solar activity and occurrence rate of major  
142 sudden stratospheric warmings (MSSWs). For this purpose, F10.7 radio flux has been used as  
143 a proxy for solar activity. The calculations have been performed based on two datasets of  
144 central day (NCEP-NCAR-I and combined ERA) for the period from 1958 to 2013. The  
145 analysis of calculations was based on the normalized MSSW occurrence rate. The analysis  
146 revealed a positive correlation between MSSW events and solar activity with a correlation  
147 coefficient equals 0.6314 for the ERA case and 0.5455 for the NCEP-NCAR-I case. Note that  
148 the correlation is necessary but not a sufficient condition for a relationship between the two  
149 phenomena. The nature of the correlation is still not clear, and further investigations in this  
150 direction are necessary.

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154 **Data availability.**

155 The F10.7 and Lyman- $\alpha$  solar flux data are available at <http://lasp.colorado.edu/lisird/>. The  
156 sunspot numbers data are accessible at <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/stp/solar/ssndata.html>.

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405 **Tables.**

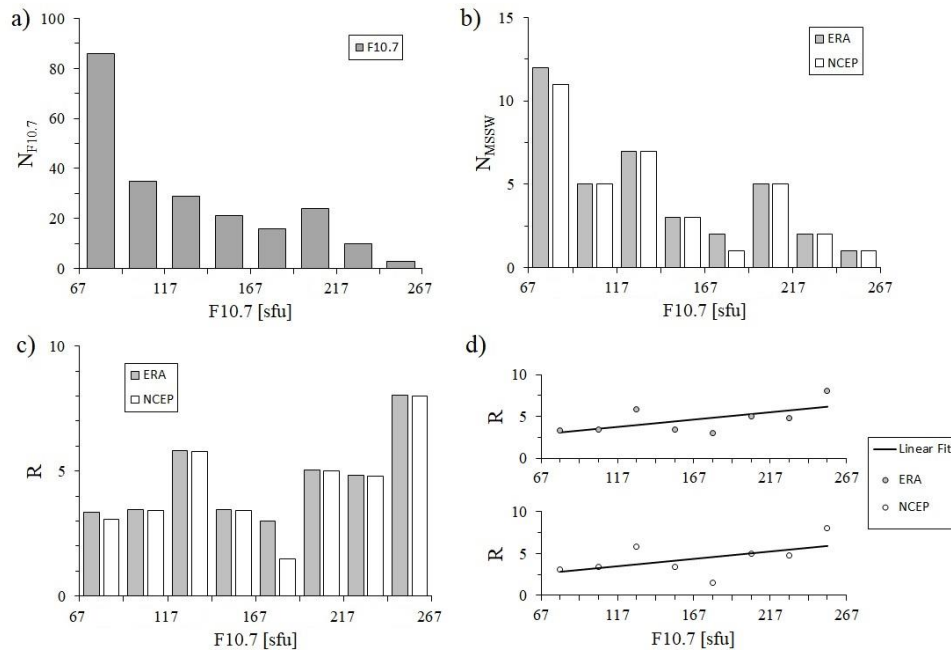
406 Table 1. Values of the correlation coefficient between solar activity and MSSWs for different  
 407 proxies. The number of subintervals is the same for all calculations.

	F10.7 radio flux	American Sunspot numbers	Lyman-alpha flux
ERA40/ERA-Interim	0.6314	0.5780	0.5408
	90.68%	86.66%	83.36%
NCEP-NCAR-I	0.5455	0.4879	0.5770
	83.80%	78.00%	86.57%

408

409 **Figures.**

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411

412 **Figure 1.** a) Monthly mean F10.7 flux values between 1958 and 2013 of 4 months between  
 413 December and March; b) the number of MSSWs depending on F10.7 flux values; c)  
 414 normalized occurrence rate of MSSWs depending on F10.7 flux values; d) correlation  
 415 analysis for normalized occurrence rate of MSSWs and F10.7 flux values.

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