Solar activity and the mean global temperature

A D Erlykin^{1,3}, T Sloan² and A W Wolfendale¹

¹ Department of Physics, Durham University, UK
² Department of Physics, University of Lancaster, UK

Received 16 September 2008 Accepted for publication 30 December 2008 Published 20 January 2009 Online at stacks.iop.org/ERL/4/014006

Abstract

The variation with time from 1956 to 2002 of the globally averaged rate of ionization produced by cosmic rays in the atmosphere is deduced and shown to have a cyclic component of period roughly twice the 11 year solar cycle period. Long term variations in the global average surface temperature as a function of time since 1956 are found to have a similar cyclic component. The cyclic variations are also observed in the solar irradiance and in the mean daily sun spot number. The cyclic variation in the cosmic ray rate is observed to be delayed by 2–4 years relative to the temperature, the solar irradiance and daily sun spot variations suggesting that the origin of the correlation is more likely to be direct solar activity than cosmic rays. Assuming that the correlation is caused by such solar activity, we deduce that the maximum recent increase in the mean surface temperature of the Earth which can be ascribed to this activity is $\lesssim 14\%$ of the observed global warming.

Keywords: global warming, solar activity, cosmic rays

1. Introduction

Ionization of the air occurs due to cosmic rays (CR), from the decay of trace radioactive isotopes, ionization by solar ultra violet light and electrical effects such as lightning. At cloud forming altitude (>1000 m) over the land and at all altitudes over the sea CR are thought to dominate the production of ionization in the troposphere [1]. Recently, detailed computations of the total ionization rates produced by CR in the atmosphere have become available [2–5], including the time variation from 1951 to 2004 arising from the changing solar activity. In addition, long term data on the charged particle fluxes in the atmosphere are now available [6, 7].

It was suggested long ago that CR could be connected with the weather and the climate [8] and various mechanisms have been suggested [9-11] (for reviews see [12, 13]). Much publicity has been given to the observation that the reduction in the low cloud cover (LCC) observed during solar cycle 22 correlates well with the decrease in the cosmic ray (CR) rate as measured by neutron monitors [14-16]. This led the groups to hypothesize that the reduction was caused by the influence of ionization from CRs on cloud cover. Furthermore, it has

been suggested [16, 17] that this is a significant contributor to global warming. The basis of the suggestion is that the cosmic ray rate has been observed to decrease over the last century [18]. This leads to less ionization in the atmosphere, reducing cloud cover according to the hypothesis, allowing more sunlight to warm the Earth. This suggestion has been questioned on the grounds of inconsistencies between different methods of measuring cloud cover [19] and on the grounds of imperfect data analyses [20]. Attempts have been made to look for local or regional correlations which find either nothing [21], the opposite correlation [22] or some correlation [11, 23]. We discount these in order to investigate the hypothesis further and on a global scale. We further discount the likelihood that CR effects would change mainly the depth of the clouds, rather than the cloud cover. The suggestion was also questioned in a study of the long term CR rate [24] where it was shown that this rate began to increase in 1985 yet global warming continued. In a previous publication [25] we showed that less than 23%of the observed reduction in cloud cover in solar cycle 22, at the 95% confidence level, can be ascribed to ionization from CR. Nevertheless, there may be some connection between clouds and ionization since it is well known that charged drops grow at smaller radii than uncharged drops, providing that the supersaturation is high enough [26].

³ Permanent address: P N Lebedev Institute, Moscow, Russia.

In this paper we report a search for such an effect by attempting to correlate directly changes in the cosmic ray rate of ionization with changes in the surface temperature of the Earth either through clouds or via some other mechanism. First a study is made of the variation in the long term rate of ionization produced by CR. We then study the variation of the global average surface temperature, the mean daily sun spot number and the solar irradiance with time and show a correlation with the variation of the cosmic ray signal since 1956. From this variation a limit on the overall temperature rise over the last half century that can be ascribed to variable solar activity is deduced.

2. Long term variation of the rate of ionization due to CR

Computer simulations of the production of ionization by CR in the atmosphere have been made using the CORSIKA [27] simulation programme [2–4] and the GEANT4 [28] simulation package [5]. These simulations agreed with the available fragmentary ionization data and with each other to 10% precision [3, 4]. Recently independent long term data on the CR flux in the atmosphere using balloon borne Geiger counter measurements have become available [6, 7]. Information is also available from the cosmogenic nuclei $^{10}\mathrm{Be}$ and $^{14}\mathrm{C}.$ However, there are many complications in using such nuclei as a proxy for the ionization in the atmosphere [29]. The ionization measurements and the simulations both show an 11 year modulation due to the effects of the changing solar wind on the CR primaries. The amplitude of this modulation varies with the magnetic latitude on the Earth due to the geomagnetic field (see [30] for a review of these effects). The geomagnetic field causes a cut off for low CR rigidities. The minimum vertical rigidity primary which can hit the Earth's surface defines the vertical rigidity cut off (VRCO) [31].

The simulations and the balloon data are used here to assess the long term variation of the ionization rate in the atmosphere due to CR. To average over the periodic variations due to the 11 year solar cycle the method adopted by Lockwood and Fröhlich [24] was used. In this method the average at a particular time, t, is taken as the average over the full solar cycle length starting one half a cycle earlier than t. The time dependent cycle lengths were taken from figures 3(b) and 4(b) in [24].

Figure 1 shows the count rates from the balloon measurements [6, 7] as a function of time at different altitudes over Moscow with the 11 year smoothing applied. There were also measurements over Murmansk which gave similar results to the Moscow data and from the Antarctic (Mirniy station) which were much more noisy and difficult to interpret. The figure also shows the results of the simulations from [2, 3] at the value of the VRCO of 2 GV (close to the value at Moscow).

The measurements and the simulation show a similar cyclic behaviour with a period of roughly twice the 11 year solar cycle and amplitudes in the fractional deviations from the mean varying from 3% at the lowest altitude to 5% at higher altitudes. The simulated values of the fractional deviation from the mean agree with the measurements to within a

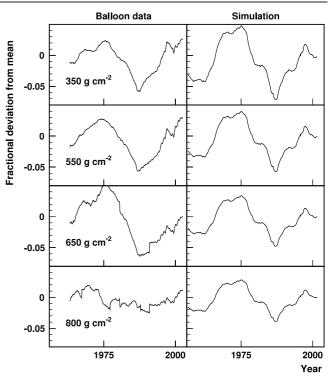


Figure 1. Long term variation of the rate of the flux of charged particles in the atmosphere as measured from the Moscow balloon data [6, 7] (the left-hand panels). The altitude for each set of data is indicated in the panels. The right-hand panels show the results of the simulation [3] of the ionization rate from CR at each altitude. The smoothing described in the text has been applied to each data set to eliminate the effects of the 11 year solar cycle.

factor of two (see figure 1). This represents the uncertainty in the procedure to assess the long term variation of this quantity. Since the values from the simulation are less noisy and are uncontaminated by background they will be used in the following as the long term time variation of the rate of ionization in the atmosphere by CR.

The amplitude of the observed cyclic variation of the long term CR rate varies with VRCO. The value of the VRCO averaged over the Earth is 8 GV. In the remainder of this paper we use the simulation for a VRCO of 8 GV at an altitude of 825 g cm⁻² (2000 m) to represent the change in the global mean ionization rate in the atmosphere at cloud forming height.

Figure 2 shows the variation of the simulated ionization rate due to CR at a VRCO of 8 GV and altitude of 825 g cm⁻² as a function of time averaged over the 11 year solar cycle. Also shown in figure 2 is the mean daily sun spot number (SSN) [32] and the mean solar irradiance (SI) [33] similarly averaged over the 11 year solar cycle. Interestingly, there is a reasonable correspondence between the three curves, illustrating the connection between the three phenomena. However, the CR changes are delayed by 2–4 years relative to the SSN and SI changes. The delay is somewhat longer than those observed between the SSN and the CR changes due to the 11 year solar cycle [34]. This indicates that the long term and shorter term 11 year cycle in the CR variation may be influenced by different components of the solar wind.

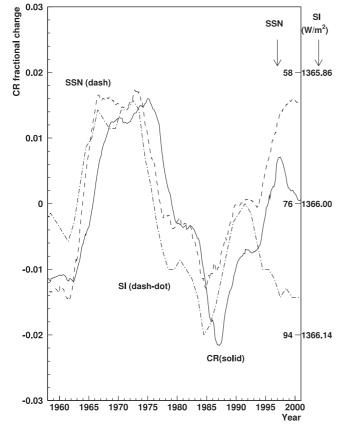


Figure 2. The solid curve shows the fractional change in the CR ionization rate from the simulation with time, at VRCO = 8 GV and altitude 2000 m, after the 11 year smoothing described in the text. The dashed and dash-dot curves show the mean daily SSN and the SI data from [36] each with the 11 year smoothing applied. The scales for the SSN and SI are shown on the right-hand axes, NB these two scales are inverted to illustrate the correlation i.e. they increase vertically downwards.

3. Solar modulation of the mean Earth's surface temperature

The data on the global surface temperature are now examined to see if a correlation can be found with the changes in solar activity shown in figure 2. Such changes could be expected since it is thought that the modulation of the global surface temperature due to the 11 year solar cycle is approximately $0.1 \,^{\circ}$ C peak to peak [35, 36].

Figure 3(a) shows the global surface temperature [37], as a function of time with the same 11 year smoothing as that described above. The data show an oscillatory behaviour about a smooth upward trend. The smooth trend can be represented empirically by a function of the form $T = a \exp(bt + ct^2)$, where T is the global surface temperature and t is the time, with a, b and c free parameters. This is shown by the dotted curve in figure 3. The dash-dotted curve shows this smooth trend with the long term CR ionization rate from figure 2 added (inverted and arbitrarily normalized to give the best visual representation of the temperature data). The similarity between the deviations from the trend of the CR and temperature data is illustrated in more detail in figure 3(b) where the differences from the smooth trend are plotted against time.

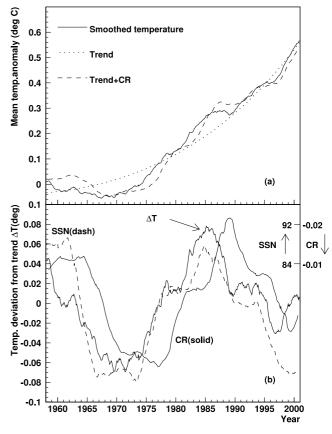


Figure 3. (a) The global surface temperature anomaly (solid curve) [37] with the 11 year smoothing described in the text. The dotted curve shows the smooth trend obtained by fitting an empirical function (see text). The dashed line shows the long term CR rate from figure 2 (inverted and normalized) added to the smooth trend curve. (b) The deviations from the trend line in the upper panel for the temperature (solid curve labelled ΔT), for the CR—labelled CR (solid)—and for the SSN—labelled SSN (dash). The scales for the latter two are given on the right-hand axis. NB the scale for the CR rate is inverted to illustrate the correlation i.e. it increases vertically downwards.

The similarity between the solar activity measured by the SSN and CR and the temperature deviations is striking. The temperature deviations seem to be in time with the SSN variations rather than delayed by 2–4 years as observed for the CR deviations. Hence, assuming that this is a real correlation between global surface temperature and solar activity, it is more probable that the deviations arise from the effects of a phenomenon, such as SI, rather than the effects of CR which are known to lag behind the SSN changes.

Although the results of the simulations are only available for dates after 1951, it is instructive to examine the period before this using such data as are available. Figure 4 shows the temperature anomaly compared to the SSN and ¹⁰Be data [38, 39], applying the same 11 year smoothing to each. Here we use the ¹⁰Be data as a rough proxy for the CR ionization rate. It is apparent that the good correlation seen after 1956 shown in figure 3 does not continue before this date. However, the ¹⁰Be data may not be a good proxy for the ionization rate in the troposphere since they show a different modulation due to the 11 year solar cycle than other CR measurements [29]. In addition, they produce a

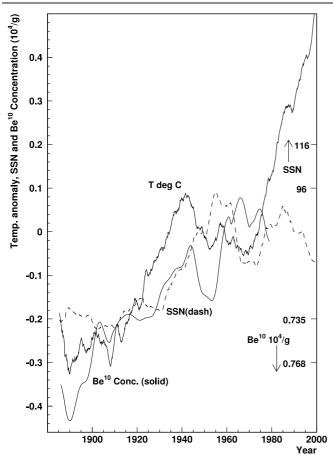


Figure 4. The global surface temperature anomaly, the SSN (dashed curve) and the ¹⁰Be data from the Greenland ice core [38, 39] all with the 11 year smoothing. The scales for the SSN and ¹⁰Be concentration are shown on the right-hand axes. Note that the ¹⁰Be scale is inverted for illustration i.e. it increases vertically downwards.

different long term behaviour after 1956 than that shown in figure 1 as can be seen from the overlap region in time in figures 2 and 4. This cosmogenic isotope is thought to be produced in the stratosphere by somewhat lower energy primaries than those responsible for the bulk of the ionization in the troposphere [40]. Hence it could be expected to have different properties from the ionization in the troposphere. Thus, there is some possibility that the correlation seen after 1956 is real.

4. The effects of CR and SI on the global surface temperature

4.1. Cosmic rays

The data in figure 2 show that between the years 1956 and 2001 the global average CR rate has oscillated with the final value being roughly 1% higher than the starting value with an averaged fractional change of $0 \pm 0.2\%$. If global warming were being influenced by changes in ionization producing changes in low level cloud cover, as hypothesized in [16, 17], then the increase in the CR rate would be expected to produce a lowering of the globally averaged temperature of

the Earth during this period rather than the increase shown in figure 3(a). This already is evidence against CR being a large contributor to global warming, as pointed out by Lockwood and Fröhlich [24].

In order to derive an upper limit on the global temperature rise which can be ascribed to changes in ionization from CR we adopt the hypothesis of [16, 17] and assume that the oscillation in temperature shown in figure 3 results from the oscillation in the ionization rate shown in figure 2. We observe in figure 2 that the CR ionization rate oscillation is $\pm 1.5\%$ which is anticorrelated with the temperature oscillation in figure 3 of amplitude ∓ 0.07 °C. Any long term decrease in the CR ionization rate since 1956 is less than the amplitude of the cyclic variation. Hence, any long term change in the global temperature must be less than the amplitude of cyclic variation in the temperature i.e. less than 0.07 °C. This is to be compared with an observed rise of 0.5 °C (see figure 3). Thus, within our assumptions, less than 14% of the observed global warming since 1956 is attributable to the changing CR rate.

4.2. Solar irradiance

A similar argument can be applied to the case of SI. The data in figure 2 show that between the years 1956 and 2001 the SI rate has oscillated about the mean with an amplitude of $\sim 0.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. The final value is 0.09 W m⁻² higher than the starting value. From this it can be seen that the SI could have increased since 1956 by an amount which is less than the amplitude of the observed cyclic variation. If we attribute the oscillation in temperature to the cyclic change in SI, a change in SI of 0.1 W m⁻² causes a change in the global temperature of 0.07 °C. Since the change in total SI since 1956 is less than 0.1 W m⁻², it follows that the total change in mean global temperature due to SI must be less than 0.07 °C.

Hence, within our assumptions, less than 14% of the observed global warming since 1956 is attributable to changes in SI.

5. Conclusions

The long term variation of the cosmic ray ionization rate has been studied. This rate shows a cyclic variation with a period of roughly twice the 11 year cycle for the data available since the 1950s. The structures seen in the variation of the long term cosmic ray ionization rate with time are shown to be present in the variation of the mean daily sun spot number, solar irradiance and in the variation of the mean global surface temperature. Hence we report a possible observation of a cyclical variation in each of these quantities of a similar period. The cyclic variation of the global temperature is found to be in phase with the solar cycle as measured from the sun spot numbers and the solar irradiance and in antiphase with the cosmic ray variation. However, the cyclic variation of the CR cycle is delayed by 2–4 years. This indicates that, if it is real, the correlation is most likely caused by direct solar activity rather than by cosmic rays.

The long term variations of each of the cosmic ray rate and the solar irradiance are observed to be less than their cyclic variations. Therefore, assuming that there is a causal link between either of them with the mean global surface temperature, the long term variation of the temperature must be less than the amplitude of its cyclic variation of $0.07 \,^{\circ}$ C. Hence within our assumptions, the effect of varying solar activity, either by direct solar irradiance or by varying cosmic ray rates, must be less than $0.07 \,^{\circ}$ C since 1956 i.e. less than 14% of the observed global warming.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to G Bazilevskaya, J Beer, J Haigh and I G Usoskin for valuable discussions and for providing us with computer readable tables of data on the ionization rate from the Geiger counter measurements, the Dye 3 ice core data, the SI data and the ionization simulations, respectively. We are also grateful to our anonymous referees for their comments which have helped us to improve the paper. We thank the Dr John C Taylor Charitable Foundation for financial support.

References

- [1] Junge C E 1963 Air Chemistry and Radioactivity (New York: Academic)
- [2] Usoskin I G, Gladysheva O G and Kovaltsov G A 2004 Cosmic ray induced ionization in the atmosphere: spatial and temporal changes J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys. 66 1791
- [3] Usoskin I G and Kovaltsov G A 2006 Cosmic ray induced ionization in the atmosphere: full modeling and practical applications J. Geophys. Res. 111 D21206
- [4] Usoskin I G et al 2009 Ionization of the Earth's atmosphere by solar and galactic cosmic rays Acta Geophys. 57 88–101
- [5] Desorgher L et al 2005 Variations of charged particle fluxes in the Earth's troposphere Int. J. Mod. Phys. A 20 6802
- [6] Bazilevskaya G A *et al* 2007 Variations of charged particle fluxes in the Earth's troposphere *Bull. Lebedev Phys. Inst.* 34 348
- [7] Bazilevskaya G A *et al* 2008 Cosmic ray induced ion production in the atmosphere *Space Sci. Rev.* 137 149
- [8] Ney E P 1959 Cosmic radiation and the weather *Nature* 183 451–2
- [9] Tinsley B A, Brown G M and Scherrer P H 1989 Solar variability, influences on weather and climate: possible connections through cosmic-ray fluxes and storm intensification J. Geophys. Res. 94 14738–92
- [10] Yu F Q and Turco R P 2001 From molecular clusters in nanoparticles: role of ambient ionization in tropospheric aerosol formation J. Geophys. Res.—Atmos. 106 4797
- [11] Harrison R G and Aplin K L 2001 Atmospheric condensation nuclei formation and high energy radiation *J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys.* 63 1811
- [12] Pallé E and Butler C J 2002 The proposed connection between clouds and cosmic rays: cloud behaviour during the past 50–120 years J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys. 64 327
- [13] Carslaw K S, Harrison R G and Kirkby J 2002 Cosmic rays, clouds and climate Science 298 1732
- [14] Svensmark H and Friis-Christensen E 1997 Variation of cosmic ray flux and global cloud coverage—a missing link in solar–climate relationships *J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys.* 59 1225
- [15] Pallé Bago E and Butler C J 2000 The influence of cosmic rays on terrestrial clouds and global warming *Astron. Geophys.* 41 18
- [16] Marsh N and Svensmark H 2000 Low cloud properties influenced by cosmic rays *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 85 5004

- [17] Svensmark H 2007 Cosmoclimatology: a new theory emerges News Rev. Astron. Geophys. 48 18
 - Svensmark H and Calder N 2007 *The Chilling Stars: A New Theory of Climate Change* (Cambridge, UK: Icon/Totem Books)
- [18] Lockwood M R, Stamper R and Wild M N 1999 A doubling of the Sun's coronal magnetic field during the past 100 years *Nature* 399 437
- [19] Kristjánsson J E, Staple A, Kristiansen J and Kaas E 2002 A new look at possible connections between solar activity, clouds and climate *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 29 2107
- [20] Laut P 2003 Solar activity and terrestrial climate: an analysis of some purported correlations J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys. 65 801
- [21] Sun B and Bradley R S 2002 Solar influences on cosmic rays and cloud formation: a reassessment J. Geophys. Res. 107 4211
- [22] Udelhofen P M and Cess R D 2001 Could cover variations over the United States: an influence of cosmic rays or solar variability? *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 28 2617
- [23] Vieira L E A and da Silva L A 2006 Geomagnetic modulation of cloud effects in the southern hemisphere magnetic anomaly through lower atmosphere cosmic ray effects *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 33 L14802
- [24] Lockwood M and Fröhlich C 2008 Recent oppositely directed trends in solar climate forcings and the global mean surface air temperature *Proc. R. Soc.* A 464 1367
- [25] Sloan T and Wolfendale A W 2008 Testing the proposed causal link between cosmic rays and cloud cover *Environ. Res. Lett.* 3 024001
- [26] Mason B J 1971 The Physics of Clouds (Oxford: Clarendon)
- [27] Heck D et al 1998 CORSIKA: A Monte Carlo code to simulate extensive air showers Karlsruhe Report FZKA 6019 http://www-ik.fzk.de/corsika
- [28] The GEANT 4 group 2003 Nucl. Instrum. Methods Phys. Res. A 506 250
- [29] Nikitin I, Stozhkov Y, Oklopkov V and Svirzhevsky N 2005 Do ¹⁰Be and ¹⁴C give us information about cosmic rays in the past? 29th Int. Cosmic Ray Conf. (Pune) vol 2, p 243
- [30] Usoskin I G 2009 A history of solar activity over millenia Living Rev. Sol. Phys. at press (arXiv:0810.3972v1)
- [31] The vertical rigidity cut off is computed by the QARM program at http://geoshaft.space.qinetiq.com/qarm/CalculateRigidity neglecting its small altitude and time dependence
- [32] The mean daily sun spot numbers are available from http:// www.ngdc.noaa.gov/stp/SOLAR/ftpsunspotnumber.html
- [33] Wang Y-M, Lean J L and Sheeley N R Jr 2005 Modelling the Sun's magnetic field and irradiance since 1713 Astrophys. J. 625 522
- [34] Usoskin I G, Mursala K and Kovaltsov G A 2001 Dependence of cosmic rays on solar activity for odd and even solar cycles *Adv. Space Res.* 27 571
- [35] van Loon H and Shea D J 2000 The global 11-year solar signal in July–August Geophys. Res. Lett. 27 2965
- [36] Lean J, Rottman G, Harder J and Kopp G 2005 SORCE contributions to new understanding of global change and solar variability *Sol. Phys.* 230 27
- [37] http://data.giss.nasa.gov/gistemp/graphs/FigA2.txt Hansen J, Sato M, Ruedy R, lo K, Lea D W and Medina-Elizade M 2006 Global temperature change *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci.* 103 14288–93 These data are in reasonable agreement with other data (for a comparison see http://www. climate4you.com/GlobalTemperatures.htm)
- [38] Beer J et al 1990 Use of ¹⁰Be in polar ice to trace the 11-year cycle of solar activity Nature 347 164–6
- [39] Beer J, Vonmoos M and Muscheler R 2006 Solar variability over the past several millennia Space Sci. Rev. 125 67–79
- [40] Webber W R and Higbie P R 2003 Production of Be nuclei in the Earth's atmosphere by cosmic rays: its dependence on solar modulation and the interstellar cosmic ray spectrum *J. Geophys. Res.* 108 1355