# Long-term variations and residual trends in the E, F and sporadic E (Es) layer over Juliusruh, Europe

Sivakandan Mani<sup>1</sup>, Jens Mielich<sup>2</sup>, Toralf Renkwitz<sup>2</sup>, Jorge L. Chau<sup>3</sup>, Juliana Jaen<sup>4</sup>, and Jan Laštovička<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Leibniz Institute of Atmospheric Physics at the University of Rostock
<sup>2</sup>Leibniz-Institute of Atmospheric Physics (LG)
<sup>3</sup>Leibniz-Institute of Atmospheric Physics at the University of Rostock
<sup>4</sup>Leibniz Institute of Atmospheric Physics
<sup>5</sup>Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Academy of Science, Bocni II, 14131 Prague, Czech Republic

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### Abstract

In the present study, using sixty-three and fifty-six years of continuous observations, we investigate the long-term oscillations and residual trends, respectively, in the E- and F-region ionosonde measured parameters over Juliusruh, Europe. Using the Lomb-Scargle periodogram (LSP) long-term variations are estimated before the trend estimation. We found that the amplitude of the annual oscillation is higher than the 11-year solar cycle variation in the critical frequencies of the daytime E (foE) and Es (foEs) layers. A weak semi-annual oscillation is also identified in the foE. In the F-region, except for daytime hmF2, and nighttime foF2, the amplitude of the 11-year solar cycle variation is higher than the annual oscillation. The LSP estimated periods and their corresponding amplitudes are used to construct a model E- and F-region ionospheric parameters that are in good agreement with the observation. The linear trend estimation is derived by applying a least-squares fit analysis to the residuals, subtracting the model from the observation. Except for the daytime foF2, all the other parameters like nighttime foF2, day and nighttime h'F, and hmF2 show a negative trend. Present results suggest that the greenhouse effect is a prime driver for the observed long-term trend in the F-region. Interestingly, weak negative trends in the foE and foEs are found which contradicts an earlier investigation. The present study suggests that the changes in the upper stratospheric ozone and mesosphere wind shear variability could be the main driver for the observed weak negative trends in the foE, and foEs, respectively.













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## M. Sivakandan<sup>1</sup>, J. Mielich<sup>1</sup>, T. Renkwitz<sup>1</sup>, J. L. Chau<sup>1</sup>, J. Jaen<sup>1</sup>, and J. Lastovicka<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Leibniz Institute of Atmospheric Physics at the University of Rostock (IAP), Kühlungsborn, Germany <sup>2</sup>Institute of Atmospheric Physics Czech Academy of Sciences, Bocni II, 141 31, Praha, Czechia

### Key Points:

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8	٠	The amplitude of annual and solar cycle oscillations are predominant in the E-and
9		F-region, respectively.
10	•	In the E-region, daytime foE and foEs shows a weak negative trend during the pe-
11		riod of 1964 to 2019.
12	•	In the F-region, foF2 and hmF2 nighttime trend is larger than the daytime. Day-

• In the F-region, foF2 and hmF2 nighttime trend is larger than the daytime. Daytime foF2 trend is statistically insignificant.

Corresponding author: Sivakandan Mani, mani@iap-kborn.de

#### 14 Abstract

In the present study, using sixty-three and fifty-six years of continuous observations, we 15 investigate the long-term oscillations and residual trends, respectively, in the E- and F-16 region ionosonde measured parameters over Juliusruh, Europe. Using the Lomb-Scargle 17 periodogram (LSP) long-term variations are estimated before the trend estimation. We 18 found that the amplitude of the annual oscillation is higher than the 11-year solar cy-19 cle variation in the critical frequencies of the daytime E (foE) and Es (foEs) layers. A 20 weak semi-annual oscillation is also identified in the foE. In the F-region, except for day-21 time hmF2, and nighttime foF2, the amplitude of the 11-year solar cycle variation is higher 22 than the annual oscillation. The LSP estimated periods and their corresponding ampli-23 tudes are used to construct a model E- and F-region ionospheric parameters that are in 24 good agreement with the observation. The linear trend estimation is derived by apply-25 ing a least-squares fit analysis to the residuals, subtracting the model from the obser-26 vation. Except for the daytime foF2, all the other parameters like nighttime foF2, day 27 and nighttime h'F, and hmF2 show a negative trend. Present results suggest that the 28 greenhouse effect is a prime driver for the observed long-term trend in the F-region. In-29 terestingly, weak negative trends in the foE and foEs are found which contradicts an ear-30 lier investigation. The present study suggests that the changes in the upper stratospheric 31 ozone and mesosphere wind shear variability could be the main driver for the observed 32 weak negative trends in the foE, and foEs, respectively. 33

### <sup>34</sup> Plain Language Summary

Studies on the long-term trend are essential for understanding and quantifying the 35 climate change impact on the Earth's atmosphere if it exist. In this investigation, we used 36 fifty-six years of ionosonde measured E- and F-region parameters for a long-term trend 37 estimation. We found a negative trend in the F-region ionospheric peak critical frequency 38 (foF2), virtual height (h'F), and peak altitude (hmF2). More importantly, the nighttime 39 trend is stronger than for the daytime. In particular, the daytime foF2 trend is statis-40 tically insignificant during this period. This suggests that the greenhouse effect and lower 41 atmospheric forcing could have a predominant role in the observed trend in the F-region. 42 In addition, E-region critical frequency and sporadic E-layer frequency also show a weak 43 negative trend that could be due to the increasing trend in the northern hemisphere mid-44 latitude upper stratospheric ozone. 45

### 46 1 Introduction

The long-term trend is one of the challenging and debatable research topics because 47 of the estimation method and the social relevance in the climate change scenario. Stud-48 ies on the long-term changes in the upper atmosphere yield more attention after Roble 49 and Dickinson (1989). Using a model simulation, they reported that due to the doubling 50 of the  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  mixing ratios in the mesosphere and thermosphere, temperatures 51 of these regions will cool about 10K and 50K, respectively. Motivated by the above in-52 vestigation Rishbeth (1990) predicted that the greenhouse effect in the ionosphere un-53 der the composition changes and cooling mentioned by Roble and Dickinson (1989), the 54 E- and F-region peak heights lower by about 2 km and 20 km, respectively, however, changes 55 in the electron number density is very small. That study also postulated that a decrease 56 in atmospheric pressure due to the cooling of the stratosphere, mesosphere, and ther-57 mosphere caused by the greenhouse effect is responsible for the descent in the ionospheric 58 peak altitudes. At the same time a compensation of effects due to atmospheric compo-59 sition and temperature changes could inhibit the changes in the plasma density. Using 60 more than 30 years of ionosonde data, Bremer (1992) studied the ionospheric trends in 61 the mid-latitudes, and his results were qualitatively in good agreement with Rishbeth 62 (1990). Since then, there have been many investigations which looked into the seasonal, 63

latitudinal, and longitudinal variation of the long-term trends in the E- and F-region iono-64 sphere (Bremer et al., 2004; Bremer & Peters, 2008; Bremer, 2008; A. Danilov, 2008, 2009, 65 2015; Danilov & Konstantinova, 2020; Laštovička et al., 2008; Laštovička et al., 2012; 66 Laštovička, 2017, 2022; Mielich & Bremer, 2013; Mikhailov & Marin, 2001; Mikhailov 67 & de la Morena, 2003; Mikhailov, 2006; Prasad et al., 2012). The outcome of these in-68 vestigations shows that the long-term trend in the foF2 and hmF2 is not uniform, for 69 example, in some of these locations the trend is positive and some other stations show 70 a negative trend (Bremer et al., 2004; Mielich & Bremer, 2013). Most of these studies 71 have postulated that the greenhouse effect is a prime cause of the observed trends (Bremer 72 & Peters, 2008; Laštovička et al., 2012). In contradiction, Mikhailov and Marin (2001) 73 suggest that the observed trends associated with the geomagnetic activity variations i.e. 74 are of natural origin. However, lately using whole atmosphere model simulations Qian 75 et al. (2021) found that trends in the thermosphere were predominantly driven by green-76 house gases, whereas in the foF2, hmF2 and Te the role of greenhouse gases and of the 77 secular change of the geomagnetic field were comparable in some regions. However, glob-78 ally the role of magnetic field change is negligible because locally it is both positive and 79 negative. 80

Recently, Chossen (2020) studied the long-term trend in the upper atmospheric neu-81 tral temperature, neutral density at 400 km altitude, and hmF2, NmF2 as well as TEC 82 using the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model eXtension (WACCM-X) sim-83 ulation data from 1950 to 2015. The authors found a negative trend in all these param-84 eters and argued that  $CO_2$  is probably the main driver of trends in the thermosphere. 85 However for high (magnetic) latitudes, effects of changes in the Earth's magnetic field 86 also appear to be important. Main magnetic field changes are likely responsible for a long-87 term decrease in Joule heating, which is especially important at low/equatorial latitudes 88 of American sector. Her simulation also showed that trends associated with main mag-89 netic field changes can be either positive or negative, depending on the location, patches 90 of negative trends are considerably stronger and larger than patches of positive trends 91 because main magnetic field changes push global mean trends to be more negative than 92 they would be due to the increase in  $CO_2$  concentration alone. In a nutshell, several fac-93 tors may contribute to the long-term changes and trends in the upper atmosphere [Laštovička 94 et al. (2012), namely stratospheric ozone depletion, long-term changes in solar and ge-95 omagnetic activity, secular changes in the Earth's magnetic field, long-term changes of 96 atmospheric circulation and atmospheric wave activity, and of mesospheric water vapor 97 concentration. However, one of the prime factors of long-term changes and trends in the 98 foF2 is  $CO_2$  (Laštovička, 2022). 99

Most of the earlier investigations mainly studied the long-term trends in the F and/or 100 E region critical frequencies, and peak altitudes (Bremer & Peters, 2008; Mikhailov, 2006). 101 In the case of sporadic E layers, most of the earlier studies focused on the occurrence char-102 acteristics, seasonal and solar activity dependency, but very few reports are available on 103 the long-term trends in foEs (Abdu et al., 1996; Pezzopane et al., 2015). In the present 104 investigation, we used 63 years of continuous ionosonde data to estimate the long-term 105 variations in the daytime E region parameters, namely foE, foEs, and day and nighttime 106 F-region parameters such as h'F, hmF2, and foF2, and 56 years of data for the trends 107 estimation of the above parameters over Juliusruh, Germany. Instrumentation and method-108 ology are provided in section 2, and results and discussion are given in sections 3 and 109 4, respectively. Finally, section 5 describes the concluding remarks. 110

### **111 2** Instrumentation and method

We study the long-term variations and trends in the E- and F-region using an ionosonde observation over Juliusruh (54.6°N, 13.4°E) representing a high-mid latitude transition region in northern Germany. Long period oscillations and trends are investigated using Lomb Scargle Periodogram (LSP), and least-square fitting analysis, respectively. A detailed description of the ionosonde and the methodology are given below.

### 117 **2.1 Ionosonde**

The ionosonde over Juliursh provides one of the longest, and most continuous ob-118 servations around the globe and the data are available since July 1957. Thus, in total 119 sixty-three years of data are available as of 2020, which are used for the estimation of 120 long-term variations. However, to avoid any artificial negative slope due to the starting 121 year 1957 (solar maximum) and the end year 2020 (solar minimum), only 56 years of data 122 are used to investigate the long-term trends. Therefore, we consider only the years be-123 tween 1964 to 2019 (both are the solar-minimum years) for the trend estimation. At first, 124 we estimate the hourly median of E- and F-region ionospheric parameters such as h'F, 125 h'Es, foE, foEs, h'F, foF2, hmF1 and hmF2. Then, the monthly median of hourly data 126 is calculated, followed by the daytime and nighttime mean values are estimated by av-127 eraging the data during the time interval of 08-14 UT and 21-01 UT, respectively (cen-128 tered around 11 and 23 UT). Note here that the virtual height h'F is directly observed 129 from the ionograms. However, hmF1 and hmF2 are the real heights which are estimated 130 using the Shimazaki's formula as described by Mielich and Bremer (2013). The follow-131 ing technical issues influence the monthly median data and have to be noticed to under-132 stand a possible exclusion of some periods or characteristics from the analyzed data set: 133

a) Until 1990 a high-power ionosonde with a starting frequency of ~500 kHz was
 in operation. This allowed a recording of nighttime E layer critical frequencies but led
 to scaling of relatively high virtual E layer heights.

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b) Between 1990 and 1994, a polish ionosonde of type KOS was in operation.

c) The high and not all the time stable output power of the first Juliusruh ionosondes influenced signal power-sensitive characteristics, like fmin and fbEs.

d) Since 1994, so-called Digisondes are in operation. From April to August 1998, during the upgrade from Digisonde model DPS-1 to DPS-4, an FMCW Barry Research Chirp Sounder was the replacement. With 3 km distance, the co-located Chirp Sounder receiver was too close to the transmitter to identify the ionospheric reflection in the presence of the ground wave in the ionogram. Daytime frequencies below ~5 MHz, particularly h'E, foE, h'Es, foEs and fbEs were affected.

e) The formerly more intensely used commercial MF radio band up to 1.6 MHz led to partly strong interference and/or gaps in the ionograms, which made the scaling more difficult or impossible. In the modern Digisondes, the automatic RFIM algorithm may lead to gaps in the ionogram trace in that frequency range.

f) Former ionosondes were not able to distinguish between near vertical and oblique
echoes and showed not only vertical but also some partly strong oblique echoes, which
were scaled as vertical ones with relatively high virtual heights and with artificially higher
values of foEs (Laštovička et al., 2012). Generally oblique echoes are mainly problem of
Es due to their cloudy horizontal structure.

g) Modern national and international frequency regulations do not allow continuous transmitting over the whole frequency band. A specified restricted frequency list
leads to several gaps of some 50kHz, which affects characteristics close to these restricted
frequency bands.

h) Until 1992, different human scalers did the manual scaling of Juliusruh ionograms.
After 1993, only one scaler was involved in that task until today. Even, when the manual scaling is done according to the official ionogram scaling rules, each human scaler tends to scale a bit to higher or lower values.

i) Juliusruh monthly medians are processed including the so-called qualitative and
 descriptive letters. Qualitative letters give information about the uncertainty of the value
 of up to 20%. In the long-term analysis of this paper, these letters remain unused.

While analyzing the data, we carefully removed the instrumental biases in the data set. For example to avoid errors in the trend estimation due to the instrumental capability we consider the foE only above 1MHz because before the 1980's the measurable lower frequency of ionosonde is 0.5 MHz after that it is changed to 1 MHz. It is worth to mention here that among historical ionosonde data from Europe the Juliusruh data are those of the best quality (Burešová, 1997).

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### 2.2 Lomb Scargle Periodogram and Trend Analysis

It is essential to remove the short and long-period oscillations before the estima-173 tion of the linear trend (Laštovička et al., 2006; Laštovička & Jelínek, 2019). In litera-174 ture, various solar proxies are used to remove the solar and geomagnetic influences on 175 trend estimation. For example, Ap index, sunspot number, f10.7, E10.7, and so on. Re-176 cently, Lastovicka (2019); Laštovička (2021) showed that the optimum solar proxies are 177 different for different ionospheric parameters. However, none of these studies removed 178 the annual oscillations. Therefore, instead of using these proxies, we use a different ap-179 proach to remove the solar cycle impact on the long-term trend estimation. As a first 180 step, we use the Lomb Scargle Periodogram (LSP) analysis to identify the long-period 181 oscillations and a Gaussian model fit. In the second step, using the period and ampli-182 tude of the long period oscillations and the Gaussian model parameters, a model ionosonde 183 parameters  $X_m$  are constructed using the following equation. 184

$$X_m = Gaussian \ model(t) + A \cdot \sin(\frac{2\pi}{P_i})t + B \cdot \cos(\frac{2\pi}{P_i})t \tag{1}$$

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$$Lt = X_{ob} - X_m \tag{2}$$

In the above equations,  $X_m$  and  $X_{ob}$  are modeled and observed ionosonde parameters, 188 respectively. A, B, and  $P_i$  are the amplitude and period of the  $i^{th}$  oscillations (e.g., semi-189 annual and annual oscillation), respectively, and t is the time series of the data. In gen-190 eral, the above approach has been used to estimate the trends in the middle and lower 191 atmosphere (Holmen et al., 2016). Since the solar cycle with its period of  $\sim 9-12$  years 192 is one of the predominant oscillations in the data, we use a Gaussian model for better 193 model data construction. The residual values are calculated by subtracting the model values from the observations, followed by the least-square fit analysis used to estimate 195 the slope of the residual values or linear trend for the ionosonde parameters, namely foE, 196 foEs, h'F, hmF2, and foF2. 197

<sup>198</sup> **3** Observations and results

### 3.1 Seasonal and diurnal variation of E- and F-region ionosonde parameters

To understand the seasonal and diurnal behavior, a climatology with 63 years of 201 hourly parameter values of the E regions (i.e. foEs, foE, h'Es, h'E), are shown in Fig-202 ures 1a-d. The critical frequencies foEs and foE show a diurnal variation of maxima and 203 minima during the day and nighttime, respectively. They also exhibit seasonal variations 204 with a maximum in local summer and a minimum during winter. The magnitude of foEs 205 shows a wide/broad maximum peaking around local noon and increasing again towards 206  $\sim$ 15:00 UT (see Fig. 1b). The foE peaks around local noon all the month. Please note 207 that official local time over Juliusruh is universal time +2 (UT+2) and UT+1 hour dur-208 ing summer and winter, respectively. The diurnal variation of h'Es displays two promi-209 nent peaks viz., early morning and evening hours from March to September and only in 210 around noon from October to February. The h'E shows two peaks viz., morning and in 211



**Figure 1.** Diurnal and seasonal variation of composite mean of the 63 years of hourly median E (a-d), and F (e-h) region ionosonde parameters.

the evening hours along the year. Moreover, the h'E also show seasonal variation; summer and winter peaks occur in quite different times (see Fig.1a).

We also studied the seasonal and diurnal behavior, a climatology with 63 years of 214 hourly parameter values of the F-regions (i.e. h'F, foF2, hmF1, and hmF2) are shown 215 in Figure 1e-h. As expected, the virtual and real heights (h'F and hmF2) are generally 216 lower during daytime, (especially for h'F) than in the nighttime. The hmF1 is only present 217 in the daytime, particularly during the equinox and summer months. Most frequently, 218 hmF2 is located around 350 km during nighttime, and the lowest altitudes of the hmF2219 are observed in the winter daytime ( $\sim 250$  km). On the other hand, the foF2 is higher 220 in the winter than in the summer, which coincides with occurring at the lower altitudes. 221 The foF2 show two peaks during summer, one is before noon, and the other is around 222 20 UT. 223

### 3.2 Monthly and inter-annual variation of the E- and F-region ionosonde parameters

Figure 2 shows the monthly median of hourly median E- and F-region ionosonde 226 parameters, namely h'E, h'Es, foE, and foEs, from July 1957 to December 2020. The h'E 227 data is available only during the daytime as described in the previous section, and does 228 not show any diurnal variation. The distribution of h'Es shows morning and evening time 229 enhancements in all the years, irrespective of height variations before and after 1990. Both 230 the h'E and h'Es did not show any solar cycle variation. An important point to be noted 231 232 here is this high differences in h'E, and h'Es altitudes before and after 1990 (see Fig.2ab). These differences are implications of a high-power ionosonde with a starting frequency 233 of  $\sim 500$  kHz, which was in operation until 1990. This characteristic allowed a record-234 ing of nighttime E layer critical frequencies but led to scaling of relatively high virtual 235 E layer heights (as mentioned in Section 2.1). Due to these differences, the trend anal-236 ysis was not perform from these parameters. The magnitude of the foE and foEs show 237 an annual and solar cycle variation as shown in Figure 2c-d, and are higher during high 238 solar activity than during lower solar activity years, as it is depicted in Figure 3c. Even-239 tually, during the nighttime echoes from the E region altitudes are not observed for the 240 used frequency range of above 1 MHz. 241

The diurnal and monthly variations of the h'F are shown in Figure 2e. The h'F is 242 below and above 250 km during the day and nighttime in all the months, respectively. 243 The h'F is very low i.e. below 200 km in the daytime of the solar minima years of the 244 last three solar cycles. During the day and nighttime, h'F shows a clear solar cycle vari-245 ation with higher altitudes during the high solar activity years. Figure 2f shows the di-246 urnal and monthly variations of critical plasma frequency of the F2 (foF2). The foF2 is 247 much higher during the daytime than nighttime, and the highest frequencies are observed 248 around the local noon. Similarly, the foF2 is higher during the solar maxima years of the 249 solar cycles 19, 21, 22, and 23 than the weaker solar cycles 20 and 24. Diurnal and monthly 250 variations of the hmF1 and hmF2 are shown in Figures 2g and h, respectively. The hmF1 251 altitude is below and above 225 km during solar minima and maxima, respectively, and 252 the echoes from the hmF1 layer is absent during the nighttime irrespective of the solar 253 condition. In the case of hmF2, most often it is below 350 km during daytime and above 254 350 km at nighttime. The hmF2 maximum altitudes are located above 400 km during 255 the nighttime of the solar maxima years of the solar cycles 19, 21, and 22. 256

The annual mean of the E- and F-region parameters viz. foF2 h'F, hmF2, foE and foEs are shown in Figures 3a-c to understand the year-to-year and solar cycle variations. In the F-region, foF2 and hmF2 show a strong positive correlation with sunspot number. However, in h'F, the solar cycle dependency is positive but rather feeble. In the E region, foE and foEs display a strong positive correlation till the 23rd solar cycle but weak during the 24th solar cycle. In particular, foEs at the solar minimum year 2008 is higher than at the solar maximum year 2014 (see Fig. 3c).

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### 3.3 Long-term variations and residual trends

For the residual trend analysis we need to perform the LSP analysis to identify the predominant long-period oscillations and their amplitudes for each parameter. Using these periods and amplitude of the estimated oscillations model data are constructed using Equation 1. Obtained long-term variations and trends in the ionosonde parameters are detailed in the following subsections.

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### 3.3.1 Long-term variations and residual trends in daytime foE and foEs

Daytime averaged monthly median of foE and foEs and their corresponding Lomb-Scargle periodogram are shown in Figures 4a-d. The overall, daytime mean of foE and



**Figure 2.** Diurnal variation of monthly mean of hourly median E (a-d), and F (e-h) region ionosonde parameters



**Figure 3.** (a) Comparison of annual mean of foF2 and sunspot number, (b) hmF2 and h'F and sunspot number, and (c) foEs and foE and sunspot number.

foEs is  $3.0\pm0.5$  MHz and  $3.2\pm0.6$  MHz, respectively. The analysis shows that both of 273 these parameters' annual oscillation is predominant in the E-region followed by the 11 274 years solar cycle variation also contributing to the long-term variations. Since the 11 years 275 of the solar cycle shows a Gaussian-like structure, a 7th order Gaussian fitting is applied 276 to the daytime averaged data, width, and amplitude of each solar cycle oscillation ex-277 tracted. Combining the Gaussian fitted parameters, and LSP estimated period and am-278 plitude of the other oscillation (e.g., annual oscillation), a model data is constructed us-279 ing Equation 1 (detailed in Section 2). A similar analysis is carried out in all other pa-280 rameters, which are detailed in the following subsections. A comparison of the observa-281 tion and model estimated foE and foEs from 1958 to 2020 and shown in Figures 4e and 282 g, it is obvious that both are in good agreement with each other. Furthermore, the model 283 values are subtracted from the observational values to deduce the residual variations. By 284 applying the least-square fit on the residual variation the linear slope is estimated and 285 shown in Figures 4f and h. As mentioned in Section 2, to avoid the extremes of solar activity at the rim of time series, the high (the year 1958) and minimum (the year 2019) 287 solar activity effect in the linear slope estimation, we considered only the years from 1964 288 to 2020 as both these years fall under the low solar activity condition. The foE and foEs 289 show a weak negative slope of  $-0.7\pm0.59$  kHz/yr ( $\pm0.59$  represents 95% confidence in-290 terval) and  $-1.06\pm0.56$  kHz/yr, respectively. The magnitude of the linear slopes are above 291 the 95% confidence interval. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the obtained nega-292 tive trends in the slopes are outcomes of geophysical variation rather than an error or 293 artifact. 294

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### 3.3.2 Long-term variations and residual trends in day and nighttime foF2

The monthly medians of day and nighttime averaged foF2 are shown in Figures 5a and 5c, and their corresponding LSP analysis is shown in Figures 5b and 5d, respectively. The 63 years mean of a day and nighttime foF2 is  $\sim 7\pm 2$  MHz and  $\sim 4\pm 1$  MHz, respectively. From figures 5b and 5d, a distinct feature is observed that during the daytime the amplitude of the 11-year solar cycle variation is more predominant than the annual oscillation. In contrast, the amplitude of the annual oscillation is comparable to or larger than the 11-year solar cycle variation at nighttime. Figures 5e and 5g display the com-



**Figure 4.** (a & c) Daytime averaged monthly median of foE and foEs and their LSP analysis (b & d), respectively. (e & g) Comparison of observation and model foE and foEs, (f & h) residual (black curve) of the foE and foEs and their linear trends (red dotted line)



Figure 5. Same as Figure 4 but for day and nighttime foF2.

time modeled foF2, and in high solar activity years, the nighttime foF2 values are slightly
underestimated. However, overall, the long-term variation of the observed and modeled
values are showing good consistency. The residual values are estimated by subtracting
the model values from the observation, which is shown in Figures 5f and 5h (black curve),

parison of observed and modeled foF2 values, during the low solar activity years the day-

- <sup>309</sup> in these figures the slope of the least-squares fit is also shown (red dotted line). Inter-
- $_{310}$  estingly, the daytime foF2 shows a very weak positive slope of  $0.48\pm5$  kHz/yr, however,
- the estimated slope is statistically quite insignificant. On the other hand, during the night-
- time, a clear negative trend in the slope is observed with  $\sim$ -5±2.4 kHz/yr.

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### 3.3.3 Long-term variations and residual trends in day and nighttime h'F

Figures 6a and 6c represent the day and nighttime averaged monthly median of h'F. 315 and their corresponding LSP are given in Figures 6b and 6d. The 63 years' mean vir-316 tual altitude of the day and nighttime h'F is located around  $213\pm11$  km and  $270\pm22$  km, 317 respectively. As expected during the nighttime the bottom of the F layer height is higher 318 than during the daytime. Note, also that the measured nighttime h'F values are slightly 319 overestimated due to he lower limit of sounding frequency. Contrary to the foF2, the  $\sim$ 11-320 321 year solar cycle variation is the primary contributor to the long-term variation irrespective of day and night, followed by a weak annual and semi-annual periodicity is also ex-322 ists. Using these periods and amplitudes model values are constructed, and the compar-323 ison of model and observation is given in Figures 6e and 6g both are matching quite well. 324 The residual h'F for the day and nighttime is estimated by subtracting the model val-325 ues from the observation, which is shown in Figures 6f and 6h. The linear residual slope 326 is negative for both day and night with  $\sim -50\pm 33$  m/yr and  $\sim -72\pm 72$  m/yr. 327

### 3.3.4 Long-term variations and residual trends in day and nighttime hmF2

Figure 7a-d show the day and nighttime averaged monthly median of hmF2 and 330 their corresponding LSP analysis. The mean altitude of the day and nighttime hmF2 331 is found at  $303\pm43$  km and  $363\pm41$  km, respectively. Similar to the h'F, hmF2 also shows 332 the nighttime F2 peak altitude is higher than the daytime. Another interesting obser-333 vation is that the annual oscillation is more predominant than the 11-year solar cycle 334 variation during daytime, where for the nighttime hmF2 basically only the 11 years so-335 lar cycle is visible. The observation and model hmF2 values are remarkably in agreement 336 with each other which is shown in Figures 7e and 7g. The linear residual slope is neg-337 ative for both day and nighttime with the magnitude of  $-54 \pm 115$  m/yr and  $-240 \pm 110$ 338 m/yr, however for the daytime the estimated slope is below the 95% confidence inter-339 val. From these results, it is clear that the ionospheric peak height shows a descending 340 tendency. Moreover, the rate of descending is stronger during the night than in the day-341 time. Another important point is that during daytime the decreasing tendency in the 342 h'F and hmF2 are nearly comparable, however nightime decreasing trend in hmF2 is 343 3 times larger than that in h'F. Overall, day and nighttime E- and F-region linear resid-344 ual trends estimated in the present study are given in Table 1. 345

Region	Parameter	Daytime	Nighttime
Е	foE foEs	$\begin{array}{l} -0.7\pm0.6~\mathrm{kHz/yr}\\ -1.1\pm0.6~\mathrm{kHz/yr} \end{array}$	NIL NIL
F	foF2 h'F hmF2	$0.5 \pm 5 \text{ kHz/yr} \\ -50 \pm 33 \text{ m/yr} \\ -54 \pm 116 \text{ m/yr}$	$-5 \pm 2.4 \text{ kHz/yr}$ $-72 \pm 72 \text{ m/yr}$ $-240 \pm 110 \text{ m/yr}$

Table 1. Linear residual trends in E- and F-region parameters

### 346 4 Discussion

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In the present study, we used a new approach to estimate the long-term variations
 and linear residual trends, which will help to better understand their behavior in the E and F-region over Juliusruh, Germany.



Figure 6. Same as Figure 4 but for day and nighttime h'F.



Figure 7. Same as Figure 4 but for day and nighttime hmF2

In the F-region, it is expected that the 11-year solar cycle variation is the prime 350 driver for long-term oscillation. However, the day and nighttime shows a different pic-351 ture, for example, for daytime hmF2 and nightime foF2, the amplitude of the annual 352 oscillation is comparable to or higher than the 11-year solar cycle oscillation. This sug-353 gests that while using the foF2 and hmF2 monthly median data for the long-term trend 354 estimations, in addition to the solar cycle variation annual oscillation is also to be re-355 moved. Using the Global Ultraviolet Imager (GUVI) onboard the Thermosphere Iono-356 sphere Mesosphere Energetics and Dynamics (TIMED) satellite data, Yue et al. (2019) 357 reported that the annual oscillation in O and O/N2 number density ratio is strong in 358 mid-latitudes. On fixed pressure levels, O and N2 densities are anticorrelated with so-359 lar extreme ultraviolet fluxes in the upper thermosphere. On the other hand, O/N2 is 360 smaller during solar minimum and larger during solar maximum. Thus, we suggest that 361 changes in composition and neutral atmospheric dynamics could cause the observed strong 362 annual oscillations in the nighttime foF2 and daytime hmF2. In the E-region, the crit-363 ical frequencies namely, foE and foEs depict robust annual and weak 11-year solar cy-364 cle oscillations. These oscillations could be caused by seasonal and long-term variations 365 of solar heating. 366

We found that except for daytime foF2, all the other parameters in the F-region 367 show a negative trend in both day and nighttime. Both the day and nighttime the lin-368 ear residual slope values are almost similar for h'F. Interestingly for foF2 and hmF2, the 369 nighttime linear residual trend is stronger than the daytime. Moreover, the nighttime 370 hmF2 trend (i.e.-240 m/yr) is in good agreement with a previous investigation by Bremer 371 (1992), in which the author used 33 years of ionosonde data. However, the present trend 372 in the foF2 is twice the magnitude of Bremer's estimation. One plausible reason could 373 be that over the year the peak altitude of the F-region has declined linearly. On the other 374 hand, the negative trend in the peak frequency is increasing rapidly compared to the ear-375 lier times. However, during the daytime foF2 linear residual slope is almost none, quite 376 insignificant. In daytime hmF2, the linear residual slope value is four times lesser than 377 the nighttime trend. The estimated linear residual slope of h'F and hmF2 are nearly the 378 same in the daytime, but the residual slope of h'F is four times smaller than the hmF2 379 in the nighttime. Moreover, the daytime residual slope in the foF2 and hmF2 are sta-380 tistically insignificant (see Table 1). Note, that the measured nighttime h'F values are 381 slightly overestimated due to he lower limit of sounding frequency. One probable rea-382 son for the noted difference between nighttime h'F and hmF2 could be the observational 383 limitation of the h'F due to the electron density reduction in the bottom of the ionosphere. 384

At daytime, due to the interaction of chemical loss, plasma diffusion, and neutral 385 winds, the height of the E- and F-layer peaks corresponds to a fixed pressure level in the 386 neutral atmosphere. Whereas at nighttime, the E-layer is weak and not observable by 387 ionosonde, and the dynamical processes such as neutral winds and electric fields drive 388 the F2-layer (Rishbeth & Edwards, 1989). Under the steady-state assumption, a  $\sim 50 \text{K}$ 389 decrease in temperature could lower the ionospheric peak altitude (hmF2) by 15 and 20 km 390 at noon and midnight, respectively (Rishbeth, 1990). That is a nearly 3:4 ratio of decre-391 ment in peak altitude between day and nighttime at a uniform day and nighttime cool-392 ing. According to the present results in the last 56 years, the hmF2 lowered by 13.4 (240 m/yr)393 and 3 km (50 m/yr) during night and daytime, respectively. The decreasing tendency is 394 in good agreement with Rishbeth (1990), however, the descending ratio between day and 395 nighttime shows a large discrepancy (1:4). In addition to the CO2 cooling, secular changes 396 in the geomagnetic activity are also proposed as a driver for the long-term trend in the 397 F2-layer. During the period of 1965 to 2020, according to the IGRF (International Ge-398 omagnetic Reference Field) model the geomagnetic latitude changed from 54.31°N in 1965 399 to 54.14°N, implicating negligible effect in Juliusruh. However, the geomagnetic varia-400 tions are highly regional dependent that could not explain the noted day and nighttime 401 differences. This arises the question of why the decreasing trend or ionospheric response 402 to the cooling effect during the day and nighttime is different? 403

Rishbeth (1990) postulated that the global cooling may not have any significant 404 impact on daytime critical frequency foF2, because the cooling will increase the O/N2405 that will cause an increase in the plasma density. On the other hand, the loss coefficient 406 also will increase that causes to decrease the plasma density, combination of these two 407 effects will cancel out each other. In the present case, daytime foF2 shows a statistically 408 insignificant positive trend that is consistent with the greenhouse effect. However, us-409 ing three ionosonde stations over Europe (including Juliusruh), A. Danilov (2015) re-410 ported a negative trend with a maximum during the daytime and a minimum at night-411 time. The author also argued that the decreasing trend in the neutral temperature did 412 not cause the observed negative trend, instead, a systematic decrease in the atomic oxy-413 gen concentration in the thermosphere could be a probable driver of the negative trend 414 in the foF2. Furthermore, using model simulations Qian et al. (2009) also showed a neg-415 ative and positive trend in the day, and nighttime foF2 respectively, for which they ar-416 gued the greenhouse effect is the prime driver, and meridional neutral wind dynamics 417 also have a significant role. In contradiction with the earlier investigations, we found a 418 stronger negative trend at nighttime and a very weak positive or zero slope during day-419 time. Considering the trend pattern, we believe that the thermospheric cooling and com-420 position changes driven by the green house effect could be balanced by the insolation driven 421 heating and ionisation in daytime. On the other hand, during the nighttime in the ab-422 423 sence of sunlight green house effect associated changes in the composition might cause the estimated negative trend in foF2 over Juliusruh. 424

Since the nighttime E-layer is weak and not observable by ionosonde, we estimate 425 only the daytime linear residual trend in the foE and foEs. Earlier, Mikhailov (2006) re-426 ported a positive trend in foE, and similarly, Bremer and Peters (2008) also showed a 427 positive trend in foE from 1957 to 2002, over Juliusruh. However, the present results show 428 a negative trend in the foE. For the first time, we also report a negative trend in the day-429 time foEs over Juliusruh. Two potential drivers are proposed for the E region plasma 430 density trends in literature, namely 1) decrease of NO in the E region heights (Mikhailov, 431 2006) and changes in the stratospheric ozone (Bremer & Peters, 2008). In addition, Mikhailov 432 and de la Morena (2003) found foE trends to be geomagnetically controlled before about 433 1970. Followed by Laštovička (2005) reported that the role of solar and geomagnetic ac-434 tivity decreased from the beginning to the end of the 20th century. According to Bremer 435 and Peters (2008), the foE trend is in anti-correlation with the  $O_3$ . A recent report by 436 Petropavlovskikh et al. (2019) the SPARC-LOTUS (Stratosphere-Troposphere and their 437 Role in climate-Long-term Ozone Trends and Uncertainties in the Stratosphere) showed 438 that in the northern hemisphere upper stratosphere, the ozone concentration is increas-439 ing by 3-5%. Thus, it provides evidence that the increment in the upper stratospheric 440 ozone could cause the decreasing trend of foE. Furthermore, we also agree that there also 441 may be some contribution by the NO. We plan to study the long-term change in the meso-442 spheric NO using model simulations in the future. E-region parameter trends are very 443 weak and, therefore, very sensitive to various influences. 444

The wind shear theory is a well-recognized mechanism for the formation of the Es 445 layer in the mid-latitudes (Mathews, 1998). According to the wind shear theory, ions with 446 significant lifetimes against recombination are accumulated by the westward neutral winds 447 above and eastward or weak westward wind below in the E-region. Studies also have sug-448 gested that in the midlatitudes, the Es-layer occurrence rate strongly depends on the com-449 bination of negative wind shears and sporadic meteor deposition in the upper atmosphere 450 (Haldoupis et al., 2007). Furthermore, the wind shear in the mesosphere lower thermo-451 sphere is primarily driven by the tides, particularly semidiurnal, terdiurnal, and quar-452 terdiurnal tides in the mid-latitudes, thus the Es layer occurrence also shows a semi-diurnal 453 tidal pattern (Arras et al., 2009; Jacobi & Arras, 2019). A recent study using meteor radar 454 wind observations shows a tendency of stronger eastward and southward directed winds 455 during the last decade (Jacobi et al., 2015) for the mid-latitudes. Thus, we suggest that 456 the weakening of the westward wind in the E-region altitude could suppress the ion ac-457

458 cumulations as a consequence the wind shear could be a reason for the obtained nega-

tive trend in foEs. Besides, meteor deposition and tidal variability's role in the foEs neg-

ative trend is also worth investigating in the future.

### <sup>461</sup> 5 Concluding remarks

The present study investigates the long-term variations and linear residual trends using sixty-three years of the E- and F-region ionosonde parameters: foE, foEs, h'F, foF2, and hmF2. The obtained results and their causes are listed below:

Using the LSP analysis the predominant oscillations in the E- and F-region ionosonde
 parameters are identified. Furthermore, the amplitudes and width of the solar cycle os cillation are estimated using a Gaussian model fit.

2. The present analysis exhibit that the annual and solar cycle oscillation has a significant role in the long-term variation in the critical plasma frequencies and altitudes of the F2-layer. The amplitude of the 11-year solar cycle oscillation is more dominant than the annual oscillation in the day and nighttime h'F, daytime foF2, and nighttime hmF2, and the amplitude of the annual oscillation is higher than the solar cycle in nighttime foF2 and daytime hmF2. On the other hand, the annual oscillation presides over the 11-year solar cycle oscillation in the daytime foE and foEs.

3. For the trend estimation, in addition to the solar and geomagnetic proxies, the
annual oscillations also should be removed from the monthly mean data. In particular,
the amplitude of the annual oscillation is stronger than the 11-year solar variation in the
E-region. Thus, it can affect the trend estimation.

479 4. Using the period and amplitude of the predominant oscillations model values 480 of foE and foEs, h'F, hmF2, and foF2 are constructed, and these model estimates are 481 comparable with the observation. The residual values are estimated by subtracting the 482 model values from the observation. Then, by applying the least-squares fit analysis long-483 term trends in the above parameters are calculated.

5. In the F-region, daytime averaged foF2 shows weak positive but quite insignif-484 icant trend of 0.5 kHz/yr, and during nighttime a negative trend of 5 kHz/yr. Day and 485 nighttime averaged h'F show a weak negative trend of 50 m/yr and 72 m/yr, respectively. 486 On the other hand, hmF2 shows a weak and strong negative trend of 54 m/yr and 240 487 m/yr during the day and nighttime, respectively. Overall, the hmF2 and foF2 nighttime 488 trends are stronger than in the daytime. Our investigation suggests that the greenhouse 489 effect is the prime driver for the daytime foF2 and day and nighttime hmF2 long-term 490 trend. Furthermore, dynamics and composition changes also contributed to the nega-491 tive trend in nighttime foF2. 492

6. We also found a weak negative trend in both foE and foEs of 0.7 kHz/yr and 1.06 kHz/yr, respectively, in the E region. We speculate that the increasing trend in the upper stratospheric ozone might be a prime factor for the decreasing trend in the E region critical frequency. Similarly, changes in the neutral wind shear might be a driving mechanism for the noted negative trends in foEs.

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### <sup>503</sup> 6 Data Availability Statement

The ionosonde data used in this study are openly available at https://www.sws .bom.gov.au/World\_Data\_Centre/1/3. The sunspot number data is available at https:// lasp.colorado.edu/lisird/data/american\_relative\_sunspot\_number\_daily/

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