Simulating the mechanism of the action of heliophysical parameters on atmospheric processes

J. Pérez-Peraza[1], A. Leyva[1], I. Ya. Libin[2], V. Fomichev[2], R. T. Guschina[2], K. Yudakhin[2] and A. Jaani[3]
[1] *Instituto de Geofísica, UNAM, México.*
[2] *IZMIRAN, Troitsk, Moscow Region, Russia.*
[3] *Estonian Meteorological and Hydrological Institute, Tallinn, Estonia.*

RESUMEN

Con objeto de poder predecir fenómenos meteorológicos y climáticos se realiza una simulación de los procesos heliofísicos sobre los procesos atmosféricos en la Tierra. Previamente, presentamos una revisión de los mecanismos físicos de la influencia de la actividad solar, actividad geomagnética y de otros factores cosmofísicos sobre el comportamiento del tiempo, presión, temperatura, precipitación, tormentas y circulación atmosférica. Se discuten los mecanismos de influencia de la actividad solar sobre los parámetros meteorológicos y climatológicos así como el comportamiento de los datos experimentales de esos parámetros durante diferentes ciclos de la actividad solar. Se comparan las predicciones de modelos teóricos de la influencia de la actividad solar sobre la atmósfera baja con el comportamiento de los datos experimentales: nuestros resultados demuestran la existencia de una estrecha relación entre las variaciones de los parámetros atmosféricos, las variaciones de los rayos cósmicos galácticos, los rayos cósmicos solares y transparencia atmosférica. Se analizan las predicciones de los diferentes modelos en el campo de la helioclimatología y se demuestra que el modelo de Pudovkin sobre la influencia de la actividad solar sobre la baja atmósfera es razonablemente correcto. Finalmente, se propone un método para la predicción de los diferentes parámetros meteorológicos y climatológicos usando datos anteriores de estos parámetros conjuntamente con datos de actividad solar, rayos cósmicos galácticos y rayos cósmicos solares.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Procesos heliofísicos, procesos atmosféricos, actividad solar atmosférica, transparencia atmosférica, procesos climatológicos-meteorológicos.

ABSTRACT

With the aim of developing prediction techniques of meteorological and climatological phenomena we develop a simulation of the mechanisms of influence of heliophysical parameters on atmospheric parameters. The physical mechanism of the influence of solar and geomagnetic activities and other cosmophysical factors on the behaviour of the weather, pressure, Earth's temperature, precipitation, atmospheric circulation, and stormicity is reviewed. The different mechanisms of the influence of solar activity (SA) on meteorological and climatological parameters and on the behaviour of experimental meteorological and climatological data at different cycles of the SA are also discussed. The behaviour of experimental data is compared with the predictions of theoretical models of the influence of SA on the lower atmosphere: our results indicate a relationship between the variations of atmospheric parameters and variations of galactic (GCR) and solar (SCR) cosmic rays and atmosphere transparency. The predictions of different scientific works in the field of helioclimatology are analyzed, and it is shown that Pudovkin's model of the influence of SA on the lower atmosphere is correct. Finally, a method for the prediction of the different meteorological and climatological parameters using previous data on them as well as on SA, GCR and SCR is proposed.

KEY WORDS: Heliophysical processes, atmospheric processes, solar activity, galactic cosmic rays, solar cosmic rays, atmospheric transparency, climatological-meteorological processes.

1. INTRODUCTION

The problem of the possible relationships between the seasonal and many-year variations in the Earth's atmosphere and various heliophysical and cosmophysical events has been repeatedly raised. The fact that the processes ocurring in the sun are responsible for various atmospheric disturbances has been clearly proven /1/. Atmospheric circulation is affected by the cyclicity of varying solar activity which not only controls the geomagnetic activity state /2/ but also the temporal variations of the intensity of galactic and solar cosmic rays /3/. So a complex relationship among all the above-mentioned events is reasonable to expect. The parameters for each of the events exhibit their own spectrum of seasonal and many-year variations /1-3/ because despite their common mechanisms, a fraction of the observed variations is characterized by different casual relationships.

The aim of the present work is to look for unstable and quasistable frequency-dependent correlations among various cosmoheliophysical and meteorological processes and to attempt to simulate them mathematically.

The actual existence of the above-mentioned correlations results from a simple quantitative comparison among the temporal variations of the parameters of the studied events /4/; namely, from the mean-monthly and mean-yearly values of the Wolf numbers (W), the sunspot group areas (S), the geomagnetic activity (K_p-index), the cosmic ray intensity (CRI), and the stormicity index (P) which describes the recurrence of dangerous winds (velocity > 12 m/s) in the North Sea /5/. Both the atmospheric variations and the cosmic ray flux modulation observed on the Earth are probably due to the same processes occurring in interplanetary space such as powerful interplanetary shocks, solar flares, high-velocity solar wind fluxes, sectorial structure of interplanetary magnetic fields (IMF), etc. /3/. Moreover, because the relationships between the atmo-

spheric parameters and the cosmic ray intensity are quite unambiguous /3/ and since the CRI correlates with solar activity /1 - 3/, the stormicity analysis P based on CRI and solar activity data can underlie the development of methods to diagnose stormicity's global variations.

2. EFFECT OF SOLAR ACTIVITY ON COSMOPHYSICAL, GEOPHYSICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL PROCESSES

2.1. Time series of the sunspots number /6/

The origin and reliability of the sunspots number are summarized in /7/. An index which indicates sunspots activity, usually called the relative sunspot number R, was introduced by Wolf at the Zurich astronomical observatory about 1849. (Monthly and annual means of the relative sunspot number determined at the Zurich observatory are regarded as reliable back to 1750, while epochs of maxima and minima can supposedly be extended to 1610 /8/).

The approximately 11-year solar cycle is a well established feature observed in all ground-based indicators of solar activity such as R, plage index PI, 10.7-cm radio flux F(10.7), HL-index, chromospheric Ca II K index, etc. The highest, hotter layers of the Sun's atmosphere vary most dramatically in response to the presence of a magnetic field, so UV radiation varies considerably more over the solar cycle than the visible emission formed in the lower, cooler layers /6, 9 - 11/. Besides the 11-year regularity of the sunspot cycle, two of its major aspects are the Hale-Nikholson law of sunspots polarity and the reversal of the

general magnetic field in the subsequent cycle. Therefore, the 11-year activity cycle is actually half the magnetic 22-year cycle. During the 11-year cycle the smoothed monthly sunspots number rises sharply from values very close to zero at the minimum and gradually falls at the maximum.

The short term fluctuations of accidental character (noise) in sunspots' frecuency may be inherent to solar-cycle lenghts. In order to eliminate these short, periodic variations related to the 11-year cycle, Gleissberg /10/ applied a low-pass filter of coefficient 1,2,2,2,1 to two series of individual epochs (one corresponding to sunspot minima and the other to sunspot maxima), and derived from each the corresponding smoothed length of the individual sunspot periods. Gleissberg demonstrated that the variation in cycle lenght occurred in a systematic manner with a long-term periodicity of 80 to 90 years, which is termed the GLEISSBERG PERIOD. This is constructively applied in the (1,2,2,2,1) filter, drastically reducing the variations in the smoothed values compared to the variations of individual lengths /6/.

This variation is more marked in the estimates derived from maxima epochs. However, the secular smoothed cycle-length derived from minima epochs still gives a more robust estimate of the long-term variation as illustrated in Figure 1 /6/. The corresponding curve is embedded in the more fluctuating curve similarly derived from maxima epochs. The different average types for the annual sunspot numbers are compared in Figure 2 /6/. The 22-year running mean of R closely follows the maximum height averages R_m taken over two subsequent cycles.
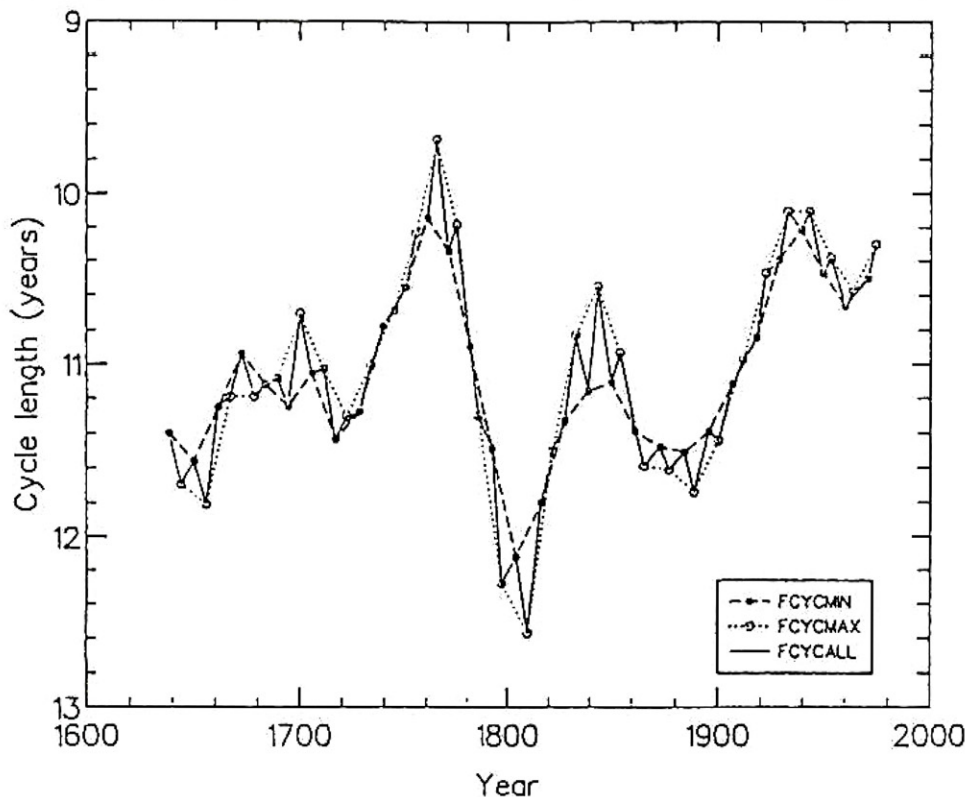

Fig. 1. Robustness of the estimation of solar cycle length from secularly smoothed epochs of sunspot extrema. The cycle length is derived from series of minima epochs (dash curve) and from series of maxima epochs (dotted) respectively. The cycle length is plotted at the central time of the actual cycle; minimum to minimum (filled circle) and maximum to maximum (open); a fully drawn line connects data points.
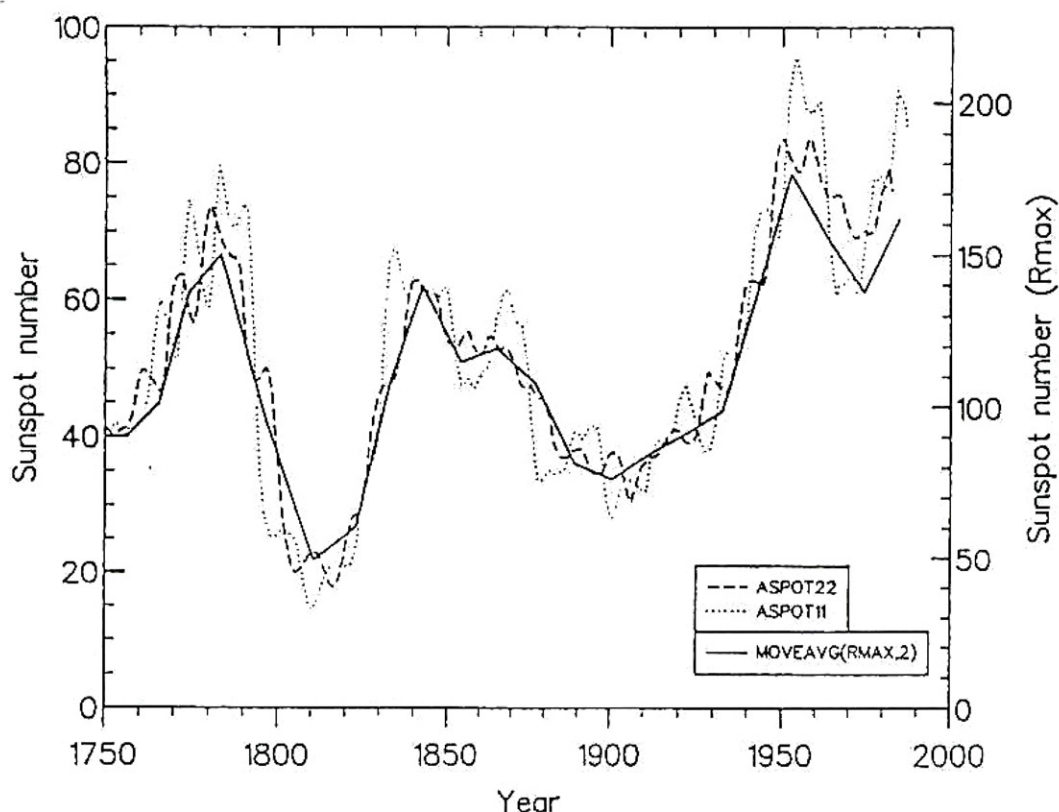
Fig. 2. Different smoothed curves for the Zurich sunspot number: the dash curve is the 22-year running mean, and the dotted one is the 11-year running mean (left had scale). The fully drawn curve connects points for the average of sunspot maxima R_m over two 11-year cycles and centered at their mean maximum epoch (right-hand scale).

It has been shown in /7/ that the introduction of the cycle length rather than the smoothed sunspot number as a parameter for solar activity, eliminates the apparent lag of the solar activity curve related to the northern hemisphere land air temperature /12/. In Figure 2 in /7/, temperatures were averaged over sunspot minimum to minimum periods, and maximum to maximum periods. Figure 3 /6/ shows a diagram similar to that in Figure 2 /7/, but marks the cycle lengths corresponding to minima-series separately: taking the effective length of the (1,2,2,2,1) filter into consideration, we also compare the cycle length with the 22-year running mean of temperature and obtain a slightly more identical appearance of the curves /13, 14/.

Simulation of the nonlinear feature of the sunspot number and the asymmetry of the solar cycle has been done /10/. The combination of the knowledge of long-term periodicities found in Precambrian varves with a simple nonlinear theory of the cycle assymmetry based upon the pressure crest analogy, enabled researchers /10/ to reproduce the observed Zurich annual-number R(t) rather precisely, from 1800 to the present. In the fossil records of presumed solar activity, both an amplitude modulating envelope of 314 years with a distinctive waveform and a 350 year additive undulation of small amplitude in R have existed for thousands of years. The 21.85 year cycle is adopted as the mean duration of the magnetic cycle /15 - 17/.

As regards the measured global magnetic field of the Sun and the solar dynamo theory, there is good reason to

argue that the solar poloidal field is a key parameter which guides the solar cycle, and that the strength of the dipole, though varying from cycle to cycle, is related to the strength of the sunspot maximum occurring 5 or 6 years later. Estimation of the polar magnetic field at, or before the sunspot ninimum is then useful in predicting the intensity of the next sunspot cycle (R). So far, such attempts have yielded R_m predictions with a 30% accuracy /17/. The indirect method which uses the geomagnetic *aa* indices at sunspot minimum as an indicator of the solar polar field is simpler and yields predictions of roughly the same order. (At sunspot minimum geomagnetic activity is mainly due to high speed solar wind streams originating in polar coronal holes, which seem to be intimately related to the poloidal dipole field).

2.2 Solar activity and cosmic rays

The changes in magnetic field structure occurring inside the Sun and reaching its surface define the configuration of the coronal magnetic fields. These fields, in turn, (whose form varies in a cyclic manner which is clearly observed in the "white" light during solar eclipses) define the conditions of the Solar Wind "outflow", which has a modulating effect on CRI. Such variations of solar magnetism exhibit an 11-year recurrence and have their signatures in the very diverse displays of solar activity. Different characteristics can be used as solar activity indices depending on the problem to be examined. The problem of the solar-atmospheric-cosmophysical relationships may be solved using the dis-
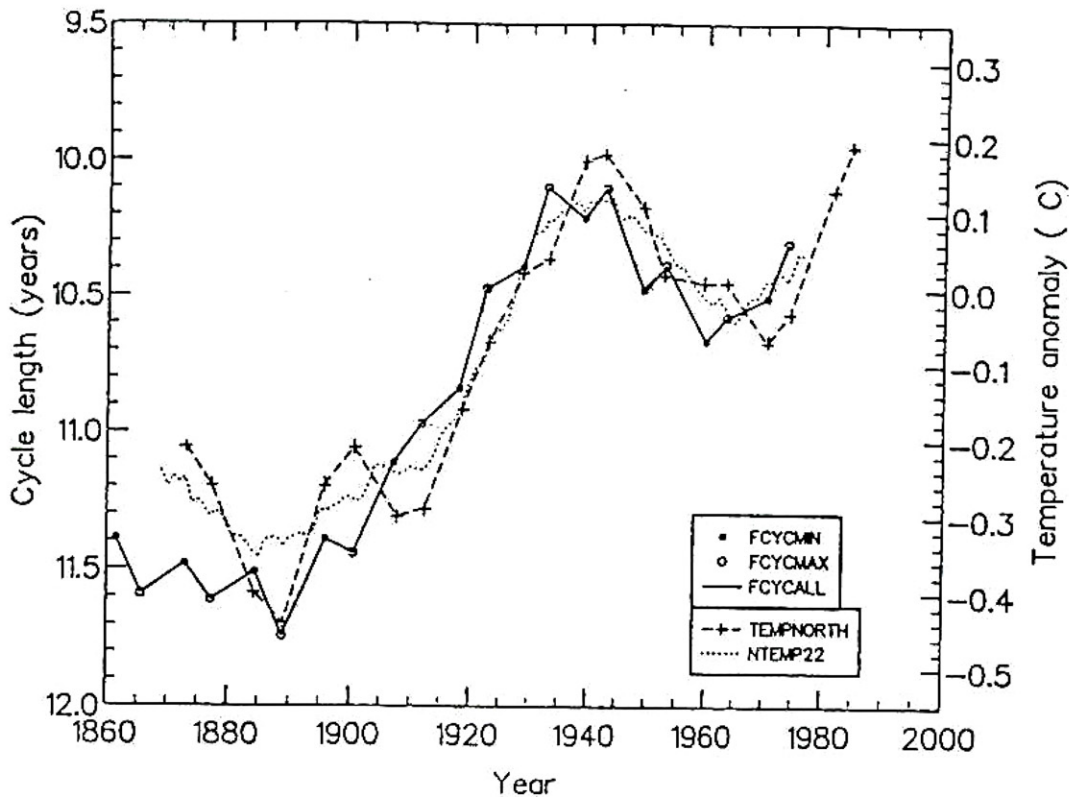
Fig. 3. Smoothed Nothern Hemisphere temperature anomalies (right hand scale) are shown together with the cycle length (left-hand scale). The symbol (+) represents average values for the temperature records corresponding to individual sunspot cycles in the 22-year running mean of the temperature anomalies. The cycle length graph is fully drawn with symbols as in Fig. 1.

plays of the slowly-varying solar activity component; namely, the sunspot number and area, the coronal indices, the flux intensity of radio emission from the Sun at different wavelengths, the total areas of photospheric and chromospheric faculae and quiescent prominences, and the displays of the slowly-varying component (i.e. radio emission bursts and active prominences /4/). All parameters belonging to the slowly-varying solar activity component are related to each other and exhibit an 11-year recurrence period.

Among the above-mentioned solar activity parameters, the suspot number (Wolf number W) is the typical and most extensively index used to study solar-atmospheric and solar-cosmophysical relationships. Analysis of temporal variations of the Wolf numbers and of CRI have led reasearchers /5, 18/ to find the 11-year cosmic ray variations. However, as noted in /19/, the sunspot area compared with the sunspot number is a more objective index because the errors arising from the individual traits of the observer and from observation techniques are avoided when determining sunspot area. The sunspot area and the Wolf numbers are linearly related to each other, but the correlation coefficient between them varies as a solar cycle develops, thus indicating a certain independence of both parameters. Sunspot area has been selected as the solar activity index to study long-term cosmic ray variations, because of the assumed dependence of the transport scattering path of cosmic ray particles on the density of the magnetic inhomogeneities carried away by solar wind and because it reflects the Sun's spottedness degree /20/.

The plotting of the CRI-sunspot area diagram for an 11-year period reveals a characteristic hysteresis loop which may be explained by a delay of the changes in electromagnetic conditions in the interplanetary medium in relation to the processes of the Sun generating them /21 - 23/. The delay time inferred from the hysteresis is $\tau_{del} \sim 1$ year, so the dimension of the modulating heliosphere is fairly large (~80-100 A.U.) assuming that the solar wind velocity is constant (V = 400 km/seg). As shown later /24/, the data obtained using the 6 or 12-month moving averages have to be used to discriminate the long-time cosmic ray variations, while the short-term variations can be discriminated mainly by averaging data over 1 month. The delay is different at different solar activity periods and peaks during the stage of decreasing solar activity. It should be noted that the annual cosmic ray variations are most pronounced at this stage. Besides, τ_{del} depends on cosmic ray particle energy and decreases as energy increases.

The fact that no close correlation between the total sunspot number on the entire solar disk and the temporal CRI variations in some periods was found in pioneer work /18/ which compared both characteristics was explained /22/ as being due to the inappropriate selection of the sunspot number as the solar activity parameter. The coronal emission line (λ = 5303 Å) was proposed /25/ as an "outflowing plasma measure". The intensity of this coronal line is a good index of cyclic solar activity because it varies by approximately an order of magnitude from the solar maximum to the minimum. Some features of the 11-

year solar activity cycle which are important for the study of solar activity and long-term cosmic ray variations were first noted when analyzing the green coronal line intensity data. For example, when studying temporal variations, Gnevyshev /26/ found a second peak in the 11-year cycle of the given coronal index which, as regards energy, is tantamount to the first peak. Later, this was also found for other characteristics of solar activity. The coronal emission intensity was selected as a solar activity index on the basis of the relation obtained by Parker /27/, between the solar wind velocity and the inner corona temperature which, in turn, correlates with the intensity of the green coronal line I_λ. Further studies of the coronal emission intensity data /28/ have made it possible to find the large-scale emission structures in the corona which are due to the sectorial structural features of the Sun's magnetic field. The relationships between I_λ and the structural features of the Sun's magnetic field that were found, and hence the outflowing solar wind confirmed again that the coronal activity was quite reasonably selected as an index of solar activity.

The temporal behaviour of cosmic rays and coronal emission within a lapse of 11 years reveals the same effect of cosmic ray delay with respect to the displays of solar coronal activity as in the case of the index which characterizes the Sun's "spottedness" degree, that is to say, the sunspot area. Attempts were made to explain the anomalous behaviour of cosmic rays during solar maxima /29/ by observing the changes in the heliolatitude distribution of solar active regions as an 11-year cycle develops. However, even allowance for this factor fails to eliminate the above-mentioned anomaly of cosmic ray behaviour. At present the anomalous cosmic ray trait is explained by reversals of the sign of the Sun's global magnetic field, during solar maxima. The correlation of cosmic ray intensity with solar activity during the periods of inversion in the Sun's large-scale magnetic fields was also found to be violated when using the various displays of cyclic solar activity, such as coronal emission intensity, radio emission, and total sunspot area. The question arises as to how the parameters characterizing solar activity are related to the solar activity source; namely, to the Sun's magnetic field. A convincing model which explains comprehensively the recurrence of solar activity was proposed /30/ and developed later /31/. The model is based on the concept that all the irregular displays of activity on and above the Sun's surface derive from the variations of the poloidal and toroidal magnetic field components due to the differential rotation of the Sun. It is mainly the Sun's poloidal field that is carried away by the solar wind to the interplanetary space.

It is assumed /27/ that the magnetic field of the poloidal field component could be traced in the coronal activity variations. In particular, according to work /32/ , the brightness of $\lambda = 5303$ Å green coronal line I_λ is the measure of magnetic activity and heating of the corona. The fields of the active regions which are present on the Sun's surface are the toroidal azimuthal field areas which, when emerging, give rise to the well known latitude extended bipolar magnetic fields. The Sun's poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields and their variations throughout an 11-year

cycle have been shown /30, 31/ to be related to each other and probably to be generated by one and the same dynamo-process. The spot magnetic field polarity exhibits a 23-year cycle; the same recurrence period is also observed in the magnetic fields of the Sun's polar regions /30, 31, 33/. In this case the polarity of the preceeding and subsequent spots in bipolar groups in both hemispheres of the Sun changes from one 11-year cycle to another (i.e. during a solar minimum when the poloidal field is peaking), whereas the magnetic field sign in the polar regions reverses near the epoch of the ll-year cycle maximum, with the processes of inversion of the fields being fairly long. The observed latitudinal reversal of the sign of the Sun's general magnetic field in the course of solar activity cycle development can also be seen in the latitude distribution of its active regions /34/. The above observations also confirm that the total sunspot area and the coronal emission intensity are quite correctly selected as solar activity indices to describe the long-term cosmic ray variations phenomenologically as well as mathematically.

Numerous different modulation models have been proposed since 1952-1954 (i.e. since the time when the 11-year cosmic ray intensity modulation by recurrent solar activity was found) which account for the above-mentioned observational fact. Among them, the Parker model has been adopted most frequently. The model is based on the idea (which was later confirmed by experiments in space) that the modulation and propagation of cosmic rays in interplanetary space are defined by the properties of the plasma stream outflowing from the Sun and carrying the "frozen-in" magnetic field and its inherent inhomogeneities (whose power spectrum varies with an 11-year cycle) thereby giving rise to the respective variations in solar activity. The differential equation for cosmic ray density obtained by Parker reflects the cosmic ray diffusion process with simultaneous convective particle transfer in the spherically-symmetric case allowing for the energy variations of the particles as they interact with the solar wind. The use of the combined observation data on the coronal emission and the sunspot area in order to find the most important modulation characteristic, namely, the transport scattering path of particles when solving the equation of anisotropic cosmic ray diffusion /35/, makes it possible to allow for the features of the modulation action of solar wind at different epochs of the 22-year magnetic cycle of the Sun. The features of the long-term cosmic ray variations during solar maxima (i.e. in the periods of the Sun's magnetic field sign reversal in the near polar zones) have made it possible to find a 22-year cycle in cosmic ray intensity. This circumstance has required a more detailed approach to solving the boundary-value problems of the propagation of differently charged particles in the large-scale interplanetary magnetic fields (IMF) whose directions vary according to a definite law.

The concept /36/ of the existence of drift fluxes whose directions vary depending on the sign of the Sun's general magnetic field is very important for the theoretical description of the 22-year cycle. The direct measurements of cosmic ray intensity in space taken during the last 15 years do

not preclude such a model. The measurements have also confirmed the earlier empirical estimates (obtained by comparison among the temporal variations in cosmic rays and in solar acitvity) of the size of the modulating heliosphere (50-100 A.U.). Apart from the long-term variations T = 11 and 22 years closely associated with solar activity discussed above , the 5-, 3-, 2-, and 1-year variations /37 - 44/, as well as few month variations and fluctuations were found in the cosmic ray intensity data.

The nature of the extra-atmospheric annual cosmic ray variations which were found more than 30 years ago /41/ by analyzing meson component variations (it should be noted that they are very difficult to discriminate because of the substantial distortions introduced by the seasonal variations of temperatures in the Earth's atmosphere) is explained mainly by the changes of the Earth's position in space with respect to the helioequator in a year /39/. It is worth noting that the study of the fluctuations in solar activity and cosmic ray intensity is of independent interest because a comparison among the periodicities observed in both processes may yield information about the interaction of the processes with each other. For example, the frequency power spectra in a 50-1000-day period interval were determined /44, 45/ using the 10-day averages of the data of continuous detection of cosmic ray intensity by means of the Deep River neutron monitor, the sunspot numbers, the data on radio emission fluxes at 2800 Hz, and the data on the variations of the parameters g and dg/dt (where g is the Sun's aceleration relative to the common center of gravity of the solar system due to planets Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, and Jupiter). The analysis was made on the basis of the observation data obtained from 1958 to 1973. The cosmic ray power spectrum peaks on periods of 650-680, 350, 238, 204, and 170 days (the peaks corresponding to 366, 244, 215 and 75 days from 1958 to 1965 and to 630, 338, 190-200, and 169 days from 1966 to 1973 are especially pronounced). The mentioned peaks of the cosmic ray power spectrum and the peaks in the power spectra of other parameters do not correspond with each other (for example, peaks on 400, 237, and 90 day periods have been found for g and dg/dt). Similar studies of the frequency (In the range < 6-2.5 x 10⁻⁴ cycle/day) have been carried out /46, 47/. The discriminated periodicities, 89, 180, 228, 365, 500, and 668 days and 11 years are not always in exact correspondence with the results /44, 45/. If, however, the frequency "wanderings" of the peaks in the spectra are allowed /48, 49/, the model studies of the 11-year variations of solar activity and cosmic ray intensity /50, 51/ show that a substantial fraction of the peaks observed in the frequency spectra are harmonics of the 11 and 22-year cycles /52, 53/. The common statistically significant maxima with 1.3, 1.8, 2.1, 3.1, 5.4, and 10.7 year periods which agree within errors with the results of work /53/ were found in work /52/ comparing among the periodicities discriminated in cosmic rays for 1965-1979 and in solar activity for 1900-1975.

Studies on the biennial cosmic ray variations /54 - 61/ are of greater interest when studying the nature of solar-terrestrial relationships; it has been shown that the energy spectrum of the biennial cosmic ray variation is close to the spectrum of the 11-year variations and that the ratio of their amplitudes is stable, namely, $A_{11}/A_2 = 5.3$ on the average /54/. Besides, a biennial wave is observed in solar and geomagnetic activity, and in meteorological processes. The biennial variations of cosmic rays, geomagnetic activity, and meteorological parameters are explicitly of extraterrestrial origin and most probably relate to the physical conditions of the interplanetary space region in the nearest proximity to the Sun /56/.

Quasi-biennial cosmic ray variations show themselves as alternations of the solar-diurnal anisotropy phases depending on the Earth's position relative to the helioequator; during the periods of the Sun's general magnetic field sign reversals the phase alternation order inverts. The order of the cosmic ray anisotropy phase alternation is in good correlation with the quasi-biennial variations of the north-south asymmetry of solar wind velocity and aa-index of geomagnetic activity. The quasi-biennial variations of cosmic ray intensity may be generated by the cyclic variations of the solar and wind parameters throughout the heliosphere and by the respective temporal variations of the atmospheric pressure and temperature /61/.

It should be noted that cosmic ray intensity must be compared to the solar activity indices (in both time and frequency ranges) with caution because their behaviour from cycle to cycle is complicated. As for the 2-3 year cosmic ray variations, the reasons for their occurrence in cosmic rays have been only tentatively explained, despite the fact that they were detected in cosmic rays almost 30 years ago /41/ and were clearly discriminated later in the cosmic ray intensity measured in the lower atmosphere /40/, in the stratosphere /38/, and on the Earth /42/. No reliable correlation with solar activity has been found for this period, although the examination of the problem of solar activity fluctuations /43, 62/ shows that they are of stationary character on time intervals of about 2-3 years. One of the possible mechanisms for the occurrence of cosmic ray variations with periods irrelevant to cyclic solar activity consists in the natural oscillations of the heliosphere as a whole /63/. The period of the oscillations which are generated by the disturbing effect of the large-scale inhomogeneities of the interstellar medium or by the solar wind, was estimated /63/ to probably be 2 -10 years[*].

2.3 About the presence of the annual component in the solar activity cycle

The problem concerning the annual component of the solar activity cycle, its features, and the dynamics of its appearance and disappearance is of great importance when studying the geomagnetic effects of cosmic rays associated with the features of the heliolatitude distribution of solar activity /1, 2, 59, 64-72/ with the inclination of the plane of the eliptic to the helioequator plane. The solar activity

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[*] The problems concerning the variations of the atmospheric parameters due to solar activity (accompanied by the description of the mechanism for their occurence) are discussed in sufficient detail in /7/.

variations with periods close to a year were sought /70-72/ using information about the total sunspot area within a single revolution of the Sun, for the Sun as a whole and for its northern and southern hemispheres separately. The sliding-mean method was used for each of the solar cycles (Nbs. 12 - 18) to plot curves of the temporal behaviour of the sunspot areas on the basis of four points. Individual cyclic curves were superimposed on each other to attain the best fit. A variation with a 1.3-year period has been discriminated by superimposing the curves common to the whole Sun.

The separate processing of the data for the northern and southern hemispheres have made it possible to discriminate the periodic components of about 1.2 - 1.4 years. This 1.2-year periodicity is independent of the number of a given 11-year cycle and forms a continuous series throughout the entire examined period (1878-1954). No noticeable and systematic phase shift occurs between the 1.2-year activity variations in the northern and southern hemispheres. This period was shown to be one of the harmonics in the hierarchy of the 11-year, 1.2-year, 25 - 26-year, 1.8-day, 3h40m, etc. oscillation processes in the convective zone /73/. Similar studies for cosmic rays were carried out using the HL-index /67/ because an annual cosmic ray variation must occur in the presence of heliolatitude dependence of solar activity and solar wind velocity due to the non coincidence between the planes of the Sun's equator and of the Earth's orbit. The same variation in the monthly means of the neutral component intensity averaged over 1965-1973 is also observed (Inuvik and McMurdo). The amplitude of the variation is 0.34% with a maximum in January (corrections for the temperature effect and for the noncyclic variations were introduced).

The character of the annual cosmic ray variation implies the existence of an 8% / AU transverse cosmic ray density gradient which is symmetric relative to the plane of the Sun's equator. The Yakutsk ionization chamber data for 1954-1973, and the neutron component data from Inuvik and McMurdo were used to find the effect of the Sun's magnetic field sign reversal in the annual and half-year variations of cosmic ray density. The periods when the annual variation phase of the IMF regular component was $\varphi = 0°$ and $\varphi = 180°$, which corresponded to the sign reversal moments of the Sun's general magnetic field, were examined. The annual and 6-month vectors of cosmic ray density were obtained for those periods using the harmonic-analysis methods. The annual vector occurred in March in the years in which $\varphi = 0°$ (1959-1969) and in September in the years in which $\varphi = 180°$ (1954-1958, 1970-1973). The value of the annual vector was $0.34 \pm 0.007\%$ in the neutron component and $0.05 \pm 0.001\%$ in the meson component. The 6-month cosmic ray density vector was $0.15 \pm 0.007\%$ for neutrons and $0.02 \pm 0.001\%$ for mesons. The direction of the vector reverses from one period to another. The long-term changes of the annual and 6-month variations in cosmic rays and solar activity exhibit a sufficiently high variability from year to year, with the annual wave amplitude being usually 2-3 times longer than the 6-month wave amplitude in a given year. The absence of any anomalies in the behaviour of the annual and 6-month waves of solar activity and cosmic rays indicates that the high variability of their amplitudes and phases arises from the existence of wide-band noise.

The 3×10^{-8} - 3×10^{-7} Hz cosmic ray intensity variation spectrum calculated using the Deep-River data for each 11 years belonging to the 1960-1984 period can be properly approximated by the law $\mathcal{P}(f) \sim A\, f^{-2.4 \pm 0.5}$. In this case the 6-month wave exceeds only a 90% confidence interval, whereas the annual wave is much in excess of a 95% confidence interval, although not always. An even more complicated correlation (compared with CRI and W), which varies from cycle to cycle and depends on the solar activity phase, is observed between solar activity and geomagnetic and atmospheric processes. The explanation of the annual wave in cosmic rays by the presence of the same in solar activity (except the geometric factor indicated) is not unreasonable /40/ (although it is difficult to distinguish between both causes). Besides, as noted in /5/, the annual wave in the mean-monthly Wolf numbers is not very stable and should be regarded as one of the random functions in the self-correlated time series.

2.4 Relationships of solar activity with geomagnetic and atmospheric processes

Solar activity produces two main types of magnetic storms which affect the Earth's magnetosphere. The first, the so called "sudden-commencement magnetic disturbances" which is associated with chromospheric flares varies within the 11-year cycle in phase with solar activity. A sudden commencement results from the arrival in the Earth of the front of a hydrodynamic shock wave generated in the Sun during a strong ejection of particles from a chromospheric flare which gives rise to a rapid squeezing of the Earth's magnetosphere. The second type of storm is characterized by a 27-day recurrence period and by the highest frequency occurrence within 1-3 years before solar minima. Such storms occur when the Earth traverses the sector boundaries of the IMF corotating with the Sun in a 27-day period.

According to /71/, the Sun's general magnetic field peaks within 1-2 years before solar minima, so the magnetic fields in the sectors are most intensive exactly at these periods. The sectorial boundaries are most geo-effective when the direction of the IMF vertical component changes from northward to southward in the ecliptic coordinate system /72/. The IMF effect on the Earth's magnetic field is due to the presence of IMF lines which merge with the geomagnetic field lines on the day side of the magnetosphere, thereby giving rise to an enhaced transfer of the field lines to the magnetospheric tail and, as a result, to a violent merging of the field lines in the tail, (i.e. to a commencement of a magnetospheric disturbance /71/).

The long term variations of geomagnetic disturbances clearly reflect the ll-year, the 22-year, and the secular (80-

90 years) solar activity cycles /71/. The 22-year geomagnetic activity cycle was examined /74 - 79/. The flare-generated magnetic storms typical of the 11-year cycle maxima have been shown to be more strongly developed in odd cycles, while the recurrent disturbances developing during the cycle decrease branch are more strongly developed in even cycles. Therefore, the geomagnetic disturbances are more rightfully associated with the 22-year cycle of the Sun's magnetic activity.

The fluctuations of the Earth's climate are also polycyclic. The cycles are of durations: 2-3 years (the quasi-biennial cycle), 4-7, 10-12, 20-23, and 80-90 years /71 - 80/. Spectral analysis of a 1000-year series of the index of the deuterium-to-hydrogen content ratio in arbor rings was made /19/ (the variations of the index are proportional to the atmospheric temperature variations). The spectral analysis has made it possible to discriminate a 22.36 ± 0.04-year period which is close to the 22-year solar activity cycle. The similarity of the periods suggests a relationship between weather and solar activity. The 11-year cycle, which is basic in the spot formation activity of the Sun and exhibits a very large amplitude has been shown /73/ to have a much weaker influence in the meteorological indices; its amplitude is as a rule smaller than that of the 22-23-year cycle. The direction of the Sun's general magnetic field is known to change near the 11-year solar cycle maximum, so a pronounced change in the character of the relationships may be expected during such a period. This is but one of the possible explanations for the absence of a clear 11-year cycle in meteorological processes compared with the 22-year cycle.

It is assumed /73/ that geophysical cycles of 7-8, 12-13, 15-17, and 33-month durations can occur. Many of these cycles and shorter ones may be related to the respective solar activity cycles; for instance, the 27, 13-14, 9, or 6-7-day cycles can be found in all meteorological indices including the various atmospheric circulation indices /7, 81/. Similar cycles are also observed in the characteristics of the Earth's magnetic field disturbance /82/. The 6 and 9-day rhythms in the Earth's atmosphere are assumed /23/ to be related to the sectorial structure of the IMF. The 9-day period corresponds to six sectors with three geoactive boundaries, while the 6-7-day cycle corresponds to eight sectors with four geoactive boundaries. Thus, the occurrence of common "solar rhythms" in atmospheric processes and in geomagnetic disturbances may indicate that they arise from a common solar cause associated with the sectorial structure of the IMF. Relationships of the lower atmosphere with the IMF and with solar wind were found in numerous works. The sign of the correlation between solar wind velocity and atmospheric parameters (pressure, air temperature) reverses when the Earth moves from one IMF sector to another. The sectorial structure of the IMF is associated with the variation of the vorticity index (defined as an area in km², where the circulation related to unit area reaches 2×10^{-4} s⁻¹) corresponding to a properly formed cyclone on the 300 and 500 mb isobaric surfaces in the northern hemisphere /83/. The winter season area of low-pressure regions of valleys in the northern hemisphere

reaches its minimum a day after the Earth traverses an IMF sector boundary.

In this case, the percentage of the vorticity minumum appears to be higher in the tropospheric regions characterized by a more intensive circulation. Statistical processing of the 1952-1977 data /85/ has shown that the dimensions of cyclonic flutes strongly depend on IMF polarity. The decrease in the dimensions of the low pressure flutes is greater when the field is sunward, (i.e. the IMF sector is negative), whereas the decrease in the dimensions is much smaller when the field is offsun. The work emphasizes the fact that the passages through some of the sectorial boundaries is accompained by a few-MeV proton flux observed within several days. In this case the minimum vorticity index associated with the boundaries followed by the proton fluxes is almost two times as deep as the minimum associated with conventional boundaries. The boundaries with proton fluxes were found to be accompanied by a great increase of the IMF intensity. Using the 1968-1973 data of observations of cosmic ray intensity with the neutron supermonitor at Apatity, thus allowing for the IMF observation data and the data on the vorticity area in the troposphere (the VAI index), and applying the epoch superposition method (the moment of passage through an IMF sector boundary is taken to be the zero day). It was found /84/ that:

(1) passage through an IMF sector boundary gives rise to a stable effect in VAI (some 20%), whereas the effect in cosmic rays proves to be unstable,

(2) an approximately 0.5% increase in the cosmic ray flux within five days with a subsequent 1.0-1.5% decrease within 3-4 days was observed in 21 passages of the IMF boundary,

(3) no cosmic ray effect is present within measurement errors in 28 passages,

(4) the cosmic ray effect does occur in 17 passages, but it is of opposite character compared with case (1).

It has been concluded /84/ that the effect of the IMF sector boundaries on the tropospheric vorticity index is not discernible through cosmic rays only; the effect of cosmic rays on tropospheric processes is not excluded but it must show itself in a different manner.

The effect of high-velocity fluxes on atmospheric circulation, geomagnetic activity, and galactic cosmic rays is dealt with in a number of works. A pronounced decrease in galactic cosmic ray intensity has been found to begin within 1-2 days before a velocity maximum occurs in the solar plasma stream and to reach its minumum on the first day. The decrease effect disappears completely on the 4th-5th day. The behaviour of the geomagnetic activity index K_p exhibits a clear maximum on the day when the plasma stream velocity reaches a maximum.

· The areas filled with deep cyclones in moderate latitudes are found to decrease sharply in the middle and upper troposphere of the northern hemisphere at the moment when the Earth is inside a high-velocity solar plasma stream. Similar results were obtained by authors /86-88/ who demonstrated that an increase in solar wind velocity gives rise to a decrease in cyclonic activity in the troposphere. The latter circumstance is probably due to an intensity decrease in galactic cosmic rays /89/ which has an impact on troposphere circulation disturbances. Indeed, this effect can be traced clearly when studying the solar flare effect on the Earth's atmosphere which results in atmospheric circulation variations in middle and high latitudes within 12 hours after a flare. Attempts to verify the relationships between the cyclonic disturbance development on the one hand, and the Earth's passage through the IMF boundaries, the high velocity solar wind with fluxes, and solar flares, on the other were made in recent years. The relevant studies have made it possible to conclude that:

(1) the passage of the Earth through the IMF sector boundaries give rise to a vorticity decrease coinciding in time with geomagnetic disturbances and with a rearrangement of the cosmic ray fluctuation spectrum /90/,

(2) vorticity increases occur after large solar flares in the 0 - 44°E heliographic longitude interval have occurred,

(3) a strong enhancement of vorticity accompanied by powerful geomagnetic disturbances can be associated with series of flares occuring in the eastern part of the solar disc.

Thus, we deal with complicated relationships among solar activity, geomagnetic disturbance, cosmic ray intensity, and atmospheric processes. The character of the relationships among all the relevant events may vary greatly at different periods and can be different in different geographic regions. In some regions, especially over the northern part of the Atlantic ocean, geomagnetic disturbances are followed by an increased variance of the near-surface pressure variability /91/ which reflects the level of conversion of useful potential energy into kinetic energy. This circumstance must have an impact on the wind field. Indeed, the analysis of 90-year observations of near-surface pressure /91/ has shown that atmospheric inestability in the moderate latitudes of the northern hemisphere (in particular over the northern part of the Atlantic ocean) increases after strong geomagnetic disturbances occur (by the 2nd - 4th day). That is why the study of possible relationships between wind velocities, atmospheric vorticity, and cosmic ray fluxes in the given region, on the one hand, and the global solar activity on the other, becomes very important for understanding the solar-terrestrial relationships /92/.

Nevertheless, it is quite clear that the modulation of the cosmic ray flux observed on the Earth is defined by the same processes as those defining the atmospheric parameters, namely, power shock waves in interplanetary space,

geomagnetic space, geomagnetic disturbances, etc. Therefore, the relationships between the atmospheric processes and the cosmic ray processes are quite unambiguous /3/; moreover, since cosmic ray intensity correlates closely with solar activity, an analysis of the atmospheric circulation parameters in combination with cosmic ray intensity may be used as the basis for developing methods to diagnose the state of the atmosphere /93, 94/.

3. METHODS FOR JOINT ANALYSIS OF COSMOPHYSICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL FACTORS

3.1. Spectral analysis of the series to be analyzed

The solar activity parameters (Wolf numbers W, sunspot area index S), the geomagnetic and atmospheric disturbances (K_p-index and stormicity P), and the cosmic ray intensity CRI, were analyzed by the method of correlational and spectral analysis /95 - 103/. In practice, the techniques for estimating spectra include several stages which are: a preliminary analysis, the calculations of selected correlation functions and spectral estimates, the calculations of mutual correlation functions and spectral estimates, and the interpretation of the obtained results.

The preliminary analysis is to study the time series in order to find their steady state and to reduce them, if necessary, to steady-state or quasisteady-state form /95, 104/. This is made with the aim of discriminating the clearly expressed trends and periodicities in the studied data set (which is of importance when deciding if a filtration has to be made), and to do a test analysis. If the preliminary analysis shows that most of the power is carried by one or several singled-out frequencies, the selected estimates in a studied frequency band must be improved by filtering the data, i.e. by converting each of the initial series, x_t and y_t into a certain set of data x'_t and y'_t by various linear or quasilinear relationships /95 - 102, 104/. To decide whether the initial or filtered series is to be used in the analysis and to select the width of the window in order to inspect the series studied in the analysis, it is necessary to calculate the selected covariational (or correlational) functions,

$$C_{xx}(\tau) = (1/(N-1)) \sum_{t=1}^{N-k} (x_t - \hat{x})(x_{t+\tau} - \hat{x})$$

for the $\tau = 0, 1, 2, \ldots L_{max}$ values. (The value of the cutoff point, L_{max} is selected on the basis of the criterion that the selected correlation must be minumum; the point L_{max} is reached when the selected correlations $C_{xx}(\tau)$ are of the order of 0.05 - 0.1. The problem of using the initial or filtered series is solved by using the condition of vanishing their correlation functions /100/).

After deciding if the initial or filtered series are to be used, and after selecting the cutoff point, the selected spec-

tral densities $\tilde{S}_{xx}(f)$ are calculated. To avoid confusing terminology, it should be remembered that the spectral density of a studied process is the Fourier-transform of their correlational (or covariational) function:

$$\tilde{S}_{xx}(f) = 2\Delta \left[C_{xx}(0) + 2 \sum_{\tau=1}^{L_{max}-1} C_{xx}(\tau) W(\tau) \cos 2\pi f 2\Delta \right], \quad (1)$$

where (Δ) is the discretization interval of a studied series; $W(\tau)$ is the correlation window with the cutoff point M selected using the relation $M = L_{max}$ (a great number of correlation windows exists /95-98, 104/, each of which has its merits and disadvantages when applied to particular problems). The correlations among various processes are sought for by the mutual analysis /95-97, 104/ which consists of calculating the mutual correlation functions to find the delay time of one of the studied processes relative to another from the maximum value of the mutual correlation coefficient or for the shift of r between the position of the mutual correlation function maximum and the value r = 0.

The delay time is important to determine when studying the correlations among solar activity, cosmic ray intensity, geomagnetic activity, and the processes in the Earth's atmosphere since it can be used later when making attempts to predict the processes occurring on the Earth on the basis of the observed variations in solar activity, cosmic rays, etc. The formulas for discrete estimation of the mutual spectra are similar to the formulas for estimating the spectral densities of one-dimensional processes /91/. Besides, the mutual analysis yields information about the phase difference between the analyzed processes at each frequency (the phase-shift spectrum) and about the degree of correlation of the processes at different frequencies (the coherence spectrum). If two series within a certain frequency band are shifted by a time interval with respect to each other /98/, they may be represented as:

$$x_{2t} = z_{2t} + \beta z_{1t-d} , \qquad x_{1t} = z_{1t} ,$$

hence

$$x_{2t} = z_{2t} + B_1 x_{1t-d} \quad x_{2t} = z_{2t} + \beta_1 x_{1t-d}$$

so that at the phase-shift spectrum in the given frequency band there is a linear function of frequency. This means that the cosine wave of frequency $f(Hz)$ has fd oscillations within the delay time d and, therefore, the phase delay is $2\pi fd(rad)$. Thus, the phase-shift spectrum showing the phase differences between the studied processes may be used for each frequency to find the delay time of one series with respect to another, which may prove to be of great importance when constructing long-term and shorter-term predictions.

Solar activity, geomagnetic and atmospheric disturbances, and cosmic ray intensity were analyzed by the power-spectrum method /95-97, 104/, by the one-dimensional and two-dimensional (Hissa) spectral analysis /98/,

by repeated correlation transformation /97/, and by the methods of the theory for periodically-correlated random processes /97-103/. The mean-monthly values of solar activity (Wolf numbers W and sunspot group indices S) were used in the 1945-1977 period, cosmic ray intensity values (Moscow, Apatity, and Kiel observation data) in the 1963-1982 period, geomagnetic activity values (the K_p and A_p indices) in the 1945-1977 period, and atmospheric circulation values (the stormicity index P) in the 1950-1977 period. The spectral estimates were calculated throughout all the studied periods in total and for 72 and 120 monthly realizations with a 12-month moving shift (to obtain a time-extended pattern on the behaviour of the correlational and spectral estimates throughout the period from the end of the 18th solar activity cycle to the beginning of the 21st cycle).

The reliability of the results was controlled by simultaneous application of various spectral methods, of specially designed procedures (date filtration, "convergence" of spectral windows, etc.), and of the test programs. The calculations of the spectra are described in detail /95-104/; allowance should only be made for the fact that the estimation of the shifts between the processes by either calculating the highest value of the mutual correlation from the shift in the following form,

$$K_{xy}(\tau) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N-\tau} (x_t - \hat{x})(y_{t+\tau} - \hat{y}) / G_x^2 G_y^2$$

or using the shift τ between the maximum of the mutual correlation function and zero as a preliminary stage of any calculations of the mutual spectra.

The test trials of the programs have made it possible to specify the applicability of different methods of analysis under one or another condition, especially for particular events and data arrays. Figure 1 shows the results of the test trials of the program of dynamic spectral analysis for the function $S(f) = \sin(f_0 + \Delta f_i) + \sin(f_2)$, (the first four steps of the program). In this case Δf_i was varied in each step. From Figure 4 it is clearly seen that, since the positions of the peaks are in practice the same at frequencies f_i and f_2 (K = 62 and 65), the peak at the frequency $f_0 + \Delta f_i$ (K = 20) shifts slowly towards higher frequencies, thereby tracing the variation Δf_i.

It should be noted that, in practice, all spectral methods are applicable to steady-state processes, whereas all the analyzed processes are not of stedy-state character. Therefore, the calculations of the spectra, especially the dynamic spectra, were made after filtering the data to be analyzed.

3.2 Spectral analysis of the sunspot numbers and meteorological parameters

For general use in frequency studies of solar activity and different meteorological parameters, researchers use some special programs for spectral and autoregressive analysis of time series; namely,

1) the classical Fast Fourier Transform (FTT)

2) the maximum entropy method (MEM)

3) the Lomb-Scargle periodogram method including (optionally) a fast evaluation scheme /6/

4) the CLEAN deconvolution method, including the possibility to reconstruct time series from the derived spectral components in an integrated computational step /6/

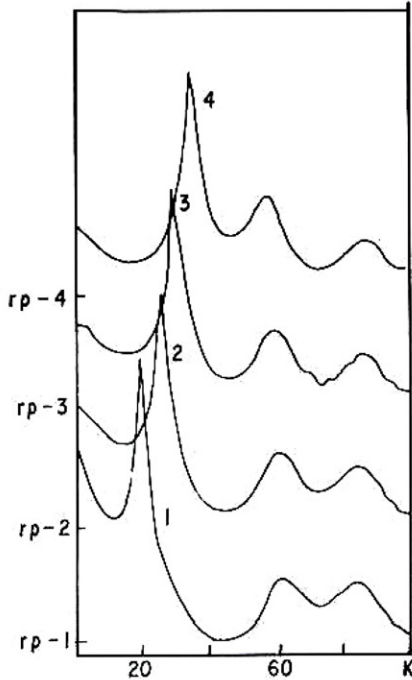5) the autoregressive method of the spectral analysis (ARMA).

Fig. 4. Tests of the program of dynamic spectral analysis.

Any sampling can be thought of as multiplying a fictitious continuous function by a window function whose values are zero except at sampled points. According to the Fourier *convolution theorem*, the Fourier spectrum of the product is the convolution of the two Fourier spectra. This means that the underlying spectrum of data will be smeared (convoluted) by the spectrum of the window, the so-called spectral window function. A window that has periodic features itself, will "beat" them against any periodicities in the data.

The use of FFT power spectrum for estimates of the power spectral density $P(f)$ of the discrete Fourier transform by periodogram methods lead to a $\mathcal{P}(f)$ being described by a finite Laurent series in the complex plane /105/. A formal expression for representing the true underlying spectrum would be an infinite Laurent series, so the truncated series is only one type of analytic approximation /6, 105/. The maximum entropy method (MEM) can have poles in the z-plane, corresponding to infinite power spectral density, at real frequencies in the Nyquist interval. Such poles can provide an accurate representation for underlying sprectra

with sharp, discrete "lines" or delta functions. By contrast, a finite Laurent series can have only zeros not poles at real frequencies, and must thus attempt to fit sharp spectral features with essentially a polynomial /94-98, 104, 106, 107/.

The Lomb-Scargle method has a computational burden of 10^2N^2 for a data set consisting of N points, limiting its application to data sets no larger than, say, 10 for work stations. Work /106/ presented a fast evaluation scheme for the Lomb-Scargle method, preserving its mathematical properties and having only an operation count of the order of 10^2NlogN. The fast algorithm makes the Lomb-Scargle method applicable to data set as large as 10^6 points, and it is faster than the conventional evaluation for data sets as small as 100 points /108, 109/.

The CLEAN deconvolution techique is a new approach to the problem of estimating the complex frequency spectrum of a continuous function sampled at only a finite number of discrete times /110, 111/. Based on a complex, one-dimensional version of the CLEAN deconvolution algorithm frequently used in two-dimensional image reconstruction, this technique is a simple way to remove the artifacts introduced by missing data. At present, it seems to be the only method suitable for irregularly sampled time series for which the true spectrum may be multiple periodic or quasiperiodic.

In order to test different methods of spectral analysis, Andreasen /6/ applied four spectral analysis techniques to the Zurich time series of sunspot numbers R(t). Results of the Fast Fourier Transform are given in Figure 5. Results of the power spectra for the Lomb-Scargle method, CLEAN deconvolution method and MEM are shown in Figure 6. The Lomb-Scargle spectrum gives the highest spectral resolution and is fully consistent with the CLEAN spectrum with a maximum peak at a period near 100 years /6/. Using an order of 150 in the MEM approximation its spectral peaks almost coincide with the positions of the two other methods (peak periods for Lomb-Scargle: 21.7, 29.0, 40.7, 52.7, 59.5, 92.8, and 110.5 years; CLEAN: 21.1, 29.0, 40.3, 54.6, and 103.1 years; MEM: 21.1, 29.0, 40.7, 55.2, and 89.2 years). The longest, dominating period corresponds to the Gleissberg cycle of 88 years /112-115/.

3.3. Methods of self-regression analysis to estimate the relationships between cosmophysical and meteorological parameters

The pure spectral methods are expedient to use simultaneously with the independent methods with different properties to find periodicity (the latter is essential when making a mutual control of the results obtained). Besides, the statistical characteristics of some of the analyzed processes appear to be rearranged substantially, i.e. the processes become of unesteady-state nature. In this case, the proper notion of a spectrum is not defined, and the classical transformation based on the BPE and Blackman-Tewkie method frequently yields incorrect results.
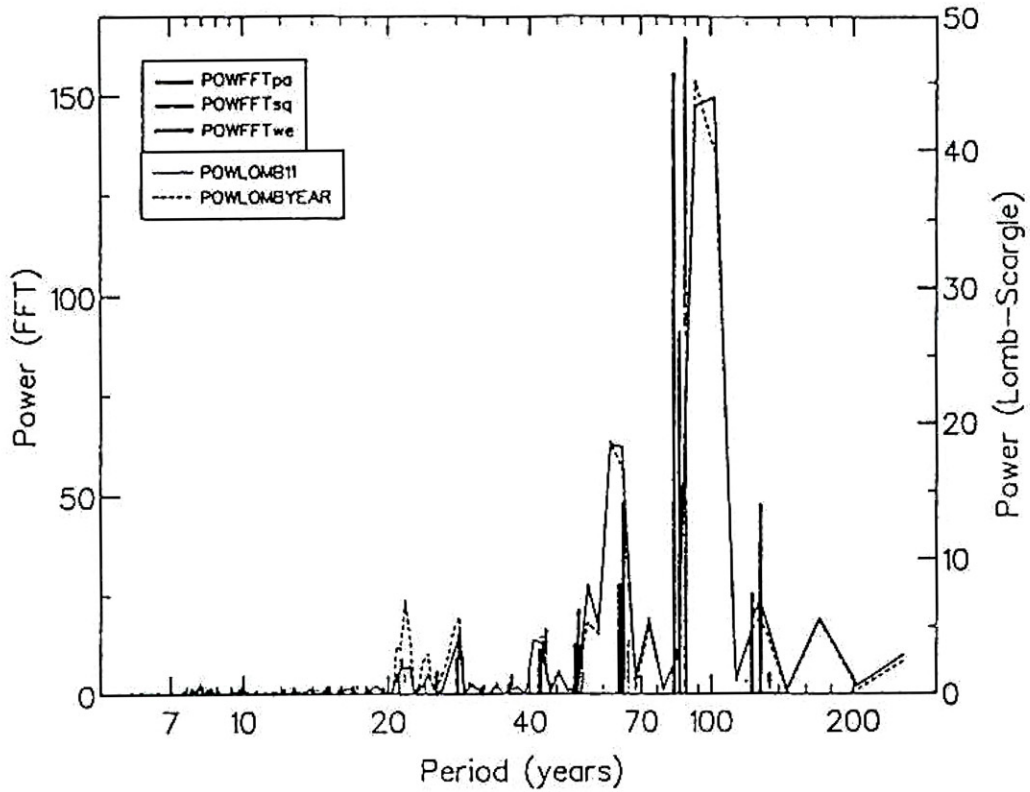
Fig. 5. FTT power spectra for different window functions are calculated for 11-year running of mean sunspots numbers spanning from 1732 to 1987 (N = 256). The columns at the frequencies $V_k = k/N$ (k=0, 1,...N/2) on the logarithmic abscissa scale are slightly shifted: left - Parzen window, middle - square, right - Welch window. The curves are Lomb-Scargle periodograms for the same data set as the FTT spectra (fully drawn) and for annual R values from 1732 to 1987 (dash, only drawn for periods > 20 years), respectively.
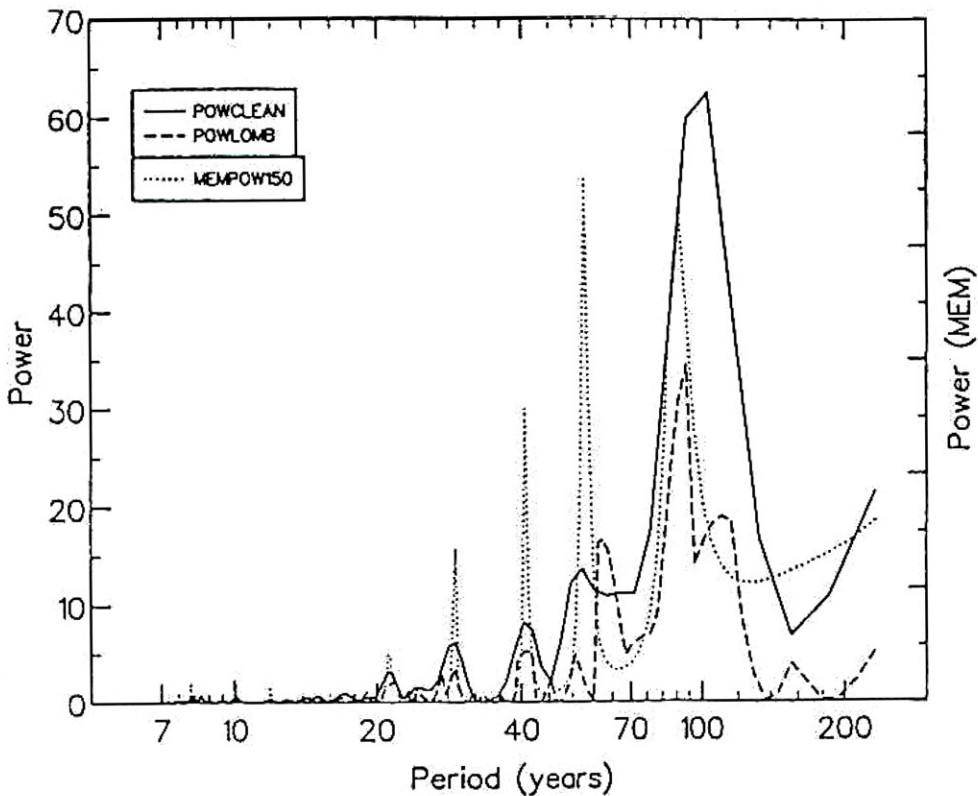

Fig. 6. Comparison of power spectra for different methods.

The conventional technique to discriminate the quasi-teady-state regions used in the given situation /101/, faces some difficulties. Such regions (if any) may be short, but the Fourier methods gives poor results with scanty data and makes it impossible to discriminate close frequencies. At the same time, discrimination of close frequencies is one of the key points of the examined problem because each of the frequencies may be related to various physical mechanisms of interaction between the cosmophysical and meteorological parameters /94/ The frequencies found in the long and short regions are separated nowadays by the so called "self-regression" methods. The essence of these methods is to introduce the additional assumption that a studied process may be described by the self-regression model

$$x_{t+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} a_{i+1} x_{t+1} \tag{2}$$

of an order $(_p)$ which is unknown in advance. The assumption is used to estimate, by some method, the self-regression coefficients and to select the best order in a sense, whereupon the coefficients are used to unambiguously calculate the spectrum. Such an approach with different algorithms (of the Berg, Levinson-Dervin, Pisarenko, Pronie techniques type and their modifications) has also been carried out in the described method. In some cases the approach yielded quite satisfactory results, but has also proved to be inapplicable to essentially unsteady-state events.

We proposed that the above-mentioned difficulties should be overcome using the following approach. A process was assumed to be describable in terms of the self-regression model in which the coefficients properly vary in time:

$$x_{t+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{p} a_{i+1}(t) x_{t+1} \quad t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \tag{3}$$

In this case, we obviously deal with an unsteady-state process. Each of the coefficients is presented as a series in a certain prescribed total set of functions $\{\varphi\}_k$

$$a_i(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} C_{ik} \varphi_k(t) \tag{4}$$

with unknown coefficients (C_k). In particular, the power series $1, x, x^2, \ldots$ may be chosen to be a set of the functions. After that, the coefficients C_k are calculated by the least squares method for a selected number, N, of expansion (4) and order $(_p)$. The model order $(_p)$ and the number of terms (N) in the expansion (4) may be selected to be optimal in a sense. The given approach makes it possible to introduce the concept of instantaneous spectrum for an unsteady-state process. At each given time moment, t^*, the estimated parameters (C_{ik}) are in correspondence with the self-regression model at the known constant coefficients

$$a_i(t^*) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} C_{ik} \varphi_k(t^*) \quad . \tag{5}$$

Let a process of this type be called a "process stopped at moment t^*" (it may be continued to infinity). The process is of steady-state character and is in correspondence with a certain spectrum which can unambiguously be calculated analytically using the coefficients (5). The spectrum of a process stopped at moment t^* will be called the t^*-instantaneous spectrum of an examined process. The occurrence of a rearrangement in the process may be studied by constructing a sequence of instantaneous spectra on the basis of t^*.

The discussed method carries out all the above-described approaches, namely, the techniques of direct Fourier transformation and its modifications, the techniques based on the self-regression models, and the method of instantaneous spectra. Depending on the situation, the approaches are used in different combinations, thereby making it possible to study time series in more detail and to control the obtained results.

All the above methods were used to construct a data processing system based on the unified system of computers in which some subsidiary procedures were also carried out; namely, the filtration of high and low frequencies, the exclusion of regular variations, the estimation of disordering process (i.e. of the occurrence of unsteady-state character), and the calculations of the basic statistical parameters of the process.

The following requirements were imposed on the computer-based processing system and were met when setting up the system:

(1) an extended dialogue with the user,

(2) a feasibility of data processing with different carriers,

(3) a feasibility of creating and building-up a data bank,

(4) an easy access to any data series,

(5) the presentation of results as clear, visual plots, in particular, the construction of a dynamical pattern of the process spectrum rearrangement.

4. STUDYING THE CORRELATIONAL AND SPECTRAL CHARACTERISTICS OF COSMOPHYSICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL PROCESSES

The examined events were analyzed using the data arrays of 336 points (28 years) and 168 points (14 years) whose lenghts made it possible to study fluctuations with periodicities from 2 months to 22 years. Figure 7b shows the mutual correlation functions of stormicity P in the 1950-1977 period and those of the Wolf numbers in 1945-1972 (curve 1), 1946-1973 (curve 2) and 1950-1977 (curve 3). The curves illustrate that a shift of 6-7 years of a minimum is required for the stormicity and the solar activity to be completely levelled (curve 1, $\Delta k = 2$ years at a prescribed shift by 5 years). At the same time, the decrease of the prescribed shift between the series down to 1 year (curve 3) shows that the processes of stormicity and solar activity are, first, opposite in phase and second, shifted by
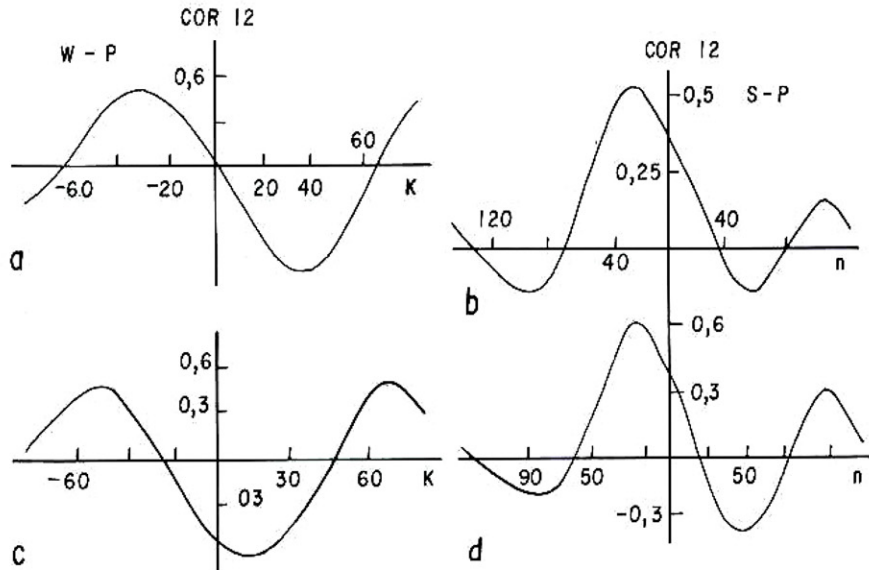
Fig. 7. Comparison of different representations of the long-term solar activity.

3.5-4.0 years with respect to each other. The specification of this estimate with smaller data intervals (Figures 7b, c) yields similar results; namely, from curves 1 and 2 in Figure 7b and from curve 2 in Figure 7c. It may be concluded that the delay of P with respect to W was $\Delta K = 4$ years in the 1949-1963 period and $\Delta K = 3$ years in the 1961-1976 period; the total delay ΔK throughout the 1950-1974 period was about 45 months. The use of the sunspot area S as an information parameter leads to the same values of ΔK (curve 1 in Figure 7c).

Similar calculations of the mutual correlation functions between the parameters of solar (W) and geomagnetic (K_p) activity (Figure 8a) have shown that the K_p index is delayed by 1-1.5 years relative to W and that the two processes are synphaseons with each other throughout the entire 24-year performance. At the same time, the mutual correlation analysis between P and K_p shows that stormicity is delayed by 1.9-2.5 years /64/ (the processes are opposite in phase), in a good agreement with the results presented in Figure 7.

The results are in good agreement with the analysis of the effect of cosmic ray intensity delay relative to the helio-latitude solar activity index which shows that the Δk value varies from 6 to 20 months depending on the solar activity cycle. Indeed, the calculations of W and CRI for the periods of 1970-1984 (Apatity) and 1970-1982 (Moscow) yield $\Delta k \sim 10$ months (curves 1 and 2 in Figure 8b). In this case, as must be expected, the solar activity and the cosmic ray intensity are opposite in phase. The calculations of mutual correlation functions between CRI and P in 1970-1977 (Figure 8b, curve 1 for Moscow and curve 2 for Apatity) show that stormicity is delayed by 3 years with respect to cosmic rays, the result which coincides, allowing for the analysis results W-CRI (Figure 8b), with the calculated delay of P relative to W.

The calculated power spectra of each of the analyzed processes exhibit a complicated structure, especially in the high-frequency band (from 2 to 8 months) and show the pronounced annual, biennial, and 10-12 year variations in stormicity and in the other parameters.

The results are in good agreement with the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the various geophysical and heliophysical processes made in recent years /116-120/. The spectral analysis of the amplitude variations of the 11-year solar activity cycle /116/ and the Earth's magnetic field, /117/, heliopheric pulsations /118, 119/ and the Earth's atmosphere /120/ has revealed similar periods. The spectrum of the quasi-biennial geomagnetic field variations was interpreted /117/ as the spectrum of the amplitude-modulated process with a carrier-frequency period of about 20 months and a modulating frequency period of about 10 months. The comparison of the quasi-biennial geomagnetic field variations /117/ with solar activity indices /118/ show that they exhibit common variations of 1-1.3 and 2-year periods. A similar result was obtained /119/ for geo and helio-activity; namely, the variations in the parameters of the background IMF (with changing longitude and solar cycle phase) may be brought in correspondence with the annual and half-year variations of sunspot areas, the number of chromospheric flares, and the cosmic ray intensity variations (thereby confirming the assumption set forth earlier that the similarity between geo and helio-activity variations is due to the Earth-Sun orientation in the anisotropic medium surrounding the Sun /119/). The 3-4 month periods in all helio and geo-physical events have also been confirmed /120/, in good agreement with the results /121, 122/. It should be noted that a quasi-biennial cycle can also be seen in the fluctuations of a less intensive index of storm activity, namely, severity of storms, i.e. in the recurrence of storms with a wind velocity ≥ 17 m/s.
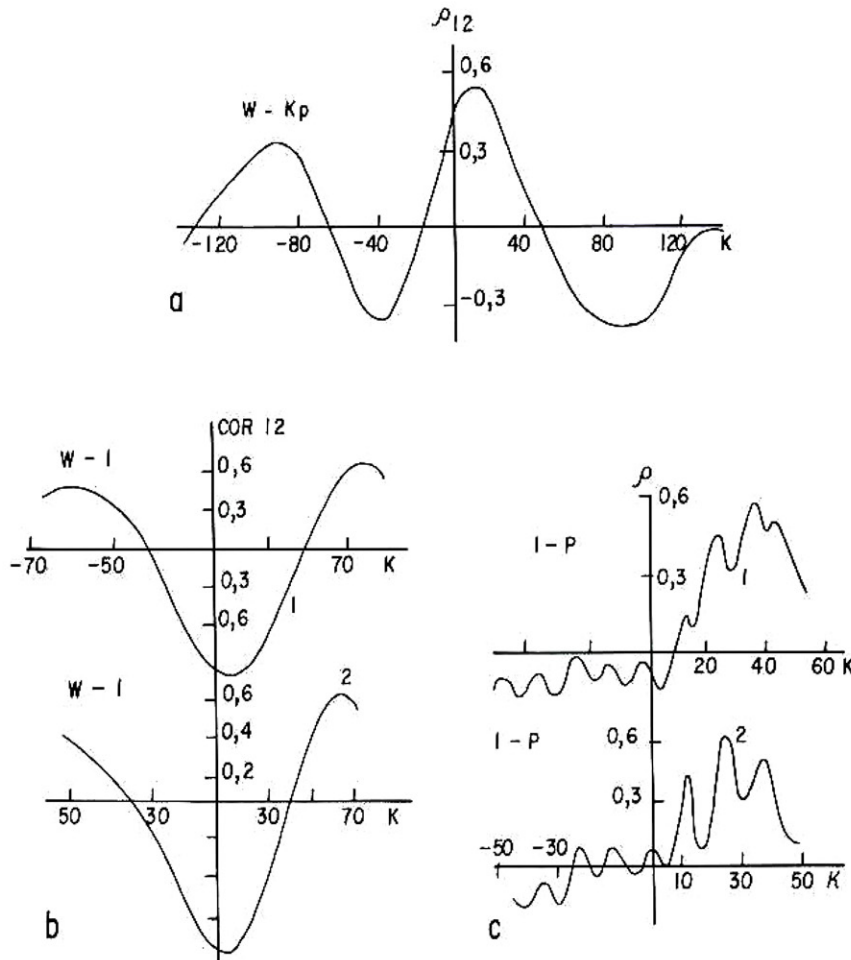
Studies of stormicity have shown that the following

Fig. 8. Mutual correlation functions of W-K (a), W-CRI (b), and CRI- P (c) in 1984 (where CRI is abbreviated I).

four cycles can be discriminated in the time series of stormicity in the North Sea:

(1) a diurnal cycle arising from the differences in the heat capacity of the underlying surface,

(2) a synoptic cycle resulting from the actions of cyclones and anti-cyclones,

(3) an annual cycle related to the seasonal pulsation of the energy-active zone intensity in the northern part of the Atlantic ocean,

(4) the climatological (many-year) cycle arising from various geophysical factors probably including heliotroposphere factors.

The occurrence of the quasi-biennial and 3-4-month fluctuations in the stormicity spectra and in the spectra of the rest of parameters (though less pronounced) makes it necessary to use more detailed values of the examined processes, namely, the weekly and maybe, mean-daily estimates are desirable to use when studying fluctuations with periods of several months. Analysis of the mean-monthly values of P, W, and K_p has shown that the spectra exhibit substantial peaks (in excess of a 95%-confidence interval) corresponding to the variations of the given parameters with periods of 10-12 and 2 years and of 11-13 and 3-4 months. Figure 9 shows the spectral densities calculated for the P values, 1950-1977 (Figure 9a, b), W values, 1950-1974 (Figure 9c), K_p values, 1950-1974 (Figure 9d), CRI values at Apatity (Figure 9e), and Moscow (Figure 9f). The comparison among the results demonstrate a good coincidence among some of the discriminated peaks. (It should be noted that the authors dwell deliberately on the peaks that exceed a 95% confidence interval; as to the peaks of smaller amplitudes, their reality and structure need additional study.) The spectral estimates obtained are in good agreement with the results of the following works: /18-20, 44-50, 55-57, 64-67, 76-84, 86-88, 92-94/. (In some of the them, the mean-monthly values of both the cosmic ray intensity at Moscow, Leeds, Inuvik, Deep River and Alert in 1965 and solar activity for the 1900-1975 period, were used to calculate the spectral densities and to find the statistically-significant peaks corresponding to the fluctuations with periods of 1-1.3, 2-2.1, and 10.7-11.2 years).

It should be noted that, whereas the occurrence of some of the peaks in the spectra can be explained by the splitting of the basic peak at frequencies of 2.7-3.1 x 10^{-9} HZ (a 10-12 year wave), the annual and even quasi-biennial and 3-4-month fluctuations arise from pure physical factors because
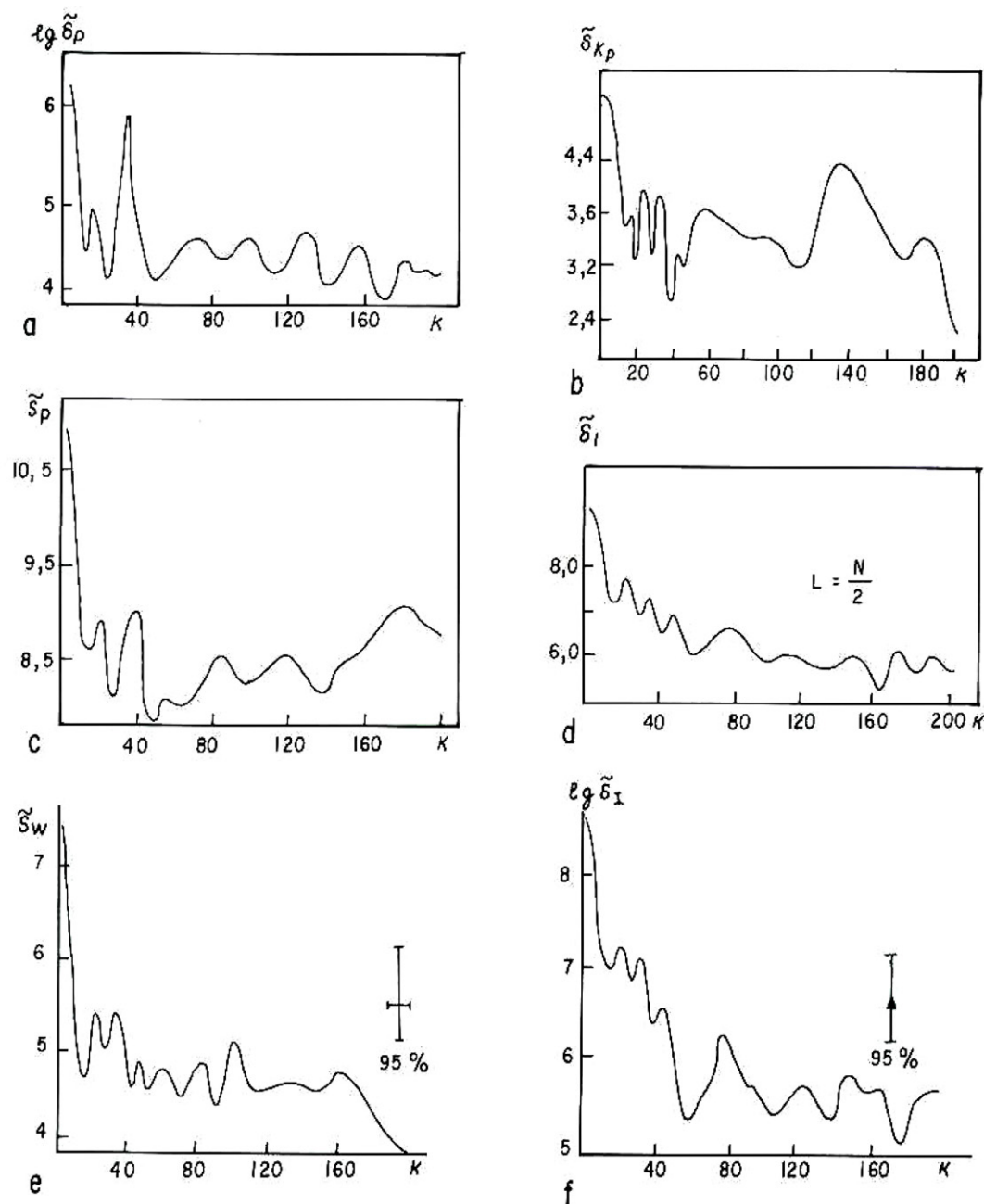
Fig. 9. Spectral densities S, of stormicity P, 1950-1974 (a), and 1954-1977 (b), solar activity 1950-1974 (c), geomagnetic activity Kp 1950-1974 (d), and cosmic ray intensity CRI (indicated by I) at Apatity 1970-1984 (e), and 1970-1982 in Moscow (f).

the amplitudes of the peaks corresponding to these fluctuations exceed the splitting of the basic peak obtained by mathematical simulation. (The model studies of the spectrum made using the method in work /40/ have shown that the amplitude of the 3×10^{-9} Hz peak cannot give rise to the amplitudes of the peaks at the remaining frequencies. After introducing the conditions of random variations of the phases of all harmonics and the presence of "noise", it appears that the amplitude variations at the basic frequencies show that the systematic and random changes of the 11-year wave phase distort the spectra at frequencies $< 10^{-8}$ Hz only. The slow trends at frequencies above 5-6 x 10^{-9} Hz do not affect the spectrum in any substantial way. Sharp increases enhance the low-frequency side of the spec-

trum, thereby affecting the value of $B_\perp$ (interplanetary magnetic field strength) substantially (if the spectrum is prescribed to follow the form of $B_\perp f^{-\gamma}$) and the spectra index γ to a lesser degree. The behaviour of the cyclic solar activity phase cannot be considered to vary according to the random walk law /1, 2/, thereby confirming once more the conclusion that the 3-4-month, annual, and quasi-biennial variations of stormicity P, of solar and geomagnetic activity, and of cosmic ray intensity CRI have a physical origin.

Similar results were also obtained by mutual spectral analysis of W, P, K_p and CRI. Figure 10 presents the results obtained from calculating the mutual amplitude
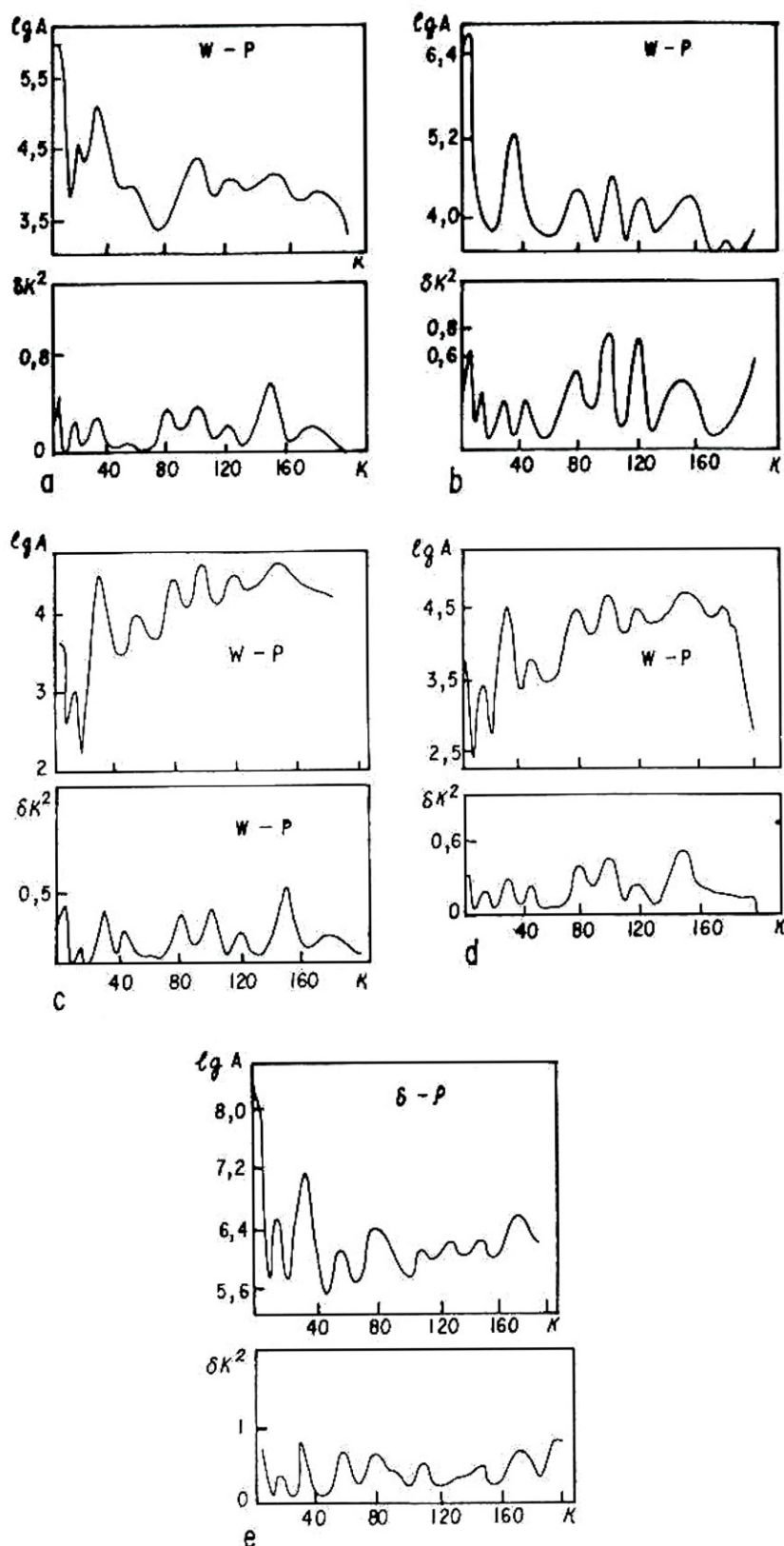
Fig. 10. Mutual spectral densities of solar activity (W, S) and stormicity (P) with a 2-year shift between W and P (a) and with no shift (b) for the initial and filtered series (c, d). Spectral S- P densities 1954-1977 (e).

stormicity P (Figure 10a-d) as well as for sunspot areas S and P (Figure 10e). The figures clearly show that the two processes exhibit annual and 3-month variations. Filtering the low-frequency data (the variations with periods above 5-

6 years were filtered) makes it possible not only to discriminate quasi-biennial variations but also to see a more detailed structure of the spectra in the high frequency range. Comparison of the coherence spectra has demonstrated a

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high correlation among the discriminated peaks and a good frequency coincidence in SK² for all the periods studied (the peaks in SK² proved to be similar to the frequencies and were not affected, in practice, by the "smearing").

Similar spectra were also calculated for pairs of different parameters: P -K_p, P-CRI, K_p-CRI, W-K_p and W-CRI. Figure 11 shows the lgA spectra and the SK² spectra of solar activity and cosmic ray intensity for the 1970-1982 period in Moscow (Figure 11a) and for the 1970-1984 period at Apatity (Figure 11b), as well as the mutual spectra of cosmic ray intensity for the 1969-1976 period and stormicity for the 1970-1977 period in Moscow (Figure 11c) and Apatity (Figure 11d). Not only do the spectra displayed in Figure 11 confirm the occurrence of the found variations but they also demonstrate their high reliability (SK² ≅ 0.8 at the singled out frequencies). The comparison of the power of the discriminated peaks with model calculations shows that the observed variations are quite independent, rather than arising from the splitting of the basic-frequency

peak. It is also important to notice that the value of the coherence between stormicity and solar activity, geomagnetic activity, and, partly, cosmic ray intensity at the singled-out freqencies exceeds the value of the coherence at the remaining frequencies and fails to decrease below 0.4.

The spectral estimates obtained are in good agreement with the results obtained from the spectral analysis of the characteristics of the ocean-atmosphere energy exchange /123/. This work presents the results of the statistical processing of the 20-year time series of the mean-monthly values of water and air temperatures and also of turbulent fluxes at five stations in the region of the northern Atlantic ocean. The spectra and correlation functions of the series have already been obtained. The analysis of both the spectral estimates and the correlation functions reveals the time scales of variabilities within a year and between years which prove to coincide with the spectral estimates of stormicity, solar activity, and cosmic ray intensity, namely, 3-6 months and 1-2 years.
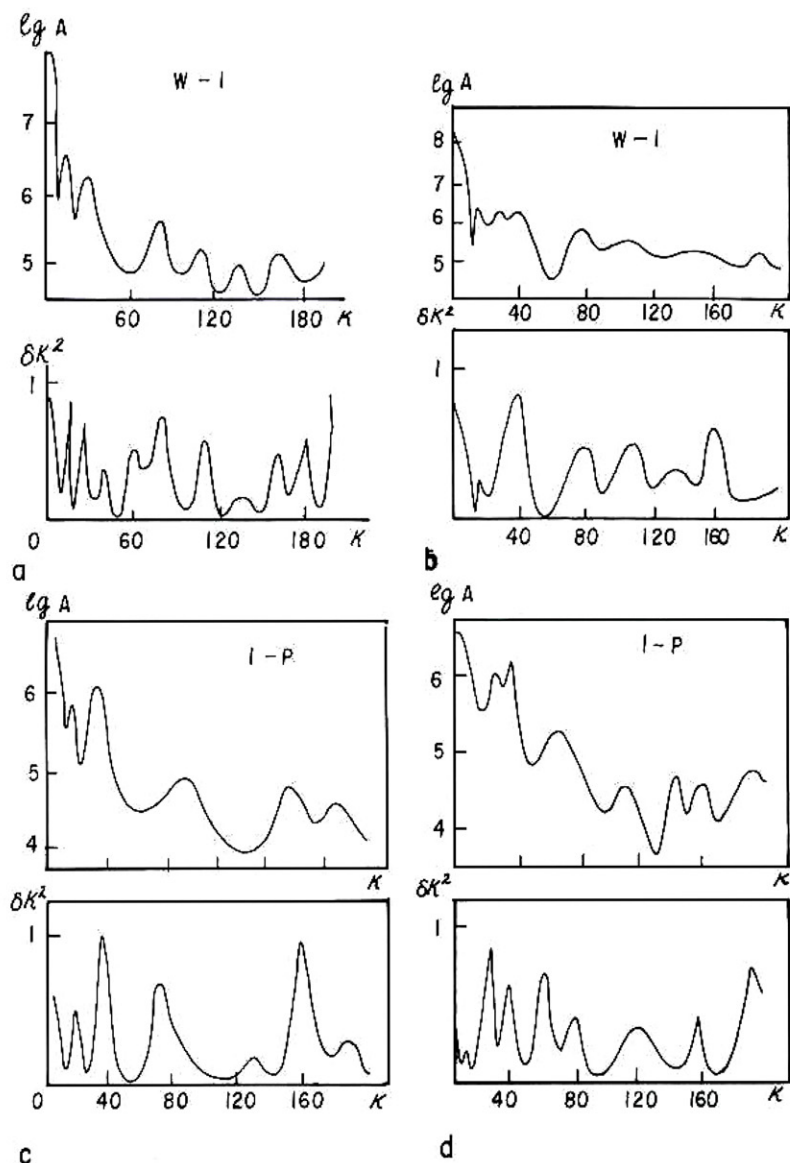

Fig. 11. Mutual spectral densities of cosmic ray intensity with solar activity (a, b) and stormicity (c, d) for the cosmic ray stations in Moscow and Apatity.
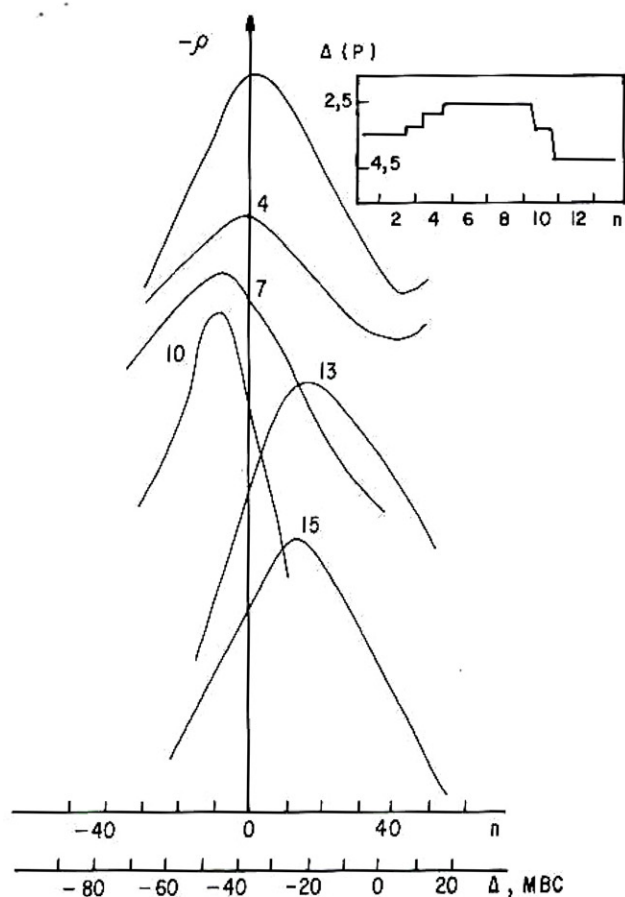
Fig. 12. Mutual correlation functions τ in various observation periods.

5. DYNAMIC SPECTRAL ANALYSIS

One of the main procedures that are made before the mutual analysis of various procedures is to "level" the series with respect to each other. Consistent with the results described above, the W series was shifted with respect to the P series by the average of 36 points (3 years) in order to obtain significant relations between solar activity and stormicity. However, in the course of the moving dynamic analysis, the maximum of the mutual correlation function appears to be shifted with respect to K = 0 towards a decrease of the delay in the initial 8-10 steps of analysis and afterwards towards a a delay increase. Figure 12 presents the mutual correlation functions for different steps of the program (the numerals at the curves). Figure 12b shows the shift of the maximum position of the correlation function (corresponding to the delay of stormicity with respect to solar activity). The plots illustrate that the delay, ΔP, with respect to W was about 33-36 months during the period from 1945-1955 to 1949-1959, decreased to some 23-26 months in the next seven steps of the program (the period from 1950-1960 to 1956-1966), and, after that, increased rapidly up to 45-48 month during a single step. These results are of importance when developing the methods for diagnosing the state of the atmosphere by regular observations of solar activity because a definite relationship occurs between ΔP and solar activity cycles, namely,

ΔP was about 36 months during the 1944 -1954 normal cycle (the years of minima). It is this value that is probably characteristic of the Sun-atmosphere relationships. Starting from the fourth step of the dynamic analysis program, the atmospheric processes begin to be actively affected by the next cycle, 1954-1964 (the program moves over 120 points with a constant 12-point shift) with an anomalously high maximum in 1959, so that the reaction of the atmosphere (a stormicity delay) decreases to two years and is preserved until the years of the maximum in cycle 19 (1958-1959) are present in the analyzed data array. (From general considerations, such a relationship seems to be quite obvious because much more energy was supplied to the atmosphere during the maximum of cycle 19, compared with solar activity cycles 18 or 20, so that the atmosphere must have "responded" more rapidly).

Later, in the 1964-1975 period (after the tenth step of the program) the delay ΔP increased sharply up to 43-45 months, which is probably due to the anomalously low solar maximum in cycle 20 (1969). Further calculations which were made for 1973-1978 using 6-year data arrays have shown that ΔP decreased to 35-38 months, confirming again that the 3-year shift between solar activity and atmospheric reaction is quite normal. (The fact that no accurate estimate for each year can be obtained by the method used is a substantial drawback for the latter; so, although Figure 13 carries useful information on the Sun-atmosphere relationships, it is still of interest to estimate the examined processes for much smaller periods than 6 or 10-11 years). Nevertheless, the existing dynamic analysis program both for each of the studied series (Figure 13a, b) and for the mutual characteristics of the two processes (Figure 13 c) permits the following conclusions:

(1) the dynamic spectral analysis of solar activity demonstrates a complicated structure of the variability of the spectral density of the analyzed data, (2) throughout the program, the spectra obtained are characterized by a set of fluctuations (peaks) in practice at all frequencies from $\sim 10^{-7}$ to 10^{-8} Hz which exhibit substantial variability.

At the same time some fluctuations are preserved for a long time, particularly, the fluctuations at frequencies of about 1.25×10^{-7}, 4×10^{-7} and 3.3×10^{-8} Hz corresponding to variations with periods of 3-4 months and 1 year. It should be emphazised that the singled-out peak frequencies clearly seen in Figure 13a (the dynamic spectrum of W) do not in practice walk in frequency (which is particularly important) thereby indicating that the given variations are permanent.

The quasi-biennial variations are seen less clearly in the dynamic spectra probably because the analyzed data arrays are of restricted lengths and besides, the real factors which give rise to the quasi-biennial variations on the Sun are either present or absent. Comparing the results of the dynamic spectra with similar spectra calculated for cosmic ray intensity shows a sufficiently good correction (of the order of 0.5-0.6) in agreement with the results /53-55, 121/.
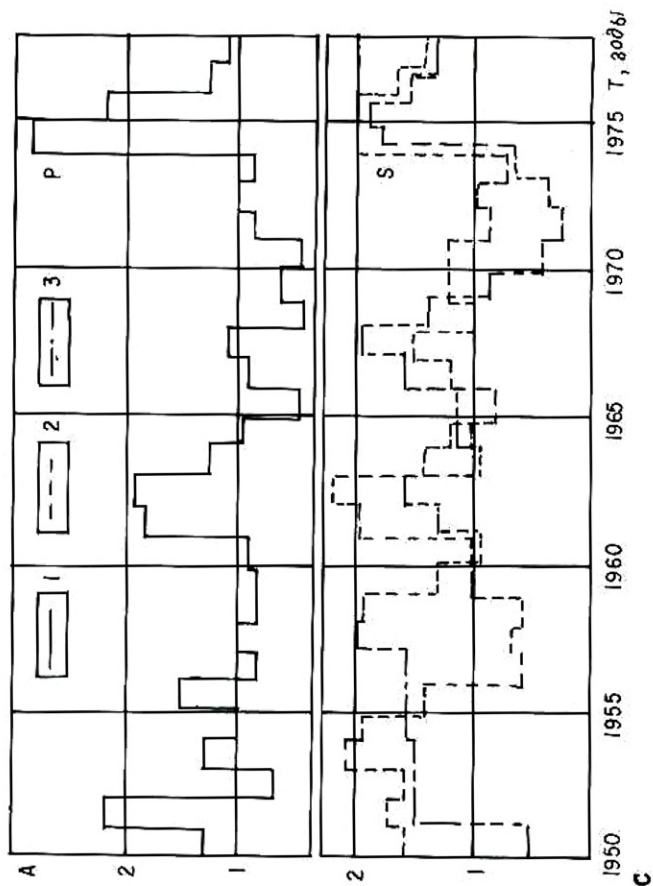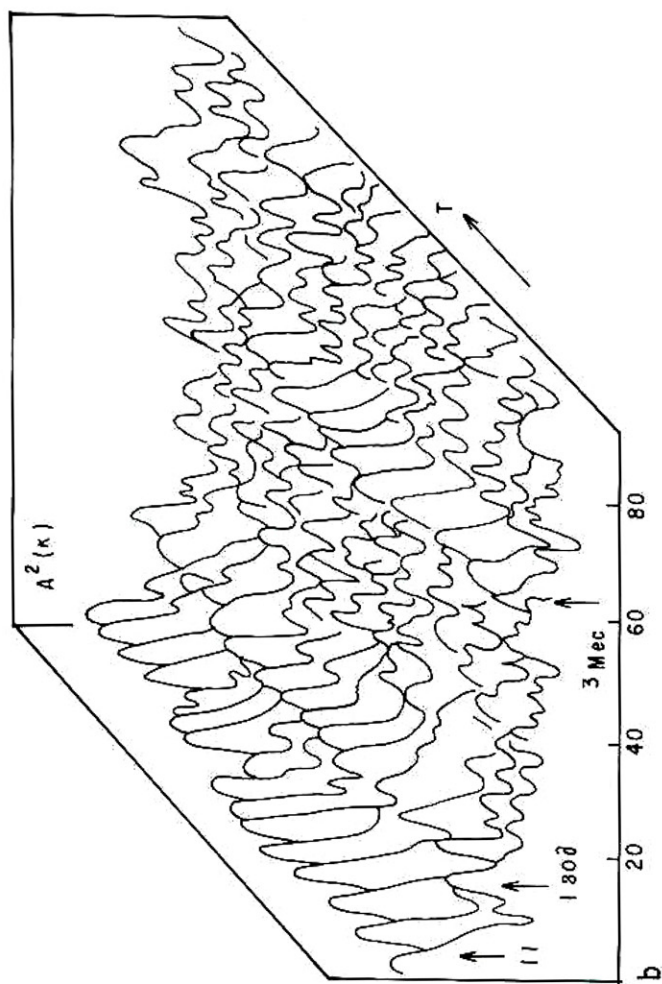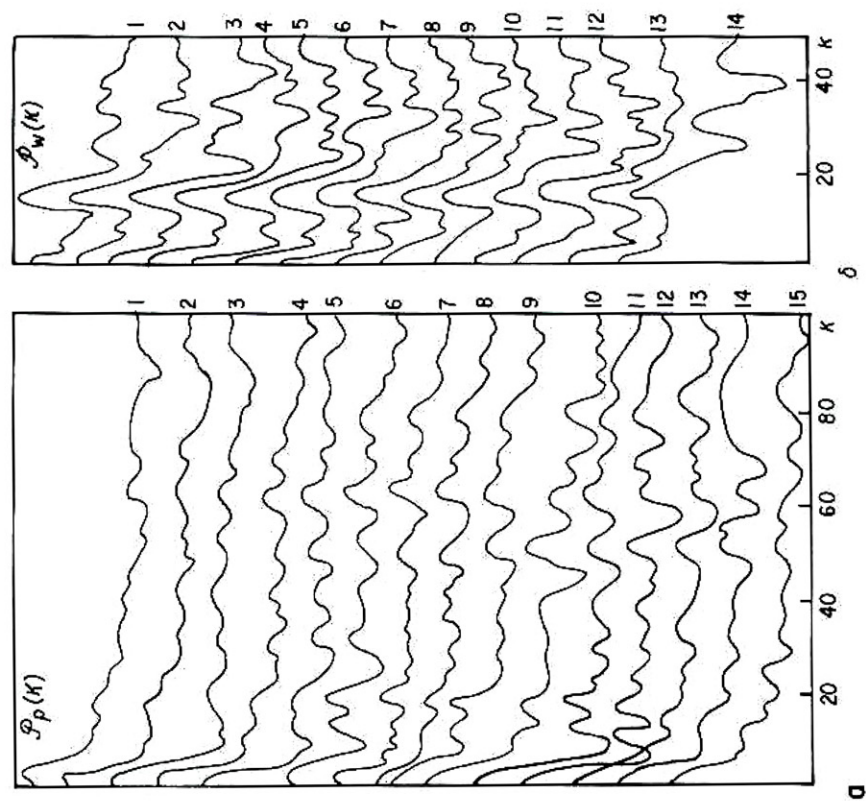
Fig. 13. Dynamic power spectra of solar activity (a) and stormicity (b); the mutual dynamic spectra of A (c) 1945-1977.

It should also be noted that the most singled-out frequencies are discriminated by the dynamic spectral analysis for 1955-1958, i.e. for the periods with anomalous behavior of solar maxima. Although the amplitudes of the peaks at the singled-out frequencies do not, as a rule, exceed a 90%-confidence interval (except the peak at 3×10^{-8} Hz), the surprising persistence of the occurrence of the peaks in practice in all spectra indicates that they are real.

A similar pattern is also observed when calculating the dynamic spectral densities for stormicity. Figure 13b shows the dynamic spectra of stormicity in the low frequency band, (10^{-7} Hz. The peak at 3.2×10^{-8} Hz is clearly seen in all the examined time intervals, while the 1.6×10^{-8} Hz peak is less stable, in good agreement with the results /53-54/. The comparison among the singled-out peaks corresponding to the stormicity variations with periods of about 1 and 2 years in all time intervals and the calculations of the mutual dynamic spectra (Figure 13c) show that, first, the observed quasi-biennial stormicity variations are unstable and second, the given variations are less powerful compared with not only annual but also even 3-4-month stormicity variations.

Stimulating the power spectra P_p and P_w of stormicity and solar activity in the form $P_p \sim P_w H(f)$ makes it possible to estimate the low-frecuency variations using the behavior of the spectral index. Figure 13d presents the slope indices of the power spectra of stormicity P_p and solar activity P_w (curves 1 and 2, respectively). It is seen that the slope indices exhibit explicit 23-year and 11-year variabilities. By analogy with the studies of cosmic ray power spectra, the behavior of the spectral indices of P_p and P_w may be one of the most important criteria when developing methods for predicting the mean characteristics of stormicity. In this case, the selection of the form of the transfer function between P_p and P_w becomes important. By studying the behavior of the dynamics of individual peaks it is possible to obtain some conclusions concerning the long-term modulation of small-scale disturbances of meteorological parameters by solar activity. Figure 14a-c presents the behavior of the amplitudes of the 2-month, 3-month, and annual variations of the mutual spectral characteristics although a time dependence is difficult to find for the 2-month variations (under pronounced changes of phases in the first and second halves of the analysis), the 3-month variations (seen clearly in Figure 13c) are modulated with a period of about 22 years at, in practice, a constant phase difference between P and W of about 1 month and at an invariable spectrum of coherence of about 0.65-0.85. The amplitude variations in the mutual spectra at a frequency of $\sim 3.3 \times 10^{-8}$ Hz exhibit a clearly expressed 11-year modulation. In this case the phase difference defining the shift between the processes at the given frequency is in good agreement with the results of calculating the mutual correlation functions.

The results have been properly confirmed by calculating the instantaneous spectra. The entire dynamics of the behaviour of the peaks and of the rearrangement of the processes from one solar activity cycle to another can be traced when studying the instantaneous spectra of stormicity, solar activity, and cosmic ray intensity in the 1945-1984 period. Thus, the results of the mutual correlational and spectral analysis of stormicity, solar and geomagnetic activity, and cosmic ray intensity have made it possible to find a set of stormicity variations closely associated with the variations of the heliomagnetic and (to a lesser degree) geomagnetic activity, particularly in the 2-5 and 8×10^{-8} frequency bands.

It should be noted that the dependence of atmospheric events on solar activity factors cannot be reduced to only an adequate reflection of various processes and to a rise or fall of the values of their parameters during the branches of solar activity cycles (the analysis for small intervals of sampling makes it possible to trace the behavior dynamics of spectral estimates), but proves to be the process of rearrangement of amplitudes and, partly, phases (because the method can be used only to study the phase difference between the processes) of the set of relatively small-scale variations with periods of about 3-4, 8, and 10-11 months and large-scale variations with periods of 1, 2, and 10-12 years. In this case it is important to emphasize a relatively constant mean delay between stormicity and solar activity which makes it possible to expect that a method for tentative estimating the mean stormicity level 1-2 years ahead will be obtained (after constructing the appropriate models).

The dynamic analysis of the long-term modulation of the small-scale (3-4 months and 1 year) and large scale (11 years) variations of stormicity by solar activity reveals at least two possible sources of the observed variations, namely, the various solar processes giving rise to the 11-year and 22-year variations in solar activity and in stormicity. Considering that the respective difference in the delays for individual frequency bands (the delay is about 6 months for the frequency $f = 8-10 \times 10^{-8}$ Hz), we may expect that an attempt will be made to carry out a shorter-term and, hence, more accurate prediction of stormicity.

Together with the researches of the circulation processes (anomalous wind forcing in the Atlantic ocean), a great deal of effort has been addressed to the study of the El Niño effect /124-141/. El Niño/Southern oscillation (ENSO) is the well known phenomenon described as an anomalous warm stream in the Ecuadorian and Peruvian coast (as indicated by the tropical Pacific sea-surface-temperature (SST) which according to /132/ might be associated with the southern oscillation with a duration of about 3 months. Studies of the influence of aurorae, geomagnetic and solar activities on the El Niño have been widely reported in literature, particularly in the last decade, (e.g., /130, 133, 136, 138, 140/). Paper /136/ analyzed the relation between the geomagnetic activity in auroral zones and the ENSO and argued that such kind of activity is translated in an enhancement of the temperature, mainly in the Pacific ocean surface during the winter when an anomalous wind circulation pattern affects the ocean circulation pattern, giving rise to an ENSO. By reanalyzing that work,
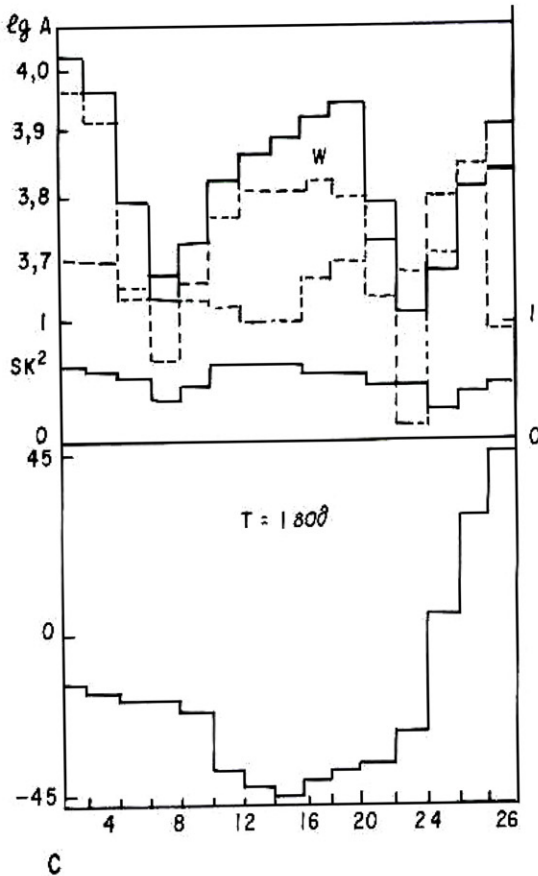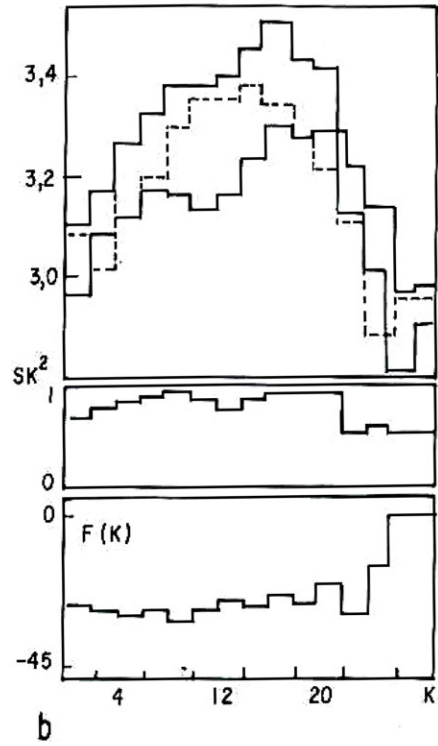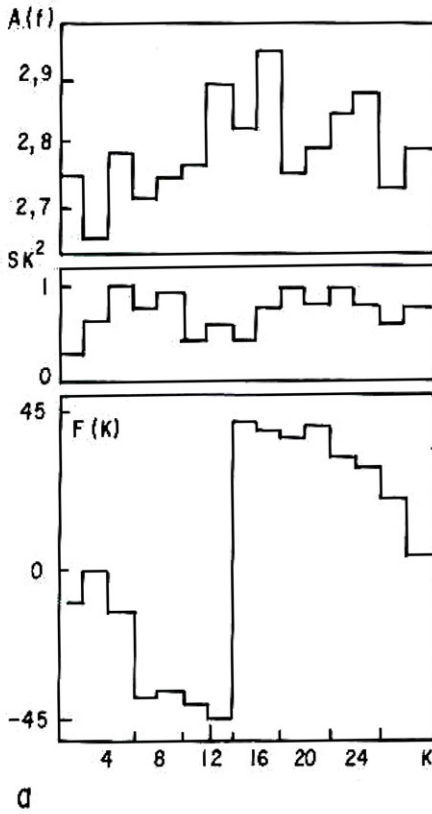
Fig. 14. Modulation of the amplitudes of 2-month (a), 3-month (b), and annual (c) stormicity fluctuations by solar activity.

and by decoding the wind circulation spectra with autoregressive spectral analysis for both the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, in addition to the 90-year oscillation /93/, 22 and 400-year oscillations have been found. By considering the Wolf number as a solar activity index /128/ an inverse correlation has been found (based on the ENSO data /143/) between the number of ENSO events per sunspot cycle and the size of the sunspot cycle with a certain tendency for high intensity ENSO events to occur in the declining phase of the sunspot cycle, and those of moderate intensity to occur more frequently around sunspot minima. Speculations have also been given concerning a possible correlation between ENSO events and aurorae activity, and also with the atmospheric quasi-biennial oscillation (AQBO) /139-145/ and decadial secular variations, the latter results are in good agreement with those of /146,147).

Most of the previously mentioned results are based on data of a limited number of solar cycles, so all those correlations are relatively useful for the task of predicting ENSO events, either in the future or in the past. However, since no physical mechanism convincingly explains the link between solar and geomagnetic variations to wind and the wind fields to El Niño events, the obtained correlations are generally viewed as coincidental. As with many other phenomena in the field of solar-terrestrial physics, until convincing physical models are developed which will allow us to jump from a qualitative level to a quantitative status /148/, it is a natural reaction of the scientific community to remain skeptical.

6. COSMIC RAY VARIATIONS AND LOWER ATMOSPHERE CIRCULATIONS

A number of studies consider cosmic rays as a connecting link between solar activity phenomena and lower atmosphere conditions. Tinsley *et al.* /149/ reviewed these studies and presented their own investigation regarding the impact of Forbush decreases of galactic cosmic rays (GCR) on the area encompassed by cyclones in the Northern hemisphere (i.e., the so-called vorticity of atmosphere index). It was shown that this index decreases when GCR flow weakens. It was suggested that GCR affect the ionization rate in the lower atmosphere and hence, the creation and growth of icy particles in the upper layers of clouds. Whether this will be an effect of cosmic rays in solar activity-atmosphere relationships still remains to be seen /149, 150/. The purpose of this section is to investigate the impact of cosmic ray variations on the zonal circulation of the lower atmosphere.

Works /151, 152/ discuss the reaction of atmospheric circulation to changes of cosmic ray intensity, and statistically significant changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation, when Blinova's index reaches the value $\alpha/\omega \sim 10^3$. These changes are connected with intensive ($K_p \geq 35$) sporadic geomagnetic disturbances and preceding solar flares. It was found that the intensity of zonal circulation increases after 1-2 days of the flare occurrence; after which the intensity decreases with the development of geomagnetic disturbance.

Therefore, the idea was conceived that these changes in circulation are connected with cosmic ray variations. These variations, along with circulation changes, are opposite in sign to geomagnetic disturbances (Forbush decreases in GCR) and energetic solar flare particles (SCR). Analysis of circulation changes during the 11-year solar activity cycle /153/ has shown that variations of solar and galactic cosmic rays, with energies of 1 - 10 GeV, may have pronounced effect on the intensity of large-scale circulation in the lower atmosphere.

These variations may cause circulation changes which connect with geomagnetic disturbances and solar flares. These effects are recognizable during analysis of separate events on a scale of a few days as well as for the 11-year solar activity cycle. Therefore, cosmic rays can play the role of the connecting link between solar activity phenomena and lower atmosphere conditions. Cosmic ray variations are more effective for analysis of atmospheric circulation during the 11-year cycle than are sunspot numbers. The energy range of the cosmic ray particles which more effectively influence atmospheric circulation allows us to conclude that the effects of cosmic rays in the lower atmosphere result from stratospheric processes connected with changes in the ionization rate.

7. THE SOLAR CYCLE AND DYNAMO THEORY /6/

The sun's magnetic field is thought to be generated in a magnetohydrodynamic dynamo associated with motions of the electrically conducting fluid in the convective zone. The theory of dynamo magnetic field generation crystallized initially in paper /154/. Two characteristics of the fluid motion are essential to effective regeneration of magnetic fields: advective angular momentum transport in the convection that induces differential rotation, and the action of the Coriolis force causing the convective motions to be cyclonic, or helical. Sunspots presumably result from the emergence of buoyant flux loops that have broken away from a main toroidal magnetic field below the surface. Two oppositely directed toroidal magnetic fields, one in each hemisphere, are assumed to propagate from mid-latitude to the equator in 11 years, followed by a similar scenario during the next 11 years with the opposite polarity.

In the kinematic dynamo theory, the fluid flow is prescribed *a priori* and the magnetic field is considered as a passive contaminant. The question this theory addresses is whether there are conceivable flows which have a dynamo property, for instance, which have the property that initially weak seed fields are amplified. The various aspects of the kinematical theory have been reviewed /155, 156/. The latitudinal, differential rotation of the Sun produces a toroidal field component from a poloidal field, called the Ω-effect. The physical mechanism most likely to produce a poloidal field component from the toroidal field is due to convection in a rotating fluid. An arising convection cell will not only deflect horizontal field lines upward in an Ω-shaped stitch of flux, but will also twist them due to the Coriolis effect. This twisting of field lines into the meridional plane is known as the α-effect.

Kinematic α-Ω dynamo models obtain an axis-symmetric magnetic field from a linear magnetic induction equation that is turned by independently parameterizing the effects of differential rotation and helicity. The two dimensionless numbers that are important in governing the dynamo are: $D_\alpha = \alpha R/\eta$, which characterizes the production of poloidal field through helicity generated by the interaction of rotation and convection, and $D_\Omega = \Omega'R^3/\eta$, which measures the generation of toroidal flux from the shearing flux by differential rotation (where α is related to the mean helicity, η is the magnetic diffusivity, and Ω' is the differential rotation rate $\sim \Omega/R$). With this freedom a highly parameterized kinematic model can generate a dynamo wave that propagates towards the equator with about the right period. In order to let the dynamo work at finite field amplitudes, a non-linear mechanism is introduced which determines the amplitude of the generated mean magnetic field B by "cutoffs" at large B of the α-effect and (or) the shear. Work /156/ complemented their α-Ω dynamo by an extra equation governing the shear. But although some beautiful results have been obtained, the many approximations must not be forgotten. Perhaps the most severe approximation is the first orders smoothing of the electric field, which on the Sun is marginally valid at best.

A more ambitious approach is to solve the full magnetohydrodynamic partial differential equations, including the equation of motion (as opposed to flows being given *a priori*) and without explicitly averaging over small-scale tur-

bulent eddies. Dynamic dynamo models simultaneously solve the MHD equations for the velocity, thermodynamic, and magnetic fields with full nonlinear feedback. Calculation of global dynamo action in a spherical shell is exceedingly demanding in computing power, since spatial scales ranging from global down to a fraction of a scale height must be represented. Numerical investigations of the dynamic theory have been attempted by a number of workers. A critical survey that exposes the strengths and weaknesses of the dynamo theory are provided /158/.

The first successful, self-consistent dynamo model for an anelastic gas with a significant density stratification was computed in /159/. The toroidal field is mainly generated by differential rotation which shears the poloidal field. The poloidal field is generated by helical fluid motion which twists the toroidal field. A crucial property of the model is that the form of motion is determined by the Coriolis force, which leads to convection in elongated cells parallel to the rotation axis. However, that work /159/ does not obtain a self-consistent solution with a differential rotation profile that matches that observed on the Sun; the discrepancy leading to poleward migration of the simulated toroidal field. The importance of these calculations is as a demonstration that the dynamo process really works, even though some details do not match with the observed features of the solar cycle.

Others have attempted to model turbulent dynamos in a relatively simple Cartesian geometry, being the advantage that the individual processes are easily identified /160/. They simulate compressible convection in a stratified rotating system, and show that the magnetic fields can be maintained by dynamo action if the magnetic Reynold number is sufficiently high. Most of the generated magnetic field appears as coherent flux tubes in the vicinity of strong downdrafts, where both the generation and destruction of magnetic field are most vigorous. Although there is no systematic cyclic behaviour, the computations show that the turbulent convection in a rotating star is bound to generate small scale magnetic fields.

From a mathematical perspective, the existence of classical solar dynamos is not in question but the question remains as to whether such dynamos are actually realized in nature; i.e. whether the applied mathematical assumptions are physically justified. The first problem is the actual location of the magnetic dynamo process in the interior of the Sun. It is well known that magnetic fields are buoyant in a stratified medium; a physical effect which is not generally accounted for in the standard mean field dynamo models. Furthermore, parameterizations of buoyancy are not really satisfactory because they may not properly describe the buoyancy process in a convective unstable field. For a mean field strength greater than 100 G, the buoyancy rise rate in the solar convection zone may be large enough to surpass the α-effect, excluding a broadly distributed field generation in the convective zone /154/. Although a conclusive understanding of the consequences of buoyancy is not yet at hand, there are significant dynamical reasons to suspect that the solar magnetic field might be generated at the bottom of the convection zone or in its undershoot layer.

The undershoot layer has the crucial property that it is stably stratified against convection and for this reason the magnetic buoyancy can be treated as an inestability problem. Investigations on the linear inestability properties of this layer showed that multiple-diffusive instabilities might lead to formation of flux bundles, reminiscent of discrete active region complexes /161/. Crude estimates suggest a field strength of the predominantly azimuthal field of order 10^4G in a layer of 10^4 km thick. Where the field is locally stronger ($\sim 10^5$ G) it becomes unstable to buoyancy-driven instabilities giving rise to isolated flux tubes which rise to the surface and form active regions /162/.

A question lying at the very core of all dynamo models is the justification for assuming turbulent diffussion (mixing) of the magnetic field. Whether this idea is applicable to strong magnetic fields is debatable as may be demonstrated by a simple energy argument. Work /163/ performed numerical simulations of randomly forced motion in an incompressible, two-dimensional magnetized field and found that a small critical field strength indeed exists, and that if it is exceeded, the turbulent cascade of magnetic energy is interrupted. If the turbulent diffusion of the magnetic field does not operate for the interesting range of values for the large-scale magnetic field, mean field dynamos could not function in nature. However, the results for suppression of turbulent diffusion in two dimensions may not be representative for three dimensions, since a three-dimensional fluid has the freedom to arrange fluid motions such that the magnetic back-reactions are minimized. But as a result of the ineffective three-dimensional turbulent diffusion in the presence of strong azimuthal magnetic fields, the standard dynamo equations are not likely to provide a reasonable description of stellar magnetic dynamos; thus, a number of works propose new sets of dynamo equations taking into account the modifications of the turbulent diffusions by strong magnetic fields.

A second outstanding problem of the dynamo theory is the influence of the angular velocity profile Ω on the character of the dynamo modes. One factor governing the direction of propagation of the dynamo wave is the sign of the gradient $d\Omega/dr$. Application of conservation of angular moment in a radially convecting fluid naively suggests that the general trend of the differential rotation is $d\Omega/dr < 0$, so angular velocity increases inward. Helio-seismological measurements during the last decade have provided observational insight into the Sun's rotation. A recently deduced rotation curve suggests that at low latitude $d\Omega/dr > 0$ while at mid-latitude $d\Omega/dr \sim 0$. Calculations indicate that dynamo modes generated with this form of no nonuniform rotation tend not to migrate at all but, instead, the oscillatory magnetic mode loiters in mid-latitudes /164/. Furthermore, helioseismic data has shown that strong gradients of W are only present near the base of the convection zone /165/. The transition from the latitudinal variation observed at the surface to solid body rotation takes

place over a range of depth too small to be resolved (< 0.1 $R_\odot$) at or just below the base of the convection zone /166/.

As a dynamic system the magnetohydrodynamic dynamo is capable of chaotic behaviour. The essential control parameter of such models is the dynamo number, D, which is a dimensionless product of the shear due to differential rotation and to the α coefficient. For D below a critical value there is a periodic solution in their models. For slightly higher values of D the periodic solution becomes unstable; it may first be replaced by multiple periodic and finally chaotic solutions.

Work /112/ compares observations of the solar-induced variations with the behaviour of the model /157/ in the vicinity of the transition between the Freigenbaum period doubling regime and the chaotic regime. In the millennium before the Maunder minimum, the solar activity (measured by mid-latitude auroral observations) showed a stable and well-established 88-year cycle. Most arguments for the solar dynamo being close to the chaotic domain rest on two observations: (1) the phase of the 88-year cycle is lost at the emergence of the Maunder minimum and (2) the irregular intervals between periods of suppressed activity observed in ^{14}C records. The argument that the dynamo remains close to the bifurcation between period doubling and chaos is that the 11, 22, and 88-year variations form part of a period doubled set.

Work /167/ formulated the dynamo model in spectral form. They demonstrate that the type of solution, the transition to chaotic behaviour in particular, critically depends on the number of Fourier components taken into account. Low-order systems (overtruncated) tend to reach chaotic solutions already at moderate dynamo number via a sequence of subharmonic bifurcations, with a period doubling at each bifurcation. The transition to chaos has its signature in the simulated power spectra: first, the addition allows frequencies together with their natural harmonics to appear; finally the spectrum is more or less continuous. Higher-order systems have limit cycles even at a large magnitude of the dynamo number; their route to chaos includes two and three dimensional tori in phase space. Although the estimates of the solar magnitude of the shear and the α-effect differ, it seems that the dynamo number D certainly has a sufficient magnitude to render low-order systems chaotic. Perhaps the magnitude of D is in the range where a limit cycle with a period of 22 years is a stable solution. If a bifurcation point to a T^2 torus or a strange attractor is close to the actual solar dynamo number, then small perturbations of the cycle could lead to extended periods of "abnormal" wandering of the trajectory in phase before settling again to the stable cycle. Long-term modulation and intervals of low activity would be the apparent consequences.

8. FEASIBLE MECHANISMS OF THE EFFECT OF COSMOPHYSICAL FACTORS ON ATMOSPHERIC PROCESSES

Several probable mechanisms of the effect of cosmophysical factors on the lower atmosphere have been shown to exist /86-88, 122-148, 168-171/; namely:

1. the mechanisms based on the changes of the solar (astronomical and meteorological) constant,

2. additional infrared (IR) emission during magnetic storms,

3. effect of solar wind on the atmospheric electricity parameters,

4. condensation mechanism,

5. ozone mechanism, and

6. hydrodynamic interaction between the upper and lower atmospheric layers.

An important factor in all the discussed mechanisms is the heat influx from the external sources; namely, solar flares, interaction of solar plasma with the magnetosphere, geomagnetic storms, magnetospheric convection, particle precipitation to polar regions, generation of additional quantities of nitrogen dioxide and ozone by solar and galactic cosmic rays in the lower stratosphere; effect of solar activity on the electric field of the atmosphere, etc. The feasible mechanisms of the Sun-weather relationships may include the solar heating of the troposphere (a radiation modulation by 0.1% results in a 0.02-0.04 mb amplitude of pressure at the surface), the heating of the troposphere by the terrestrial radiation (to compensate for a solar radiation by 0.1%, the surface temperature must change by 0.2 K), the direct heating of upper levels (with subsequent transfer downwards by wave propagation), the indirect effect of heating (through the changes of the hydrodynamic wave reflection altitude depending on the zonal wind component defined by ozone heating), the trigger mechanisms (allowing the internal instability of the troposphere), the cloud cover (through the changes in the number of condensation nuclei), the vorticity generation (through the anomalies of vertical motions), and the shifts of the phase or amplitude of solar thermal tides. The changes of the climate and temperature in the Northern hemisphere are in good agreement with the changes in the position of the geomagnetic pole on the Earth's surface.

A feasible mechanism of their relationships was reviewed /148/ which can be briefly described as follows: the corpuscular streams arriving from the Sun give rise to the global disturbances of the Earth's magnetosphere generating the electric fields in the outer magnetosphere which, in turn, excite the intensive electric currents in the auroral oval (the "auroral electrojet"). The currents give rise to a substantial increase (by a factor of more than 10) of geomagnetic activity which eventually leads to the heating of the lower atmosphere and to a decrease of atmosphere pressure in the magnetic pole region, and which prove to be sufficient for a cyclone to be formed in the geomagnetic pole region, thus giving rise to the respective changes of the climate and weather in the neighbouring regions.

Researches into the problem of the relationsips between weather and the variability of the Sun and of solar wind may be divided into three groups: (1) the climatic changes within hundreds and thousands of years, (2) the variations correlating with the 22 and 11-year solar activity

cycles, and (3) the variations within several days. In any case, the allowance for the solar activity effect using the observational data on geomagnetic activity, cosmic ray intensity, etc., is of great importance when studying the short and long-term atmospheric processes. As indicated /72/, the character of the solar activity effect depends to a great extent on the spectra of the electromagnetic and corpuscular emissions from the Sun, on the current state of the solar and interplanetary magnetic fields /123, 172/, on the Earth's heliolatitude, and on the geographic region of the studied atmospheric processes in each particular case /84/. Therefore, simulations of the solar activity effect on atmospheric circulation must also allow for any additional information because the use of only the Wolf numbers to find the long-term relationships is not always justified /172/.

A detailed analysis of the experimental data given in our work has shown some contradictions whose main causes are the following /173/ :

1) The effect of solar activity in the various weather manifestations is observed against a background of appreciably more intense atmospheric processes.

2) The atmospheric effect of solar cosmic rays (SCR) from flares and geomagnetic disturbances depends significantly on the coordinates of the observation site, on the season, on the phase of solar cycle and on the state of the atmosphere.

3) In many papers the very possibility of the action of SA on the weather is automatically rejected from the standpoint of energetics: actually, the power of the atmospheric processes is $\sim 10^{27}$ erg/day, whereas, solar wind power is about 10^{23} erg/day. (However, it is worth mentioning that from the point of view of energetics, the effect of SA phenomena on the Earth environment is through a non negligible *"peck effect"* /148/).

Nevertheless, a number of different researchers propose that the influence mechanism of SA phenomena is based on the change of Atmospheric Transparency according to the prevailing level of SA as manifested through the action of GCR and SCR. The concept assumes that the solar wind is not the main energy source of atmospheric disturbances, but acts only as a modulator of solar energy. Under this assumption one can assert that the modulation of the energy flux entering the lower atmosphere is mainly caused by variations of the Atmospheric Transparency /173/.

The physical mechanism of the action of solar activity on the state of the lower atmosphere and meteorological parameters can be represented as illustrated in Figure 15 /173/. Solar activity causes changes in the intensity of the plasma streams and the frozen magnetic fields of the solar wind. The solar wind modulates the GCR and SCR in such a way that a reinforcement of cosmic ray variations is felt in the lower atmosphere. These variations of SCR and GCR stimulate the occurrence of physico-chemical reactions in the atmosphere, so that changes in the content of NO, NO_2, O_3 and water vapor are induced, as well as in the

density of cloud cover, all this resulting in alterations of the atmospheric integral Transparency. Work /174/ described how, as a result of the action of the cosmic rays on the atmosphere, a distinctive "gray filter" is formed which screens (shielding) the infiltration of the GCR and SCR in the lower atmosphere. An increase in SA should lead to a higher screening of cosmic rays and hence, to a decrease in the NO, NO_2, O_3 concentration, and consequently, to an increase in Atmospheric Transparency. Analogous effects should take place in periods of local disturbances in the interplanetay space (near the Earth), solar flares and Forbush-events. Atmospheric transparency should increase during periods of SA maxima and decrease during periods of SA minima of the cycles /152/.
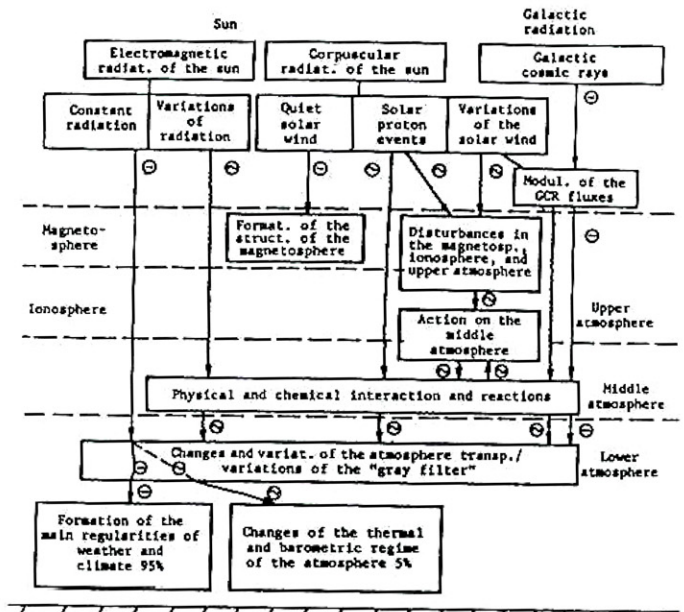

Fig. 15. Scheme of the action of solar activity and galactic radiation on processes in the lower atmosphere, meteorological and climatic parameters.

Also, geomagnetic activity (GA) should influence Transparency, as GCR and SCR fluxes do /66, 67, 176, 177/. In this connection, one can assume on the basis of the model of the action of solar activity on the lower atmosphere /173/, that the action of SA on the temperature, pressure, precipitation, solar radiation, circulation, wind velocity, etc., will be manifested differently during even and odd cycles. Hence, in view of this assimetric action a 22-year SA variation should be exhibited in the meteorological and climatological parameters /177/. One more consequence of Pudovkin's model /173/ is the climatological and meteorological changes in periods of reversals of the constant background geomagnetic field; changes also confirmed by other authors /178-181, 186, 187/.

An experimental confirmation of Pudovkin's model of the action of SA on the lower atmosphere state was also done /50, 182/. In order to check the model, these authors studied the variations of the atmosphere's Transparency in the course of the development of a geomagnetic disturbance /182/, the variations of atmospheric pressure /183/, the change of atmospheric circulation /118/, and the variations

of the air temperature in the course of solar and magnetic activity cycles /173, 181/. Work /173/ demonstrated the existence of a 22-year temperature variation of higher amplitude than the 11-year variation. The fairly good correspondence of the spectra draws attention to itself: peaks at periods T = 11-13, 22-28 and 80-90 years are observed in all results and wholly correspond to those found in work /181/. All the results can be interpreted in the context of the Pudovkin model. Actually, the results /173, 181/ confirm the predominance of a 22-year cycle as proposed by the model for the behaviour of the meteorological parameters under the action of SA and GA.

Work /173/ shows the results of the influence of the solar proton flares on the variations of the components comprising the atmosphere: the analysis of the behaviour of O, NO_2, and NO_3 indicates that a noticeable change of their contents in the atmosphere occurs in the course of the development of solar and geomagnetic disturbances; changes which should alter the atmosphere's Transparency.

All experimental studies of the influence of SA on meteorological and climatological processes confirm the mechanism given /173/, as we shall emphasize in the last section. However, a quantitative comparison of the additional energy input in the atmosphere upon a change in its Transparency with the energy necessary for simulation of dynamic processes in the atmosphere (as discussed in /151/) is needed for future confirmation of the idea being advanced.

The amount of solar energy per cm^2 at the upper boundary of the atmosphere in 24 hours is

$$Q = 2S_0/\rho^2 \ [\tau_0 \ \sin\varphi\sin\delta_0 + T/2\pi\cos\varphi\cos\delta_0 \ \sin(\omega\tau_0)],$$

where S_0 = solar constant,

ρ = sun-earth distance in its average value,

δ_0 = sun's declination,

T = period of the earth's rotation,

ω = angular velocity of the earth's rotation

τ_0 = time of sunrise and sunset relative to the moon, and

$$\cos(\omega\tau_0) = - \tan\varphi \ \tan\delta_0 \ .$$

The amount of additional energy entering and dissipating in the lower atmosphere during a geomagnetic disturbance is /173/: $\delta W = 2.4 \times 10^{-2} \int Qd\Sigma$, where Σ is the square of the Earth's "radius". Calculations of δW directly show that $\delta W \sim 1.5 \times 10^{26}$ ergs, for geomagnetic storms lasting three to four days, the total δW being of the order of 10^{27} ergs. This value exceeds by three to four orders the energy of the solar wind ($\sim 10^{23}$ ergs) and is commensurable with the energy necessary for the observed change in zonal circulation of the lower atmosphere ($\delta W = 5 \times 10^{26}$ - 2×10^{27} ergs, /173/).

Thus, the proposed physical mechanism of the action of SA and other cosmophysical factors (cosmic rays) on processes in the lower atmosphere, and on meteorological and climatological parameters, evidently provides an explanation for the origin of the constantly acting source of energy controlled by solar and geomagnetic activity whose powers appreciably exceed the power of the solar wind and are sufficient for a noticeable action on processes taking place in the lower atmosphere.

9. SIMULATION OF THE INTERACTION BETWEEN COSMOPHYSICAL AND METEOROLOGICAL PROCESSES

The results of studying the cosmophysical and meteorological processes presented above prove that a set of cause-effect relationship exists between solar activity and the rest of the processes. The assumption seems to be quite realistic, therefore, that the parameters describing the atmospheric processes (in particular, stormicity P(t) may be represented as a sum of the preceeding values P(t), solar activity W(t), geomagnetic activity $K_p(t)$, and cosmic ray intensity I(t), or more specifically, to be of the form of the self-regression model:

$$\hat{P}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i P(t-i) + \sum_{j=1}^{q} \beta_j W(t-j) + \sum_{k=1}^{s} \gamma_k I(t-k) +$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{m} \delta_l K_p(t-l) + \xi_t \ . \tag{6}$$

Here, $\hat{P}(t)$ is the predicted stormicity value, where p, q, s, and m are the order of the model for each of the series used. The order defines "a look backwards" of each process to predict the stormicity estimated: α_i, β_j, γ_k and δ_l are the AR model parameters. In this case, as fresh data are being obtained the self regression estimates also get renewed, thereby offering an opportunity to predict stormicity one step ahead. (The prediction ahead is made by seeking the value of a future count in the form of a weighed sum **p** of the previous counts P(t), **q** counts of W(t), **s** counts of I(t), and **m** counts of $K_p(t)$). The model may be constructed in two ways:

1.- The accumulated data arrays for stormicity, solar activity, and cosmic ray intensity of dimension N_0 are each used to construct a matrix for the set of linear equations (6). After that, the matrix is solved for the vectors $\overline{\alpha}$, $\overline{\beta}$, $\overline{\gamma}$ and $\overline{\delta}$. In this case, it must be taken into account that the sets of the self-regression coefficients may be found in practice for any of the accumulation intervals. Some 300 equations may be obtained using the mean-monthly data for the period 1950-1977. Correspondingly, the number of equations (6) for mean-yearly data reduces to 27-k, where **k** is the highest self regression order used; at **k** = 5 the number of equations is about 20, so an attempt may be made in this case to merely solve the set (6) assuming that the noise ξ_t is minimum. The solution of the set reduces to solving the set of equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_k...P_{k-q}W_k...W_{k-s}K_{p_k}...K_{p_{k-r}}I_k...I_{k-m} \\ P_{k+i}...P_{k+1-q}W_{k+1}...W_{k+1-s}K_{p_{k+1}}...K_{p_{k+1-r}}I_{k+i}...I_{k+1-m} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ P_N...P_{N-q}W_N...W_{N-s}K_{p_N}...K_{p_{N-r}}I_N...I_{N-m} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_q \\ \vdots \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_s \\ \gamma_1 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_r \\ \delta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \delta_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ P_{N+1} \\ \vdots \\ W_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ W_{N+1} \\ K_{p_{k+1}} \\ \vdots \\ K_{p_{N+1}} \\ I_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ I_{N+1} \end{pmatrix} \qquad (7)$$

2.- If, however, the number of equations (6) exceeds the number of unknown $\bar{\alpha}$, $\bar{\beta}$, $\bar{\gamma}$ and $\bar{\delta}$ and no assumptions concerning the minimum value of ξ_t can be made, the solution of the set (6) reduces to solving a set of equations for the covariant functions A_{ij}, rather than for the values of solar activity, stormicity, geomagnetic activity, and cosmic ray intensity:

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & . & . & A_{14} \\ . & A_{22} & & . \\ . & & A_{33} & \\ A_{41} & & & A_{44} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_o \\ b_o \\ c_o \\ d_o \end{pmatrix} . \qquad (8)$$

Obviously, in the case of stormicity, we have for example,

$$P(t-1).P^*(t-1) = \begin{pmatrix} P_{t-1}^2 & P_{t-1}.P_{t-2}..........P_{t-1}.P_{t-q} \\ P_{t-q}.P_{t-1} & P_{t-q}.P_{t-2}..........P_{t-q}^2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad (9)$$

similar expressions can also be obtained for the rest the parameters W, K_p and CRI used to construct the prediction model. The values of the covariations of A_{ij} and a_0, b_0, c_0 and d_0 are known, for they are calculated from the real data. Hence, set (8) is a set of linear equations that can be used to find the unknown coefficients α, β, γ and δ of the regression equation (6) and can always be solved if the determinant of the covariational matrix A_{ij} differs from zero. The second way of solving the set of equations is advantageous due to the absence of noise ξ_t, because of its mutual correlations.

Thus, by prescribing the model order q, s, r, and m for stormicity, solar and geomagnetic activity, and cosmic ray intensity, not only can we predict the mean values of stormicity one step ahead (the value of the step is defined only by the value of data discretization t), but we can also estimate the contribution of one or another process to the predicted stormicity. Indeed, if the values of one of the sought parameters α, β, γ and δ is small (much below the errors in measuring them), the respective process may be disregarded in the model. For example, when analyzing the mean-yearly dependencies between stormicity and geomagnetic activities, the γ values were negligible compared with the errors as regards the absolute values too. A detailed analysis has shown that the K_p index alone cannot be used to construct any prognostic model.

The stormicity values for 1950-1974, the solar activity values for 1945-1974, the geomagnetic activity values for 1945-1974, and the cosmic ray intensity values for 1960-1974 were used to find the values of the model parameters and to estimate the P(t) values in 1975, 1976 and 1977, which were compared afterwards with the real P(t) values for the same years.

The analysis was carried out using the mean-monthly and mean-yearly values of P, W, and CRI. The 3-year shift Δ(CRI) with respect to P was preliminarily introduced in the mean-monthly values (the shift was not introduced in the mean monthly values). Work /94/ presents the values of the parameters α, β, γ, and δ calculated using the mean yearly values of P, W, and CRI in the 1955-1974 period at the orders of the model q = 4, s = 4 and m = 3. It should be noted that the number of predictors (order of model) must not be very high; as shown in /184/, the number of predictors must not exceed a tenth of sampling volumes because of a possible correlation among the variables and a restricted sampling. The results have shown that the values of α, β, γ, and δ for the entire period do not vary in practice; moreover, the P(t) values found for 1975, 1976, and 1977 in terms of a prognostic model with the coefficients α, β, and γ, from the table differ from the real P(t) values by less than 18% for one-year predictions, by 27% for two-year predictions, and ~ 60% for three-year predictions. It should also be mentioned that in work /185/ [related to solar radiation R(t)], predictions in terms of the prognostic model differ from the real R(t) values found for 1993, 1994 and 1995, in 22%, 37%, and 50%, respectively.

Thus, the use of the standard ARMA-models to develop predictions of solar radiation, lake levels and stormicity on the basis of the previous stormicity values P(t), lake levels L(t), solar radiation R(t), observation data on solar activity S(t), geomagnetic activity K_p, and cosmic ray intensity CRI(t) is very promising. The results of the first relevant efforts have demonstrated a good agreement between the calculated and experimental P(t), R(t) and L(t) values, so that a further development of such a model will make it possible at least to predict the mean-yearly meteorological characteristics one year ahead within a 10-20% accuracy. For less accurate estimates to be obtained, the two-parametric model

$$P(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i P(t-1) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \beta_k W(t-k) + \xi_t \qquad (10)$$

is quite sufficient.

10. SUMMARY

Experimental results related to the action of solar and geomagnetic activities as well as other cosmophysical factors (galactic and solar cosmic rays, GCR and SCR /148/, 185/) on the lower atmosphere, and meteorological and climatic parameters including ENSO, have been discussed in the preceding sections. The data given and the results of the simulation of the mechanism of the action of heliophysical parameters on the atmosphere convincingly argue for the authenticity of the physical mecanism of the influence of SA on climatological and meteorological processes, in which the determining element is the change in transparency of the atmosphere produced mainly by the action of galactic and solar cosmic rays modulated by solar and geomagnetic activity /13, 173/. Estimates of the energetics of dynamics of process in the lower atmosphere simulated by solar and geomagnetic activity, and of the additional energy entering the atmosphere upon changes in its transparency during periods when those disturbances occur, have shown that they are similar to each other. This similarity has allowed /173/ to reveal the physical nature of the energy source on the action of solar and geomagnetic activity processes. The geomagnetic disturbances and emissions from the Sun (but not the energy contained in the solar wind) turns out directly to be the source of the phenomena discussed in this work.

The analysis of the works published in recent years has demontrated feasible relationships between atmospheric processes and heliophysical events, geophysical events, and cosmic ray intensity. All the published results fall well within the assumption that the activity of the processes in the Earth's atmosphere and magnetosphere is affected by the processes occurring on the Sun. Therefore, the process occurring in the interplanetary medium and the cosmic ray intensity observed on the Earth's surface must be taken into account when solving the problems relevant to finding the mechanisms of the large-scale atmospheric and magnetospheric processes or when making attempts to predict the processes. The first steps in this direction have been made in the present work and series of previous works /142, 178

- 181, 185 - 187/. The possibilities of research on the influence of solar activity on climate and meteorological processes have not been exhausted. Those phenomena of solar-terrestrial relationships which determine the action of disturbances on the Sun and in the interplanetary medium on the climatic and meteorological conditions on Earth and on the state of the lower atmosphere are causing most enlivened discussions at the present time. When in 1932, W.B. Shostakovich /13/ made his very interesting and non celebrated study of the relation of sunspots with temperature, pressure and rainfall, thereby founding modern helioclimatology, did he imagine that only sixty years later we would begin to approach toward solving this problem?

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J. Pérez-Peraza[1], A. Leyva[1], I. Ya. Libin[2], V. Fomichev[2], R. T. Guschina[2], K. Yudakhin[2] and A. Jaani[3]

[1] *Instituto de Geofísica, UNAM, 04510 México, D. F. Mexico.*

[2] *IZMIRAN, Troitsk, Moscow Region, 142092, RUSSIA*

[3] *Estonian Meteorological and Hydrological Institute, Toom-Kooli 9, EE0001, Tallinn, Estonia.*