

Reply to referees

The very specific comments from the referees are much appreciated. One referee has recommended rejection while the other states a potential for publication. These reactions are apparently based on the same basic weaknesses of the discussion paper, that there is insufficient linking to the potentially underlying physics.

Referee#1 Here, the major comments were of a more general nature and improvements to the manuscript are made at a number of places. Minor comments were specific and largely editing matters.

Major comments:

1. Why only choose Gaussian and Cauchy distributions to compare with?

The rationale for comparing with Gaussian and Cauchy distributions comes from preceding studies of terrestrial and solar phenomena. Lévy flights and walks have been demonstrated (albeit arguably) for solar processes including indices designed to quantify auroral activity. The approach was, of course, based on a similar study by the author examining geomagnetic data (considered a more “back-to-basics” observable than the derived and easily downloadable geomagnetic and solar-wind indices). The very reasons for adopting the two potential distributions have origins in the underlying physics, or rather the characteristics of the physics, the instrument itself and the physical processes affecting the cosmic noise signal and its perturbation. Many preceding studies are now referenced suggesting (strongly) that a Cauchy distribution would be a natural choice for a better characterization than a Gaussian.

2. The conclusion is weak

The possible linking between the findings of the paper (mostly mathematical) and underlying physics has been lacking somewhat throughout. Having improved this overall, the conclusions have been made considerably stronger, in the author’s opinion, with a rewrite.

Minor comments:

3. **frequency uncertainty** - Indeed should be 40MHz throughout.
4. **confidence interval in power spectrum** - Explanation and reference added
5. **difficulty reading figures** - plots re-made with thicker lines
6. **“z” style** – now consistent
7. **typos** – now corrected, but hopefully the copy-editor will find any the author missed

Referee#2. Here, specific line numbers were provided by the referee and these are referred to in the replies to the corresponding comments. In general, considerably more linking to underlying physics is included, also following the thoughts of referee#1.

1. **Pages 973, 975 and 980. Clearly, the authors has not succeeded in relating the scaling regimes to the potential underlying physics.** Both referees identify this weakness in the paper. Hopefully, addressing referee#1’s major points (discussed above) resolves referee#2’s misgivings for pages 973, 975 and 980. More text linking the reasoning for the study itself to

the possible underlying physics (related to the spectral regimes identified) has been added including more references.

- 45 2. **Page 977. The 1-minute cut-off.** Fluctuations shorter than 1 minute are not shown in the corresponding figure since they constitute (or rather are *deemed* to constitute) instrumental noise and detract from the part of the plot considered to be “interesting” Page 978. Due to the logarithmic axis, there are so few data points at longer timescales compared to in the vicinity of the chosen high-frequency limit that there is negligible difference in the linear fit. The fit is totally dominated by the high density of points at the higher frequencies (the author has tested this on previous occasions when analysing other observables).
50 Furthermore there are indeed typos concerning the “<” and “>” signs and these are now corrected as appropriate.
3. **Page 978. short-term variation in cosmic noise source.** Galactic source variation present in variability of order ~hours could indeed be present, but is less likely for the kind of instrument used here and for its geographic location – now explained in the text.
- 55 4. **Page 979, a single exponent for each spectral regime is too simplistic.** A caveat has been added warning of the possibility that the analysis is too simplistic. Hopefully, this issue is resolved by an improved discussion of the potential underlying physical processes as proposed above. In addition, the author accepts that some form of uncertainty should be given for the fitting (also one of Referee#1’s minor comments) and this is now in the
60 revision. The possibilities for other interpretations can and indeed should be incorporated in the text.
5. **Page 978, existing literature.** The author thought that the preceding explanations and references were adequate. However, the explanations and appropriate references (including even more references) are now grouped according to spectral regime, in an extended description, as a paragraph in itself.
- 65 6. **Page 980, multiple processes / underlying physics.** The conclusions are expanded substantially and hopefully take care of this aspect.

70 **The manuscript with changes visible follows. Page numbers above, however refer to the original discussion paper and the respective referees’ comments.**

Spectral characteristics of high latitude raw 40MHz cosmic noise signals

C. M. Hall¹

75 ¹Tromsø Geophysical Observatory, The Arctic University of Norway, Norway

Corresponding author:

C. M. Hall, chris.hall@uit.no

80 Full institute address:

UiT - The Arctic University of Norway

Tromsø Geophysical Observatory

9037 Tromsø

Norway

85

Abstract

Cosmic noise at 40MHz is measured at Ny-Ålesund (79°N, 12°E) using a relative
90 ionospheric opacity meter (“riometer”). A riometer is normally used to determine the degree
to which cosmic noise is absorbed by the intervening ionosphere, giving an indication of
ionization of the atmosphere at altitudes lower than generally monitored by other instruments.
The usual course is to determine a “quiet-day” variation, this representing the galactic noise
signal itself in the absence of absorption; the current signal is then subtracted from this to
95 arrive at absorption expressed in dB. By a variety of means and assumptions, it is thereafter
possible to estimate electron density profiles in the very lowest reaches of the ionosphere.
Here however, the entire signal, i.e. including the cosmic noise itself will be examined and
spectral characteristics identified. It will be seen that distinct spectral subranges are evident
which can, in turn be identified with non-Gaussian processes characterized by generalized
100 Hurst exponents, α . Considering all periods greater than 1 hour, $\alpha \approx 1.24$ – an indication of
fractional Brownian motion, whereas for periods greater than 1 day $\alpha \approx 0.9$ - approximately
pink noise and just in the domain of fractional Gaussian noise. The results are compared with
other physical processes suggesting that *absorption* of cosmic noise is characterized by a
generalized Hurst exponent ≈ 1.24 and thus non-persistent fractional Brownian motion,
105 whereas *generation* of cosmic noise is characterized by a generalized Hurst exponent ≈ 1 .

1. Introduction and instrumentation

The relative ionospheric opacity meter (“riometer”) is a traditional instrument for measuring the degree to which cosmic noise is absorbed by the ionosphere (e.g. Little and Leinbach, 110 1959). By selecting a particular frequency for the riometer reception, it is possible to optimize the sensitivity to a particular altitude range and therefore how energetic the particles are that are causing the ionization. The means of [analysing-analyzing](#) the signal from the riometer is to determine the “quiet day” variation and thereafter the degree of absorption caused by the intervening ionosphere. For a given radio wave frequency, the transmission, total reflection, 115 partial reflection or absorption is indicated by the refractive index of the atmosphere. The refractive index of an ionized medium is in turn related to plasma parameters and the frequency of the radio wave in question by the Appleton-Hartree equation; this is thus a starting point for understanding the response of the riometer signal to varying degrees of particle precipitation (Hargreaves, 1979 and 1992). Here, however the signal in its original 120 form, as opposed to the derived absorption, will be examined, i.e. the cosmic noise as measured by a receiver at the Earth’s surface, since the object of this study is to investigate the spectrum of the signal itself including intermittency introduced by solar activity.

Data have been obtained from the recently established 40MHz single beam riometer at Ny-Ålesund (79°N, 12°E), this being particularly undisturbed due to stringent restrictions on 125 local activity such as use of radio and traffic. On the other hand, the location is well within the polar cap and the ionosphere is less disturbed by auroral activity than at, say, 70°N. The use of 40MHz furthermore makes the instrument less sensitive to less energetic particles than, for example a 30MHz instrument. Instruments such as the one used here are highly reliable and run unattended with minimal interruption. The riometer at Ny-Ålesund, manufactured by 130 La Jolla Sciences of California, delivers signal strengths measured in mV every 2 seconds.

Reception is via a 3-element crossed Yagi antenna having a half-power full-beamwidth of approximately 70° . Localized (with respect to the sky) sources of cosmic noise in the field of view as the Earth rotates are thus smoothed out by the wide antenna beam, and the undisturbed cosmic noise signal is therefore manifested by a smooth quasi-sinusoidal variation with period of one sidereal day (0.99726958 mean solar days). In general, the signal is characterized by this dominant variation. The amplitude of the sidereal diurnal variation varies with latitude, being zero at the pole (where the sky view is independent of time-of-day) and maximum at the equator. In addition, the quasi-sinusoidal signature is modulated by insolation that gives increased ionization during day and furthermore affects negative ion chemistry, a reduction in received cosmic noise occurring when the ionospheric D-region is sunlit. Although a seasonal effect at all latitudes, the degree of insolation changes more significantly at higher latitudes: in mid-winter, the lower D-region is not sunlit at all and vice versa in summer. These predictable periodic (deterministic) variations are discussed in the early reports by Forbush (1954 and 1958), which also contain pointers to similar work of the time, and an example of a more recent report is Behera et al. (2014).

As mentioned above, the idea of the riometer is to determine the absorption ~~eg-of~~ cosmic noise due to perturbations in the intervening ionosphere due to space weather effects. These perturbations, in contrast to the largely deterministic quasi-diurnal and longer periods, end to be intra-diurnal and often of only ~hours duration, as for example, an auroral arc passes overhead (again, Hargreaves, 1979 and 1992, and references at the ends of the appropriate chapters). These variations are highly intermittent and can be expected to be as stochastic in nature as, for example, the solar activity that represents the underlying forcing. Finally, observations are typically influenced by local sources of disturbance such as nearby radio emissions and other radio frequency (RF) emissions from, for example, traffic. For the

155 riometer used in this study, hourly calibration marks are also produced, but these are indeed hourly and therefore predictable. In addition, instrument noise is present to some degree, and the analogue to digital conversion is only 8-bit resulting in a degree of ~~quantisation~~ quantization of the 2-second resolution readings. Although the riometer reacts instantaneously to ionospheric enhancement, a typical absorption event evolves over several

160 measurements and therefore 1-minute smoothing can be applied because in practice an observer would wait perhaps one minute to identify the event unambiguously. The entire dataset is portrayed in Fig. 1. after applying a 1-month running mean in order to illustrate the seasonal variation. Data from December 2013 to May 2015 are used in this study, again using the 40MHz riometer at 70°N, 19°E. To illustrate the features described above, one day of

165 data (20 September 2014) are plotted in Fig. 2. ~~The smooth line is a 10 minute running mean of the underlying data~~, in which the 8-bit ~~quantisation~~ quantization can be seen together with the hourly calibration (normally negative) spikes. The sidereal-day variation is the obvious overall feature, and when successive calendar days are plotted, the phase is seen to migrate to the left by approximately 4 minutes per day. ~~Despite the smoothing,~~ The absorption events at

170 1330 and 1500 are well identified. The first absorption event is short-lived (~1 hour) whereas the second event is longer, evidently continuing through the rest of the day. It should be stressed that these individual events per se are not the subject of this study, Figs. 1 and 2 merely illustrate the long-and short-term variations in the dataset. In the following sections, the spectral characteristics of the entire dataset will be examined and discussed, thus

175 including the deterministic periodicities and the collection of intermittent absorption events. The intermittent and short timescale nature of the ionospheric disturbances are expected to be manifested by spectral characteristics different from the more predictable cosmic noise background. The former can ultimately be traced back to solar variability (popularly referred to as “space weather”) and the latter traced to galactic variability, or rather the riometer’s

180 [varying view of the galactic sources.](#) As a major feature of the discussion, the non-Gaussian nature of the distribution of the stochastic part of the signal will be addressed.

A significant problem in the study of physical systems is the identification of coupling between processes, what are causes and what are true effects. An evolving approach is to examine the stochastic nature of the signals from different processes because noise present in

185 a cause will presumably be also present in resulting effects. The noise signatures may not be unambiguous of course, so any apparent coupling must be treated with care. Although gaining popularity, the principle was introduced by, inter alios, Hurst, (1951), Mandelbrot, (1983), Grassberger and Procaccia, (1983) and Koscielny-Bunde et al. (1998) and later explored by (e.g.) Eichner et al. (2003), Lennartz and Bunde (2009), Kantelhardt et al.

190 (2006), Rypdal and Rypdal (2011), Hall (2014a and b). The concepts of fractional Gaussian noise (fGn) and fractional Brownian motion (fBm) have been proposed by Mandelbrot and van Ness (1968), and the Hurst exponent, H , by Hurst, (1951) all to help quantify self-affinity of stochastic components of time-series. For fBm, successive increments are correlated resulting from the time-series being non-stationary and with temporally changing variance;

195 for fGn, the time-series is stationary and expectation value and variance are time-invariant. The Hurst exponent is not able to differentiate between these processes, however, and here the approach of Kantelhardt et al. (2006) is adopted to derive rather the *generalized Hurst exponent*, α . The two exponents are related: for fGn, $H = \alpha$ and for fBm, $H = \alpha - 1$. The exponent α unambiguously characterizes the process as fBm ($\alpha > 1$), or fGn ($0 < \alpha < 1$).

200 Furthermore, a process can be described as anti-persistent when an increment is likely to be followed by one in the reverse direction: for fGn, $0 < \alpha < 0.5$ and for fBm $1 < \alpha < 1.5$. On the other hand, [a process is persistent](#) ~~is~~ when an increment is more likely to be followed by one in the same direction: for fGn, $0.5 < \alpha < 1.9$ and for fBm $\alpha > 1.5$. The case $\alpha = 1.5$ indicates

the (well-known) special case of Brownian motion. One method to determine α is first to find
 205 the scaling exponent β of the power spectrum $S(f)$, f being frequency:

$$S(f) \propto |f|^{-\beta} \quad (1)$$

Thereafter, the *generalized Hurst exponent*, α is related to β by

$$\alpha = (\beta + 1)/2 \quad (2)$$

the derivation of which can be found in, e.g., Hartmann et al. (2013), and Delignieres et al. (2006), and references therein.

Using the approach of Hall (2014a,b), the stochastic component of the time-series is isolated
 210 from the slowly evolving (deterministic) component. Here, a smoothed time-series will be subtracted from the original and the residual will be deemed stochastic, as will be demonstrated in the following section. From the stochastic (noise) component, the probability density function (PDF) of the data is obtained and thereafter quantile-quantile (Q-Q) analyses (Wilk and Gnanadesikan, 1968) performed. To produce Q-Q plots, quantiles of the
 215 distribution of signal noise are plotted against corresponding quantiles for hypothesized distributions exhibiting the same mean and standard deviation. A visual inspection of the PDF can indicate if the signal's noise distribution is Gaussian or otherwise. From an inspection of the Q-Q plots the degree to which the signal's noise distribution agrees with that hypothesized: a straight line indicating agreement.

220 In this study, the goal is to investigate the spectrum of the cosmic noise data in its entirety, encompassing variations at all timescales [and see if well-defined subranges exist that can be related to known physics](#). The starting point is not, therefore a derived stochastic component. Furthermore, experimental data, including gaps due to instrument failure are almost

invariably irregularly sampled and therefore the Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis (Press
 225 and Rybicki, 1989) will be used rather than a traditional Fourier transform. Fougère (1985)
 and Eke et al. (2000) propose preconditioning of the time series by applying a parabolic
 window, thereafter bridge detrending using the first and last points in the series, and then a
 final frequency selection before identifying subranges exhibiting linear dependence in log-log
 space. This last step however will be omitted in order to retain as much spectral information
 230 as possible, at least initially.

It should be mentioned that several approaches are available for estimating H or α , the most
 popular perhaps being the detrended fluctuation analysis (DFA) (Peng et al. 1993). Physicists
 in general are familiar with spectral analyses, this being the focus here. For reference,
 commonly used methods including spectral analysis (SA) have been described by Delignieres
 235 et al. (2006), Hartmann et al. (2013) and Heneghan and McDarby (2000).

2. Analyses

As described in the previous section, an approximation to the stochastic component of the
 cosmic noise signal is extracted from the complete dataset. Which timescales contain
 deterministic signals is open to discussion; since perturbations resulting from solar-terrestrial
 240 interaction can recur over periods of days (such as some polar cap absorption events), the
 time series shown in Fig. 1. has been deemed deterministic. This is then subtracted from the
 original and the residual deemed largely stochastic. A corresponding method was employed
 by Hall (2014b). As will be seen, spectral analysis identifies individual periodicities
 remaining in the (supposedly) stochastic residual, these showing up as narrow spikes. Due to
 245 the large number of data points and therefore frequencies in the spectrum, these spikes
 impose insignificant influence when determining the spectral slope. A disadvantage with
 DFA is that such periodicities are generally *not* easily distinguishable.

A number of studies have hypothesized that solar fluctuations give rise to processes that may be characterized by Lévy walks or flights, e.g. Scafetta and West (2003) and Watkins et al. (2005) (and references therein). As explained by Sato (1999), a Cauchy process is defined as Brownian motion subordinated to a process associated with a Lévy distribution. The earlier analyses of solar and ionospheric observables are therefore considered a justification for comparing a Cauchy distribution as well as Gaussian with that of the riometer data. The probability density function (distribution) of the stochastic component of the data is determined and shown in Fig. 3. The distribution is centred on zero resulting from subtraction of the deterministic component. A Gaussian distribution is fitted that fails to reproduce the narrowness of the distribution of the observation at half height. By using a different parameterization of the distribution width than half-maximum full-width, viz. $1/e$ of maximum, a wider Cauchy distribution is modelled that fits the data better (suggested by Hall, 2014b). Qualitatively the Cauchy model describes the distribution considerably better than the Gaussian, but all the same, a heavy “shoulder” is evident for reduced values of cosmic noise. The centre and right panels of Fig. 3. show the quantile-quantile (Q-Q) portrayals –vs. Gaussian (centre) and vs. Cauchy (right). The means of interpreting such Q-Q plots are described by Chambers et al. (1963). Departures from linearity (in the central regions of the plots) indicate heavy shoulders at both sides (sometimes referred to as long tails) of the distribution relative to the model. It can be seen that the Cauchy model approaches the shoulders in the distribution of the measurement somewhat better than the Gaussian. In fact, a Cauchy model will always represent the long tails in a distribution better than a Gaussian as can be seen in the left-hand panel. ~~As explained by Sato (1999), a Cauchy process is defined as Brownian motion subordinated to a process associated with a Lévy distribution.~~ The portrayals in Fig. 3. point to a Lévy process being the best description of the stochastic component rather than Gaussian noise.

For determination of power spectral density, the entire original dataset is employed, such that all conceivable fluctuations are included. There are therefore no a priori assumptions as to which fluctuations are truly non-chaotic. The exception is the sidereal periodicity, but as stated earlier, this represents but one narrow spike in the spectrum compared with all other frequencies present and does not influence the identification of subranges exhibiting scaling and subsequent determination of exponents β . Prior to spectral analysis, the data are preconditioned by applying a parabolic window and then bridge detrending using the first and last points as described in the previous section. Thereafter, the Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis is applied, again as explained earlier. The result is shown in Fig. 4. In reality, a considerable amount of (approximately) white noise results at periods shorter than 1 minute and these are associated with instrumental noise and quantization of measurements due to the use of an 8-bit analogue-to-digital converter. The first indication of this instrumental noise is seen at the very right-hand end of the plot, and the remainder is omitted in order not to detract from the characteristics of the received signal itself. Meaningful timescales are indicated on the figure for the convenience of the reader: 1 minute, 1 hour and 1 day, the last being the sidereal day. The scaling is quite evident, although delineation of separate subranges is somewhat subjective. Since experience shows that, for example, auroral activity in the field of view of such instruments as the riometer (depending of course on the antenna type) last from typically minutes to hours, linear fits to the log-log spectrum have been performed for all periods greater than 1 minute, 1 hour and 1 sidereal day. [Slopes and uncertainties were obtained using least-squares fitting \(in log-log space\) as described by, e.g. Taylor \(1982\).](#) Due to the high density of points at high frequencies, the [longer than 1 min period spectral regime](#) is heavily weighted towards [the 1 hour to 1 min subrange](#) etc. The respective fits are superimposed on the plot. For periods ≤ 1 min, $\beta = 0.72 \pm 0.001$; for periods ≤ 1 hour, $\beta = 1.48 \pm 0.006$; for periods ≤ 1 day, $\beta = 0.87 \pm 0.035$.

Discussion

The first characteristic to note is that for all variability in [30MHz-40MHz](#) cosmic noise at timescales shorter than 1 month, the probability density function is not well represented by a Gaussian distribution. The attempt to fit a Cauchy distribution defining the width being at $1/e$ as opposed to $1/2$ maximum succeeded in matching the heaviness in the tails of the distribution, but not the narrowness on the peak. By definition, the Cauchy distribution is symmetric, and therefore while the model represents the heavy tail for positive values, the presence of the negative shoulder is conveniently accentuated. It should be remembered, however, that the approach is rather simplistic. Qualitatively the distribution is reminiscent of a Lévy process (which is also represented by a Cauchy distribution) but no attempt will be made to sub-classify this further here, the method being fraught with pitfalls (e.g. see Rypdal and Rypdal, 2010). Examining the Q-Q plots, the heavy-tailed distribution is characterized by the downward trend at the left-hand ends and upward trend at the right-hand ends of both Gaussian and Cauchy versions. The overall upward curvature in the Cauchy plot indicates a degree of skewness due to the shoulder. Lack of discontinuities indicate lack of bimodal (or multimodal) distributions. Recalling that the above analyses have been performed on the residual after subtracting the smoothed data from the original observation, the negative values in the distribution are associated with reductions in the original signal. Thus, the shoulder in the distribution and the evidence for skewness in the Q-Q plots are readily explained by intra-day absorption events, their intermittent signature contributing to, if not responsible for, the non-Gaussian probability density function.

Turning to the spectral analysis, there is an indication that 3 subranges are present in the spectrum. Timescales associated with auroral activity which, in turn correspond to enhanced electron densities in the ionospheric D-region, are typically minutes to hours. One can

envisage an auroral arc moving across the sky; although this will be in one position for a short time interval, it will be in the riometer antenna beam for much longer. The response of a ground-based magnetometer is similar as described by Hall (2014b), although current systems causing perturbations in the geomagnetic field typically occur at higher altitude than ionisation modulating cosmic noise at 40MHz. It can therefore be hypothesized that the scaling exponent for periods > 1 hour is associated with absorption events, and, at that, caused by high-energy precipitation, since the riometer is within the auroral oval and receives at 40MHz. [Furthermore variation in cosmic noise itself over timescales of hours is slow, and particularly so for an instrument averaging signal of a large part of the sky at high latitude \(a narrow beam riometer would respond to more discrete signals and detect shorter term variability\).](#) If the reader is unfamiliar with ionospheric physics, clarification can be obtained by reading appropriate chapters in (e.g.) Hargreaves (1979 and 1992) and the recent study by Kellerman et al. (2014) contains an exhaustive source of references. For periods > 1 day, variation of the signal is largely predicable from the geometry of the rotation of the observation point relative to the galaxy. Nevertheless, solar activity responsible for polar cap absorption events can persist for consecutive days and the associated absorption is modulated by the Earth's rotation and compounded by ion chemistry. For the shortest timescales before the onset of the approximately white instrumental noise described earlier, it is somewhat unclear as to which processes are responsible for the less steep (\sim unity) spectral exponent. It will be instructive to convert the spectral exponents (β) to generalized Hurst exponents (α) for comparison with similar analyses of potentially related solar and terrestrial metrics. [A major assumption here, therefore, is that a single exponent is an appropriate descriptor of the data: no underlying theory exists suggests that a single spectral exponent is the correct functional form. The methodology simply follows that used by similar investigations of solar/ionospheric time series \(references herein\) and this caveat should be kept in mind when](#)

[considering the results that follow.](#) For periods > 1 day, $\alpha = 0.94 \pm 0.04$; for periods > 1 hour, $\alpha = 1.24 \pm 0.01$; for periods > 1 minute, $\alpha = 0.86 \pm 0.00$, [uncertainties having been propagated from the fitting to the spectrum described earlier \(Taylor 1982\)](#). These values indicate that the > 1 hour subrange is characterised by non-persistent fractional Brownian motion (fBm) whereas the other subranges either side are characterized by (marginally) fractional Gaussian noise (fGn) or approximately $1/f$ fluctuations. For longer period variability the hypothesis that the spectral exponent is relatively unrelated to high energy particle precipitation is supported by good agreement with the results of Canal et al. (2012) who report $1/f$ scaling for low energy secondary cosmic ray flux at low frequencies. On the other hand, Canal et al. (2012) find sunspot variation for periods less than 1 month to be characterized by $\beta \approx 1.4$, or $\alpha \approx 1.2$. This is the same as the > 1 hour value reported here (viz. 1.24). Solar activity can be parameterized by a number of metrics including sunspot number and of course is the ultimate cause of ionospheric enhancements that give rise to riometer response at these timescales. It is interesting to note that a plethora of investigations of scaling in parameters related to auroral activity in the auroral oval (i.e. on average equatorward of 79°N) indicate, although not exclusively, generalized Hurst exponents somewhat larger than reported here and suggestive of persistent fBm. One example is an analysis of Disturbance storm time (*Dst*) index by Balasis et al. (2006), reporting scaling in the range (5 days -2 h) with α between ~ 1.4 and ~ 1.6 . For the geomagnetic field in the auroral oval, Hall (2014b) similarly reports α between ~ 1.39 and ~ 1.54 and Hamid et al. (2009) assert that for active days the geomagnetic activity scales with $\alpha > 1.5$.

In summary, three spectral subranges can be identified apart from the white noise deemed instrumental: a short timescale regime of the order of minutes to hours, exhibiting $1/f$ scaling, an intra-day timescale with a spectral slope of ~ 1.4 , and finally a longer timescale regime

also exhibiting $1/f$ scaling. For the first of ~~these~~these, it is difficult to identify a specific underlying physical process; ~~for~~For the second, similarity with intra day variability in the geomagnetic field (c.f. Hall, 2014b; Pulkkinen et al.2006; Wanliss and Reynolds, 2003; Takalo et al., 1994; hamid et al., 2009) and with solar disturbances (c.f. Balasis et al., 2006; Rypdal and Rypdal, 2010 and 2011) suggests solar origins and therefore cosmic noise absorption. ~~the~~The last spectral regime has similarities with slow fluctuations in independent determinations of cosmic ray intensity therefore ~~confirming~~suggesting origins in cosmic ray sources (c.f. Canal et al., 2012; Forbush, 1954 and 1958).

Conclusions

Cosmic noise signal at 30MHz-40MHz has been recorded at 79°N , 12°E within the polar cap, providing, for this study, a time-series of approximately 18 months at 2 sec resolution. Examinations of probability density function and quantile-quantile plots reveal that the data can hardly be described by a Gaussian distribution, and that a Cauchy model fits better, thus suggesting an underlying Lévy process of some form. As explained earlier, the Cauchy distribution is only hypothesized here, based on the identification of Lévy processes in solar and ionospheric observables; multiple processes could be operating, which would be hard to identify unambiguously with the methods used here. However, ~~t~~The power spectral density indeed exhibits spectral subranges with differing scaling properties. The minute-to-hour fluctuations are characterized by $1/f$ scaling, the physical meaning of which is difficult to identify. The hour-to-day fluctuations are characterized by a spectral exponent of ~ 1.4 corresponding to a generalized Hurst exponent of 1.24 suggestive of anti-persistent fractional Brownian motion; these are associated with absorption - reduction of cosmic noise signal due to the intervening ionosphere in turn modulated by solar activity. Fluctuations longer than \sim day timescales are characterized by $1/f$ scaling and comparison with other studies supports a

395 hypothesis that cosmic noise intensity itself - i.e. independent of the intervening ionosphere,
is responsible. Key products transpire from this study:

(a) Solar variability and its interaction with the terrestrial ionosphere is popularly known as “space weather”. The ionospheric response has typical timescales of hours, but may repeat over consecutive days due to the Earth’s rotation, and over weeks due to the Sun’s rotation.
400 ~~that~~ Signal variation with scales of ~hours to days contains information on cosmic noise absorption and are therefore relevant for space weather considerations; ~~whereas~~ Shorter timescales ~~shorter and longer~~ contain information relating to other physical processes including characteristics of the instrument itself and characterization can be a useful tool for exclusion of non-geophysical data. ;—Longer timescales contain information on the
405 instrument’s view of the galactic sources, predominantly modulated by the Earth’s rotation and orbit, but also possible variation in the source itself.

(b) ~~underlying~~ Underlying physical processes can be identified in riometer data by classification in terms of the generalized Hurst exponent. The study here therefore contributes to the growing arsenal of links between similar classifications with links to physical
410 processes originating outside the solar system, in solar-terrestrial relations, and even in the neutral atmosphere including possible anthropogenic forcing.

Subsequent investigation could include examination of cosmic noise signals at both 30 and 40 MHz, with their respective responses to precipitating particle energies, from receivers within, under and outside the aurora oval, together with corresponding magnetometer
415 analyses. Such results would be valuable to substantiate the aforementioned hypotheses but more importantly to establish dependence of the spectral characteristic on geomagnetic latitude and energies of precipitating particles.

Acknowledgements. Data from the Ny-Ålesund station can be obtained via Tromsø
420 Geophysical Observatory.

References

- Balasis, G., Daglis, I. A., Kapiris, P., Vassiliadis, D., and Eftaxias, K.: From pre-storm activity to magnetic storms: a transition described in terms of fractal dynamics, *Ann. Geophys.*, 24, 3557-3567 2006.
- 425
- Behera, J. K., Sinha, A. K., Singh A. K., Rawat, R., Vichare, G., Dhar, A., Pathan, B. M., Nair, K. U., Selvaraj, C. and Elango, P.: First results from imaging riometer installed at Indian Antarctic station Maitri, *J. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 123(3) 593-602, 2014.
- Chambers, J. M., Cleveland, W. S., Kleiner, B., and Tukey P. A.: *Graphical Methods for Data Analysis*. 395pp., Duxbury Press, Boston, Massachusetts, 1963.
- 430
- Canal, C. A. G., Hojvat, C., and Tarutina, T.: Scaler mode of the Auger Observatory and sunspots, *Astrophys. J. Suppl.*, 202, 16-22, doi: 10.1088/0067-0049/202/2/16, 2012.
- Delignieres, D., Ramdani, S., Lemoine, L., Torre, K., Fortes, M., and Ninot, G.: Fractal analyses for 'short' time series: A re-assessment of classical methods, *J. Mathematical Psychology*, 50, 525-544, 2006.
- 435
- Eichner, J. F., Koscielny-Bunde, E., Bunde, A., Havlin, S., and Schnelhuber, H.-J.: Power-law persistence and trends in the atmosphere: A detailed study of long temperature records, *Phys. Rev. E*, 68, 046133, doi:10.1103/PhysRevE.68.046133, 2003.
- Eke, A. H., Hermán, P., Bassingthwaighte, J. B., Raymond, G. M., Percival, D. B., Cannon, M., Balla, I., and Ikrényi, C.: Physiological time series: Distinguishing fractal noises from motions, *Pfügers Archives*, 439, 403-415, 2000.
- 440
- Forbush, S. E.: World-wide cosmic-ray variations 1937-1952, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 59(4), 525-542), 1954.

- 445 Forbush, S. E.: Cosmic-ray intensity variations during two solar cycles, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
63(4), 651-669, 1958.
- Fougère, P. F.: On the accuracy of spectrum analysis of red noise processes using maximum
entropy and periodograms methods: Simulation studies and application to geographical
data, *J. Geographical-Geophys. Res.*, 90(A5), 4355-4366,
[doi:10.1029/JA090iA05po4355](https://doi.org/10.1029/JA090iA05po4355), 1985.
- 450 Grassberger, P., and Procaccia, I.: Measuring the strangeness of strange attractors, *Physica D*,
9(1-2), 189-208, 1983.
- Hall, C. M.: Complexity signatures for short time scales in the atmosphere above
Adventdalen, Svalbard, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 119, doi:10.1002/2013JD020988, 2014a.
- Hall, C. M.: Complexity signatures in the geomagnetic H-component recorded by the Tromsø
455 magnetometer (70°N, 19°E) over the last quarter of a century, *Nonlin. Processes Geophys.*,
21, 1051-1058, doi:10.5194/npg-21-1051-2014, 2014b.
- Hamid, N. S. A., Gopir, G., Ismail, M., Misran, N., Hasbi, A. M., Usang, M. D., and Yumoto,
K.: The Hurst exponents of the geomagnetic horizontal component during quiet and active
periods, *in: Proc, 2009 Int. Conf. on Space Sci. and Comm.*, ~~186-189~~, IEEE publishing, US
460 and Canada, [26-27 October 2009, Port Dickson, Malaysia, 186-189](#), 2009.
- Hargreaves, J. K.: *The Upper Atmosphere and Solar-Terrestrial Relations*, 298pp., Van
Nostrand Reinhold Co Ltd., Wokingham, England, 1979.
- Hargreaves, J. K., *The Solar-Terrestrial Environment*, 420pp., Cambridge University Press,
Cambridge, England, 1992.

- 465 Hartmann, A., Mukli, P., Nagy, Z., Kocsis, L., and Hermán, P.: Real-time fractal signal processing in the time domain, *Physica A*, 392, 89-102, 2013.
- Heneghan, C., and McDarby, G.: Establishing the relation between detrended fluctuation analysis and power spectral density analysis for stochastic processes, *Phys. Rev. E*, 62(5), 6103-6110, 2000.
- 470 Hurst, H. E.: Long-term storage of reservoirs: an experimental study, *Trans. American Soc. of Civ. Eng.*, 116, 770-799, 1951.
- Kantelhardt, J. W., Koscielny-Bunde, E., Rybski, D., Braun, P., Bunde, A., and Havlin, S.: Long-term persistence and multifractality of precipitation and river runoff records, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 111, D01106, doi:10.1029/2005JD005881, 2006.
- 475 Kellerman, A. C., Shprits, Y. Y., Makarevitch, R. A., Spanswick, E., Donovan, E., and Reeves, G.: Characterization of the energy-dependent response of riometer absorption, *J. Geophys. Res. Space Physics*, 120, 615-631, doi:10.1002/2014JA020027, 2014.
- Koscielny-Bunde, E., Bunde, A., Havlin, S., Roman, H. E., Goldreich, Y., and Schnellhuber, H.-J.: Analysis of daily temperature fluctuations, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, 81(3),
480 729-732, 1998.
- Lennartz, S., and Bunde, A.: Trend evaluation in records with long-term memory: application to global warming, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, L16706, doi:10.1029/2009GL039516, 2009.
- Little, C. G., and Leinbach, H.: The riometer - a device for the continuous measurement of ionospheric absorption, *Proc IRE*, 47, 315-320, doi: 10.1109/JRPROC.1959.287299, 1959.
- 485 Mandelbrot, B. B.: *The fractal geometry of nature*, W. H. Freeman & Co, New York, 495 pp., 1983.

Mandelbrot, B. B., and van Ness, J. W.: Fractional Brownian motions, fractional noises and applications, SIAM Review, 10, 422-437, 1968.

490 Peng, C. K., Mictus, J., Hausdorff, J., Havlin, S., Stanley, H.E., and Goldberger, A.L.: Long-range anticorrelations and non-Gaussian behavior of the heartbeat, Phys. Rev. Lett., 70, 1343-1346, 1993.

Press, W. H., and Rybicki, G. B.: Fast algorithm for spectral analysis of unevenly sampled data, The Astronomical J., 338, 277-280, 1989.

495 [Pulkkinen, A., Klimas, A., Vassiliadis, D., Uritsky, V. and Tanskanen, E.: Spatiotemporal scaling properties of the ground geomagnetic field variations, J. Geophys. Res., 111, A03305, doi:10.1029/2005JA011294, 2006.](#)

Rypdal, M., and Rypdal, K.: Stochastic modeling of the AE index and its relation to fluctuations in B_z of the IMF on time scales shorter than substorm duration, J. Geophys. Res., 115, A11216, doi:10.1029/2010JA015463, 2010.

500 Rypdal, M., and Rypdal, K.: Discerning a linkage between solar wind turbulence and ionospheric dissipation by a method of confined multifractal motions, J. Geophys. Res., 116, A02202, doi:10.1029/2010JA015907, 2011.

[Scafetta, N., and West, B. J.: Solar flare intermittency and the Earth's temperature anomalies, Phys. Rev. Lett., 90, 248701-1-248701-4, 2003.](#)

505 Sato, K.: Lévy processes and infinitely divisible distributions, Cambridge [Studies in Advanced Mathematics](#), 68, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1999.

[Takalo, J., Timonen, J. and Koskinen, H.: Properties of AE data and bicolored noise, J. Geophys. Res., 99, 13239-13249, 1994.](#)

510 [Taylor, J. R.: An Introduction to Error Analysis, University Science Books, Sausalito, California, ISBN 0-935702-75-X, 327 pp., 1982.](#)

[Wanliss, J. A. and Reynolds, M. A.: Measurement of the stochasticity of low-latitude geomagnetic temporal variations, Ann. Geophys., 21, 2015-2030, 2003.](#)

515 [Watkins, N. W., Credgington, D., Hnat, B., Chapman, S. C., Freeman, M. P., and Greenhough, J.: Towards synthesis of solar wind and geomagnetic scaling exponents: a fractional Lévy motion model, Space Sci. Rev., 121, 271-284, 2005.](#)

Wilk, M. B., Gnanadesikan, R.: Probability plotting methods for the analysis of data, Biometrika (Biometrika Trust) 55 (1): 1–17, 1968.

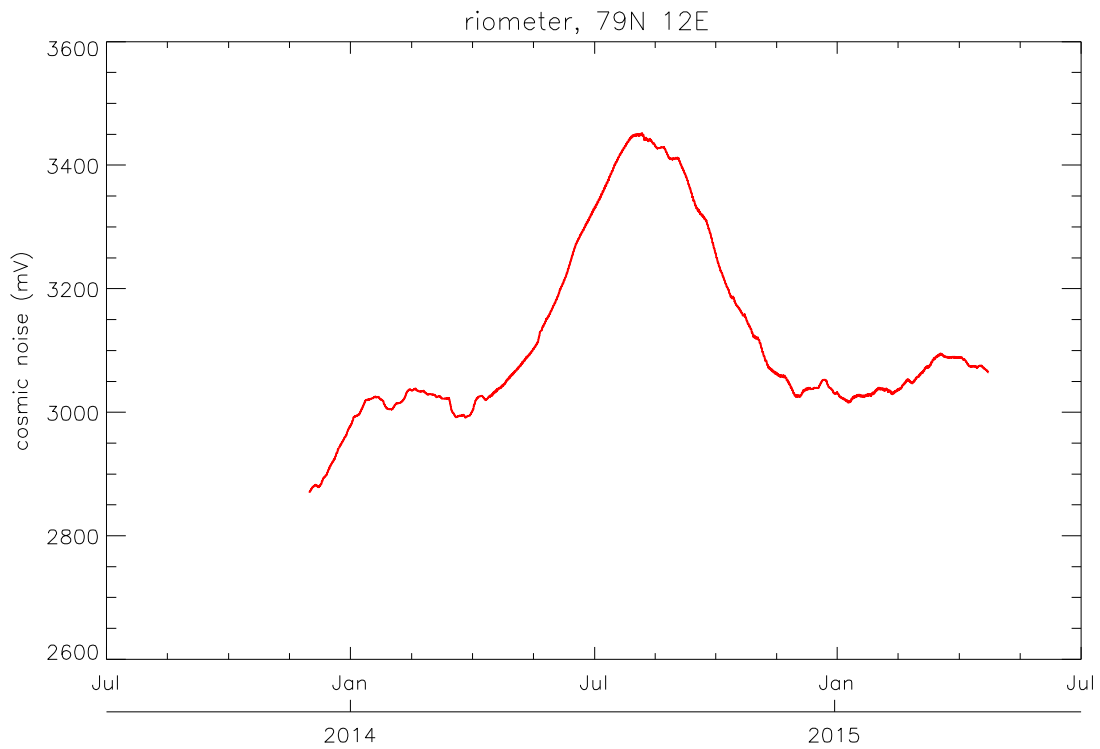


Fig. 1. Cosmic noise at 40MHz measured by riometer at Ny-Ålesund, 79°N, 12°E. Original data at 2 sec time resolution have been smoothed by a 1-month boxcar to show both the overall data coverage and seasonal variation.

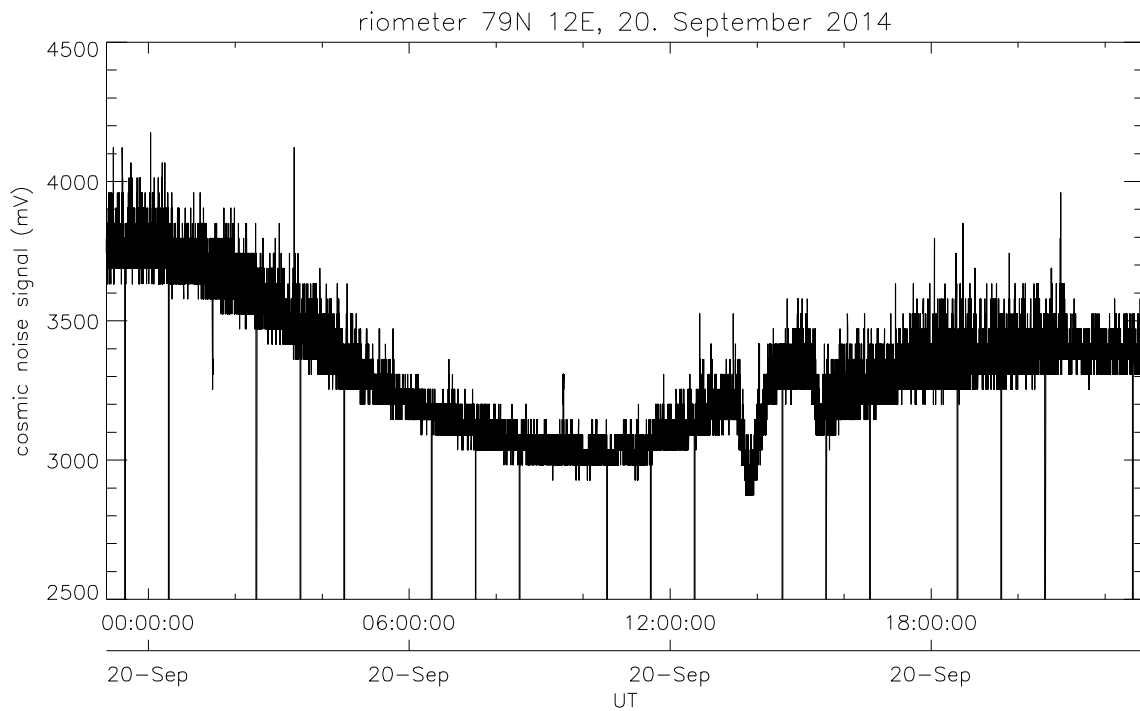
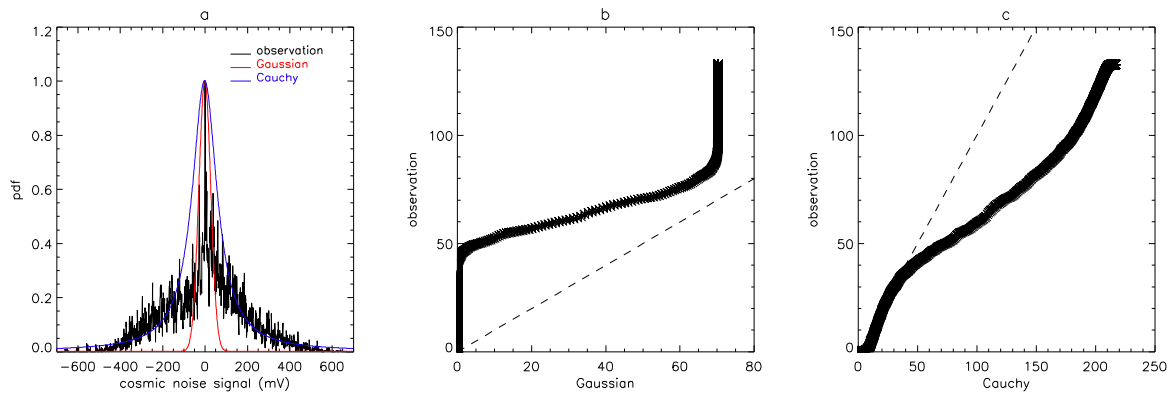


Fig. 2. Detail plot of cosmic noise at 40MHz measured by riometer at Ny-Ålesund, 79°N,

12°E for 20 September 2014. Original samples are shown, ~~in the blue curve, which~~

~~includes including~~ the hourly calibration points. ~~A 10-minute smoothing is superimposed~~

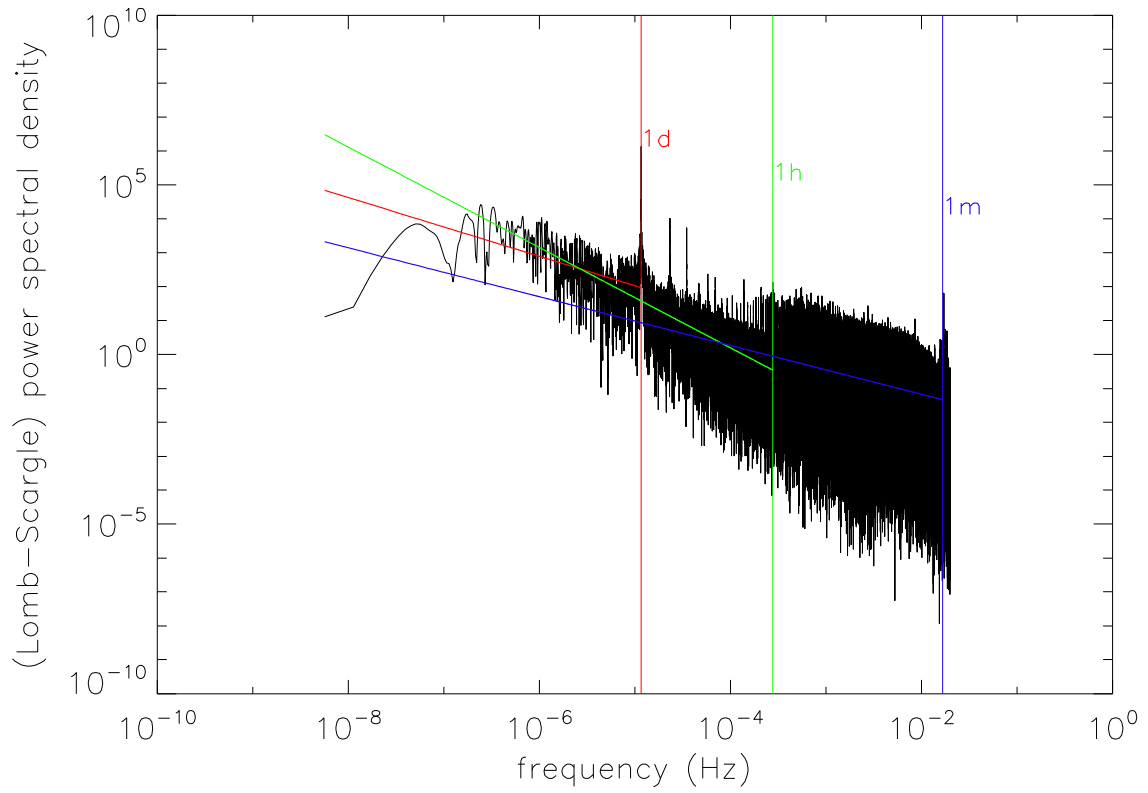
~~in red.~~



535

Fig. 3. Portrayals of the distribution of the stochastic component (described in the text) of the cosmic noise signal. Left: probability density function with fitted Gaussian (red) and Cauchy (blue) distributions superimposed (explained and discussed in the text). Centre: Q-Q plot of the observed data versus Gaussian; right: Q-Q plot of the observed data versus Cauchy.

540



545 Fig. 4. Spectral analysis for data shown in previous figures. Familiar timescales are indicated by vertical dotted/dashed lines. Fitted scaling exponents are shown by coloured lines.