

Long Term study of the Schumann Resonance Regular Variations Using the Sierra Nevada station ground-based magnetometers

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Key Points:

- Long term analysis of the Schumann resonance records at Sierra Nevada, from March 2013 to February 2017.
- The conclusions obtained partially confirm the general aspects of the long-term evolution of the Schumann resonances, but new aspects have appeared.
- Recent results on the influence of the El Niño phenomenon and the solar cycle on the Schumann resonances are confirmed.

Abstract

We present a study of the Schumann Resonance (SR) regular variations (March 2013 – February 2017) using the ground-based magnetometers from the Sierra Nevada station, Spain (37°02'N, 3°19'W). The study is based on the fitting parameters obtained by the Lorentzian fit, calculated for each 10-min interval record, namely, peak amplitudes, central frequencies, width of the resonances and the power spectrum integral for the first 3 SR modes. We consider three time-scales in the study: seasonal, monthly and daily variations. The processed data collected by the Sierra Nevada station are also made public with this work. The general characteristics of the long-term evolution of the Schumann resonance are confirmed, but discrepancies appear that require further study comparing recent measurements from different stations. Signatures of the influences of the El Niño phenomenon and the solar cycle to SR have been found.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Schumann Resonances (SRs) are related to the propagation of the electromagnetic (EM) field generated mainly by lightning events in the EM cavity delimited by the lower ionosphere and the Earth's surface. This EM field belongs to the Extremely Low Frequency (ELF) band of the EM spectrum, which goes from a few hertz to 50 Hz, and its spectrum shows resonances at certain frequencies. This phenomenon is called SRs. In addition to the lightning events produced in thunderstorms, there are some other phenomena that may contribute to the SRs, like the Transient Luminous Events, TLE (Price, 2016).

The SR were theoretically predicted by Schumann (1952), and measured for the first time by Balser & Wagner (1960). A historical review of the SRs and of Schumann can be found in Besser (2007), which shows a review of relevant works about the physical and mathematical concerns of the SRs. A wide review of the theoretical bases and the experimental works aimed at the study of SRs, with an emphasis on the ELF band measurement stations, can be found in Nickolaenko & Hayakawa (2002). More recent works about the SRs are Simões et al. (2012), Nickolaenko et al. (2016), and Price (2016). In Simões et al. (2012), the authors point out as 'one of the most challenging issues identifying possible correlations between long term Schumann resonance variability and climate trends. Also, the books Nickolaenko & Hayakawa (2014) and Surkov & Hayakawa (2014) make up an extensive bibliographical source about the SRs and the ELF field propagation in the atmosphere. The chapter about the SRs written by Satori, Mustak and Williams in Betz et al. (2009) is also of great interest.

The research on the SRs had a resurgence at the end of the 20th century due to its relation to different climate concerns. The relation between the average temperature in the tropic surface and the monthly variations in the SR parameters is shown in Williams (1992). This study was strengthened by Füllekrug & Fraser-Smith (1997), which linked the global lightning activity on a seasonal time scale and the magnetic field variations in the lower ELF range. The SRs are a useful tool to study other climatic phenomena that are influenced by the global thunderstorm activity. In Satori & Zieger (1999), the variation of the global thunderstorm position southwards in warm El Niño years and northwards in cool La Niña years is observed in the self-consistent behaviour of the frequency level and semiannual intensity variations of the first three SR modes. In a latter work, the global lightning activity on the ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation) time scale is studied using the SRs together with data from OTD (Optical Transient Detector) and LIS (Lightning Imaging Sensor) satellites in space (Satori et al., 2009). More recently, Williams et al. (2021) have studied the transition between two Super-Niño periods, occurring in 1997/98 and in

2015/16, using data from different stations. The main conclusion is that the variations in the intensity of the SRs may serve as a precursor for these extreme climate events (Williams et al., 2021).

The solar cycle has also an impact on the SRs. In Kulak et al. (2003), it is shown that when the solar activity increases the first resonant frequency also increases, and there is a small decrease in the attenuation coefficient of the NS component of the horizontal magnetic field measured in the East Carpathian mountains for 6 years —with some gaps in the recordings. In Satori et al. (2005), data from three different ELF stations are used to confirm a rise in the frequencies and in the quality factor when the solar activity increases, due to an increase in the X-ray radiation. In addition to the previous results, Ondraskova et al. (2011) uses electric field records to find a reduction of the differences between effective thunderstorm areas during the austral and the boreal summer, and thus a prevalence of the semi-annual variations, during the years of the deep solar minimum. Toledo-Redondo et al. (2012) showed a possible dependence of the effective reflection height of the Earth-ionosphere cavity and the solar cycle. In Nickolaenko et al. (2015), the 11-year solar cycle is analyzed using data from an ELF station in Antarctica, and another ELF station located on the North Pole is added in Koloskov et al. (2020). The experimental observations of these works can be explained by the point source model.

The importance of lightning for climate studies is increasingly recognized (Williams, 2005). The use of the SRs for inferring the global lightning activity achieved a broad interest, see for example Nickolaenko & Rabinowicz (1995) and included bibliography. The relation between the global thunderstorm activity and the diurnal first mode resonant frequency in the vertical electric field component is studied in this work. This connection between the global thunderstorm activity and the SRs also affects the SR amplitudes via annual and semi-annual variations (Nickolaenko et al., 1998; Nickolaenko et al., 1999). A similar analysis can be found in Fullekrug & Fraser-Smith (1997), where the profiling of the global thunderstorm activity is made on a seasonal timescale. Another verification of the relation between the SR intensity and the the global surface temperature can be found in Sekiguchi et al. (2006), where the annual and semi-annual variations are also studied using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). In Belyaev et al. (1999), the thunderstorms are determined making use of the Poynting vector, obtained with the horizontal components of the magnetic field and the vertical component of the electric field. Some advantages of the use of the Poynting vector are noted in this paper, especially when records from only one station are used. This work finds a night-time peak in African thunderstorm activity.

The thunderstorm activity in the Earth occurs mainly in three regions, located at different longitudes, with a predominance of land areas. These zones are located in Central Africa and Madagascar (African chimney), South and Central America, Caribbean Basin (American chimney), and South-East Asia and Indonesia (Asian chimney), as shown by Christian et al. (2003). These locations have their peak of activity during the local afternoon, and they largely modulate the diurnal variations of the SR (e.g., Toledo-Redondo et al., 2010).

First studies of the long-term observations of SR can be found in Satori (1996) and Satori & Zieger (1996) with data from the ELF station at the Nagycenk Observatory (47.6°N, 16.7°E), Hungary. These works analyze the SR peak frequencies and amplitudes for the first three modes for two years in a row. In Nickolaenko et al. (1998), records for an extra year are added to the previous works and the daily frequency range variations are explored. The seasonal variations of the average daily frequency pattern are also studied. A study of the long-term (4 years) diurnal,

seasonal and inter-annual variations in the SR parameters can be found in Price & Melnikov (2004). The data are obtained from the ELF station (35.45°E, 30.35°N) near the town of Mitzpe Ramon, in the Negev desert, Israel. The influence of the solar terminator passages on the SR parameters in these records is addressed in Melnikov et al. (2004). In Ondrášková et al. (2007), a summary of more than 4 years of continuous SR monitoring of the vertical electric component at Modra Observatory (48.37°N 17.27°E) in Slovakia is presented. The monthly averaged diurnal variations of the four firsts modes are analyzed. In addition, the diurnal-seasonal variations of the amplitudes, frequencies and quality factors for each year are also studied. The overall pattern of diurnal and seasonal variations in SR frequencies is confirmed from measurements as reported from other observatory sites. In Zhou et al. (2013) and Ouyang et al. (2015), two year long records from some low latitude ELF stations in China are examined. The diurnal and seasonal variations in mode amplitudes and frequencies of the first four modes of SR magnetic components are presented.

In this work, the SR regular variations obtained from the ELF station at Sierra Nevada, Spain (Fornieles-Callejón et al., 2015), are analyzed from March 2013 to February 2017. This ELF station records both horizontal magnetic field components, NS and EW. The processing of the records is described in Rodríguez-Camacho et al. (2018). With this work the scientific community is granted access to the processed data from the Sierra Nevada ELF station records. The format of these data is also described in Rodríguez-Camacho et al. (2018). We consider that providing the data is needed to pursue a common goal set by the SR research community, and in general by the atmospheric electrodynamics research community, which is the creation of a shared database of the different worldwide ELF stations. Our intention is not to set a standard for the processing and the format of the data but to propose a starting point.

The data used in the analysis presented in this work is the output of the processing scheme on the raw data, a brief explanation of this scheme is found in Rodríguez-Camacho et al. (2018). Basically, each file corresponds to the amplitude spectrum of each 10 min interval and the corresponding Lorentzian fitting parameters for each month in the measurement period of the Sierra Nevada ELF station.

This paper is structured as follows: the features and structure of the Sierra Nevada ELF station records are described in Section 2; the diurnal variations of the different SR parameters are studied in Section 3: the seasonal variations are addressed in subsection 3.1, and the annual variations from monthly averages are addressed in subsection 3.2. The time evolution of the SR parameters averaging over a certain number of days, weeks or months is shown in Section 4. Lastly, Section 5 corresponds to the conclusions of this work.

2 THE SIERRA NEVADA ELF STATION RECORDS

The ELF station is located in the heart of the Sierra Nevada mountains, Granada, Spain, 2500 m above sea level, in the area surrounding the mountain hut “Refugio del Poqueira” (37°02’N, 3°19’W) (Fornieles-Callejón et al., 2015). The ELF station at Sierra Nevada is equipped with two magnetometers, North-South (NS) and East-west (EW) oriented. The signal detected by these magnetometers is amplified, digitized, and registered directly in the time domain. The station is provided with a data acquisition system with a sampling frequency of $f_s=256$ Hz. The frequency response of the magnetometers ranges from a few tenths of a hertz to

45 Hz. Frequencies from 6 to 25 Hz have been calibrated, thus including the first three SR modes, located around 8, 14, and 21 Hz, which are the target of the Sierra Nevada ELF station. The analog to digital converter uses 16 bit to digitize samples in the range ± 10 V. The system minimum resolution is therefore $10/2^{15} = 3.052 \times 10^{-4}$ V. Saturation limits are fixed at ± 9.990 V.

The time domain data are processed using 10-minute long windows. For each window, the average of the amplitude spectra obtained using FFT in 10-second long intervals is calculated using the Hann window and a 5-second overlap (Welch method). A Lorentzian curve, which is the combination of three Lorentzian functions and a straight line, is fitted to the amplitude spectrum between the frequencies 6.35 Hz and 23.75 Hz, named in this paper as the fitting band. For further details of this method, see Rodríguez-Camacho et al. (2018). As a final result of the process, a file is generated for each month and sensor containing the following data:

- saturation level (ratio of saturated 10s long segments for each 10 min interval),
- amplitude spectrum for each 10 min interval,
- amplitude spectrum of the fitted signal, (the fitting curve)
- calibrated and fitting frequencies,
- fitting parameters, and
- UTC hour for the beginning of each 10 min interval.

The format is that generated by Numpy, a Python-based package (<http://www.numpy.org>). As explained in Rodríguez-Camacho et al. (2018), there are 11 fitting parameters in the Lorentzian fitting function: 3 individual mode amplitudes, 3 resonant frequencies, 3 half peak widths and 2 parameters corresponding to the linear part (the slope and the intercept). Once this fitting curve has been obtained, the global mode amplitudes are obtained as the value of the function at resonant frequencies. Also, from the maximum values of the fitting curve, we get the local maximum amplitudes, and the frequencies at which these maximum values appear are the local maximum frequencies. The local maximum amplitudes, together with the local maximum frequencies, will be used for the long-term analysis as they best describe the global behavior of the SRs. They will be noted as P_i (local maximum amplitudes) and fp_i (local maximum frequencies), the subindex i representing the mode ($i=1,2,3$). The integral of the power spectrum over the fitting bandwidth (6.35 - 23.75 Hz) has also been included as a parameter for the study as the power spectrum integral (PSI) of the magnetic field recorded in each sensor.

As commented above, the study of the regular variations of the SRs is based on the fitting parameters obtained by the Lorentzian fit, calculated for each 10-min interval records. For some intervals, the parameter values are unacceptable. This can be due to different reasons (strong lightning activity near the station, bad performance of the Lorentzian fitting algorithm, etc). For this reason, a mask is used to discard the 10-min intervals for which the values of the amplitudes

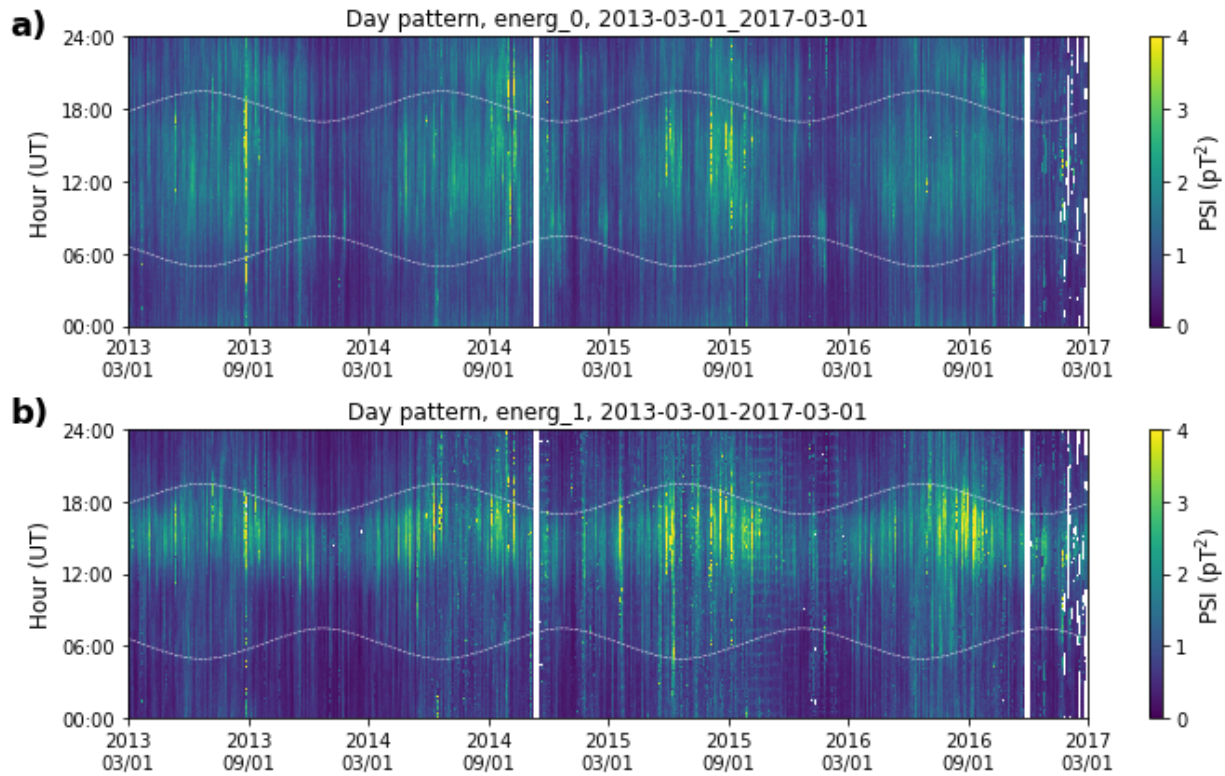
or the central frequencies are unacceptable. The acceptable values for the amplitudes and for the central frequencies are shown in Table 1.

	P_1 (pT/sqrt(Hz))	fp_1 (Hz)	P_2 (pT/sqrt(Hz))	fp_2 (Hz)	P_3 (pT/sqrt(Hz))	fp_3 (Hz)
Lower limit	0.13 - 0.10	6.80 - 6.70	0.10 - 0.08	13.18 - 12.82	0.08 - 0.08	19.15 - 18.40
Upper limit	0.80 - 0.80	8.35 - 8.22	0.80 - 0.80	15.19 - 14.98	0.80 - 0.80	21.98 - 22.60

Table 1. Lowest and highest acceptable values for the local maximum amplitudes (P_1 , P_2 , P_3) and the local maximum frequencies (fp_1 , fp_2 , fp_3) for the three first modes. In each cell, the first and the second values correspond, respectively, to the NS and to the EW components.

In order to have a global picture of the data recorded by the Sierra Nevada ELF station, the power spectrum integral (PSI) is shown in Figure 1 for both sensors. The days are represented in the horizontal axis and the 10 min intervals of the day are represented in the vertical axis. The PSI values are shown using the colormap on the right side of the chart. The dashed white line indicates the dusk and dawn times. Vertical white lines correspond to missing data.

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203 **Figure 1.** Power spectrum integral (PSI) for the recordings at Sierra Nevada ELF station, from
 204 03/2013 to 02/2017.

205 3 DIURNAL VARIATIONS

206 3.1 DIURNAL VARIATIONS FOR SEASONAL PERIODS

207 The local maximum amplitudes of each horizontal magnetic field component are shown
 208 in Figure 2 for each mode through a day (diurnal variations), averaged within each one of the 4
 209 astronomical seasons for the period of 4 years (from March 2013 to February 2017). A
 210 comparison of the amplitude of each magnetic field component with those shown in Zhou et al.
 211 (2013) from ELF stations located in China, the proximity of the MC thunderstorms make the
 212 amplitude in the Chinese stations be higher than in the Sierra Nevada station. The amplitude
 213 obtained in Sierra Nevada station oscillates between 0.20 and 0.45 pT/sqrt(Hz) whereas in Zhou
 214 et al. (2013) it oscillates between 0.4 and 1.2 pT/sqrt(Hz). The different thunderstorm chimneys
 215 and their impact on each component of the horizontal magnetic field can be clearly noted. It can
 216 be seen that the African thunderstorms are dominant about 1500 UT in the EW component,
 217 whereas in the NS magnetometer the thunderstorms in the Maritime Continent (MC) and
 218 America are detected with intensity peaks at 1030 and 2000 UT respectively, although the exact
 219 maximum time varies with the season.

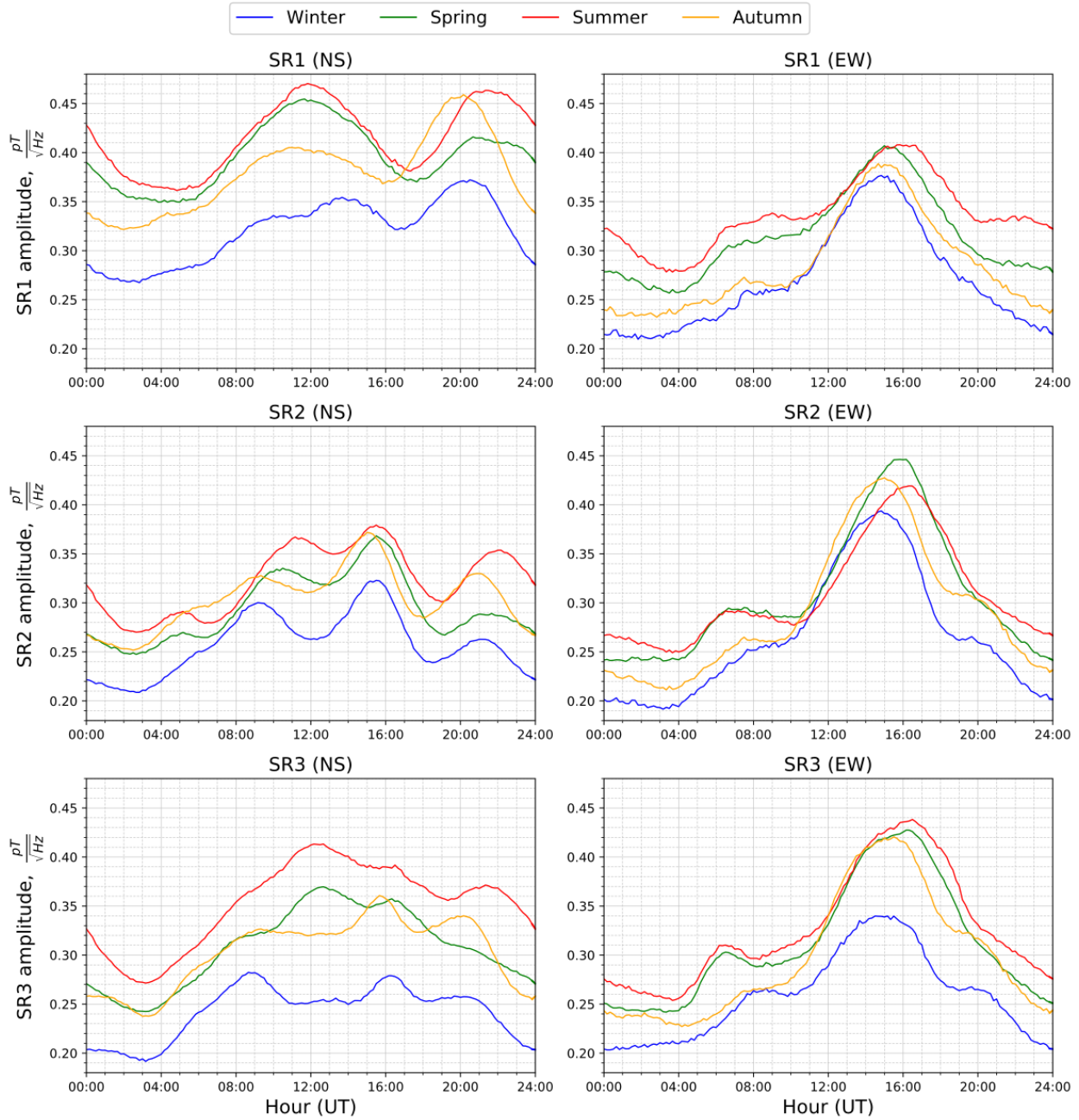
220 In the NS component the MC activity starts rising at 0400 UT and hits a maximum about
 221 1030 UT for the first mode. This maximum amplitude recorded at Sierra Nevada in this sensor

may be due to the superposition of the MC thunderstorms and other thunderstorms that would be located at an intermediate distance, like India. Other authors, like Price & Melnikov (2004) and Zhou et al. (2013), report that the maximum amplitude for the first mode about 0800 UT corresponds to the MC thunderstorms but this peak does not appear in the Sierra Nevada data. The reason for this may be due to the different years of the data used in the three works. For this chimney, the amplitude is dominant in the summer, followed by the spring, the autumn and far below the winter. This situation also occurs for the American thunderstorms, but this chimney shows more activity in the autumn than in the spring. The time at which this American peak happens has a strong seasonal dependence. The smallest intensity for this chimney is observed in the winter, though it is the most active thunderstorm center in the winter and for the first mode for all the day. In addition, throughout the day a drop in the amplitude of the 2nd and 3rd modes is observed with regard to the 1st mode, and the 2nd and 3rd modes are very sensitive to the African thunderstorms (between 1500 and 1600 UT).

For the EW component, which is more sensitive to the African thunderstorms, the amplitude and shape are similar in the three modes. An amplitude peak is observed in the three modes about 1500 UT and it has a stronger activity in the summer for the 1st and the 3rd modes, whereas the 2nd mode is higher in the spring. A change in the time of this maximum is observed when the seasons change. It goes from 1600 to 1500 UT from the summer, spring, autumn and winter, and its amplitude also decreases in this order (except in the 2nd mode, for which summer and spring exchange maximum amplitudes as previously noted). This peak in the summer, due to the African thunderstorms, cannot be justified by the lightning observations in Blakeslee (2014), where the African thunderstorms have a minimum activity in the summer. This discrepancy could be due to the different years used for observation in both studies. The EW magnetometer also collects a minor peak about 0600 UT, observed mainly in summer and spring, which could be connected to the nighttime thunderstorms in Africa (Belyaev et al., 1999). This nighttime peak is also present in Price & Melnikov (2004).

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Seasonal variation of SR1, SR2 and SR3 global amplitudes, 2013-03-01 - 2017-03-01



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251 **Figure 2.** Diurnal variations of the peak amplitudes (global maximum amplitudes) for the three
 252 first modes (SR1, SR2 and SR3), in the different seasons over the recording period (2013-2017).
 253 The left column corresponds to the NS magnetometer and the right one to the EW magnetometer.
 254 Each row corresponds to a different mode (SR1, SR2 and SR3).

255 The diurnal variations of the mode central frequencies (the local maximum frequencies)
 256 for the first three modes, seasonally averaged, are shown in Figure 3. These variations of the

central frequencies are linked to the source-observer geometry (e.g., Toledo-Redondo et al., 2010, 2016). For both sensors, the minimum and maximum frequencies observed depend a lot on the mode, the hour of the day and the temporal definitions of the seasons themselves, as it will be shown below. In the Sierra Nevada records, unlike in other ELF stations (Price & Melnikov, 2004; Zhou et al., 2013), there is not a strong seasonal dependence of the diurnal frequency variation. A transition from ‘winter-type’ to ‘summer-type’ diurnal frequency variation is not observed.

Seasonal variation of SR1, SR2 and SR3 central frequencies, 2013-03-01 - 2017-03-01

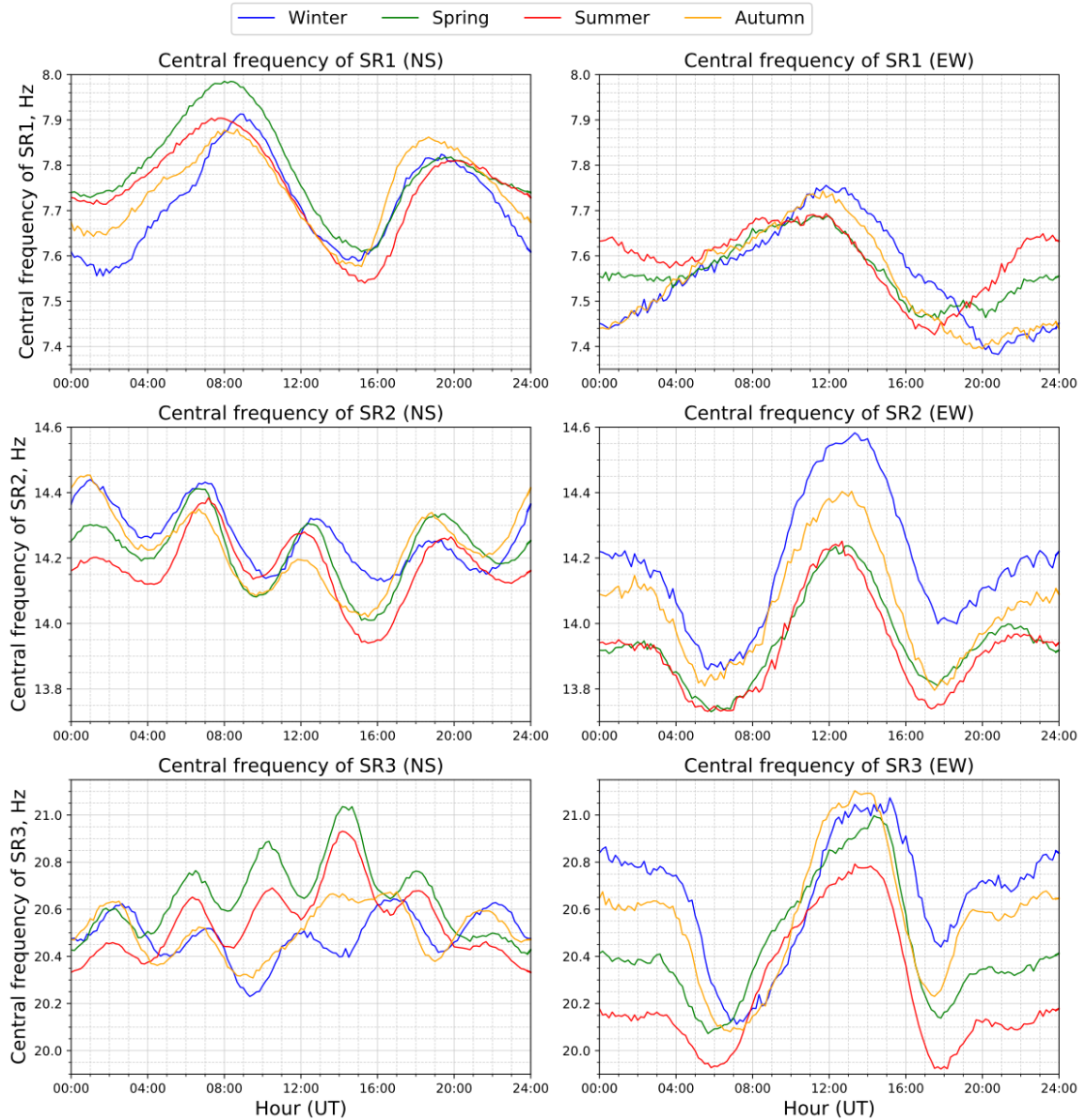


Figure 3. Diurnal variations of the central frequencies (global maximum frequencies) for the three first modes, in the different seasons over the recording period (2013-2017). The

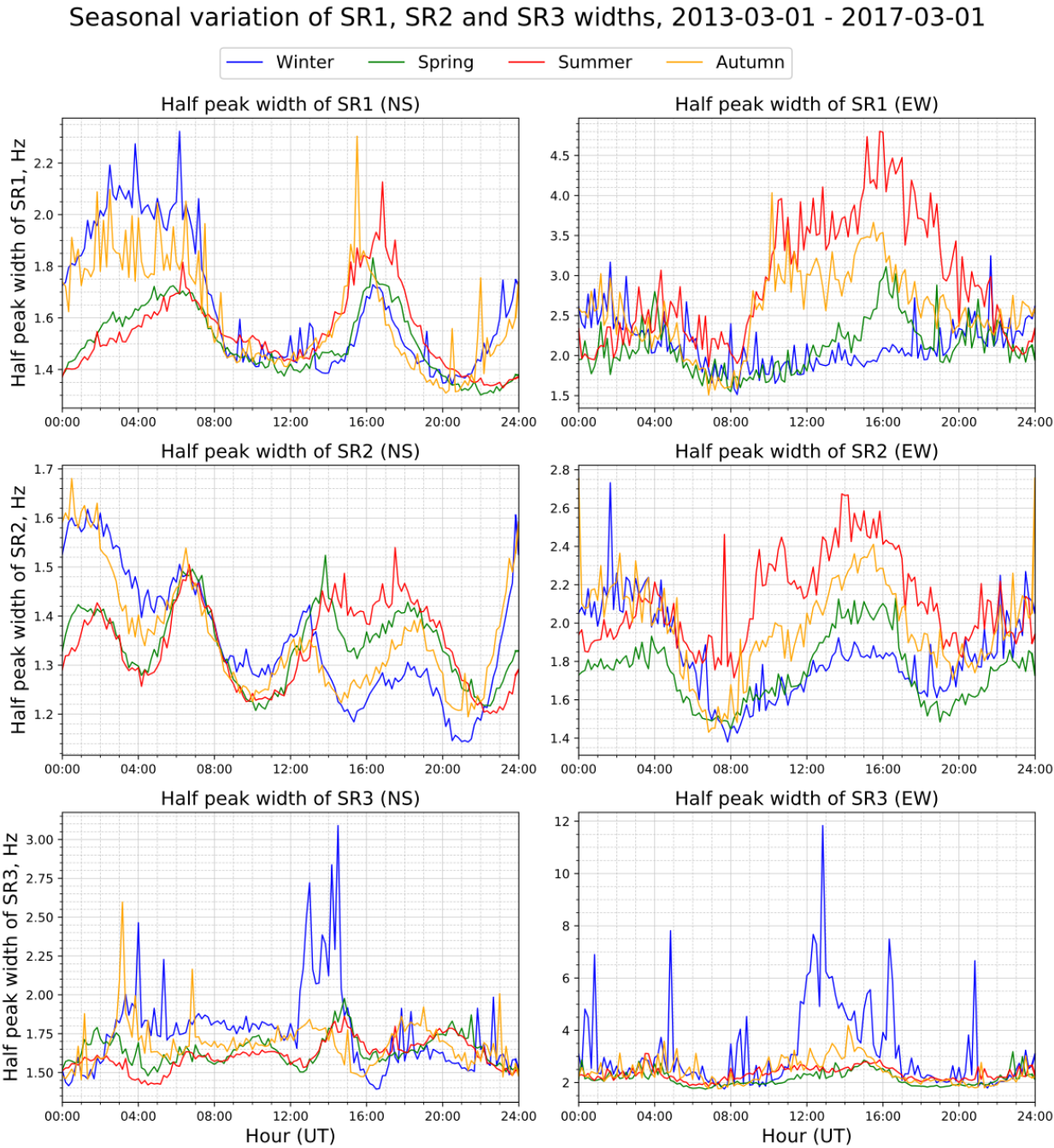
left column corresponds to the NS magnetometer and the right one to the EW magnetometer. Each row corresponds to a different mode (SR1, SR2 and SR3).

The analysis of the resonant peak frequency diurnal variations shows a different behavior for the NS and EW components. For the NS component, the number of maxima and minima observed increases by two for each mode, starting from two maxima and two minima for the first mode. The first mode frequency is highest about 0800 UT and 2000 UT, and lowest about 0300 UT and 1500-1600 UT. These maxima and minima are also observed in the second mode at the same times, together with two more maxima about 0100 UT and 1200 UT and two more minima about 1000 UT and 2300 UT. In the second mode, more evident distinctions appear among the different seasons, but the general pattern is still conserved. However, for the third mode there is a clear distinction between the spring-summer seasons and the autumn-winter seasons. It is remarkable that the third mode frequency is highest about 1400 UT in spring-summer while it shows a relative minimum in winter at the same hour.

For the EW component the diurnal peak frequency variation for the three modes reflects a rather similar pattern, with a remarkable maximum value. The highest frequency appears at 1200 UT, 1300 UT and 1400 UT respectively, for each mode in all season. Also, a relative maximum is seen around 0000 UT that, for the first mode, is highest in the summer and it is smaller, in a decreasing order, in spring, autumn and winter. For the second and third modes, the order is reversed. Minimum frequencies appear about 0600-0700 UT and 1800 UT for the second and the third modes, while for the first mode there is a clear lowest that occurs about 1700 UT in spring-summer and about 2000 and 2100 UT in autumn and winter respectively.

Regarding the widths of the resonances, they show a more fluctuating behavior than the other parameters. In Figure 4, it can be observed that these fluctuations do not depend much on the season and they are similar for both NS and EW components. The widths are higher for the EW sensor than for the NS sensor for all the modes. It is lowest in the second mode. For the third mode, in the winter, several peaks are observed in the width in the EW sensor: it shows values around or higher than 7 Hz, whereas it shows values between 3 and 3.5 Hz in the other seasons.

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Figure 4. Diurnal variations of the widths of the resonances for the three first modes, in the different seasons over the recording period (2013-2017). The left column corresponds to the NS magnetometer and the right one to the EW magnetometer. Each row corresponds to a different mode (SR1, SR2 and SR3).

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An analysis of the power spectrum integral (PSI) is shown in Figure 5 for the different seasons. This parameter is sensitive (in a nonlinear way) to the contributions of the three modes,

thus it can be a good indicator to be compared to the direct lightning observations from satellites, like that presented in Blakeslee et al. (2014). As in previous results, we can observe in sensor NS the activation of the thunderstorms in North America in the summer and autumn and in South America in the winter about 2100; with respect to the Asian thunderstorms (mainly observed in the NS sensor) they are maximum in the summer and the spring and we can also see the activation of Australian thunderstorms in the winter about 0800 UT. There are though some differences between the observations via satellite and those obtained from the SRs: the peak detected in the EW sensor about 0500 UT in the summer and spring (which possibly comes from African thunderstorms, as it has been commented previously) does not appear in Blakeslee et al. (2014); in the EW sensor, the African thunderstorms cause a maximum around 1600 UT in the (boreal) summer, whereas in Blakeslee et al. (2014) they show a minimum activity in the (boreal) summer.

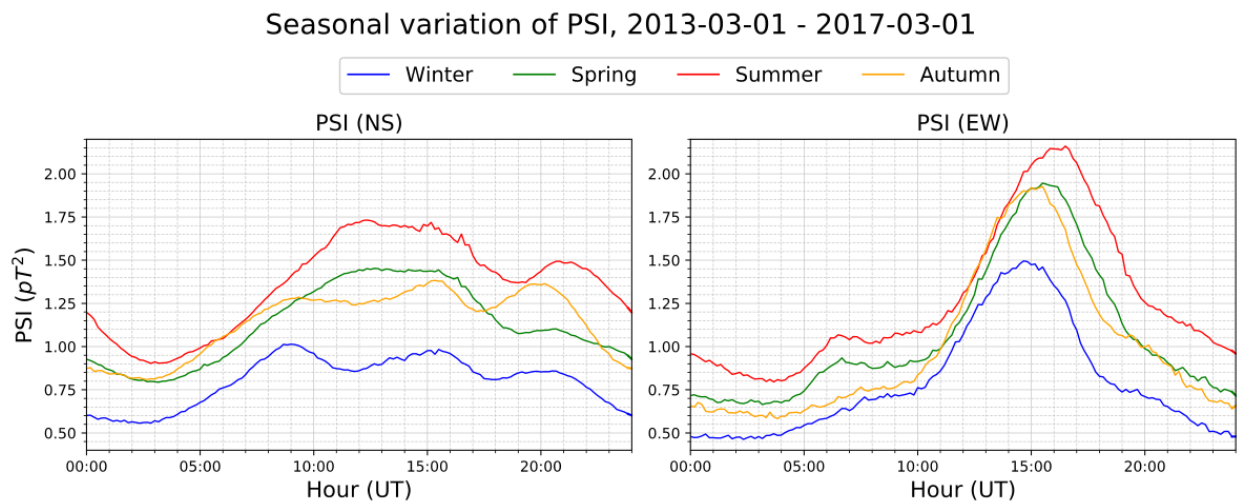


Figure 5. Diurnal variations of the power spectrum integral (PSI) for the different seasons over the recording period (2013-2017), in the frequency range 6.35 – 23.75 Hz. The left chart corresponds to the NS magnetometer and the right one to the EW magnetometer.

A definition of ‘Electromagnetic Seasons’ (EM) based on SR measurements and a numerical model is made in Nickolaenko et al. (2015). The summer is set to last from June to September, the winter is set to last from February until March, and the rest of months belong to the spring or to the autumn. The diurnal variations seasonally averaged, taking into account the setting of the seasons made by Nickolaenko et al. (2015), are shown in Figure 6 for the PSI parameter. It is interesting to compare the diurnal variations of the different parameters for both sets of seasons, the astronomical seasons in Figure 5 to the electromagnetic seasons in Figure 6. It can be noted that the seasonally averaged diurnal variations are in phase for the different

seasons, i.e. the maxima and minima appear at the same UT hour for all seasons. A clear difference between EM summer and the other EM seasons is also clearly shown.

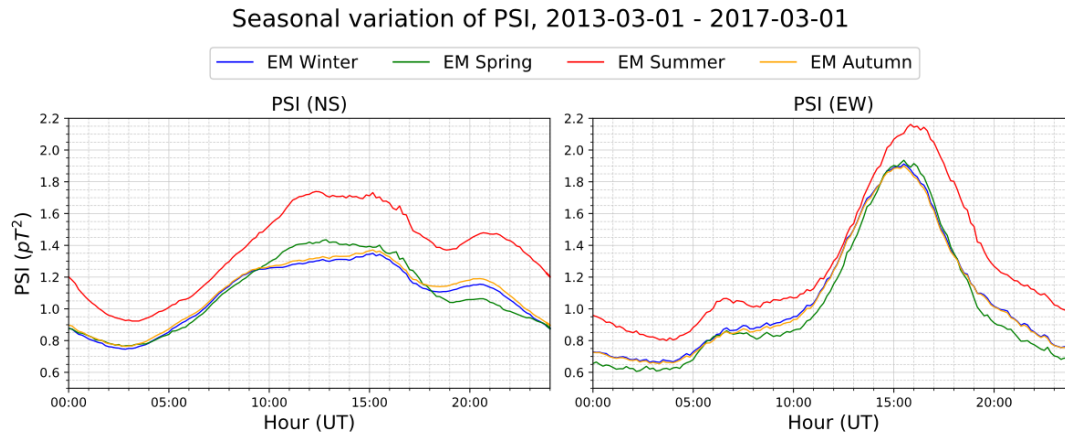


Figure 6. Diurnal variations of the power spectrum integral (PSI) for the different electromagnetic seasons over the recording period (2013-2017). The left chart corresponds to the NS magnetometer and the right one to the EW magnetometer.

3.2 ANNUAL DIURNAL VARIATIONS

Another interesting indicator is the study of the diurnal variations of a parameter for a specific month over different years. The diurnal variations for the months of September, December and February are shown in Figure 7 over several years for which the recordings at the Sierra Nevada station are available. The parameter plotted is the first mode peak amplitude for each one of the horizontal components. This figure is similar to (c), (d) and (e) in figure 3 in E. Williams et al. (2021). More precisely, Figure 7 is similar to the plot of the data from Eskdalemuir station, located in a similar latitude to the Sierra Nevada station, with the only difference that the amplitude in the EW component was slightly higher in February 2016, than in 2014. These results confirm the conclusions on an intensification of the SRs during the transition months that precede the super El Niño episode that happened at the end of 2015 and the beginning of 2016. We can note an intensification of the SRs in September 2014, with a maximum intensification from December 2014 to February 2015. We can also confirm a decrease in the thunderstorm activity in the declining phase of the phenomenon in February 2016, though in Sierra Nevada this decrease is lower in the EW sensor than that observed in the Eskdalemuir station (Williams et al., 2021).

Another interesting result is related to the power spectrum integral (PSI). In Figure 8 the NS component is shown and it can be observed that two different patterns can be noted. One of them corresponds to the autumn-winter, where the three main thunderstorm centers are observed, with a predominance of the MC center in winter and American center in autumn. The other one corresponds to the summer, where African thunderstorms are dominant. However, in Figure 9, for the EW component -the most sensitive to Africa- and over the different years of recording,

the pattern repeats all the months with only a slight reduction in the maximum during winter months, especially in December and January.

In Figures 8 and 9 it can be noted that the differences among the years last for the whole day, i.e., when a parameter is higher than usual for a certain year, it is higher for every time of the day. This feature is observed in all the parameters analyzed, even those not shown in these figures. This could indicate that there is some mechanism that affects SR on a global scale.

SR1 amplitude diurnal variations

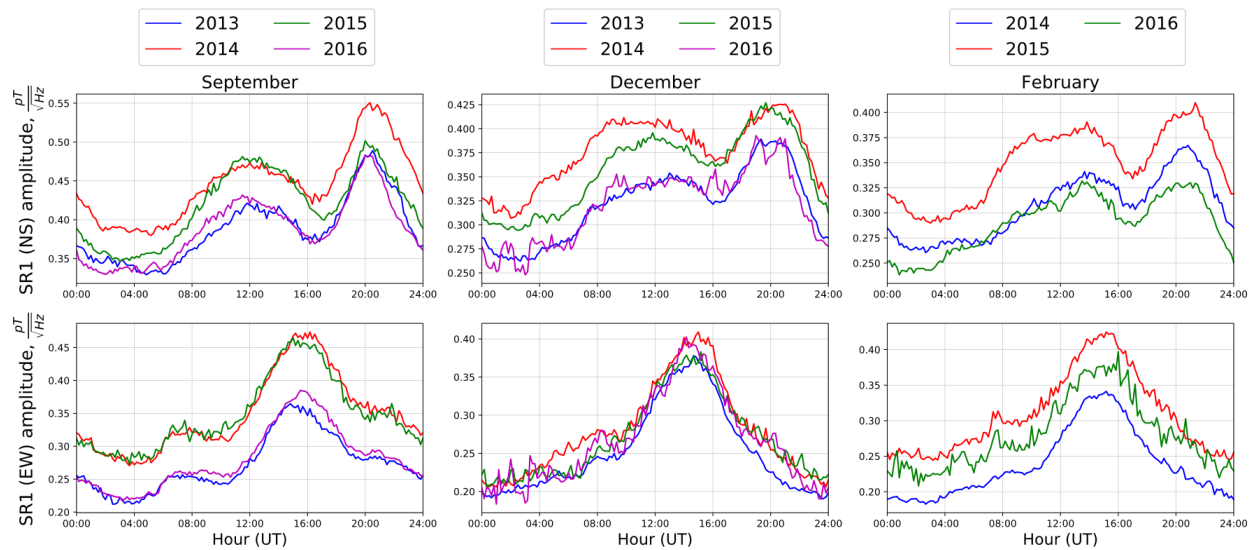
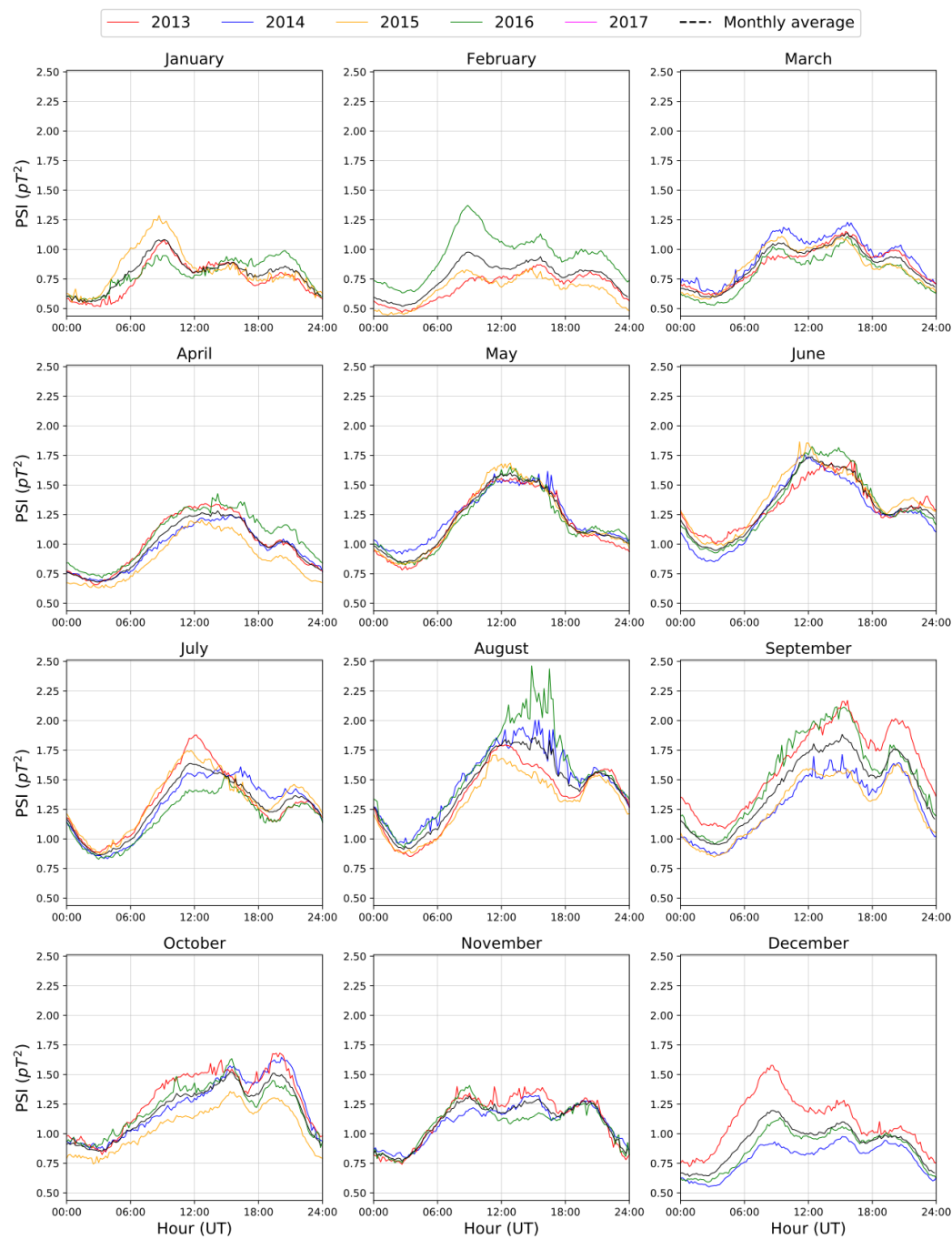


Figure 7. First mode peak amplitude annual diurnal variations for each one of the horizontal components for the months of September, December and February, for several years.

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Figure 8. Monthly averaged diurnal variations of the power spectrum integral (PSI) during the whole recording period of the station for the NS sensors.

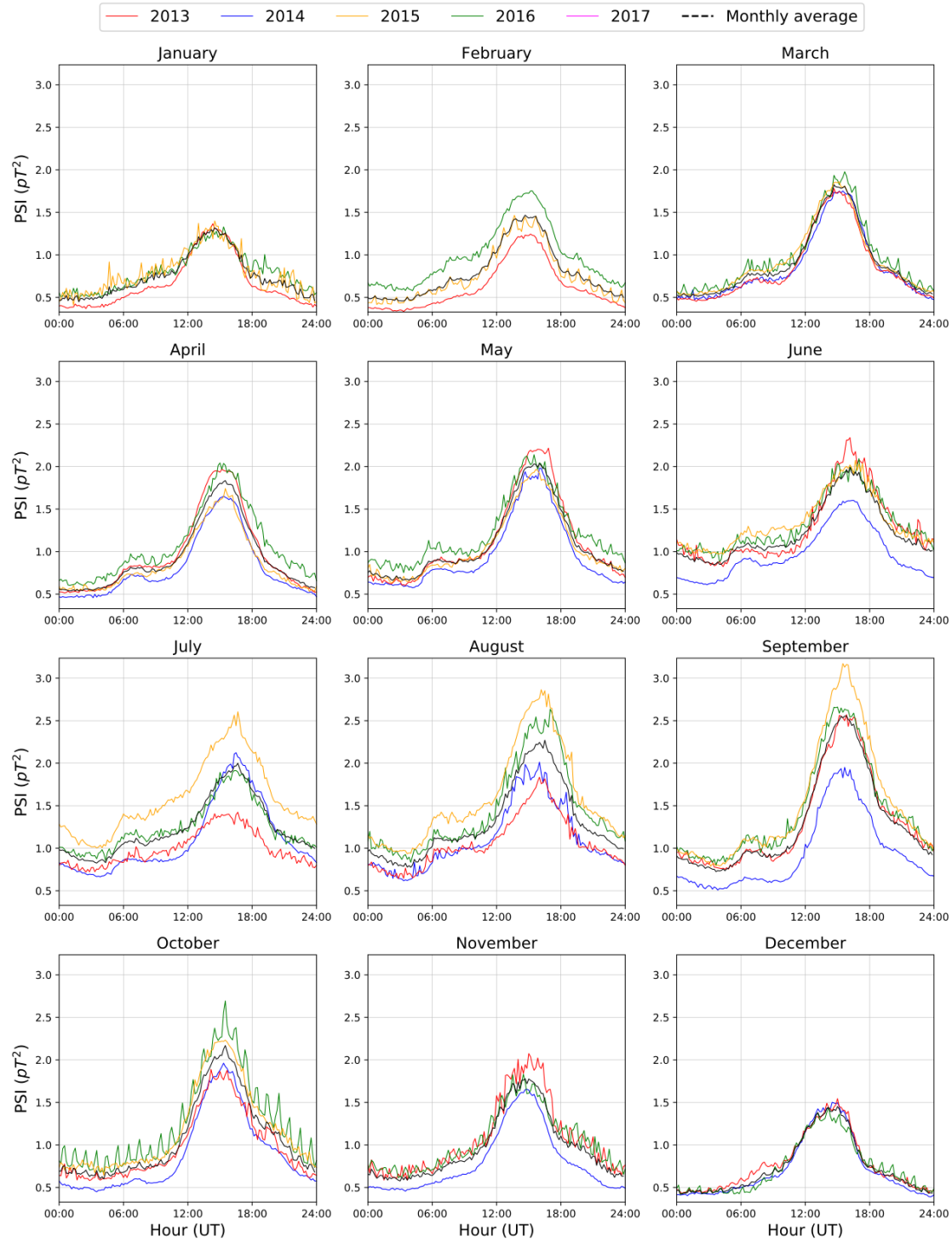


Figure. 9. Monthly averaged diurnal variations of the power spectrum integral (PSI) during the whole recording period of the station for the EW sensors.

4 DAILY VARIATIONS

After studying the diurnal variations, the evolution of the parameters over the time will be addressed by averaging their values for a certain time span, which will range from 1 to 6 months. In all the cases, the variation of this average is shown for the 4 years for which the records are available.

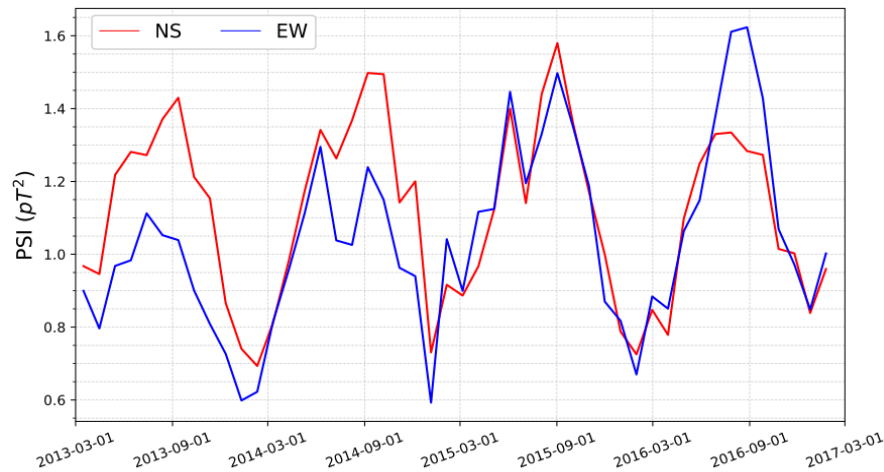


Figure 10. Power Spectrum Integral (PSI) averaged every 30 days, for both NS (red) and EW (blue) components.

The PSI for both NS and EW sensors, averaged every 30 days, is shown in Figure 10. Three clear periods can be observed. The first one goes from 2013 to the beginning of 2015, where the NS component amplitude exceeds the EW one. The second period extends over almost the whole 2015, where both components have the same amplitude. The third period begins in 2016, and the EW amplitude exceeds the NS one. It is difficult to determine which thunderstorms centers are most active from the PSI observations, since the contribution of the different modes varies with each center due to the source-observer distance. But it is clear that from the end of 2014 to the beginning of 2015 there was a transition period in which the source of the SRs changed. These results agree with the ENS-ONI Index values presented in Williams et al. (2021), since this period corresponds to a transition year from the Niña period to the Super El Niño phenomenon.

In order to study the inter annual parameter variations and to correlate them to different phenomena in this time scale (e.g. the solar cycle), the mode peak frequency variations are shown in Figure 11 for the three modes, semi-annually averaged, to identify the referred inter annual variations. We can see some of the conclusions in Koloskov et al. (2020), connected to a tracking of the first mode resonant frequency and the 11-years cycle solar activity, during a period of large solar activity (2011 to 2017), which had a rise in 2014. The evolution of the peak frequency for the first mode presented in Figure 11, upper row, is very similar to that in figure

1.c in Koloskov et al. (2020), though the 24th solar cycle is not detected in the records at Sierra Nevada.

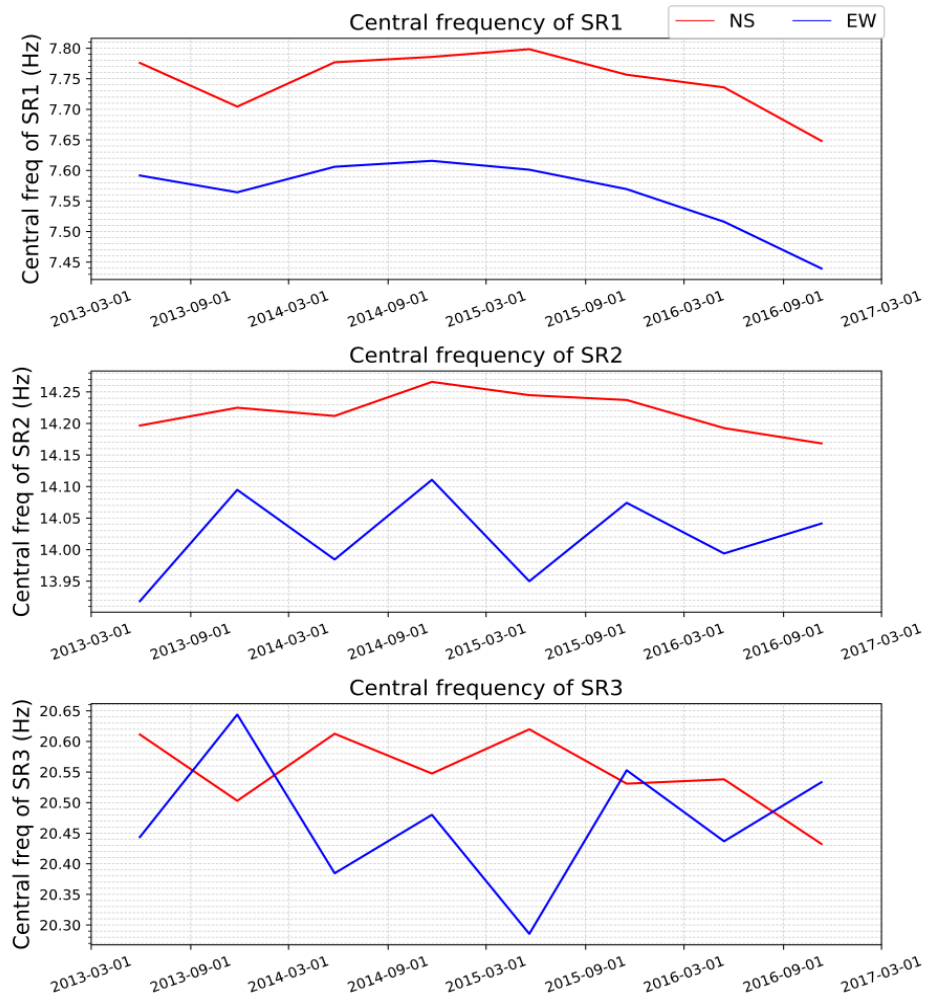


Figure 11. Peak frequency daily variations averaged for a 180 days time span for both NS (red) and EW (blue) sensors. Each row corresponds to a mode, from the first to the third respectively.

Regarding the peak frequencies for the second and third modes it can be noted, in the semi-annually averaged data, that the frequencies also tend to decrease during the years except for the sensor EW in the third mode, when a notable rise occurs in 2016, but it is soon followed

by a new decreasing trend. In these modes, in particular for the EW sensor, a steady semi-annual periodicity is observed in the maxima and the minima of the peak frequency.

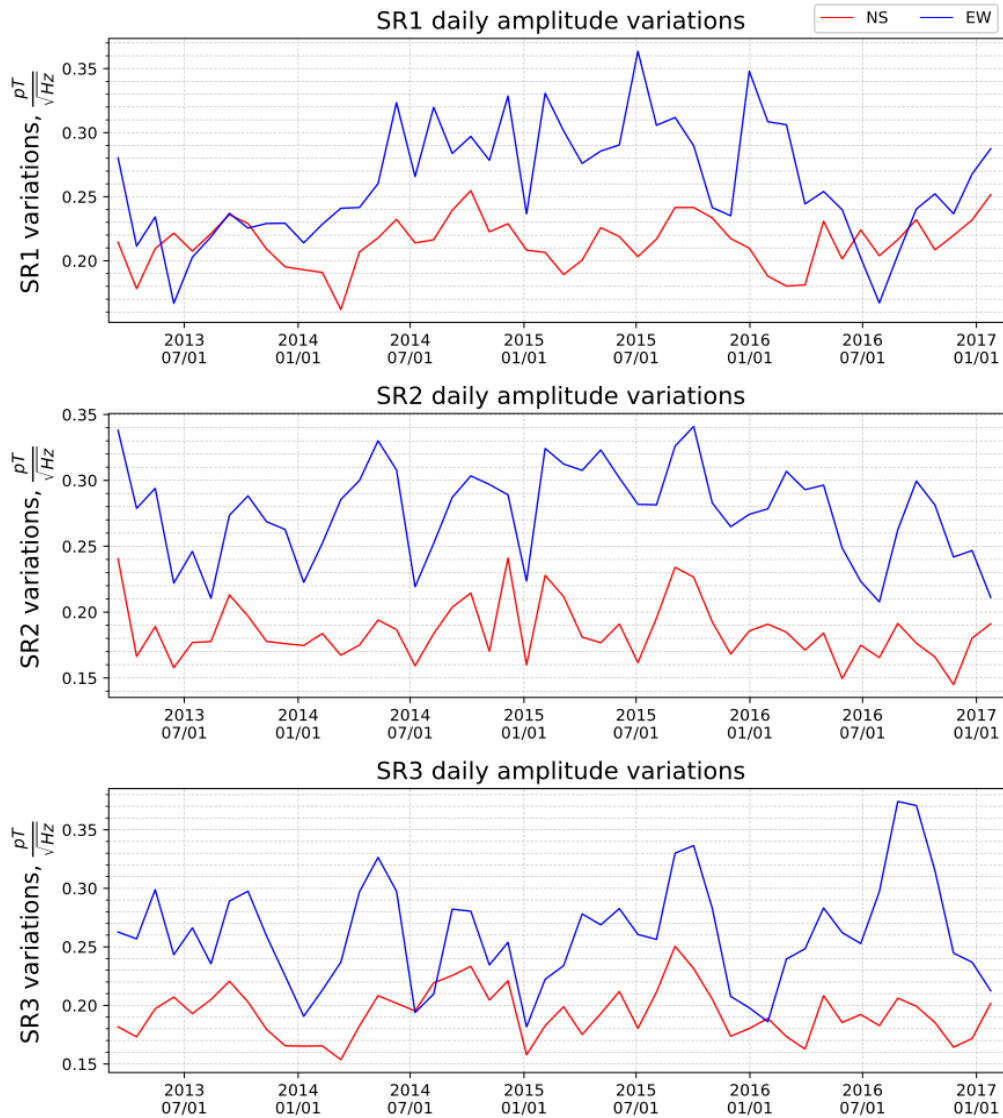


Figure 12. Daily variations of the peak amplitudes, averaged over 30 days, for the three first modes SR1, SR2 and SR3, in the first, the second and the third row, respectively. The NS sensor is plotted in red, and the EW sensor is in blue.

Another relevant concern about the time evolution of the different parameters is the minimum to maximum range of their diurnal variations. The variation of the first mode frequency for the electric field has been linked to the size of the thunderstorm center, but there is not a theoretical base on the magnetic field parameters. Figures 12 and 13 show the peak and frequency daily ranges respectively. We can see that for a 30 days average, the variations that show all the parameters in all the modes are higher for the EW sensor than for the NS sensor. In

the EW sensor we can clearly see an increase in the variations of the central frequency of the second mode in the year 2015. It can also be noted that no annual variations are observed in any parameter.

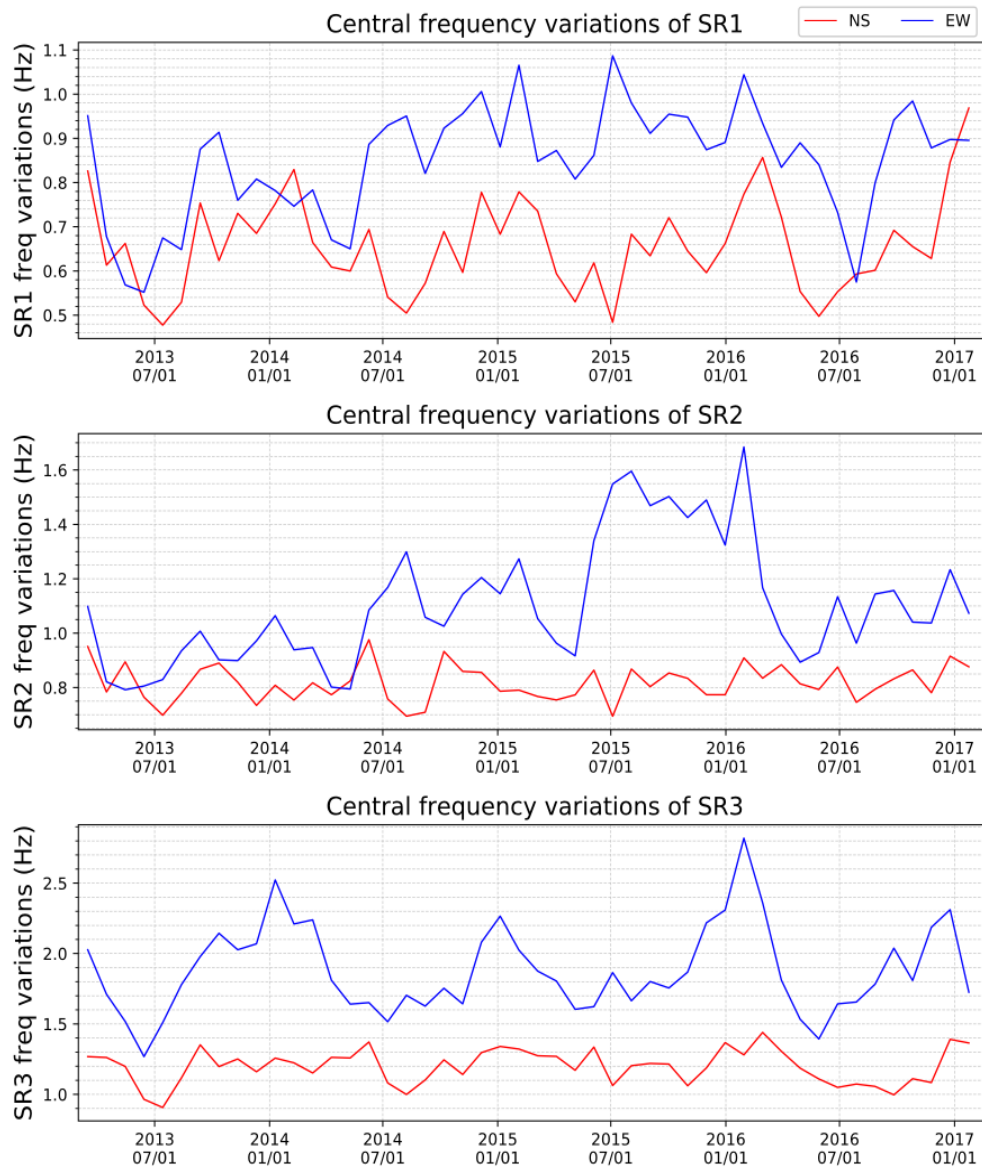


Figure 13. Daily variations of the central frequencies, averaged over 30 days, for the three first modes SR1, SR2 and SR3, in the first, the second and the third row, respectively. The NS sensor is plotted in red, and the EW sensor is in blue.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this work we present a detailed analysis of the regular variations of the Schumann resonances during the period March 2013 – February 2017, using Sierra Nevada station (37°02'N, 3°19'W) ground-based magnetometers. Each component of the magnetic field measured has been processed by fitting Lorentzian functions to the amplitude spectrum, in a bandwidth of (6.35-23.75) Hz, for each 10 minutes interval of data. The regular variations of the SRs have been studied using the following parameters: peak amplitudes, central frequencies, the widths of the resonances and the power spectrum integral (PSI) for the three first modes. The processed data for the entire measurement period of the station made public along with this work, and they are presented in a Numpy npz format, which allows easy reading and subsequent processing.

The main findings can be summarized as follows:

1. The general characteristics of the three main storm centers on Earth, Africa, CM and America, in terms of their diurnal evolution have been confirmed. There is a predominance of stormy activity in summer and minimal in winter. The first exhibits the larger intensity and the second the longest daily duration. An additional activation time, around 06:00 UT, is observed for African storm center.
2. SR2 and SR3 diurnal peak amplitudes of the NS sensor are very sensitive to the African storm center. Diurnal peak amplitudes of SR1-3 in the EW sensor are similar in shape, while for NS sensor the shape changes for each mode. Regarding the diurnal variation of the frequency, a very different pattern is observed between the EW and NS sensors, but no strong seasonal variations are observed. Sierra Nevada measurements do not exhibit a transition from winter-type to summer-type variations in the diurnal variations of the central frequencies. Since that parameter is related to the source-observer distance (e.g. Toledo-Redondo et al., 2016), different stations are expected to exhibit different seasonal patterns. The widths of the resonances are highly fluctuating and it is very difficult to draw conclusions from the measurements. It is observed that the widths are greater for the EW sensor than for the NS.
3. The peak amplitudes of diurnal averages measured by Sierra Nevada station are roughly half of the peak amplitudes reported by the stations in China. This difference can be attributed to the relative distance of each station to the storm centers. In addition, Sierra Nevada station does not detect a peak in activity around 08:00 UT, that activity is shifted to 10:30 UT. This may be explained by the different years considered in our study, but this requires further investigation.
4. The African storm center exhibits maximums of activity during boreal summer, according to our SR records. This is not well supported by global lightning data from satellites (e.g., Blakeslee (2014)). A unified database involving several stations around the globe would be desirable to further test these results.
5. Diurnal variations of PSI evolve with electromagnetic seasons rather than astronomical seasons.

6. Predictions by Williams et al. (2021) about the effect of El Niño on SR are confirmed in our first mode peak amplitude annual diurnal variations measurements. There are also variations between EW and NS sensors: the former shows a repeating pattern every month, while the latter has different patterns during summer and winter months.
7. We find signatures in our daily variations study of the Super El Niño phenomenon during 2015 and 2016, as indicated by Williams et al. (2021). We also find evidence of the solar cycle influence to SR, as in Koloskov et al. (2020).
8. Daily variations of different parameters are stronger for EW sensor than for NS sensor.

Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data

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