

## Quasi-Diurnal Lunar Tide $O_1$ in Ionospheric Total Electron Content at Solar Minimum

**Key Points:**

- Geographical and seasonal distribution of  $O_1$  tidal amplitude is derived from world maps of ionospheric total electron content
- $O_1$  component is maximal in northern hemispheric winter over west coast of South America with maxima northward and southward of magnetic equator
- Quasi-diurnal  $O_1$  tide is as strong as the semidiurnal lunar  $M_2$  tide in the ionosphere

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**Abstract** For the first time, characteristics of the geographical and seasonal distribution of the quasi-diurnal lunar  $O_1$  tide were derived from a time series of ionospheric total electron content (TEC) maps provided by International Global Navigation Satellite System Service (IGS). The data analysis is focused on solar minimum in 2008 and 2009 where disturbing influences of geomagnetic and solar activity were minimal. We found that the magnitude of the  $O_1$  tide is as strong as the “dominant” semidiurnal lunar  $M_2$  tide. Relative amplitudes of 10% and larger are observed in some regions for the  $O_1$  component in TEC. The  $O_1$  component is particularly strong in northern hemispheric winter over the west coast of South America. There, two maxima occur which are northward and southward of the magnetic equator in the Equatorial Ionization Anomaly (EIA) crest regions. Following Yamazaki et al. (2017, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017ja024601>), it might be assumed that a longitudinal anomaly of ionospheric conductivities in the Peruvian sector leads to a stronger modulation of the equatorial electrojet by the lunar tides. Electrodynamic lifting of plasma and transport to the EIA crests may explain the variations of the  $O_1$  component in TEC. Contrary to many studies, we find the  $O_1$  component (period 25.82 hr) more important than the  $M_1$  component (period 24.84 hr, a lunar day). We show that the geographical distribution of the  $O_1$  component is totally different from that of the  $M_1$  component which is smaller. The seasonal variation of  $O_1$  shows maximal amplitudes in northern hemispheric winter and minimal amplitudes in southern hemispheric winter.

### 1. Introduction

The quasi-diurnal lunar  $O_1$  tide is observed in the ocean (e.g., sea level), in the atmosphere (e.g., surface pressure), in the ionosphere (e.g., electron density) and in the geomagnetic field at ground and in space. The  $O_1$  tide is mainly due to the declination of the Moon. The period of the  $O_1$  component is at about 25.82 hr according to a list of oceanic tidal constituents derived from tidal theory in Li (2022). The same period of the  $O_1$  component was also found in a spectral analysis of a long-term time series of ground magnetometer data in Honolulu (Love & Rigler, 2014). In addition, the same period has been observed in ionospheric  $F_2$  region electron density maximum  $NmF2$  data at Okinawa (Hocke et al., 2024). The period of  $O_1$  is different from a lunar day (24.84 hr) since the gravitational potential depends on both, the Moon and the Sun. In so far, the term luni-solar variation is often used for the lunar tidal variations (Malin & Chapman, 1970a).

The present study is focused on the  $O_1$  tide which shows up in ionospheric total electron content. The plasma variation is due to the ionospheric dynamo due to the interactions of tidal neutral winds with the ionospheric layer. In addition, tidal breaking and dissipation in the lower thermosphere and thermal conduction induce temperature variations in the ionosphere and thermosphere which have an effect on the recombination rate of ions (Zolotukhina et al., 2011). Tidal breaking has a mixing effect on the neutral composition of the thermosphere, which affects the production and loss rates of ionospheric plasmas (Yamazaki & Richmond, 2013). The mixing effect is now considered to be an important mechanism for tidal influences on the ionosphere (Oberheide et al., 2020; Pedatella et al., 2016). The upward propagating  $O_1$  tide in the atmosphere is supposed to have a large vertical equivalent depth of 26.5 km of the Hough eigenfunction (Tarpley, 1971). The vertical wavelength of the  $O_1$  tide is about 300 km in the dynamo region, so that a considerable ionospheric plasma variation is generated (Tarpley, 1971).

Forbes and Zhang (2019) raised the question if the  $O_1$  tide plays a role in the atmosphere. Indeed, we only found one observational article about a significant atmospheric  $O_1$  tide in surface pressure in Hongkong (Malin & Chapman, 1970b). The lunar tidal potential of the  $O_1$  tide is about 41.5% of those of the semidiurnal  $M_2$  tide

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(Tarpley, 1971). An indication of a strong ionospheric  $O_1$  tide was given by Hocke et al. (2024) who found that the relative amplitude of  $O_1$  in  $NmF2$  is up to 12% for  $O_1$  in winter above Okinawa. This was slightly higher than for the coincident observation of the semidiurnal lunar  $M_2$  tide which is much better investigated than the  $O_1$  tide in the ionosphere. Jones and Jones (1950) found a diurnal lunar tide in the high-latitude  $F_2$  region by using ionosonde data. Pedatella (2014) also investigated a diurnal lunar tide in the ionosphere. They fitted a sine wave with the period of a lunar day to the observations ( $M_1$  tide). We assume that the results for the  $M_1$  tide are quite different than for the  $O_1$  tide. Pedatella (2014) mentioned that significant contributions of non-migrating components of  $M_2$  were contained in the ionospheric total electron content data.

Evidence for the atmospheric  $O_1$  tide has been obtained in several studies about the geomagnetic  $O_1$  tide. The analysis of geomagnetic lunar tides is complicated since they are generated by tidal electric currents in the ionosphere and in the ocean. The ocean dynamo is due to ions in the sea water which are moved by oceanic tides across the geomagnetic field lines. The generated electric currents contribute to the lunar geomagnetic tides which are observed by magnetometers. Malin (1970) described how the ionospheric and oceanic contributions to the geomagnetic lunar tides can be separated and that both sources generate important contributions to the ground magnetometer measurements. Significant contributions of the atmospheric  $O_1$  tide (via the ionospheric dynamo) were derived from ground magnetometer data in several studies in the 1970s (Arora, 1979; Rao & Sastri, 1974; Winch, 1970).

It was observed and simulated that lunar tides are amplified in the upper atmosphere by the occurrence of sudden stratospheric warmings (SSWs) (Forbes & Zhang, 2012). Yamazaki et al. (2012) found that the geomagnetic lunar tide at the geomagnetic equator is enhanced in 70% of the SSW events. The role of lunar and solar tidal variability in the generation of the ionospheric effects of SSWs is still under investigation. Hocke et al. (2024) observed an increase of the  $O_1$  component in TEC during and after SSWs. The SSW-induced increase of the lunar amplitude is superposed on the general increase of the lunar tidal amplitude during Northern Hemisphere winter.

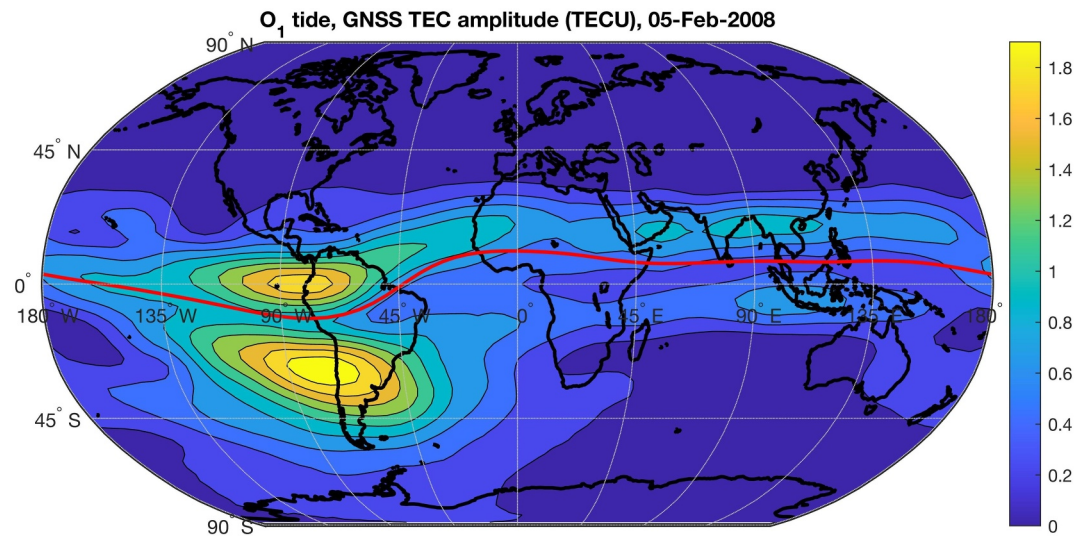
The present article will investigate the behavior of the  $O_1$  tide in ionospheric total electron content. The spectral analysis which we perform does not distinguish between migrating and non-migrating  $O_1$  tides. Our aim is to get a first impression on the global and seasonal distribution of the  $O_1$  tide. We selected the year 2008 at solar minimum in order to have less contaminations from ionospheric effects of solar and geomagnetic activity. Section 2 describes the data set and the data analysis. Section 3 presents the results. The discussion is in Section 4, and conclusions are in Section 5.

## 2. Data Set and Data Analysis

The ionospheric total electron content is monitored by the worldwide network of Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) ground receivers which receive the radio signals of the GNSS satellites. The International GNSS Service (IGS) provides world maps of vertical total electron content (VTEC) with a time resolution of 2 hr and a spatial resolution of  $5^\circ$  in longitude and  $2.5^\circ$  in latitude since 1998. The calculation and the error assessment of these TEC maps were described by Hernández-Pajares et al. (2009). Even over data sparse regions such as the oceans, the relative error of TEC is less than 20% compared to coincident satellite altimeter observations. Pedatella (2014) showed that the TEC maps of IGS can be used for the analysis of lunar tides in ionospheric TEC. In 2008/2009 (used time interval of the present study) the GNSS constellation (used for the TEC maps) consisted of about 31 operational GPS satellites from USA and about 18 operational GLONASS satellites from Russia. The number of IGS ground stations was about 400 (Dow et al., 2009).

The data analysis of the present study is based on Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) spectral analysis. The FFT spectrum is calculated from the TEC time series at each grid point. We select a 10 weeks time interval. The relative fluctuations are computed with respect to the arithmetic mean of the 10 weeks interval of TEC values at a grid point:

$$\Delta TEC_{ij}(t) = \frac{TEC_{ij}(t)}{\langle TEC_{ij}(t) \rangle} \cdot 100 \quad (1)$$



**Figure 1.** Absolute amplitude of the  $O_1$  tide in TEC units. The time interval is at 2008-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator.

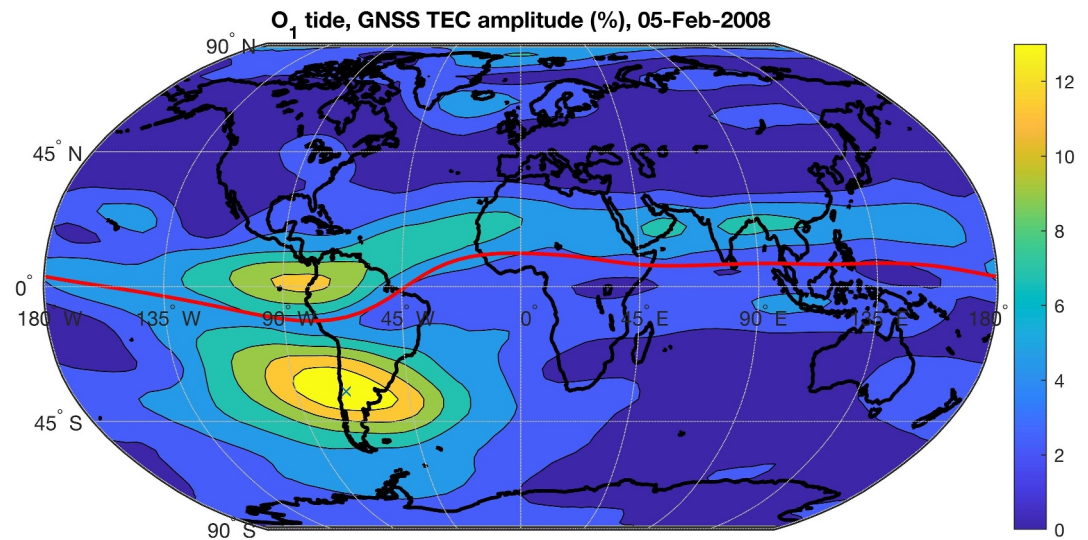
where  $\Delta TEC_{i,j}(t)$  are the relative TEC fluctuations in percent, and  $i, j$  are the indices for the latitude and longitude of the grid point.  $\langle TEC_{i,j}(t) \rangle$  is the 10 weeks arithmetic mean over the time interval from  $t_0 - 5$  weeks to  $t_0 + 5$  weeks.

For absolute and relative TEC variations, we also subtract the arithmetic mean before the data segment is multiplied by a Hamming window. Then, we perform zero padding in order to achieve a high resolution of the FFT frequency grid. At each end of the data segment, we add 4 years with zeros, so that the frequency resolution of the FFT spectrum is  $1.7 \times 10^{-4}$  cycles per day (cpd). In addition, we tested with artificial sine waves (outgoing from similar 10 weeks interval of signal series as above) that the diurnal lunar tides  $O_1, M_1, M_2$  and the solar tides  $S_1, S_2$  can be well separated by our FFT analysis method. The involvement of the GNSS satellite system in the derivation of tidal constituents can generate aliasing effects due to the revisit time of the GNSS constellation above a certain location on Earth. Biases of the  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  tidal constituents in sea level rise were found when the tidal measurements of tide gauges were compared to results of GNSS interferometric reflectometry (Peng et al., 2024). Note that the period of  $K_1$  is equal to the GPS revisit period, which is 23.93 hr (one side-real day), and the period of  $K_2$  is 11.97 hr, coinciding with the GPS orbital period. However, in the literature, there are no reports about possible biases for the  $O_1$  tidal constituent which are resulting from the orbit parameters of the GNSS. Forbes and Zhang (2019) reported that the  $M_2$  tide might be aliased by the  $O_1$  tide but this is because they only used the CHAMP satellite for calculation of the  $M_2$  tide in the upper atmosphere. In case of the present study, we use TEC data sampled by about 49 GNSS satellites. In so far, we are sure that the observed  $O_1$  variation in GNSS TEC of the present study is not an aliasing effect. The  $O_1$  variation was also observed by an ionosonde in Okinawa which does not depend on satellite orbits (Hocke et al., 2024).

Since zero padding and Hamming window reduce the amplitude of a signal in the FFT spectrum, we corrected the amplitude scale by means of an artificial sine wave of known amplitude. The selected FFT analysis of the TEC series is performed for each grid point separately. The disadvantage is that our analysis method does not separate between migrating and nonmigrating tidal components. The advantage is that our spectral analysis does not need assumptions about zonal wave numbers or propagation directions and speeds of the tides. The results of our analysis just show how strong the  $O_1$  component in TEC is for an observer at a given location on ground.

### 3. Results

Figure 1 shows a world map of the absolute amplitude of the  $O_1$  tide in TEC units (TECU). The 10 weeks time interval is centered at 2008-02-05. It is obvious that the  $O_1$  tide is influenced by the geomagnetic field. The red line in Figure 1 depicts the geomagnetic equator, and one can see that the  $O_1$  amplitude has maxima northward and southward of the geomagnetic equator. Further, the  $O_1$  amplitude is maximal at the west coast of South

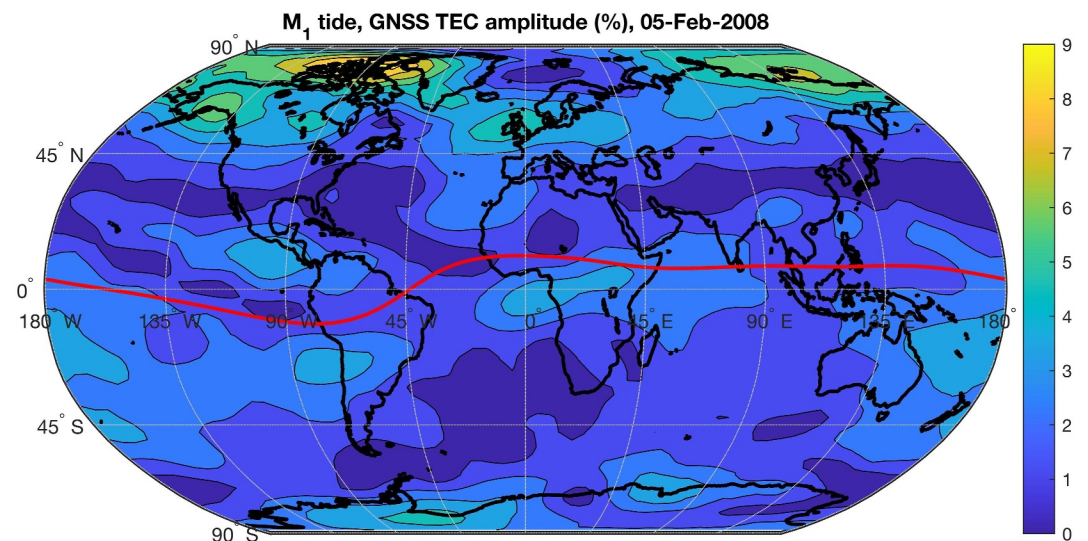


**Figure 2.** Relative amplitude of the O<sub>1</sub> tide in percent. The time interval is at 2008-02-05 ± 5 weeks. The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator.

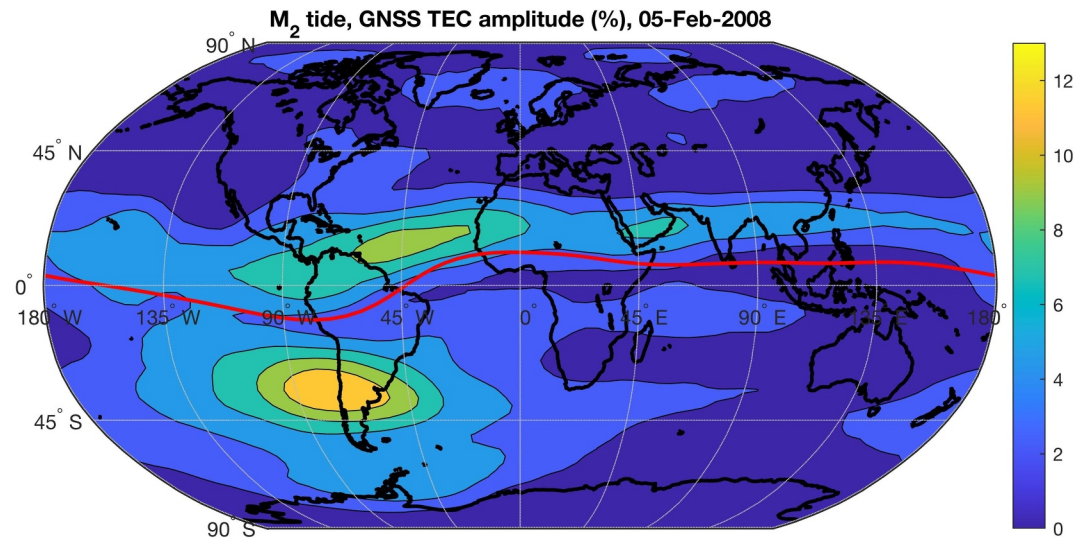
America where the amplitude is up to 1.9 TECU. Please note that the IGS network of GNSS receivers has enough GNSS receivers at the west coast of South America, so that we can rely on the observed maxima of the lunar O<sub>1</sub> tide at the west coast of South America.

The geographical distribution of the relative amplitude of the O<sub>1</sub> tide is shown in Figure 2 and is quite similar to the world map of the absolute O<sub>1</sub> amplitude. In the following, we only focus on relative amplitudes where the relative amplitude is with respect to the 10 weeks mean of TEC at each grid point. The relative O<sub>1</sub> amplitude reaches maximal values of up to 13% at the west coast of South America. Figure 2 shows a green cross at the grid point 35°S and 70°W for which we show later a single FFT spectrum as example.

Before, we like to show that the world map of the M<sub>1</sub> (with period of a lunar day 24.84 hr) is quite different from that of the O<sub>1</sub> tide. Figure 3 shows the relative amplitude of the M<sub>1</sub> tide on 2008-02-05 which has maxima in the Arctic region with values up to 9%. The amplitude map of the semidiurnal M<sub>2</sub> tide (Figure 4) is quite similar to those of the O<sub>1</sub> tide (Figure 2). The spatial patterns and the magnitude of M<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>1</sub> are closely related.



**Figure 3.** Relative amplitude of the M<sub>1</sub> tide in percent. The time interval is at 2008-02-05 ± 5 weeks. The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator.

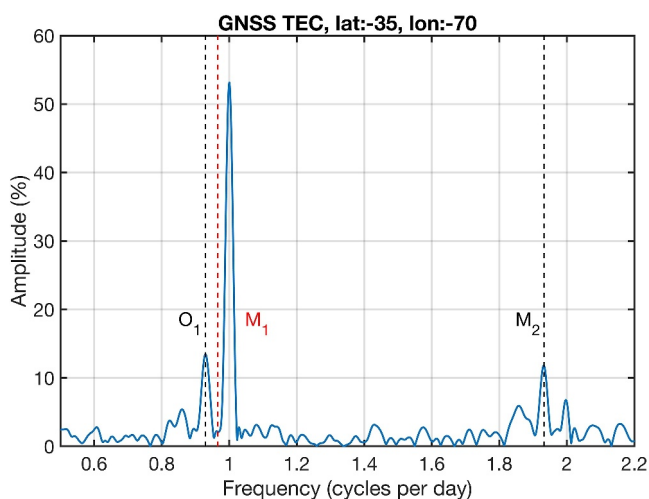


**Figure 4.** Relative amplitude of the  $M_2$  (period: 12.42 hr) tide in percent. The time interval is at 2008-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator.

Figure 5 shows the FFT amplitude spectrum at the grid point 35°S and 70°W which was indicated by the green cross in Figure 2. The  $O_1$  tide is a bit stronger than the  $M_2$ . The  $M_1$  tide is not present at all. It is remarkable that the semidiurnal solar  $S_2$  tide is smaller than the semidiurnal lunar  $M_2$  tide.

The FFT spectrum also contains information about the phase of the  $O_1$  tide. The phase is with respect to a fixed universal time. This is the start time of the FFT window which is equal for all grid points worldwide. Figure 6 shows the phase of the  $O_1$  tide at 5 February 2008. The phase is calculated at each grid point. Generally, the phase of the  $O_1$  tide depicts a zonal wavenumber 1 structure which is expected for a westward propagating quasi-diurnal tide.

Figure 7 shows the seasonal variation of the  $O_1$  tide in 2008. It is obvious that the  $O_1$  tide is strongest in February (Figure 7a) and weakest in August (Figure 7c). The  $O_1$  tide in TEC is enhanced northward and southward of the geomagnetic equator which indicates a role of the plasma fountain effect for the amplification of  $O_1$  in TEC.



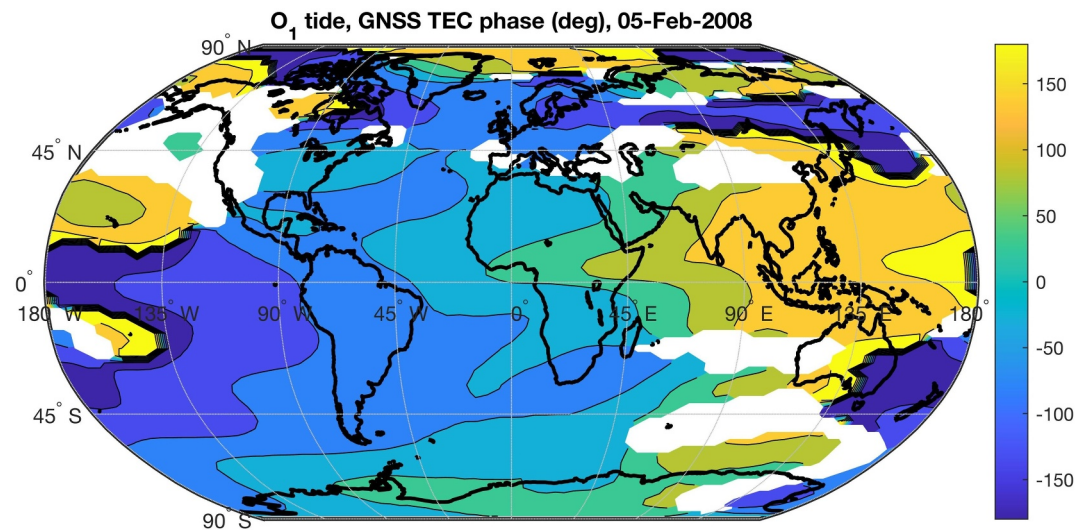
**Figure 5.** FFT amplitude spectrum at the grid point 35°S and 70°W on 2008-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. The vertical dashed lines denote the frequency positions of the lunar  $O_1$ ,  $M_1$  (red) and the  $M_2$  tide.

The clear pattern with the two maxima of  $O_1$  at the west coast of South America is not only present in February 2008 but it is quite similar in February 2009 as Figure 8 shows. Similar to February 2008, a major SSW occurred on 24 January 2009 which certainly has an effect on the strength of  $O_1$  in Figure 8. We show the result for February 2009 in addition to February 2008 in order to emphasize that the global distribution and the seasonal amplification of  $O_1$  repeats from year to year.

Figure 9 compares the spectra of relative fluctuations of the  $F_2$  peak electron density NmF2 of the ionosonde at Okinawa (blue line) with the coincident relative fluctuations of GNSS TEC (red line) for the time interval 2009-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. It is obvious that the lunar tides  $O_1$ ,  $M_2$  and  $MK_3$  occur in both data sets, so that we can exclude a satellite aliasing effect as explanation for their existence. The GNSS TEC spectrum has been magnified by a factor of 2, since the ionosonde NmF2 spectrum is larger than the GNSS TEC spectrum. We will see in the discussion that there are two possibilities to explain the origin of the  $O_1$  and  $MK_3$  component in NmF2 and GNSS TEC.

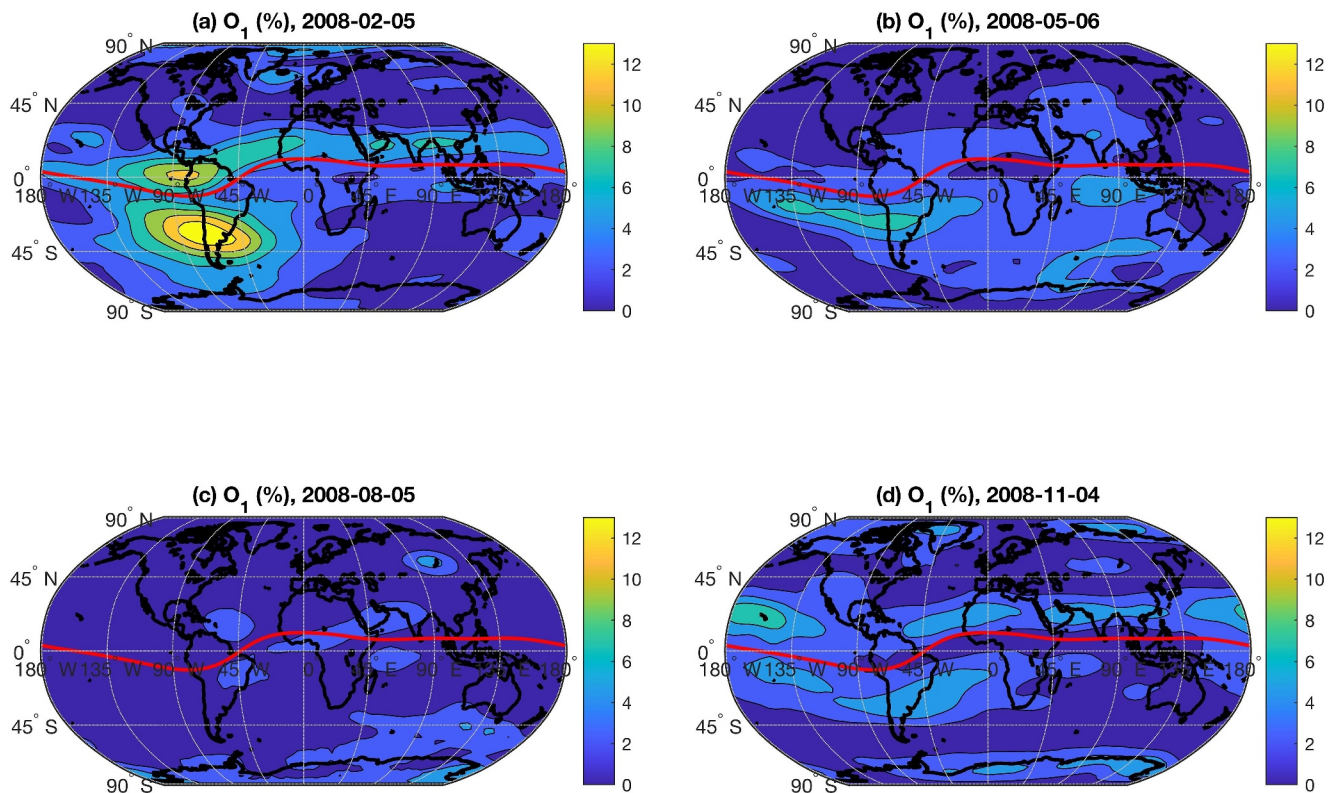
#### 4. Discussion

First of all, the present study cannot decide about the origin of the  $O_1$  component in ionospheric electron density. There are two possibilities. At

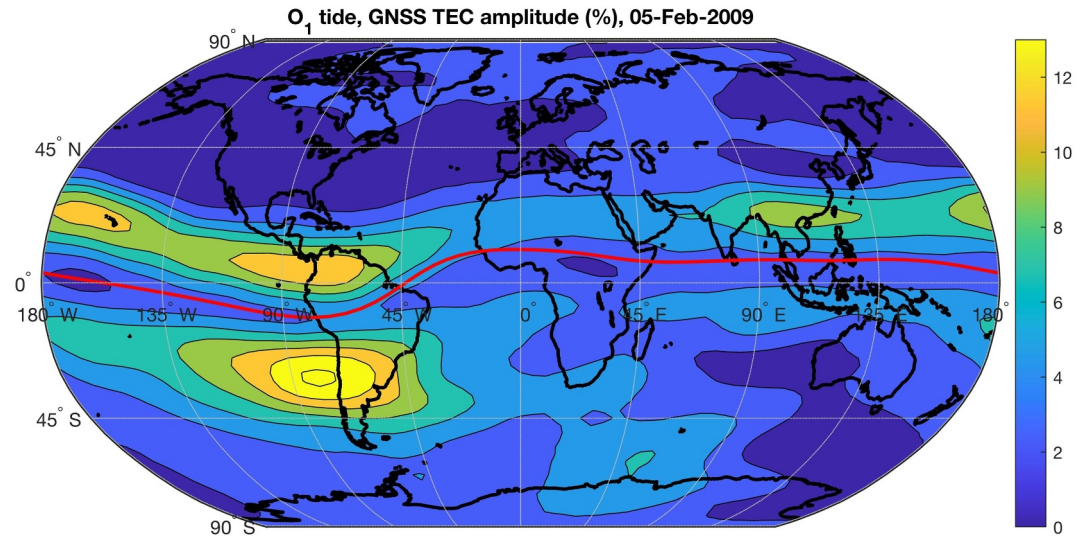


**Figure 6.** Global distribution of the phase of the lunar O<sub>1</sub> tide in TEC at 5 February 2008. The phase is derived from the FFT spectrum at each grid point independently. White color denotes regions where the relative amplitude of the O<sub>1</sub> tide is less than 1%.

first, a weak O<sub>1</sub> tide is excited by the Moon in the lower Earth's atmosphere. While the O<sub>1</sub> tide propagates upward its neutral wind fluctuations increases exponentially because of the decrease of the air density. In the lower thermosphere, O<sub>1</sub> wind amplitudes may reach 10 m/s or more and the O<sub>1</sub> tide may induce significant periodic variations in the plasma of the ionospheric F region. The drawback of this scenario is that there are no reports about a large O<sub>1</sub> neutral wind oscillation in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere.

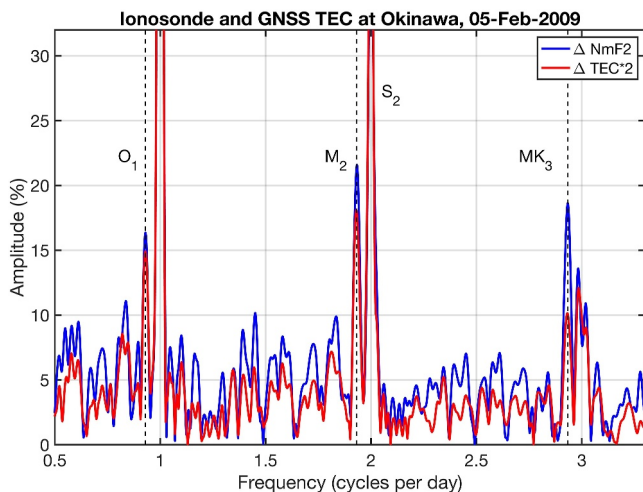


**Figure 7.** Seasonal variation of the relative amplitude of the O<sub>1</sub> tide. The time interval is at 2008-02-05 ± 5 weeks in (a), at 2008-05-06 ± 5 weeks in (b), at 2008-08-05 ± 5 weeks in (c), and at 2008-11-04 ± 5 weeks in (d). The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator.



**Figure 8.** Relative amplitude of the  $O_1$  tide in percent. The time interval is at 2009-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. The red line denotes the geomagnetic equator. The global distribution of the  $O_1$  amplitude is quite similar but a bit stronger than in the year before (Figure 2).

The second possibility was suggested by one of the reviewers. In the second case, the  $O_1$  and  $MK_3$  components are not excited in the lower atmosphere, but they are generated by a nonlinear interaction of the strong, lunar  $M_2$  tide in neutral wind in the dynamo region (Zhang & Forbes, 2013) with the strong diurnal variation in ionospheric plasma density. The interaction of  $M_2$  (12.42 hr period) and  $S_1$  (24 hr period) generates oscillations at  $(1/12.42 + 1/24)$  cycles per day, or 8.18 hr period which is equal to the  $MK_3$  period, and the other oscillation at  $(1/12.42 - 1/24)$  cycles per day, or 25.74 hr which is quite close to the  $O_1$  period of 25.82 hr. The drawback of this scenario might be that  $O_1$  and  $MK_3$  would be expected quite smaller than the primary component  $M_2$ . However, in the present study  $O_1$  and  $M_2$  were of comparable size. For a further analysis of the origin of the observed  $O_1$  component in the ionosphere, numerical simulations with a coupled atmosphere-ionosphere model would be necessary but this is beyond the scope of the present study. In addition, as already mentioned, a search for a possible  $O_1$  tide in neutral wind observations of the lower thermosphere and below would be fine.



**Figure 9.** Spectrum of relative fluctuations of NmF2 (blue) and GNSS TEC (red) in percent. The location is Okinawa (26.7°N, 128.1°E), and the time interval is at 2009-02-05  $\pm$  5 weeks. The spectrum of GNSS TEC has been magnified by a factor of 2. The vertical dashed lines indicate the frequencies of the lunar  $O_1$ ,  $M_2$ , and  $MK_3$  tidal constituents.

In the following discussion, we prefer the first case of interpretation, that an  $O_1$  tide is generated in the lower atmosphere and amplified during its ascent to the upper atmosphere. Previous studies about the  $O_1$  tide are mainly based on the geomagnetic lunar  $O_1$  component (Arora, 1979; Rao & Sastri, 1974; Winch, 1970). However, these studies were usually at a few locations with ground magnetometers. In addition, the isolation of the atmospheric  $O_1$  tide (ionosphere dynamo) from the oceanic  $O_1$  tide (ocean dynamo) is difficult in case of the geomagnetic measurements. A FFT analysis of a time series of magnetic declination at Abinger in England did show a  $M_2$  component but no spectral peak at the  $O_1$  period (Black & Bullard, 1970). On the other hand, the geomagnetic data at Honolulu showed a strong  $O_1$  spectral peak as well as  $M_2$  (Love & Rigler, 2014). The latter two examples show that analysis of lunar tides in the frequency domain is a well recognized method.

The diurnal lunar  $M_1$  tide in global maps of ionospheric TEC was studied by Pedatella (2014). However, we found that the global distribution of  $M_1$  (Figure 3) is quite different from  $O_1$  (Figure 2). In addition, the  $M_1$  amplitude can completely vanish while the relative  $O_1$  amplitude can exceed 10% (see spectrum in Figure 5). In the present study, we showed that the global distribution of the absolute  $O_1$  amplitude (Figure 1) is quite similar to those of the relative amplitude (Figure 2). Thus, we focus on the discussion of the behavior of the relative  $O_1$  amplitude in the following.

The present study was motivated by the findings of Hocke et al. (2024) who found strong lunar tides  $O_1$  and  $M_2$  in peak electron density data  $NmF2$  above Okinawa with relative amplitudes of about 10%. It seems that the relative  $O_1$  amplitude in the TEC map is smaller than 10% at the place of Okinawa (Figure 7). In agreement with the present study, Hocke et al. (2024) found that  $O_1$  was enhanced from December to March. They showed that the maximal  $O_1$  amplitudes occurred just after the onset of major SSWs. This is certainly a reason why it is important to learn more about the  $O_1$  tide. The strong amplitudes of the  $O_1$  tide indicate that knowledge of the  $O_1$  tide is important for a description of the day-to-day variability of the ionosphere. For ionosphere and space weather models, it is important to include the gravitational effects of the moon and the sun on the Earth's atmosphere. In addition, the models have to simulate the vertical propagation of lunar tides from the ground to the ionosphere. The wind field in the middle atmosphere is assumed to have a strong effect on the propagation conditions of lunar and solar tides (Siddiqui et al., 2022).

The new result of the present study are the two maxima of the  $O_1$  tide above the west coast of South America (Figures 2 and 8). The maxima are northward and southward of the geomagnetic equator. The reason for the locations of the maxima are unknown. A speculation might be that lower tropospheric air masses are shifted by lunar tidal winds against the Andean mountain ridge. This signal amplifies on the way up to the ionosphere, and the fountain effect (Hargreaves, 1992) leads to the formation of two ionization maxima northward and southward of the geomagnetic equator. This is similar to the well-known equatorial ionization anomaly (EIA) which has crests northward and southward of the geomagnetic equator. A decrease of the lunar tidal amplitude above the geomagnetic equator was also observed by Paulino et al. (2017) but for the semidiurnal tide  $M_2$  in TEC maps above Brazil. We cannot compare the results for the diurnal lunar tide since Paulino et al. (2017) analyzed the  $M_1$  component and not the  $O_1$  component.

Another explanation for the maxima of the  $O_1$  tide in northern hemispheric (NH) winter over the west coast of South America could be the longitudinal variation of ionospheric conductivities due to the inhomogeneous geomagnetic field. This explanation was provided by Yamazaki et al. (2017) who found that the lunar  $M_2$  tide in the equatorial electrojet is enhanced in NH winter over the Peruvian sector. This observation is in agreement with our result about the longitudinal variation of the  $O_1$  tide. The lunar modulation of the equatorial electrojet is strongest in the Peruvian sector, and periodic electrodynamic lifting of plasma above the magnetic equator leads to a lunar variation of TEC in the ionospheric EIA crest regions. Since there are GNSS receivers located along the Andean mountain range, the quality of the analyzed TEC data and the results of the  $O_1$  tide over the west coast of South America are reliable. In addition, we obtain a quite similar amplitude distribution with similar maxima for the semidiurnal  $M_2$  tide (Figure 4). This suggests that similar processes are involved in the generation of the  $O_1$  and  $M_2$  tide in TEC.

The phase distribution of the  $O_1$  component in Figure 6 mainly indicates the dominance of a zonal wavenumber 1 tide. This is expected for a migrating diurnal tide such as the lunar  $O_1$  tide. There are some deviations from the picture of a migrating lunar  $O_1$  tide in the global distributions of amplitude and phase in Figures 2 and 6. The latitudinal and longitudinal anomalies of the amplitude and the phase may indicate the existence of non-migrating  $O_1$  components. Another idea might be that geographical variations in the tidal propagation conditions may induce anomalies in the amplitude and phase maps observed in the ionosphere. The advantage of the present analysis which evaluates the TEC time series at each grid point independently is that the analysis method is sensitive to migrating, non-migrating and other waves. The only condition is that the oscillation has a period of 25.82 hr.

The seasonal variation of the  $O_1$  tide is depicted in Figure 7. The color table has the same scale for all subfigures which correspond to the four different seasons. It is obvious that NH winter (Figure 7a) shows the strongest  $O_1$  amplitude. Two maxima occur over the west coast of South America, northward and westward of the magnetic equator. We already discussed this behavior in detail. Compared to NH winter, the  $O_1$  amplitude is much weaker in southern hemispheric (SH) winter (Figure 7c). This is in agreement with the observations of Yamazaki et al. (2017) obtained for the  $M_2$  tide in the equatorial electrojet. In the most viewgraphs of Figure 7, we find indications that the patterns of the  $O_1$  tidal amplitude follow the shape of the magnetic equator. This suggests that periodic electrodynamic lifting of plasma and accumulation of plasma above the EIA crests are most important for understanding of the lunar variations in TEC.

Finally, Figure 8 shows the result of the  $O_1$  amplitude for 5 February 2009 which can be compared with the result for 5 February 2008 in Figure 2. The longitudinal and latitudinal variations which we already discussed before,



occur in both figures. The only significant difference is that the  $O_1$  amplitude is stronger in February 2009 than in February 2008. This can be related to an amplification of the  $O_1$  tide by the extraordinary major SSW of 24 January 2009. Forbes and Zhang (2012) analyzed the amplification of the  $M_2$  and  $N_2$  tides by the SSW of January 2009. They used CHAMP satellite data which cannot provide information about the  $O_1$  tide. Hocke et al. (2024) showed in a composite analysis of 29 SSW events that the  $O_1$  tide is amplified by major SSWs. The amplification of lunar tides by SSWs is a strong argument why space weather models should incorporate lunar tides, otherwise the day-to-day variability of the ionosphere and thermosphere system cannot be predicted adequately (Zhang et al., 2014).

## 5. Summary

For the first time, characteristics of the geographical and seasonal distribution of the quasi-diurnal lunar  $O_1$  tide were derived from a time series of ionospheric TEC maps provided by IGS. The data analysis is focused on solar minimum in 2008 and 2009 where disturbing influences of geomagnetic and solar activity were minimal.

We found that the magnitude of the  $O_1$  tide is as strong as the “dominant” semidiurnal lunar  $M_2$  tide. Relative amplitudes of 10% and larger are observed in some regions for the  $O_1$  component in TEC. The  $O_1$  component is particularly strong in northern hemispheric winter over the west coast of South America. There, two maxima occur which are northward and southward of the magnetic equator in the EIA crest regions. Following Yamazaki et al. (2017), it might be assumed that a longitudinal anomaly of ionospheric conductivities in the Peruvian sector leads to a stronger modulation of the equatorial electrojet by the lunar tides. Electrodynamical lifting of plasma and subsequent transport to the EIA crests may explain the observed variations of the  $O_1$  component in TEC.

Contrary to many studies, we find the  $O_1$  component (period 25.82 hr) more important than the  $M_1$  component (period 24.84 hr, a lunar day). We show that the geographical distribution of the  $O_1$  component is totally different from that of the  $M_1$  component which is in addition smaller. The seasonal variation of  $O_1$  shows maximal amplitudes in northern hemispheric winter and minimal amplitudes in southern hemispheric winter.

The IGS TEC maps seem to be appropriate for exploring lunar tides in the ionosphere and for validation of lunar tides in whole atmosphere models. Lunar tides can contribute about 10% to the day-to-day variability of the ionosphere. The origin of the  $O_1$  component in TEC remains an open question. It could be due to an upward propagating  $O_1$  tide from the lower atmosphere, or it could be due to the nonlinear interaction between the  $M_2$  tide and the diurnal variation in ionization.

## Data Availability Statement

The TEC maps of the IGS are freely available at CDDIS, NASA's archive of space geodesy data <https://cddis.nasa.gov/>. The TEC maps are a product of the International GNSS Service (IGS) (Hernández-Pajares et al., 2009). The Okinawa ionosonde data are provided by the WDC for Ionosphere and Space Weather, Tokyo, National Institute of Information and Communications Technology at [https://wdc.nict.go.jp/IONO/HP2009/ISDJ/manual\\_txt-E.html](https://wdc.nict.go.jp/IONO/HP2009/ISDJ/manual_txt-E.html).

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