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RADIO PROPAGATION IN SOUTH AMERICA
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National Programme of Radiopropagation
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Lectures Scheme

- 1.- Reference Data (2 lectures)
 - 1.1.- The ionosphere over the South America Continent
 - 1.2.- The troposphere over the South America Continent
- 2.- Ionospheric radiopropagation (1 lecture)
- 3.- Tropospheric radiopropagation (1 lecture)
- 4.- Case studies (2 lectures)

RADIO PROPAGATION IN SOUTH AMERICA

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RADIO PROPAGATION IN SOUTH AMERICA

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ARGENTINA

1. REFERENCE DATA

1.1. The ionosphere over the South American continent.

The ionosphere over the South American region shows unique characteristics due to the excentricity of the geomagnetic field and the inclination of its axis with respect to the geographic one (Fig. 1.1 and 1.2). The low values of B in the area of the South Atlantic facilitate intense low latitude precipitation of energetic particles from the radiation belts. This precipitation changes the aeronomic conditions at the lower ionosphere heights, where during nighttime there is evidence of increased ionization due to particle effects. The separation between the geographic and the geomagnetic equators in the south american continent affects the time variations of the ionospheric parameters, in particular the seasonal changes of the F region.

Both peaks of the so called "equatorial anomaly" of the F region ionization lies essentially over the equatorial and southern hemisphere portion of the continent.

The ionosphere of the region, as shown by the ionograms, can be seen in the "Atlas of Ionograms for the South American Region" prepared by González and Kurbán (1981).

Table 1.1 gives the location, geographic coordinates and type of observation made of the ionospheric stations active at present time in South America.

1.1.1. Average conditions and normal variations.

1.1.1.1. F region:

The F region over the south american region is strongly controlled by the well known geomagnetic equatorial anomaly first discovered by Appleton (1946). The crests of the anomaly at a longitude around the 70°W meridian, are located over Tucumán and Bogotá (4.5°N, 74.2°W) approximately.

The behaviour of the "fountain effect" that originate the anomaly is dependent on the solar activity and its variable strenght regulates the diurnal and seasonal variations of F region parameters at low and middle latitudes, as was shown by Radicella and Cosio de Ragone (1964) for a year of high solar activity. These authors used mainly data from 11 stations of the South and North American continents, but checked the control of the equatorial anomaly over the seasonal variation of foF2 with data from 14 additional stations of the African-European sector.

Representative diurnal variations of the maximum electron density obtained from foF2 are shown in Fig. 1.3 and 1.4 (Martinez de Garat and Manzano, 1981) for a year of low solar activity and summer. The development of the equatorial anomaly starting near noon and reaching its apex around 16.00 for that season is easily seen in the figures. The peak moves toward nighttime for the equinoctial period when the equatorial anomaly is more pronounced and more symmetrical with respect to the geomagnetic or dip equator. Seasonal variations of foF2 are well described by the graphs shown by Radicella and Cosio de Ragone (1964) (Fig. 1.5, 1.6 and 1.7). The subequatorial peaks are more extended in latitude during equinoxes and at noon. The foF2 peak is higher over South America and the latitudinal gradients of the isolines are more pronounced at 18.00 and midnight.

A semianual variation with equinoctial maxima is observed from +60° to -60° of magnetic dip at noon and reduces its latitudinal extension to ±50° at midnight. The amplitude of the seasonal variation has a minimum over the Dip equatorial region.

Lascano (1981) made a detailed study of foF2 and h'F data obtained at Tucumán from July 1957 to December 1970. Fig. 1.8 shows diurnal variation of foF2 for summer, equinoxes and winter. Once more the nighttime peaks at high solar activity and equinoxes are clearly seen over this station at the crest of the equatorial anomaly. A comparison of diurnal seasonal and solar activity variations between Tucumán and Buenos Aires, outside the crest, is shown in Fig. 1.9 also taken from Lascano (1981).

The diurnal development of the southern crest of the equatorial anomaly at latitudes around Tucumán has been analysed by Grimolizzi et al. (1978) using total electron content (TEC) data obtained from the low orbiting satellite INTA-SAT Faraday rotation records for the equinoctial period of 1975 (Fig. 1.10 and 1.11). A comparison is made in the same paper with data obtained by De Mendonca et al. (1969) using records from Sao José dos Campos. The results obtained using TEC values confirm the conclusions on the diurnal variations of the equatorial anomaly crest of ionization obtained using ionosonde data (Fig. 1.12).

Manzano et al. (1981) have found that the middle latitude trough of the F region ionization observed using topside sounders is also seen at nighttime over the south american continent using data from bottom side ionosondes (Fig. 1.13). Its latitude corresponds to lower L values than those observed from satellites. These authors also found a pedestal of increased ionization at latitudes still somewhat far from the auroral oval (fig. 1.14). They relate the presence of the trough and the pedestal to the existence of the particles precipitation region in the South Atlantic.

BE-B Satellite data obtained at Tucumán were used by Ríos et al. (1975) to study ionospheric satellite scintillations at 40 MHz. Their comparison with data from Ghana (dip angle -8.50) (Fig. 1.15) show that at the latitude of Tucumán scintillation appears during all day while at Ghana, much closer to the geomagnetic equator, the phenomenon is clearly a nighttime one. It must be also remembered that data from the equatorial location of Huancayo again show only nighttime scintillation and Haifa data -that correspond to the northern crest of the equatorial anomaly in the African-European sector- are similar to those obtained at Tucumán. Ríos et al. (1975) suggest the influence of the equatorial anomaly dynamics on the scintillation behaviour.

1.1.1.2. E region:

It is well known that normal E region follows closely the Chapman photochemical theory of ionization layer formation. The maximum electron density in the layer -represented in the ionograms by the critical frequency foE- is then a function of geographical position, local time, month of the year and solar activity. To describe it, the mathematical expression of the function given by Muggleton (1975) can be used:

$$(foE)^4 = S B \cos^m \chi_{noon} \cos^p \chi, \quad (1)$$

where χ is the solar zenith angle, χ_{noon} is its value at noon, S and B are

function of solar activity and geographical position respectively, m is latitude dependent and p is considered a constant for non equatorial latitudes. When solar activity dependence is eliminated, equation (1) reduces to:

$$(foE)^4 = A \cos^p \chi, \quad (2)$$

$$\text{where: } A = B \cos^m \chi_{noon} \quad (3)$$

Appleton (1963) discovered that A varies seasonally, meaning a second order variation of the maximum electron density in the E region not described by the Chapman theory. Kouris and Muggleton (1973 a, 1973 b) [from now on: K-M] have analysed in detail A and p behaviour using median values of foE from 45 ionospheric stations and one solar cycle. Their work only considers three stations from South America: Huancayo, Concepción and Port Stanley.

González et al. (1982 a) have studied foE for 1971 and 7 stations: Huancayo, Tucumán, San Juan, Buenos Aires, Concepción, Port Stanley and Argentine Islands by using a more refined method of data analysis, that make possible to utilize only one year of data with similar results than those of K-M. Fig. 1.16 shows the seasonal variation of A in full lines for all the stations. Broken lines correspond to K-M results. Fig. 1.17 displays B values as a function of latitude. Dots are by K-M and crosses by González et al. (1982). Fig. 1.18 shows m values in the same way.

The more refined data analysis -based on the use of hourly values of foE matched with corresponding solar zenith angle, elimination of extreme values with statistical criteria of selection of zenith angle intervals and normalization by monthly values of solar activity- allowed González et al. (1981) to detect a significant latitudinal variation of p, that is displayed in Fig. 1.19.

The results described appears to be a good representation of foE behaviour over the south american sector.

1.1.1.3. Sporadic E:

Different types of layers and structures of ionization are observed around 100-120 Km, overimposed to the normal E region. As a whole, they are called sporadic E. The parameter read in the ionograms that better represents the maximum electron density of the sporadic E is the blanketing frequency fbEs, as was shown by several authors (Rawer, 1962; Reddy and Rao, 1968; Whitehead, 1972 and Smith and Mechtly, 1972). Particularly for radiopropagation uses it is important to define the behaviour of this parameter.

Giraldez (1979 a) have shown -using data of 17 years from 4 south american stations: Sao Paulo, Tucumán, Buenos Aires and Port Stanley- that it is possible to describe fb as a function of solar activity, solar zenith angle and latitude. Giraldez (1979 b) also shows that the prediction equation obtained using south american data is valid on a world wide basis.

The expression used is:

$$fbEs = A F(R) \cos^{0.25} \chi F(\chi_i, \lambda) \quad (4)$$

where the proportionality constant is $A = 3.844$, λ is the geographic latitude, and

$$F(R) = 1 + 1.737 \times 10^{-3} R \quad (5)$$

and

$$F(\chi_i, \lambda) = \exp(-\lambda - \phi)^2 / S(\chi_i) \quad (6)$$

where ϕ , the latitude factor, is given by:

$$\phi = 150^\circ (\cos \chi - \cos^2 \chi - \cos^3 \chi / 9) + 7^\circ \quad (7)$$

and

$$S(\chi_i) = 2.525 \times 10^3 (\cos \chi)^{-0.73} \quad (8)$$

Fig. 1.20 and 1.21 shows examples of observed and predicted values of fbEs using equation (4), for different locations in the southern hemisphere.

It must be commented that the empirical expression given by Giraldez (1979 b) -that reproduces well enough median values of fbEs- has been obtained considering the physical principles involved in the formation of Es ionization. The dependence on R and χ takes into account that fbEs tends to follow foE behaviour and the function of latitude makes allowance of the special nature of Es formation: the action of neutral wind-shears at E region heights and solar tides.

When sporadic-E predictions are considered it must be kept in mind that only general average patterns can be reproduced and that it is not possible to predict individual day conditions.

A more recent paper by González et al. (1982 b) analyses the behaviour of fbEs using data from 11 stations in South and North America, for a year of minimum solar activity: 1964 ($\bar{R} = 10$), and a year of high solar activity: 1967 ($\bar{R} = 94$). Published monthly median values were corrected and unified taking into ac-

count rules of ionograms scaling, that considers the relation between fbEs and foE, now generally accepted. Their results show some marked differences with those of Matsushita and Reddy (1967). The main one is concerned with a symmetry with respect to the geomagnetic equator found by them and not mentioned before (Fig. 1.22). As a result of this work, corrections are being introduced in the Giraldez method of fbEs predictions in order to consider the geomagnetic influence together with the solar-latitudinal one.

1.1.1.4. D region:

It is known that D region heights in the ionosphere, below 90 Km, cannot be explored using the normal HF vertical pulse ionosonde.

Data on the behaviour of that region can be obtained by sounding it with pulses at fixed frequency or other ionospheric absorption techniques (Rawer, 1975). From these only integrated values of the product of electron density and collision frequency are acquired. Additional information can be obtained using long or short distance measurements of phase and amplitude of VLF signals. Both in the Sao Paulo area and at Tucumán, routine records of the VLF Omega-Argentina station (43.20°S, 65.4°W) signals are made. Average conditions show that the nighttime reflection heights are lower in the southern portion of South America (Fig. 1.23) than what is observed in other middle latitude regions. This fact is related with the expected nighttime ionization by particle precipitation in that region.

A comparison of winter ionospheric absorption by the fixed frequency pulse method at a middle latitude station in Europe: Lindau (51.65°S, 10.12°E) and at equivalent station in South America: Ushuaia, have been made by Schwentek et al., 1981. At the latter station the absorption is larger, indicating a real asymmetry between northern and southern hemispheres (Fig. 1.24). The observed difference is greater than the expected one due to the differences of solar photon radiation and to geomagnetic conditions at the two stations considered.

1.1.2. Ionospheric storms.

1.1.2.1. F region:

It is well known that the F region of the ionosphere is very sensitive to the occurrence of magnetic storms and substorms.

The results obtained by Martínez de Garat and Manzano, (1981), that analyse southern hemisphere F region response to the strong magnetic disturbances of August 1972 using ionosonde data; show evidences of Travelling Ionospheric Disturbances (TID) that propagates with speeds of 400 to 1000 m/sec. The "impact area" is located in the auroral zone of the nighttime south american sector and the

storm travels north in the continent, toward north-east reaching the north of Australia and also more slowly toward east arriving to southern Australia. It must be taken into consideration that this clear behaviour corresponds to a period of almost unusual strong geomagnetic activity. Kp index was 7 to 9 during 24 hours after the Sudden Commencement (SC) of the storm. Other results of Martinez de Garat and Manzano (1981) show important differences between foF2 storm values in the south american sector and in Australia (Fig. 1.25 and 1.26). This result makes necessary to check carefully the existing theory of ionospheric storms in the F region.

Manzano et al. (1981) have studied the response of the F region to the storm of March 26, 1976 over the continent. Their results confirm the existence of latitudinal transport of ionization from high latitudes toward the equator.

Another geomagnetic storm effect in the F region was analysed by Kurbán et al. (1981). The behaviour of F region over the South American Continent was studied for the storm of April 4, 1967. An essentially positive phase lasted for more than two days.

Magnetic storms appear to affect also the TEC values as it can be seen in Fig. 1.27 (Ezquer et al., 1981) where data obtained at Tucumán from the geostationary ATS-5 satellite signals are shown for the period covering the SC of July 25, 1981. The same figure shows geomagnetic characteristics recorded at Trelew. Around two hours after the SC a large increase of the TEC value that lasts very shortly is observed. After that a period of more than 12 hours of strong perturbations in the geomagnetic field is corresponded by strong alterations of TEC values.

1.1.2.2. Lower ionosphere:

Electron density fluctuations of sporadic E associated with large F region TID have been analysed by Giraldez (1980). This author finds that at Es heights the disturbance represented by gravity waves started at high latitudes in the south american sector and travels toward the equator with velocity between 250 and 600 m/s. Fig. 1.28 shows the relation between F region and E region disturbances.

D region response to the magnetic storms have been investigated by Pérez (1981) using data from ionospheric absorption, for Ushuaia and Kerguelen, both stations in the southern hemisphere. Fig. 1.29 shows the effect of the geomagnetic storm started with the SC of April 1, 1976. An increase of ionization at Kerguelen ($L = 3.7$) is seen almost immediately and lasts for several days after the SC. At Ushuaia ($L = 1.7$) the effect appears only after some days. The normal

ionization at this station is attributed to transport of plasma from the southern auroral zone. Similar effects are observed and discussed for the geomagnetic storm of March 25, 1976.

Abdu et al. (1981) and Pintado and Radicella (1982) have shown the effect of geomagnetic storms on VLF signals in the area of the South Atlantic where particle precipitation is expected to be enhanced during geomagnetic disturbances. Fig. 1.30 shows the VLF paths under study and Fig. 1.31 displays the results by Pintado and Radicella (1982) for the storm of December 19, 1980. The results obtained by the two groups coincide in showing nighttime increase of ionization during the recovery phase of the storm, that can be associated to an increase of particle precipitation along the propagation path of the VLF signals.

1.1.3. Figures Captions.

Fig. 1.1 The isomagnetic map for B, computed on the basis of the International Geomagnetic Reference Field 10/68. From Akasofu and Chapman (1972).

Fig. 1.2 The isomagnetic map for I, computed on the basis of the International Geomagnetic Reference Field 10/68. From Akasofu and Chapman (1972).

Fig. 1.3 Diurnal variations of Nm F2 as function of geomagnetic latitude in South America, for November and December 1975.

Fig. 1.4 Diurnal variations of Nm F2 as function of geomagnetic latitude in South America, for January and February 1975.

Fig. 1.5 Isolines of foF2 median values as function of geographic latitudes and month of the year in the American Continent, for 00.00 LMT and 1959.

Fig. 1.6 Isolines of foF2 median values as function of geographic latitudes and month of the year in the American Continents, for 12.00 LMT and 1959.

Fig. 1.7 Isolines of foF2 median values as function of geographic latitudes and month of the year in the American Continents, for 18.00 LMT.

Fig. 1.8 Diurnal variations of foF2 median values obtained at Tucumán for summer, equinoxes and winter as function of the year, from 1957 to 1970.

Fig. 1.9 Comparison of the diurnal variation of foF2 median values ob-

- tained at Tucumán and Buenos Aires for summer, equinoxes and winter for years of maximum (1957-58), medium (1960-61) and low (1963-64) solar activity.
- Fig. 1.10 Average daytime TEC values for different hours as function of geographic latitude, obtained at Tucumán from INTASAT low orbiting satellite signals, for equinoctial months in 1975.
- Fig. 1.11 Average nighttime TEC values for different hours as function of geographic latitude, obtained at Tucumán from INTASAT low orbiting satellite signals for equinoctial months in 1975.
- Fig. 1.12 Comparison of average nighttime TEC values obtained by de Mendonca et al. (1969) for the equinoxes of 1966 in Sao José dos Campos and over Tucumán for the equinoxes of 1975.
- Fig. 1.13 Monthly median values of foF2 for September 1971 as function of latitude and time, for the South American region. The middle latitude trough of ionization is seen.
- Fig. 1.14 Average values of foF2 for quiet days of March 1976 as function of latitude and time, for the south american region. The middle latitude trough and pedestal of ionization are seen.
- Fig. 1.15 Comparison of average diurnal variation of the percentage of time when scintillation index exceeds a given value, for the Tucumán and Ghana 1967 winter. The experimental points for Ghana are taken from Koster (1968).
- Fig. 1.16 Seasonal variation of A obtained by González et al. (1982) in full lines and those by K-M in broken lines for the South American stations.
- Fig. 1.18 Latitudinal variation of B values. Dots are taken from K-M for all the stations and crosses are obtained by González et al. (1982) for South American stations.
- Fig. 1.18 Latitudinal variation of m values for the 75°W meridian stations. Dots are taken from K-M and crosses are obtained by González et al. (1982).
- Fig. 1.19 Latitudinal variation of p for the South American stations.
- Fig. 1.20 Observed hourly median values (dots) and predicted values (full lines) of fbEs for stations of the South American region.
- Fig. 1.21 Observed hourly median values (dots) and predicted values (full lines) of fbEs for stations of the North American region.
- Fig. 1.22 Isolines of fbEs as a function of time of day and latitude in the American Continents, for a year of low (1964) and one of high solar activity (1967).
- Fig. 1.23 Seasonal variation of Δh , the day to night difference of the reflection height for 12.9 KHz signals transmitted from Omega Argentina and received at Tucumán (experimental). The lower portion of the figure shows the computed Δh using IRI79 electron density model for middle latitude D region. The upper part displays monthly mean values of the solar activity index R and χ (From Radicella and Pintado: private communication).
- Fig. 1.24 Ionospheric absorption at a constant solar zenith angle = 78.5° as a function of time for winter in the southern hemisphere (Ushuaia) and in the northern hemisphere (Lindau). Pulsed fixed frequency of 1.73 MHz.
- Fig. 1.25 Time variations of foF2 and h'F for the South American sector during the geomagnetic storms of August 3-6. The control day curve (dashed lines) is obtained averaging data from the 11 quietest days. Kp and AE indices are shown for the period involved.
- Fig. 1.26 Time variations of foF2 and h'F for the Australian sector during the geomagnetic storms of August 3-6. The control day curve (dashed lines) is obtained averaging data from the 11 quietest days. Kp and AE indices are shown for the period involved.
- Fig. 1.27 TEC values obtained at Tucumán using ATS-5 geostationary satellite signals are shown together with geomagnetic variations at Trelew (43.25°S, 65.30°W), for the July 25, 1981 geomagnetic storm.
- Fig. 1.28 Relative minima of foF2 (dots) and maxima of foEs (crosses) as a function of time and latitude for December 15, 1965. Vertical arrows indicate station location.
- Fig. 1.29 Absorption by the single pulsed frequency method measured at

Ushuaia and riometer absorption data from Kerguelen for the period 1-8 April 1976. The lower part of the figure shows Dst and Kp indices.

Fig. 1.30 Southern hemisphere particle precipitation zones from Seward (1973). Black heavy lines show the propagation paths from Abdu et al. (1981) and Pintado and Radicella (1982).

Fig. 1.31 Hourly values of phase (ϕ) and amplitude (A) recorded at Tucumán for December 17-27, 1980 (full lines) together with monthly median values (dotted lines). Kp and Dst indices are also shown.

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T A B L E 1.1

IONOSPHERIC OBSERVATION SITES
IN SOUTH AMERICA (1982)

LOCATION NAME	GEOGRAPHIC COORDINATES		TYPE OF OBS.
	Lat. S	Long. W	
FORTALEZA	3.70°	38.80°	B01
NATAL	5.70°	35.20°	B11
JICAMARCA	11.95°	76.85°	B03
HUANCAYO	12.00°	75.30°	B01
CACHOEIRA PAULISTA	22.70°	45.02°	B01,B06,B08,B13
SAO JOSE DOS CAMPOS	23.23°	45.85°	B06,B11,B13
ATIBAIA	23.50°	46.50°	B13
TUCUMAN	26.90°	65.40°	B01,B06,B11,B13
BLUMENAU	28.16°	49.14°	B01,B08,B13
SAN JUAN	31.50°	65.50°	B01
BUENOS AIRES	34.50°	58.50°	B01,B07
CONCEPCION	36.60°	73.00°	B01
PORT STANLEY	51.70°	57.80°	B01
USHUAIA	54.80°	68.30°	B01,B08

TYPE OF IONOSPHERIC OBSERVATION CODE (FROM WDC-A codes)

- B01 Ionosphere Vertical Soundings
 B03 Incoherent Scatter Soundings
 B06 Total Electron Content - Satellite Beacons
 B07 Absorption - Method A-1 (pulse echo)
 B08 Absorption - Method A-2 (riometers)
 B11 Ionospheric Scintillations from Beacon Satellites
 B13 Whistlers and VLF emissions.

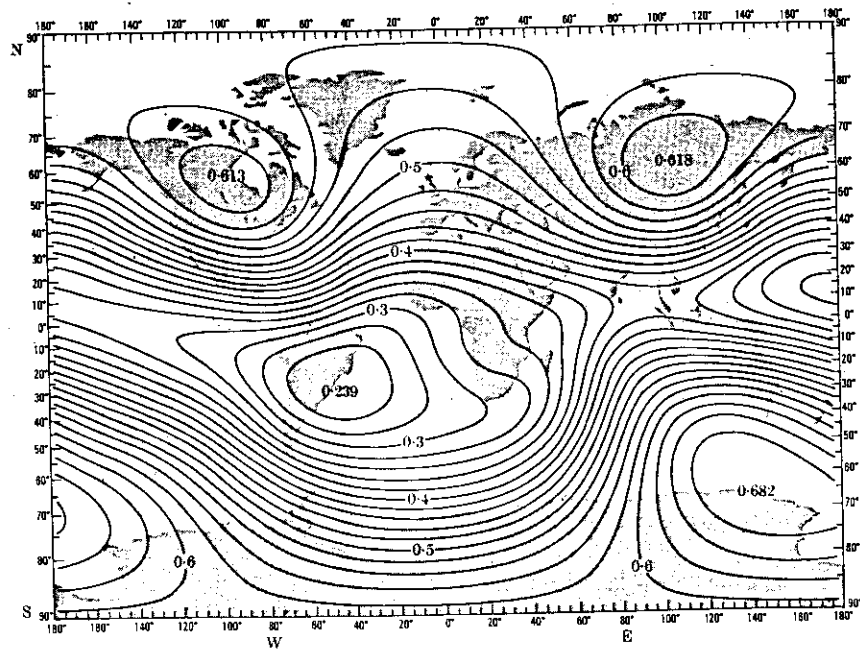


Fig. 1.1

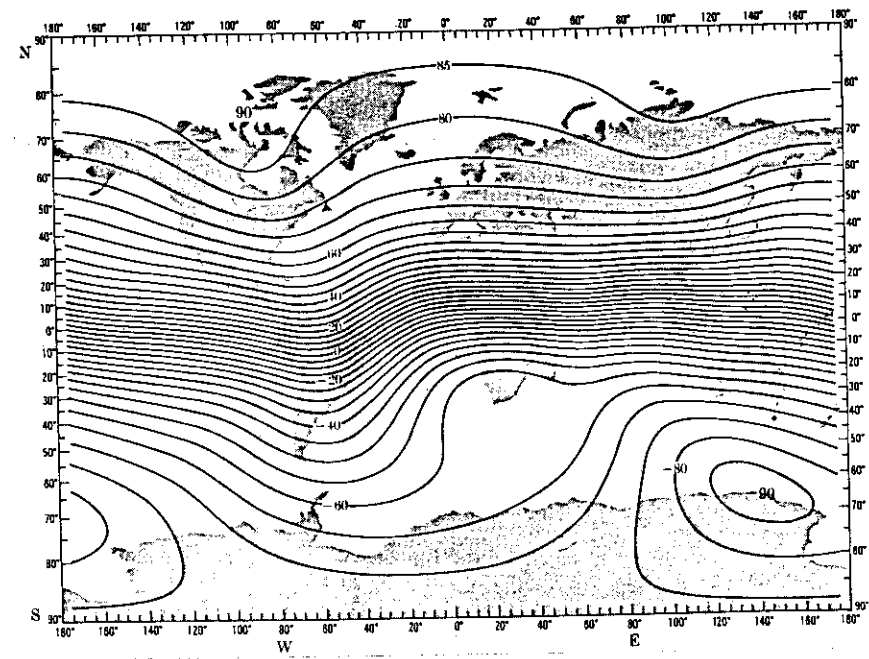


Fig. 1.2

RED AMERICANA 1975

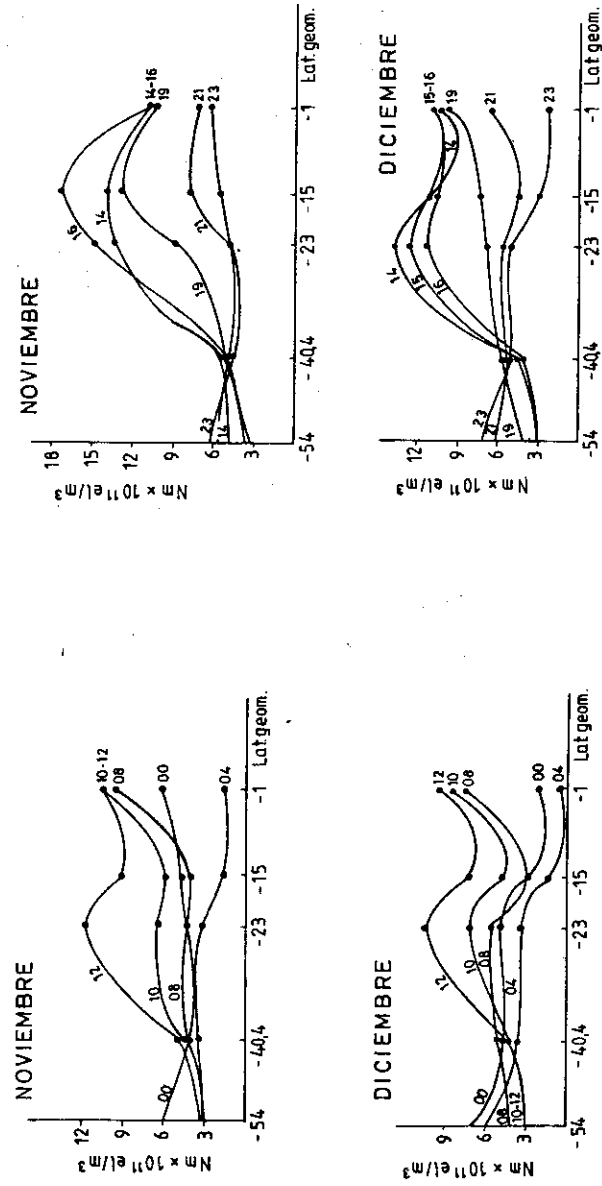


Fig. 1.3

RED AMERICANA 1975

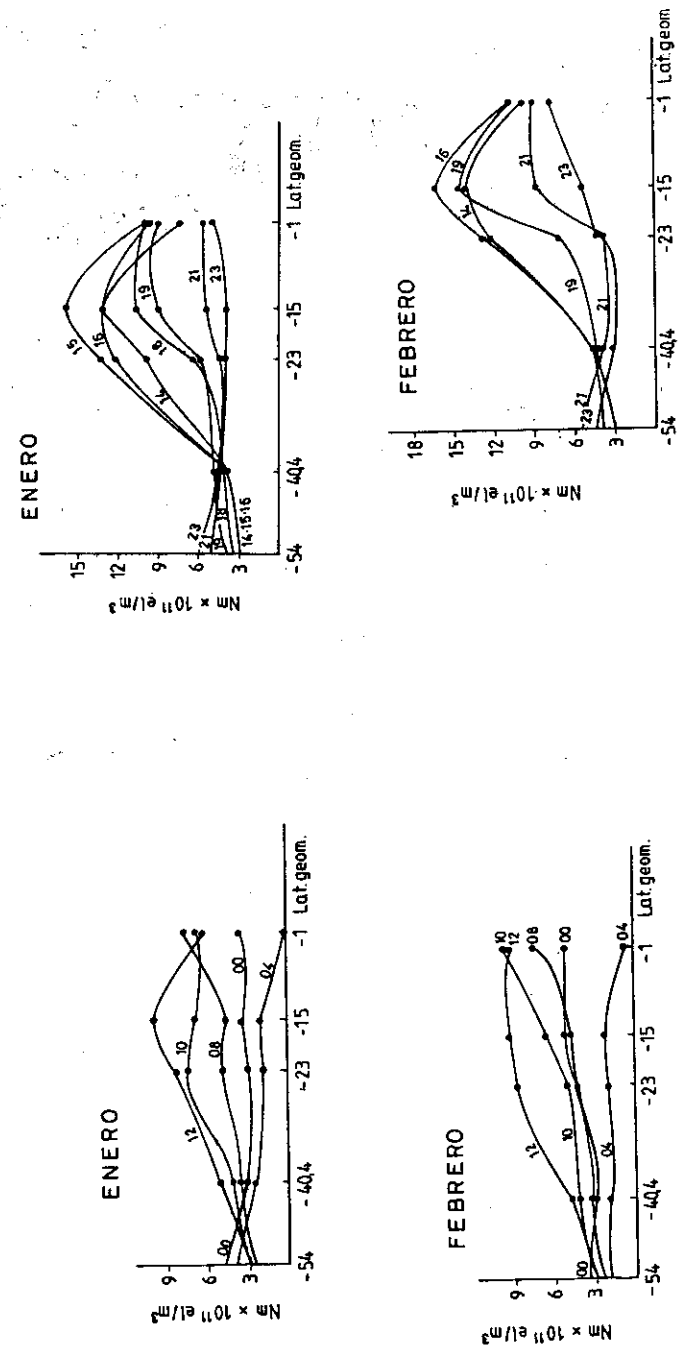


Fig. 1.4

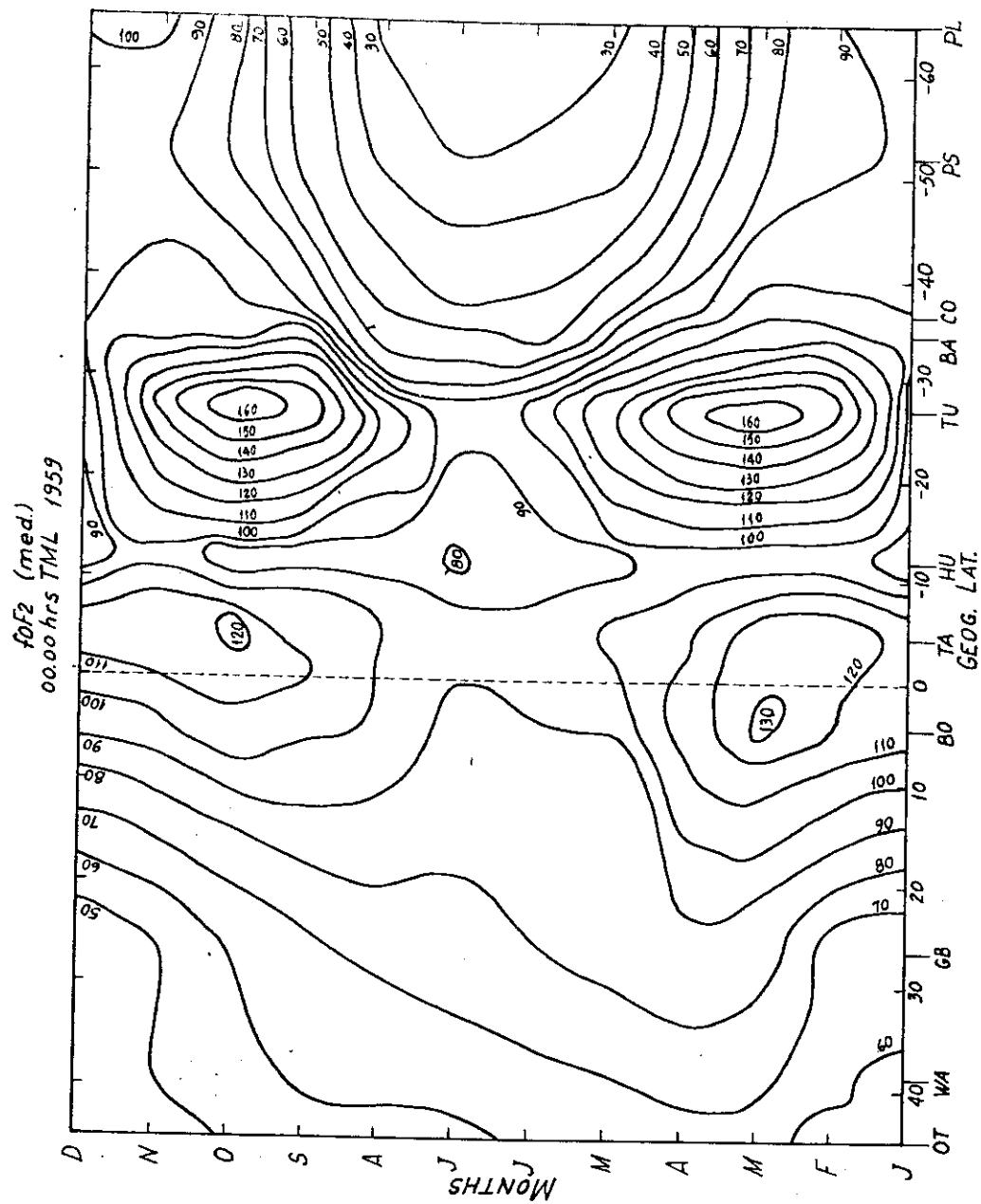


Fig. 1.5

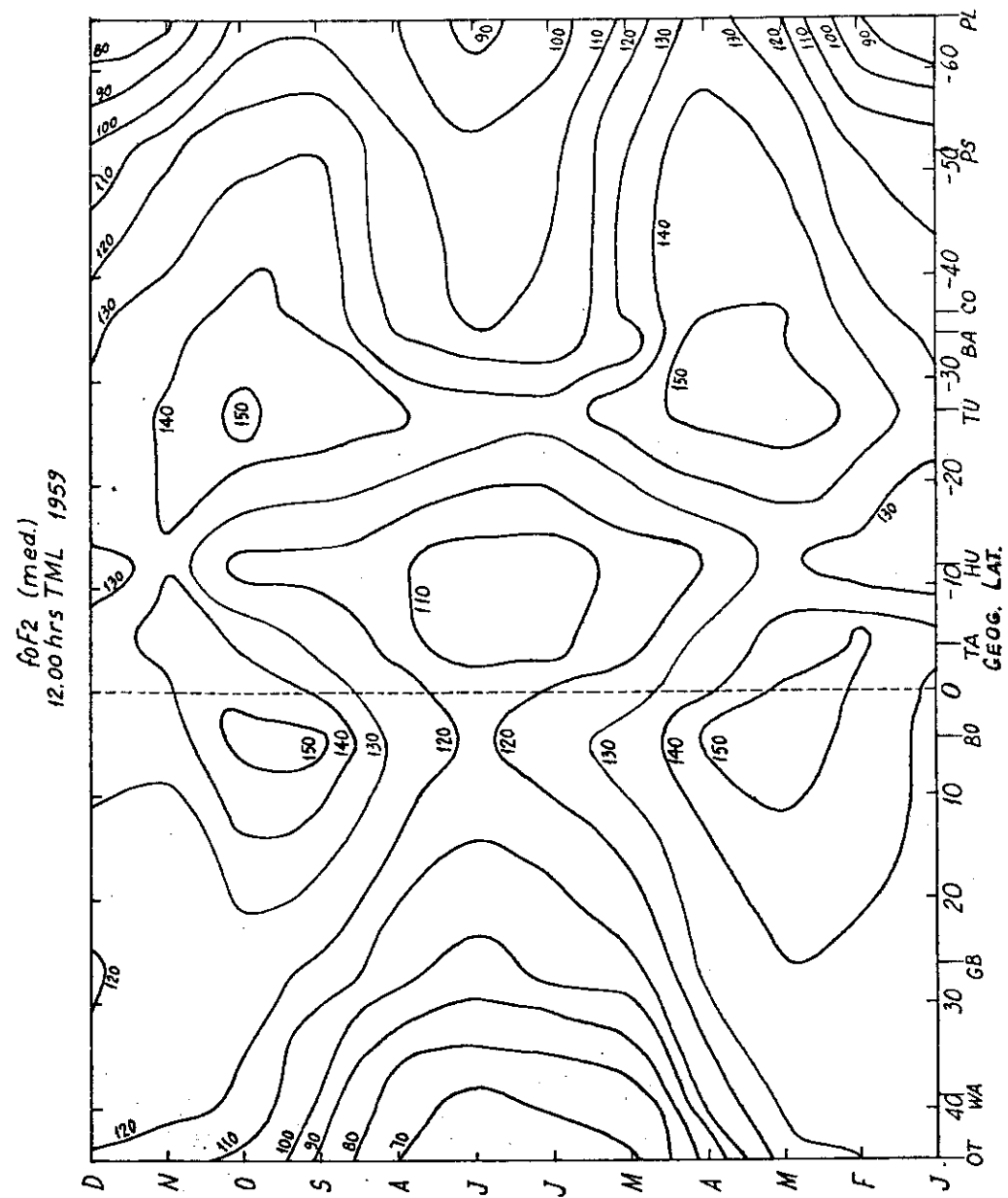


Fig. 1.6

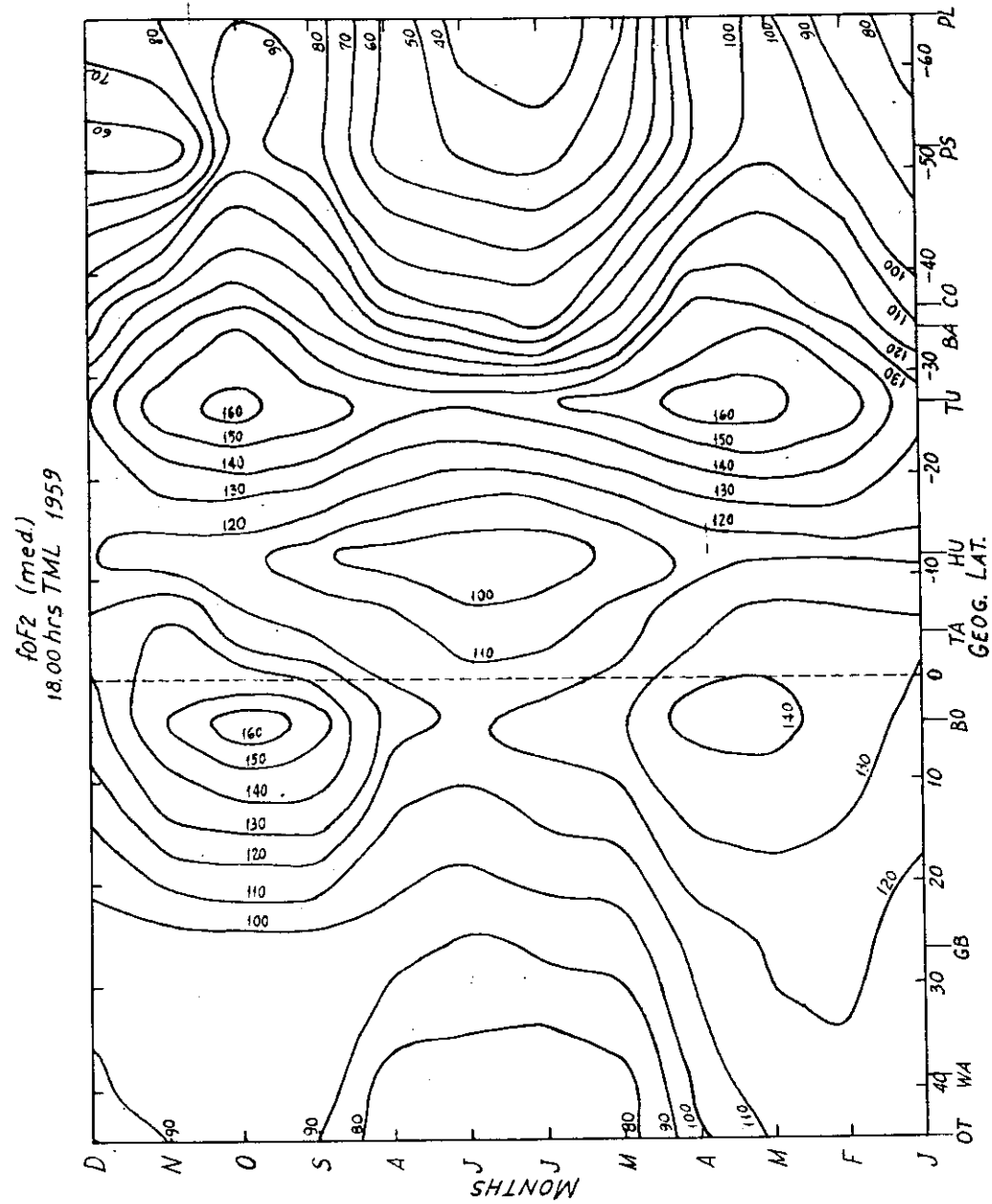


Fig. 1.7

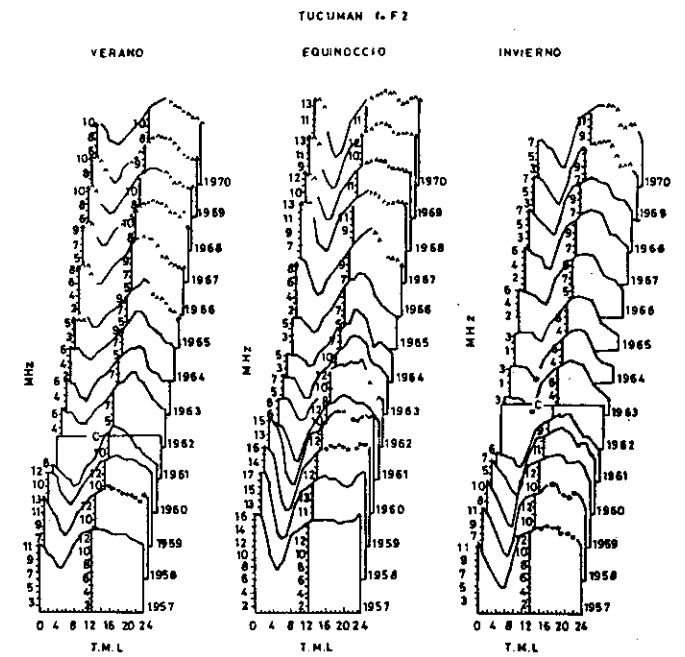


Fig. 1.8

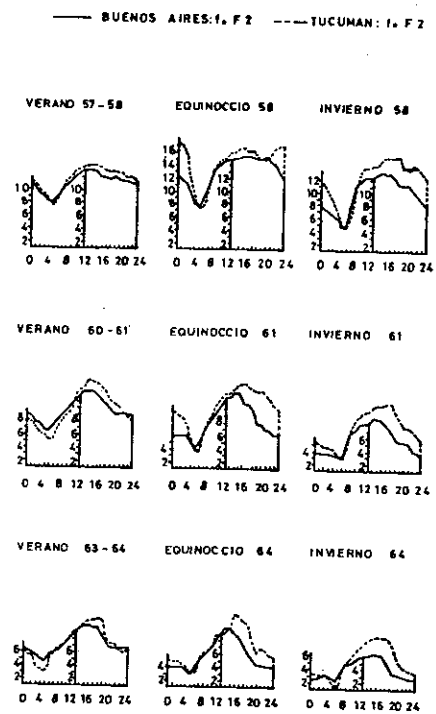


Fig. 1.9

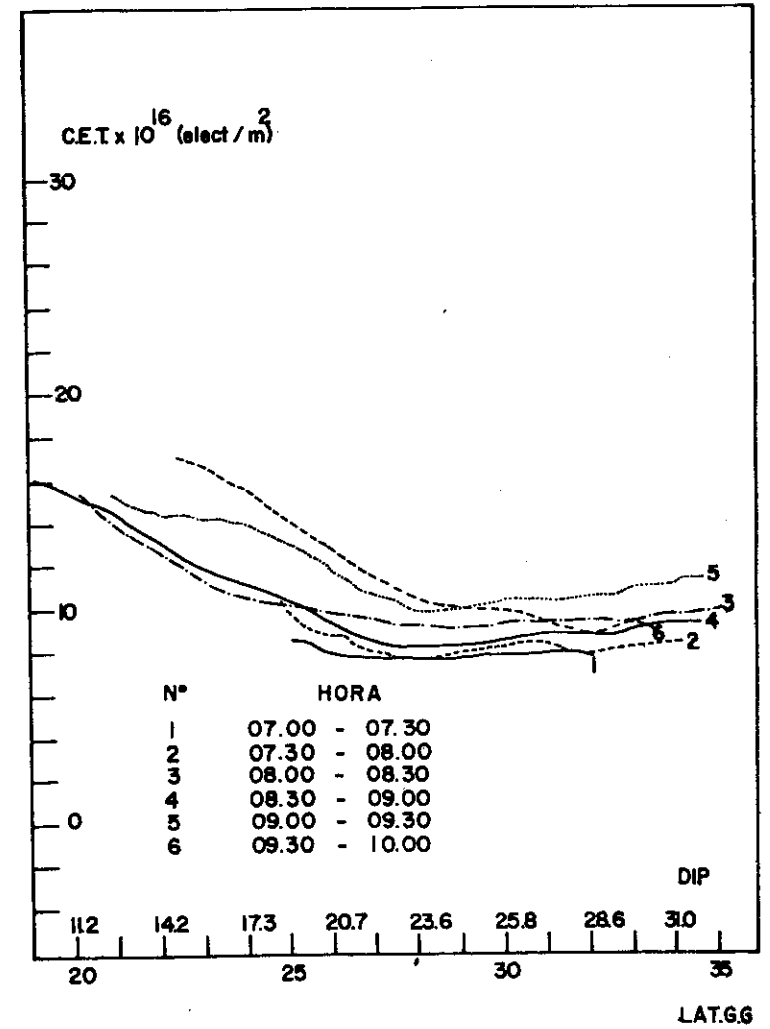


Fig. 1.10

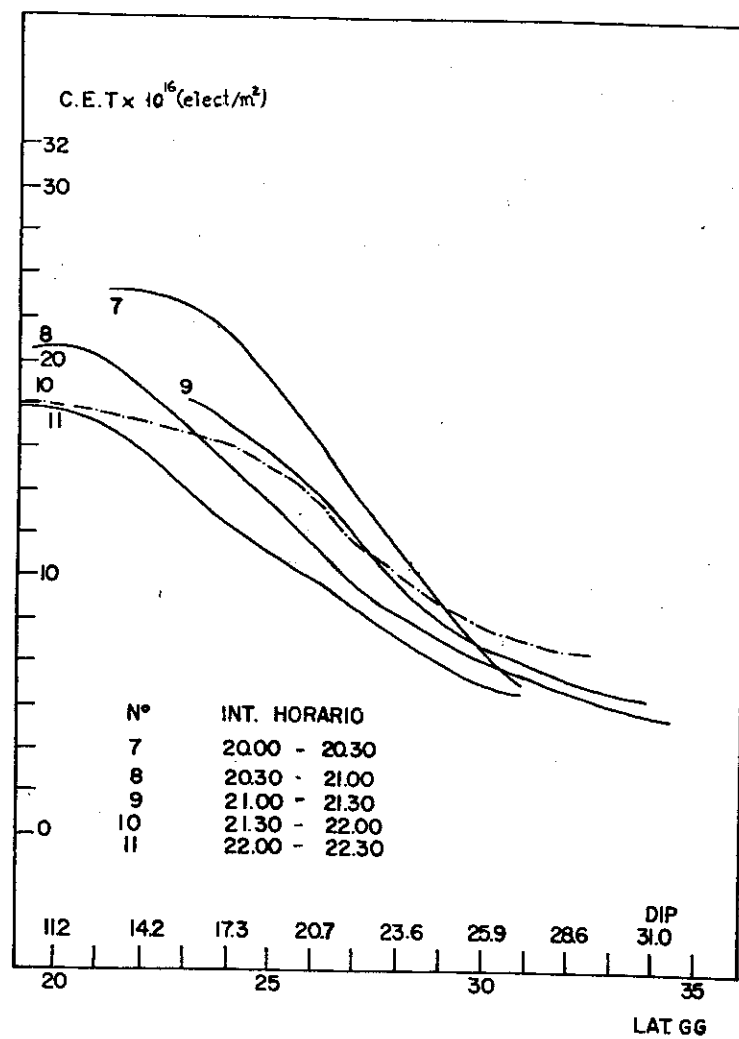


Fig. 1.11

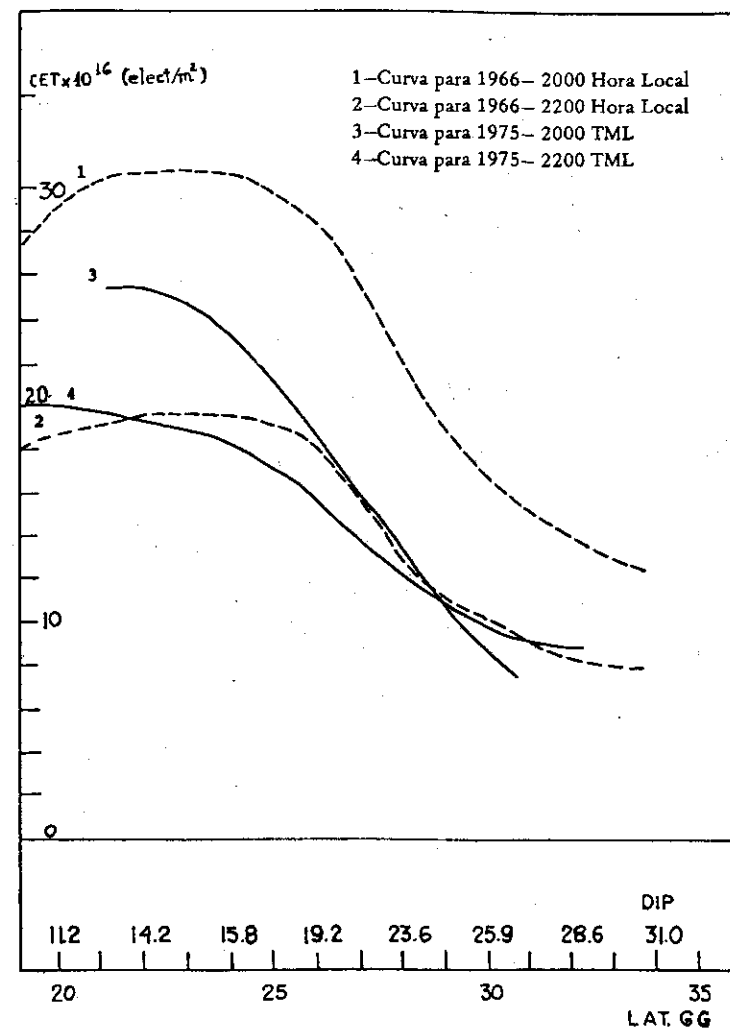


Fig. 1.12

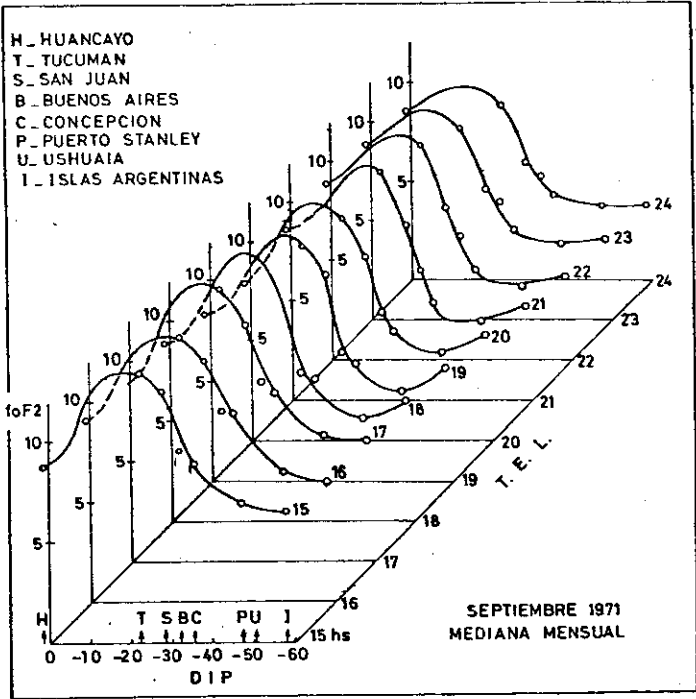


Fig. 1.13

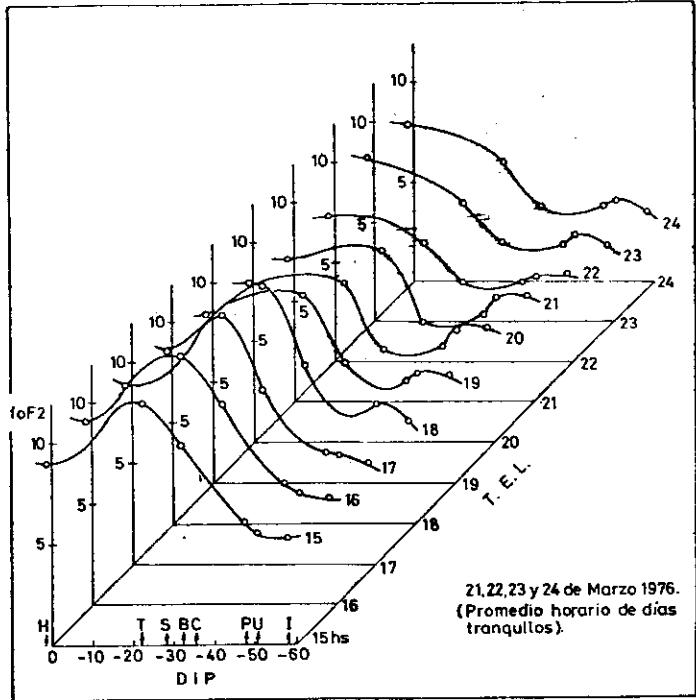


Fig. 1.14

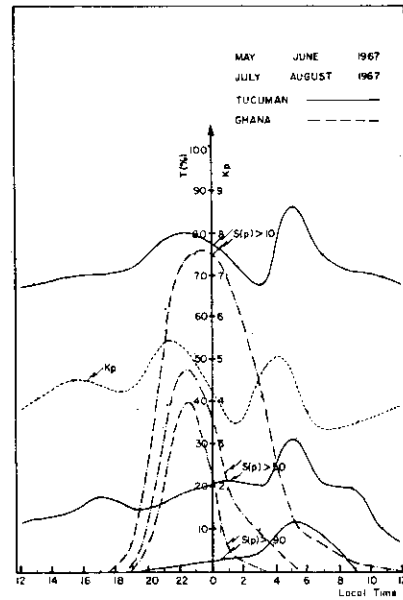


Fig. 1.15

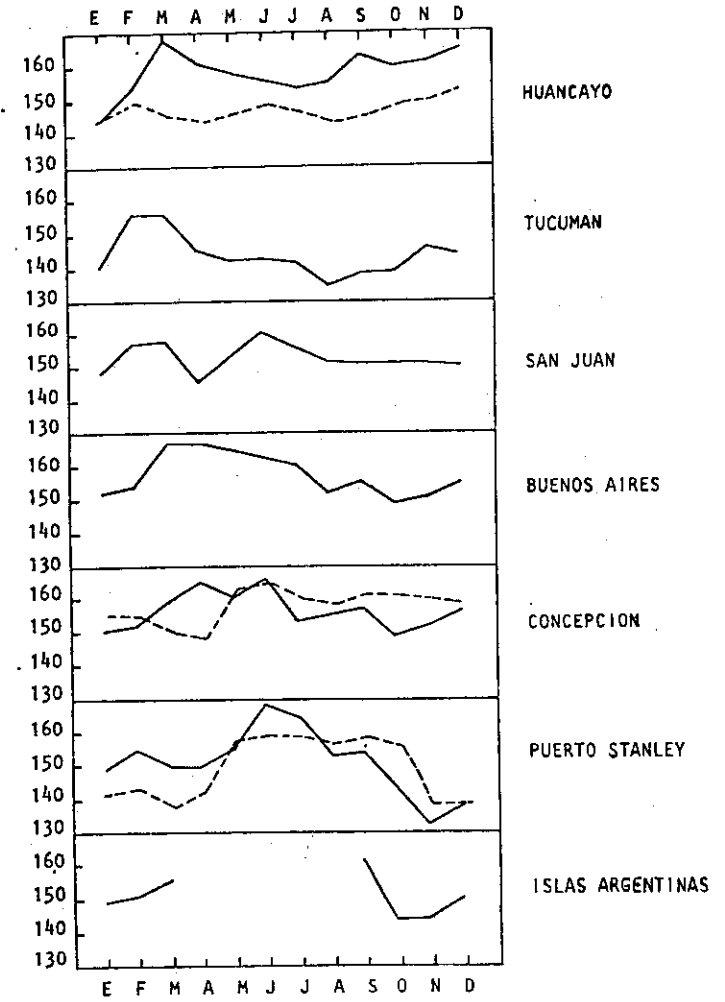


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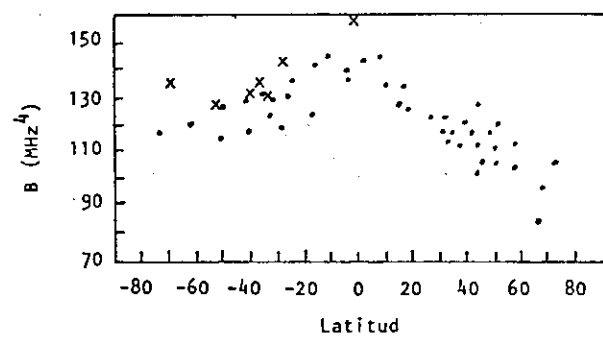


Fig. 1.17

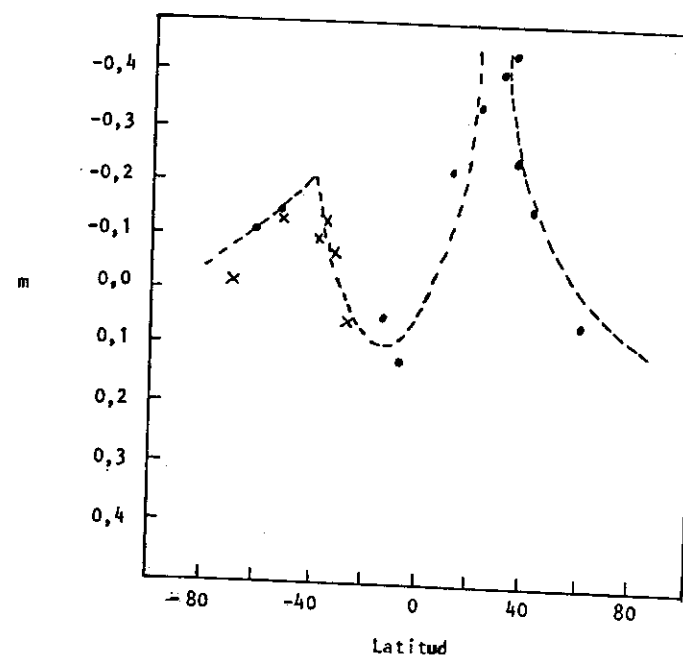


Fig. 1.18

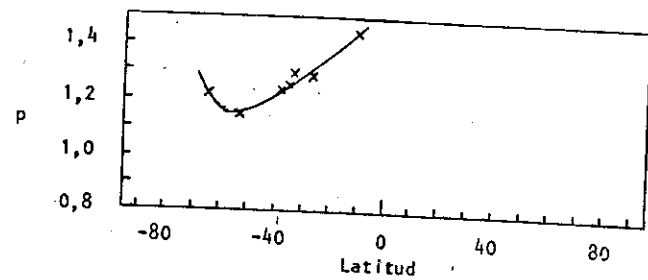


Fig. 1.19

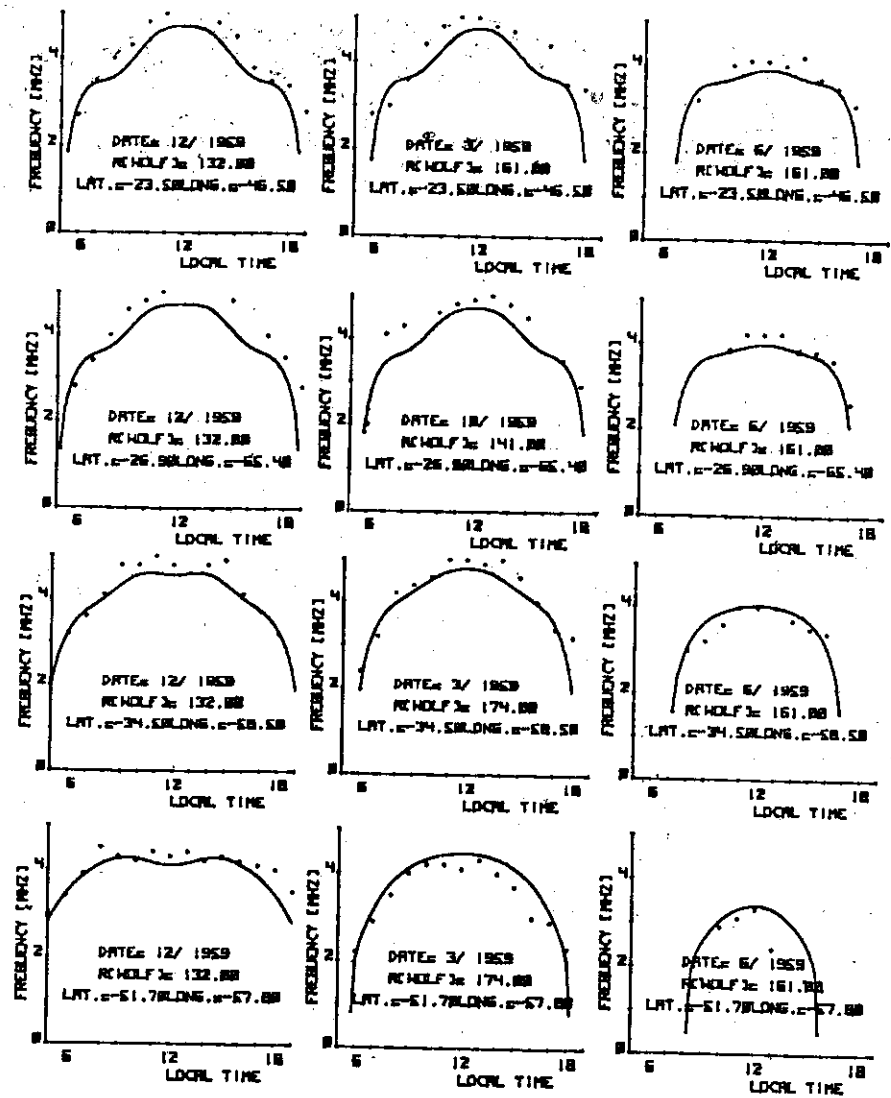


Fig. 1.20

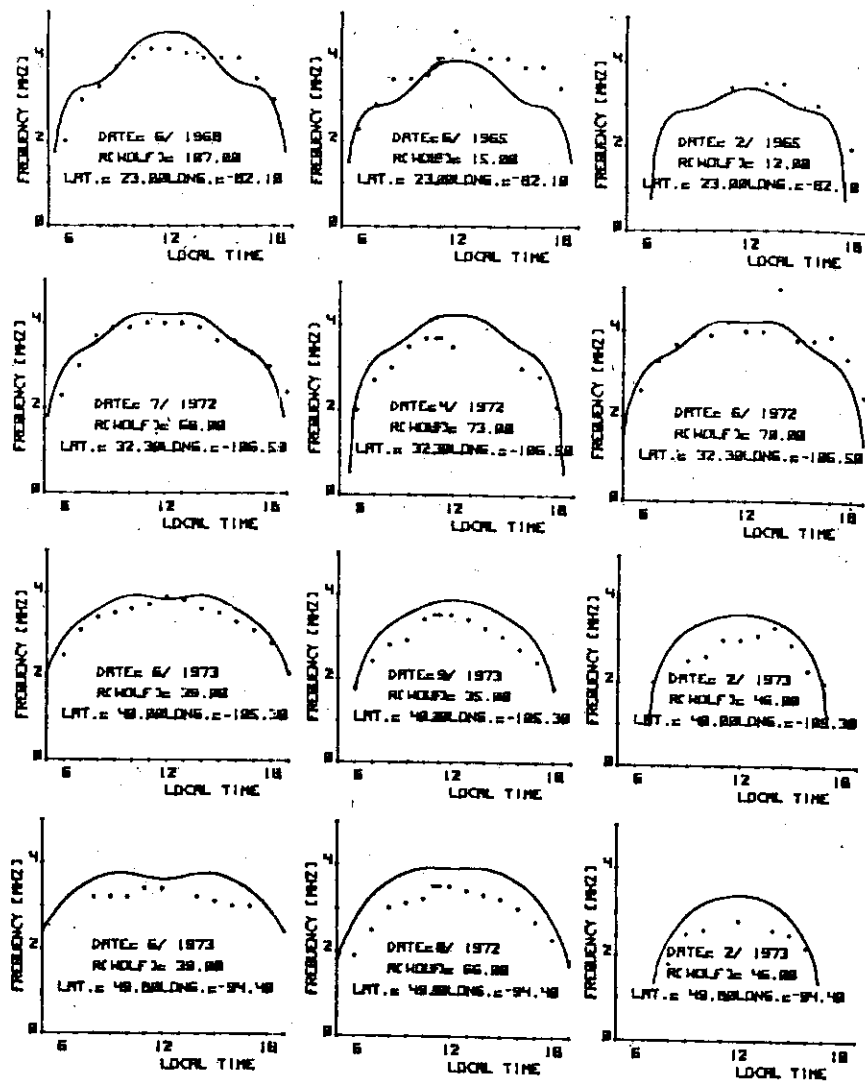


Fig. 1.21

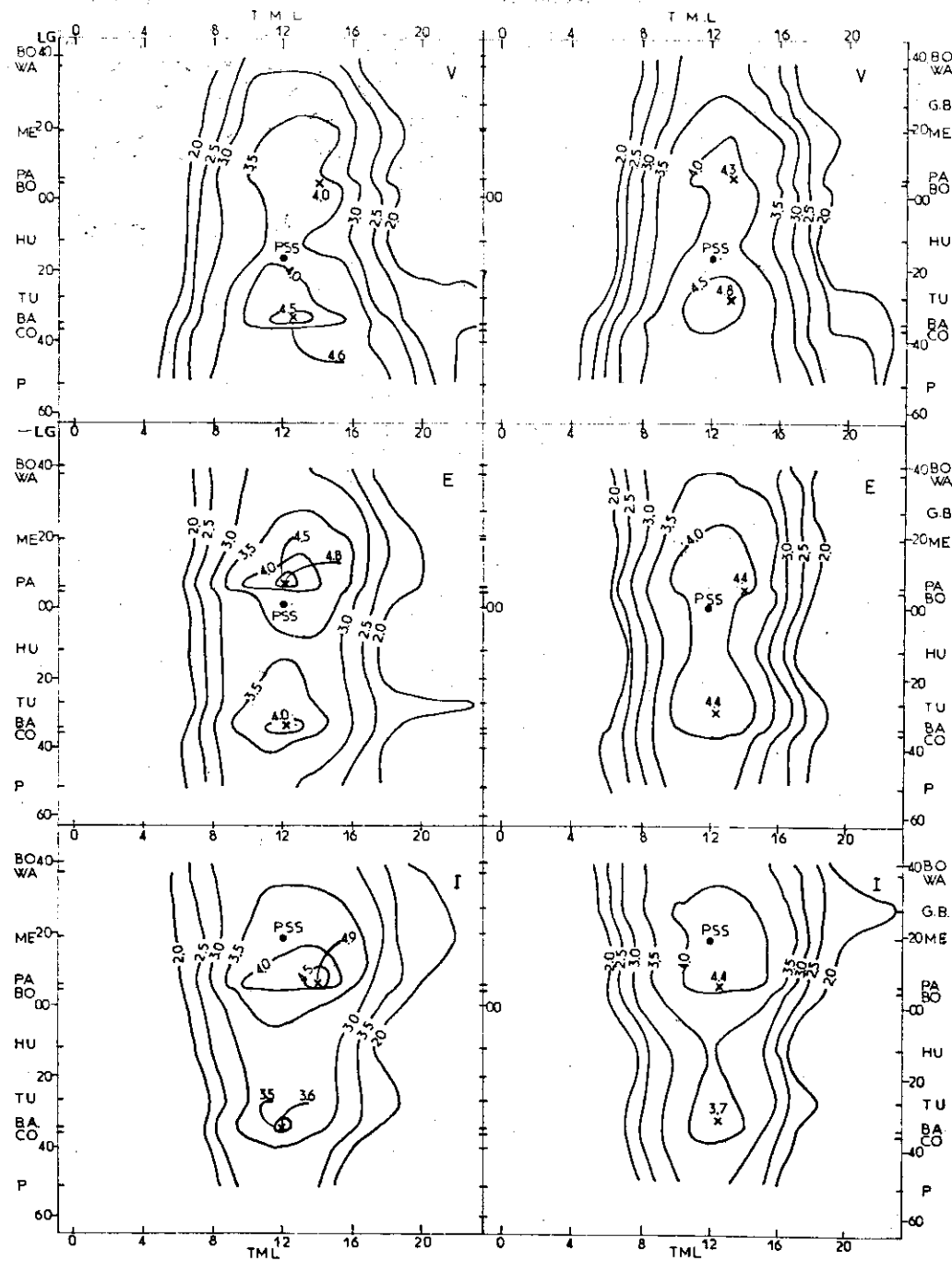


Fig. 1.22

VARIACION ESTACIONARIA DE LA ALTURA DE REFLEXION

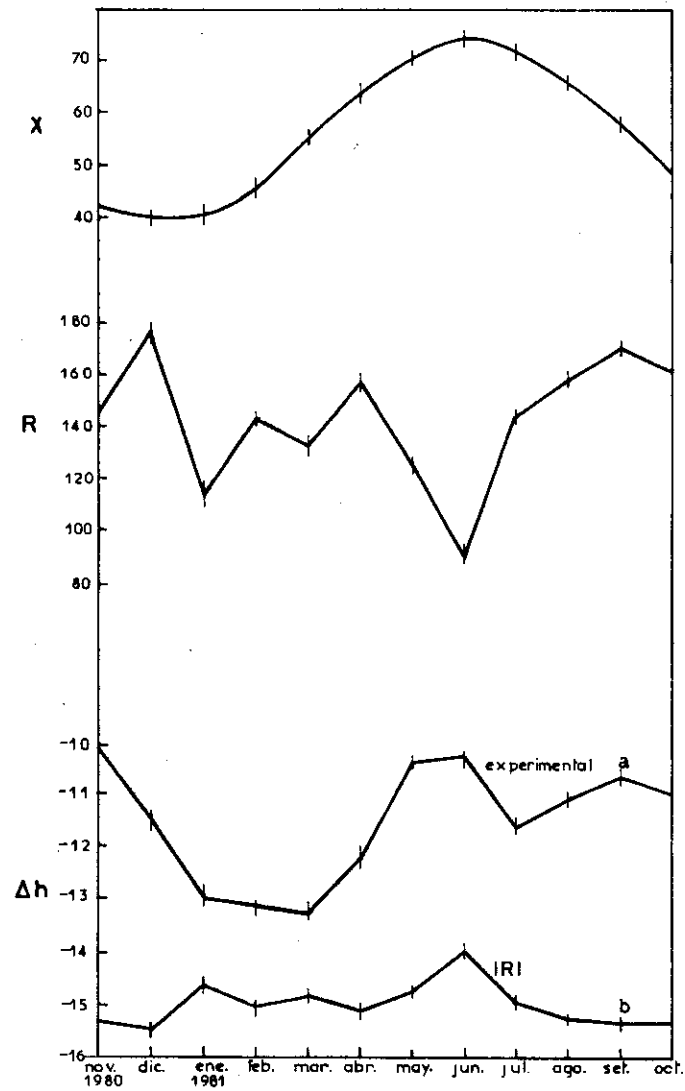


Fig. 1.23

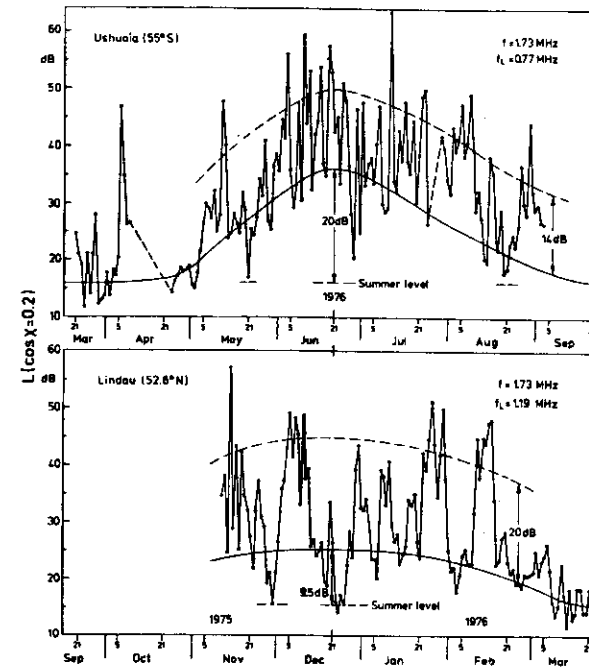


Fig. 1.24

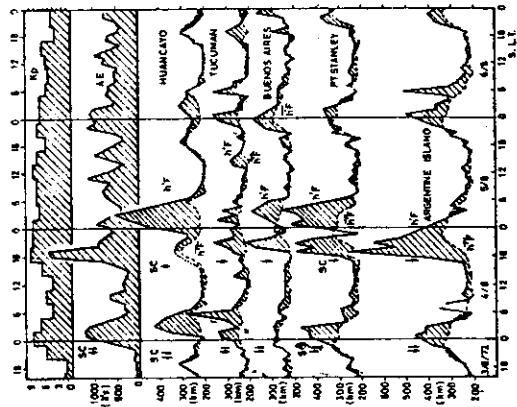


Fig. 1.25

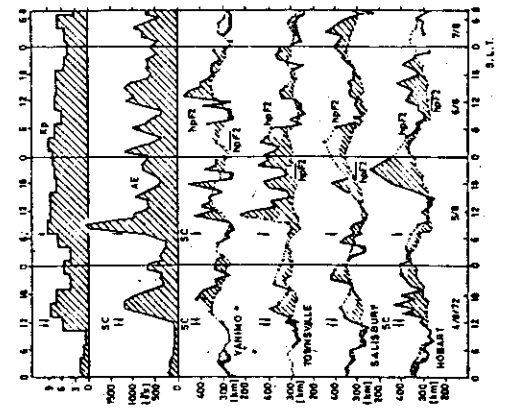


Fig. 1.26

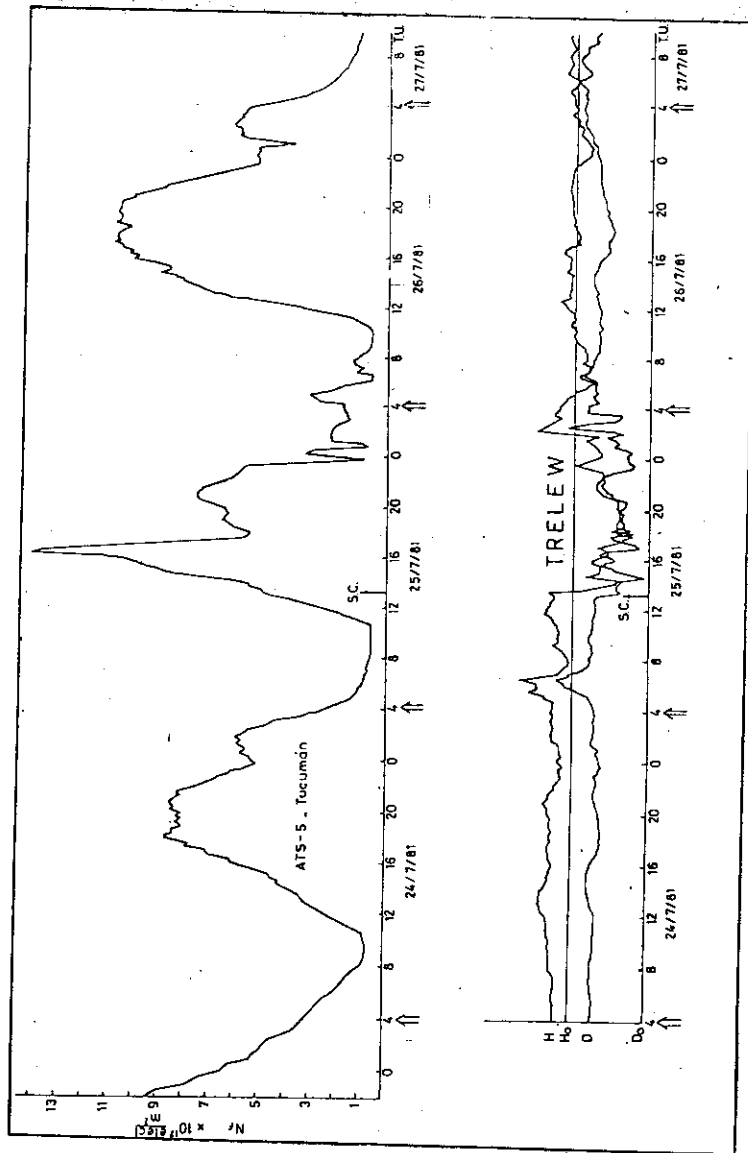


Fig. 1.27

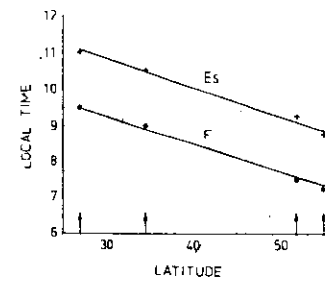


Fig. 1.28

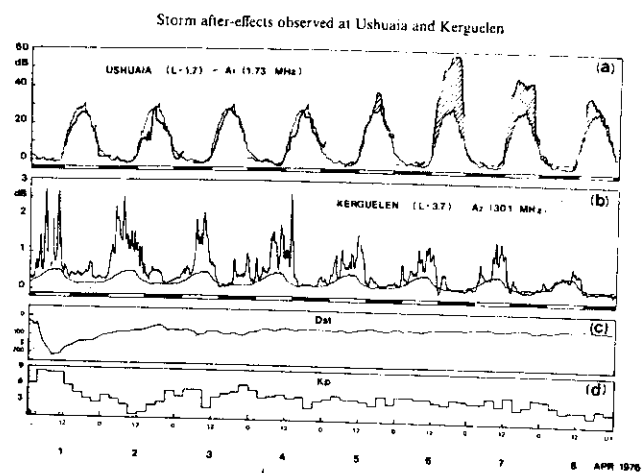


Fig. 1.29

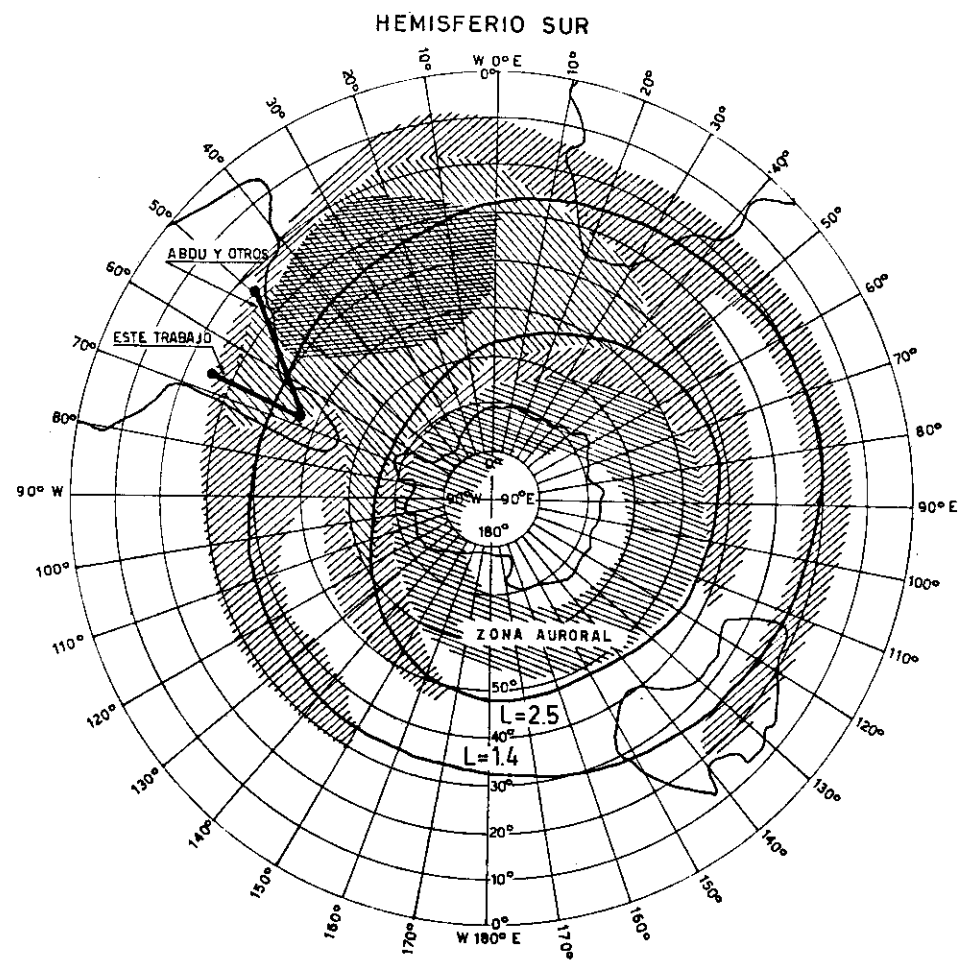


Fig. 1.30

