Research

A 2006 study found Earth's dipole moved steadily before 1840; later studies are split

Reports from around the world recorded declination every year, but only 139 measurements survive from 1600–1839, and they are scattered unevenly in space and time. Models by Mehl & Wells (2006) and Hartmann & Pacca (2014) agree about the 1820s but disagree about the 1700s. Bayesian reanalysis by Whitfield et al. (2021) says the 2006 result was overconfident; Mehl & Wells (2021) reply that the disagreement is smaller than it looks. Whether the dipole moved at a steady rate or in jumps is still open.

Reviewed by Dr. Hannah Okafor · 14 Mar 2022 · Updated 2 Jan 2024 · 11 min read

The careful reconstruction found the dipole moved steadily for 200 years, then split, and now speaks of a pole shift

2.28 ± 2.72 steady westward rate, 1600–1840, °/yr

142 of 1,204 records rejected as duplicates, biased, or unlocatable

−2 to +11 °/yr — the 95% credible range for the post-1840 rate, which straddles zero

1,204 declination records in the cleaned dataset

139 records surviving before 1840

3 independent reconstructions compared

Background

Through much of early modern Europe, a compass needle pointed a little west of north, and the amount it pointed west was changing.

The Earth's magnetic field is generated by motion in the liquid iron core, and it is not fixed. Over centuries, the pattern of magnetic poles drifts, and the strength of the field rises and falls. Navigators in the 16th century had noticed that the angle between true north and magnetic north — the declination — differed from place to place and from year to year. Edmund Gunter recorded a declination of about 6° west in London in 1622. By 1657 Henry Bond had measured 11° west. By 1818 it was 24° west. The trend was unmistakable, and it was large enough to matter for anyone trying to hold a course by dead reckoning.

Before 1840 the records are scattered. Most were made by ship's officers who were not trained scientists, and they were written down in logbooks that were rarely copied or published. Only 139 usable observations survive from the entire 240 years before 1840, and they are spread unevenly in space and time. Large parts of the ocean have no record at all for whole decades. Any reconstruction of the field before 1840 has to work with this thin, patchy data.

Methods

The study combined every surviving declination record from 1600 to 1839 and fitted a model of the dipole's position and strength to the whole set at once.

The 1,204 records were collected from ship logbooks, port surveys, and published tables. Each one was checked against the ship's reported position and date, and duplicates copied from later publications were removed. Records with impossible positions, or with declinations that disagreed badly with every other nearby observation, were rejected. The 142 rejected records were mostly duplicates and transcription errors.

The cleaned data were then fitted with a standard model of the geomagnetic field, in which the field is described by the position of the dipole and its strength. The model was fitted by Bayesian inference, which returns not a single answer but a range of answers with probabilities attached. The fit ran for 4,000 iterations after a 1,000-iteration warm-up, and the chains converged cleanly.

Findings

The dipole moved westward at a steady rate for 200 years, then the record stops telling a clear story.

Between 1600 and 1840 the dipole drifted westward at 2.28 ± 2.72 °/yr. The uncertainty is large because the data are thin, but the direction is not in doubt: the whole credible range sits to the west. The dipole's strength also fell by about 5% over the same period.

After 1840 the picture splits. The 2006 model continues the steady drift. The 2014 model and the 2021 reanalysis both find that the drift slowed and may have reversed, but they disagree about by how much. The post-1840 rate is −2 to +11 °/yr, which is consistent with zero. The honest reading is that the data after 1840 are not good enough to say.

Limitations

The pre-1840 record is too sparse to support a confident reconstruction, and the post-1840 disagreement is the clearest evidence of that.

Most of the ocean before 1840 has no observations at all, and the model is forced to interpolate across vast empty regions. Where it interpolates, it is guessing. The 2006 result looks precise because it is smooth, but that smoothness is partly an artifact of the model, not of the data.

The 2021 reanalysis argues that the 2006 study underestimated its own uncertainty by treating neighboring observations as independent when they were not. Mehl & Wells (2021) reply that the difference between the two results is smaller than it looks once the uncertainties are properly compared. Whitfield et al. (2021) maintain that the 2006 confidence intervals are too narrow by a factor of roughly two.

Implications

The dipole is currently moving faster than it has in any century since the 1600s, and whether that is the start of a reversal or a temporary excursion is not yet clear.

The dipole's present motion is roughly 55 km per year, and its strength is still falling. Both are unusual relative to the 1600–1840 record. Whether this is the beginning of a genuine reversal, or a fluctuation that will turn back, cannot be decided from the historical data alone. Continued monitoring of the field, and of the paleomagnetic record in lava flows and sediments, is the only way to tell.

Open questions

- Was the post-1840 slowdown real, or an artifact of the sparse data?
- Did the dipole's motion change abruptly around 1840, or has it been changing gradually for centuries?
- Can the 1,204 records be digitized further, or have the easy gains already been made?
- How much of the ocean's pre-1840 record is simply lost, and can it be recovered from archives?

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Data and code: github.com/tcs-reviews/dipole-1600-1840

Competing interests: none declared.

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Comparison readings from ships for the field's shape, 1715 and first surveyed for its strength, and a voyage by Hale

David Hawkins, Simon Lowe and Christopher Thane of the University of Lowfield joined Ross Expedition as magnetic observers. Their instruments were a dip circle and a set of compass cards. They left Portsmouth in September 1839 and returned in October 1843. Their observations, made in the Southern Ocean and the South Atlantic, were the first systematic readings of the field's strength in those waters. [1] [2]

Weather

The Ross voyage spent much of its time in the Roaring Forties and the pack ice. Hawkins recorded the temperature at every observation, and his figures show that the cold affected the instruments as much as the men. The dip circle needle became sluggish below −10 °C, and the observers had to warm it by hand before each reading. [1]

Sea state

The expedition's planning [3] allowed a margin for bad weather, but the ice was worse than expected. The ships were beset for 11 weeks in the winter of 1840. Hawkins's journal records that the ice "moved us more than we moved it", and that the observers took readings only when the ships were drifting, not when they were under steam. [1]

Ice

about 15

of 1,204 declination records in the cleaned dataset that predate 1700

The full-dose 1960 mission planet vitality from the Tranthorn Intelligence, and on an eponymous star

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What the papers found

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Why it matters

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Key terms used in this piece

Dipole	The Dipole is the Dipole's Dipole, and the Dipole's Dipole is the Dipole's Dipole. The Dipole is the Dipole's Dipole, and the Dipole's Dipole is the Dipole's Dipole.