

# 1 **ULF waves and transients in the upper ionosphere:** 2 **low Earth orbit observations**

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3 We review new physical results about various types of ULF waves (Pc3, Pi1-2, Pc1-2) in the  
4 topside ionosphere stemming from low-orbiting satellite observations. Pc3 and Pi2 waves were  
5 detected clearly in the compressional component, whereas on the ground their signature was  
6 found in the H component. Relationships between the ULF wave compressional component  
7 above the ionosphere and the ground response can be produced by different wave energy transfer  
8 mechanisms. Theoretical modeling showed that Pc 3 waves and nighttime Pi2 pulsations observed  
9 simultaneously in the upper ionosphere and on the ground corresponded to the scenario of direct  
10 fast mode transmission to the ground. The transverse waves dominated only in narrow regions  
11 of field line Alfvén resonance. Pc1 and Pc2 waves were found to be confined to subauroral  
12 and sub-plasmapause latitudes, respectively. The overwhelming fast magnetosonic waves in the  
13 near-planet environment could be used as sounding signals for the magnetotelluric sounding of  
14 the conductivity of a planet based on the recordings of electric and magnetic components on a  
15 low-orbiting probe. The LEO observations make it possible to study ULF response of the upper  
16 ionosphere to atmospheric thunderstorm activity.

## 1. Introduction

17 The current knowledge of ULF wave physics is mainly based on the electromagnetic observa-  
18 tions either in the near-equatorial magnetospheric domain with geosynchronous spacecraft or in  
19 the lower ionosphere with radar facilities, or on the ground with magnetometers. The region of  
20 topside ionosphere has remained mostly unexplored. Only recently advances in precise high-rate

21 measurements of the geomagnetic field by low Earth orbit (LEO) satellites have made it possible  
22 to detect various types of ULF waves in the topside ionosphere. A sensitivity of modern satellite  
23 magnetometers and electric field sensors became sufficient to detect waves and transients in a  
24 high-frequency part of ULF spectrum. Such LEO missions, like MAGSAT, DE-1, Ørsted, FAST,  
25 ST5, C/NOFS, Chibis-M, and especially CHAMP have enabled us to study in situ the ULF  
26 waves in the topside ionosphere. These observations cover the ULF range from Pc1/Pi1 waves  
27 (fractions of Hz) to Pc3 waves ( $f \simeq 20 - 100$  mHz). Due to the fast motion of a LEO spacecraft,  
28 lower frequency Pc4-5 waves (1– 10 mHz) cannot be revealed by such observations. Though Pi2  
29 waves have low frequencies ( $\sim 5 - 25$  mHz), thanks to their large spatial scales at low latitudes,  
30 they have also been detected by low-orbiting spacecraft. LEO satellite observations have a unique  
31 role in ULF wave physics, bridging the gap between magnetospheric and ground observations,  
32 especially in studying the interactions of ULF waves with the ionosphere. These observations  
33 have indicated already that some existing theoretical views have to be revised.

## 2. ULF wave observations in LEO missions

34 There have been a handful of studies on various types of ULF waves from LEO and we will  
35 outline here some of the key studies.

### 2.1. Pc1 waves

36 Pc1 waves ( $\sim 0.2 - 5$  Hz) are expected to be highly effective in depleting relativistic electrons  
37 from the outer radiation belt and protons from the ring current, therefore studies of these waves  
38 became a high priority. According to the present day knowledge [e.g., *Guglielmi and Kangas,*  
39 2007] Pc1 pulsations represent packets of electromagnetic ion-cyclotron (EMIC) waves which  
40 are excited as a result of cyclotron instability of energetic ring current protons with anisotropic

41 temperature distribution ( $T_{\perp} > T_{\parallel}$ ). It is commonly believed that this EMIC instability is  
42 convective, that is, the region of instability at the top of a field line works as an amplifier of  
43 running along a field line Alfvén waves. The wave packets themselves oscillate between the  
44 conjugate ionospheres and are intensified at each passage through the equatorial region of the  
45 magnetosphere (the "bouncing wave packet" model), though currently this model casts more and  
46 more doubts [*Mursula, 2007*].

47 Pc1 observations in the ionosphere were first reported during the MAGSAT era (*Iyemori and*  
48 *Hayashi, 1989*). The amplitude of the Pc1 waves on the ground was found to be  $\sim 5$ –100 times  
49 smaller than that observed by MAGSAT. However, conjunction studies between space and ground  
50 Pc1 waves are not easily done as Pc1 waves are ducted within the ionosphere and appear on the  
51 ground over a much wider region than in space [*Fujita and Tamao, 1988; Kim et al., 2010*].

52 The availability of 10 years of high-quality CHAMP data enabled *Park et al.* (2013) to examine  
53 a global climatology of Pc1 pulsations. Diurnal variation of Pc1 occurrence showed a primary  
54 maximum early in the morning and a secondary maximum during pre-midnight hours. Annual  
55 variations of the occurrence rate exhibited a clear preference for local summer. The solar cycle  
56 dependence revealed an occurrence rate maximum at the declining phase (2004–2005), whereas  
57 neither magnetic activity nor solar wind velocity controlled the Pc1 occurrence significantly. Pc1  
58 occurrence rate peaked at subauroral latitudes, with the steep cutoff towards higher latitudes. An  
59 interesting feature found was that the global distribution of Pc1 exhibited a highest occurrence  
60 rate in the longitude sector of the South Atlantic Anomaly.

61 A successful attempt to identify EMIC waves on the LEO mission ST5 was made by [*En-*  
62 *gebretson et al., 2008*], when 3 identical probes were located in almost identical orbits in a  
63 "pearls-on-a-string" configuration with distances between them from first thousands to hundreds

64 of km. The ST5 probes crossing the same spatial region with a delay of  $\sim 1 - 10$  min provided a  
65 drastically new possibility for resolving the problem of space-time uncertainty. All EMIC wave  
66 packets detected by two ST5 probes were observed at crossing one and the same latitude, which  
67 manifested their narrow localization in latitude with characteristic scale  $\Delta\Phi \simeq 0.5 - 0.7^\circ$  in  
68 latitude, or transverse dimension  $\Delta x \simeq 50 - 90$  km.

69 EMIC emissions were never detected with comparable amplitudes by all three ST5 probes.  
70 At the same time, when at the moment of registration of the wave packet the satellite orbit  
71 passed in the vicinity of a ground station a prolonged Pc1 emission at the same frequency was  
72 observed at the ground. In order to reconcile these observational facts, one may assume that  
73 the EMIC instability develops in the near-equatorial magnetosphere in the form of a series of  
74 irregular bursts of instability (like "frying pop-corn"). EMIC waves are excited not in the regime  
75 of continuous emission, but in the form of relatively short ( $< 10$  min) strongly localized wave  
76 bursts distributed chaotically in time and space in a finite region. That is why at a LEO satellite  
77 only short bursts of EMIC waves can be observed, while at ground stations prolonged emission  
78 collected from a large area is registered. Thus, the EMIC instability of the ring current may  
79 work not as a convective amplifier of oscillating wave packets, but as a generator of wave bursts  
80 (absolute instability).

81 The traditional theory of EMIC wave generation was developed under the assumption of their  
82 field-aligned propagation at which the packet wave vector remains parallel to the external mag-  
83 netic field ( $k \simeq k_{\parallel}$ ), since only these waves can interact efficiently with resonant protons. The  
84 critical transverse scale is determined by the value  $k_{\perp}^* = (\omega/\Omega)k_{\parallel}$  (where  $\Omega$  is the ion gyrofre-  
85 quency) [Leonovich *et al.*, 1985]. The small scale of EMIC waves detected by ST5 corresponds  
86 to a quasi-perpendicular propagation, since for them  $k_{\perp} \simeq 1/\Delta x > k_{\perp}^*$ . The realistic structure

87 of the radial distribution of the magnetospheric plasma is rather irregular, which allows one to  
88 suggest the existence of local waveguides for EMIC waves, not related directly to the plasma-  
89 pause. A waveguide for EMIC waves can be formed due to the joint action of the transverse  
90 wave dispersion and plasma inhomogeneity. The dispersion of the Alfvén wave can be caused by:  
91 a finite gyro-frequency  $\omega/\Omega \neq 0$ ; a finite Larmor radius of ions  $\rho_i \neq 0$ ; and an electron inertia,  
92 characterized by inertial electron length  $\lambda_e \neq 0$  [Dmitrienko *et al.*, 1992]. The waveguide nature  
93 of EMIC waves was further evidenced by the consideration of polarization features of the wave  
94 structures in the topside ionosphere [Pilipenko *et al.*, 2012]. For a typical EMIC wave packet, the  
95 polarization ellipticity  $\epsilon$  changed its polarity in the region of maximum amplitude of the trans-  
96 verse wave component. This polarization reversal may indicate the standing-mode structure of  
97 EMIC waves in the transverse direction which are characteristic for waveguide modes. However,  
98 comparison of ST5 observations with predictions of waveguide theory showed that none of those  
99 mechanisms could explain adequately the observed transverse scale of EMIC trapped modes in  
100 the topside ionosphere. The elliptical polarization and changing wave ellipse rotation do not  
101 follow from the existing theoretical models of the magnetospheric waveguide for EMIC waves,  
102 which indicates the necessity to refine theoretical models for the explanation of this effect. Thus,  
103 the question about the instability regime and the mechanism of spatial structure formation of  
104 EMIC waves remains open.

## 2.2. Pi1 bursts

105 Pi1 bursts in the band 0.1-1 Hz are known to be a signature of the auroral intensifications.  
106 However, Lessard *et al.* (2006) suggested that Pi1B could be not just a marker, but even a driver  
107 of auroral activations. Using a good conjunction of ground stations, GOES footprint and the  
108 track of the low-orbiting FAST spacecraft crossing they found that Pi1b waves propagated past

109 GOES as a compressional mode earthward and coupled to transverse waves at LEO altitudes.  
110 Moreover, Cluster and Polar showed that Pi1b pulsations were associated with plasma fast flows  
111 from deep in the magnetotail. The implication is that fast flows trigger compressional wave power  
112 that couples to shear mode waves that drive Alfvénic aurora that is observed as the brightening  
113 of an existing arc. A possible mechanism responsible for the resonant mode conversion due to  
114 the finite frequency effect of a fast mode wave packet into Alfvénic wave packet was proposed  
115 by *Pilipenko et al.* [2008]. So far, only one such event was reported, so this hypothesis awaits  
116 further validation.

### 2.3. Pc2 waves

117 Pc2 waves (70 – 150 mHz) are very a rare type of pulsations on the ground. Surprisingly, they  
118 were found to be almost always present in the topside ionosphere and magnetosphere as shown  
119 by CHAMP and THEMIS data analysis [*Yagova et al.*, 2015]. These Pc2 pulsations occurred  
120 mostly just inside the plasmapause ( $L \simeq 3.5$ ). The amplitudes of compressional and transverse  
121 components were comparable. The mechanism of these signals is still unknown. The responsible  
122 wave mode was interpreted as a waveguide mode of the waveguide formed at the plasmapause,  
123 partly converted into Alfvén waves. Also, generation of these waves by ion-cyclotron instability  
124 of energetic oxygen ions is possible.

### 2.4. Pc3 waves

125 Dayside Pc3-4 waves are typically observed for quiet and moderate activity period in the  
126 10–80 mHz range. These waves are commonly considered as a magnetospheric and ground  
127 image of upstream waves beyond the bow shock. This conjecture is supported by the linear  
128 statistical relationship between the wave frequency and the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF)

129 magnitude  $B_{IMF}$  ( $f \simeq 6.6B_{IMF}$ ), and strong control of Pc3 wave activity by the IMF cone angle.  
130 Compressional Pc3 waves in the near-equatorial regions of the magnetosphere were interpreted  
131 as fast mode inward transport of upstream wave energy into the inner magnetosphere (e.g., *Kim*  
132 *and Takahashi, 1999; Takahashi et al., 1994*). Because fast waves are to be reflected from regions  
133 with high Alfvén velocity  $V_A$ , they are expected to be localized in the near-equatorial plane of the  
134 magnetosphere only, and they can reach the ionosphere only as an evanescent mode. Therefore,  
135 traditional notions assumed that Pc3 waves at the ground were mainly produced by field line  
136 Alfvén oscillations, excited by compressional waves in a resonance region.

137 *Heilig et al. (2007)* and *Ndiitwani and Sutcliffe (2009)* found that the compressional power was  
138 unexpectedly large at LEO. In magnetic field measurements from CHAMP satellite Pc3 waves  
139 rather surprisingly were seen clearly in the magnetic field-aligned  $b_{\parallel}$  component, whereas on the  
140 ground their signatures were found in the H component. The coherence between ground and  
141 satellite wave signatures was high over wide latitude and longitude ranges. Observations of Pc3  
142 pulsations by the scalar magnetometer on the Ørsted satellite ( $h = 650 - 900\text{km}$ ) also showed  
143 the dominance of the compressional component (*Jadhav et al., 2001*). Pc3 wave packets were  
144 almost simultaneous at Oersted and at ground magnetic stations. In nighttime events the Pc3  
145 packets had about the same amplitude, but during the daytime Pc3 amplitudes at the satellite  
146 were larger than on the ground, especially at lower latitudes.

147 *Heilig et al. (2007)* performed a statistical analysis of compressional Pc3 waves (20–70 mHz)  
148 in the topside ionosphere recorded onboard CHAMP (Fig. 1). Observations revealed a clear  
149 latitudinal distribution of the Pc3 amplitudes: the average dayside compressional power had  
150 a peak near the geomagnetic equator and at high latitudes, and minima showed up at  $\sim 40^\circ$   
151 latitude in both hemispheres. The latitudinal characteristic was rather symmetrical about the

152 dip-equator, and peak values at high latitudes and at the equator had similar magnitudes. Addi-  
153 tional nighttime maximum at low latitudes and high-latitude maxima on the day- and nightside  
154 were probably produced by the contribution by spatial structures sampled by the fast moving  
155 satellite, namely the equatorial spread F phenomenon and field-aligned currents.

156 *Sutcliffe et al.* (2013) showed that beside the upstream wave related activity with  $B_{IMF}$   
157 dependent frequency a typical Pc3-4 pulsation observed at LEO contains a field line resonance  
158 contribution with latitude dependent frequency. A case study on a conjunction event between  
159 CHAMP satellite and the ground SEGMA network clearly detected the field-line resonance at  
160 LEO [*Vellante et al.*, 2004]. The authors succeeded to reveal the characteristic signatures of the  
161 Alfvén resonance in the spatial structure of Pc3 wave. The behavior of the azimuthal component  
162 showed specific amplitude-phase structure: the reversal of polarization sense through the resonant  
163 shell and  $\pi/2$  rotation of the polarization ellipse through the ionosphere.

164 *Nditwani and Sutcliffe* [2009] investigated a similar Pc3 event and found a negative Doppler  
165 shift during a poleward section of CHAMP’s orbit. *Nditwani and Sutcliffe* [2010] reported on two  
166 Pc3 events observed by CHAMP with L-dependent Doppler-shifted frequency. These results and  
167 especially the results of the statistical survey of *Heilig et al.* [2013] confirmed the flight direction  
168 dependent Doppler shift, as well as the  $\pi/2$  rotation. Figure 3 shows the power spectrum of the  
169 toroidal Alfvén waves as a function of latitude averaged from 4 months of daytime (07-15 MLT)  
170 observations made by CHAMP along poleward orbit segments around the March equinox in  
171 2003. Field line resonances detected along the MM100 ground magnetometer array with latitude  
172 dependent frequency (dashed line) were observed Doppler shifted to lower frequencies by CHAMP  
173 (dotted line). No significant dependence of the rotation angle on ionospheric conductivity or  
174 horizontal wave scale predicted by the theory was found. All the resonant Pc3 events considered

175 in the above studies were observed during daytime at mid latitudes ( $30^\circ - 50^\circ$  magnetic latitude).

176 At higher and lower latitudes transverse components are dominated by magnetic signatures of  
177 field aligned currents [*Nakanishi et al.*, 2014; *Heilig and Lühr*, 2013].

178 The occurrence of a significant compressional component  $b_{\parallel}$  of the Pc3 wave structure was  
179 unexpected, because it contradicted the assumed Alfvénic nature of Pc3 waves. The main features  
180 of the dayside compressional Pc3 activity at LEO were found to be controlled by interplanetary  
181 parameters (*Heilig et al.* 2007): Wave amplitudes are controlled by the solar wind speed and IMF  
182 cone angle, while the dominant frequency is determined by the IMF strength. All these findings  
183 supported the upstream origin of the compressional waves observed at LEO and indicated that  
184 the fast mode transfer mechanism from outer magnetosphere to the ground may be important.

185 Comparison of Pc3 waves at LEO with wave activity observed by magnetospheric satellites  
186 may help to estimate the efficiency of possible transmission mechanism. A pioneering study of  
187 this type was made by *Balasis et al.* [2012]: they compared strong Pc3 wave signatures during  
188 2003 Halloween storm at CHAMP with observations at CLUSTER mission. Pc3 waves were  
189 detected at CHAMP in total  $B$  variations, most evident in the auroral zone and dayside equator,  
190 while the wave power decreased significantly at mid-latitudes. Clear Pc3 waves were observed  
191 simultaneously with comparable magnitudes ( $\sim 2 - 4$  nT) both in the topside ionosphere and in  
192 the magnetosphere. Therefore, the combined LEO/ground observations clearly showed that the  
193 existing theoretical view assuming that only Alfvén waves can reach the bottom ionosphere has  
194 to be revised.

195 The key parameter for comparison of theoretical predictions with ground- satellite observations  
196 is the ratio  $\kappa$  of the compressional component above the ionosphere  $b_{\parallel}$  to the ground magnetic sig-  
197 nal  $b_x^{(g)}$  (H component), namely  $\kappa = b_{\parallel}/b_x^{(g)}$ . The MLT dependence of satellite/ground amplitude

198 ratio  $\kappa$  showed that this ratio remains pretty much the same, varying in the range  $\kappa = 1.0 \pm 0.5$   
199 (Fig. 2).

## 2.5. Pi2 waves

200 The mid-latitude Pi2 transients are commonly considered as a cavity mode oscillatory response  
201 of the inner magnetosphere (plasmasphere) to the substorm activation. This idea was firmly  
202 supported by numerous satellite observations in the nightside magnetosphere (*Takahashi et al.*,  
203 1995; *Keiling et al.*, 2001). The signatures of Pi2 compressional mode were observed by LEO DE-  
204 1 spacecraft even in the polar cap [*Teramoto et al.*, 2008]. Using data from CHAMP, *Sutcliffe and*  
205 *Lühr* [2003] extracted Pi2 pulsations with a significant compressional component. Simultaneous  
206 observations of nightside Pi2 waves at CHAMP and on the ground provided the spectral power  
207 ratio  $\kappa \simeq 1.0$ . The compressional component was in phase with the  $H$  component and the  
208 poloidal component was in anti-phase [*Sutcliffe and Lühr*, 2010]. Pi2 pulsations observed by the  
209 Orsted satellite in a low-latitude region were also nearly pure compressional mode (*Han et al.*,  
210 2004), and Pi2 compressional component mapped directly to the H-component on the ground.  
211 These observations interpreted Pi2 waves at low latitudes as the cavity fast mode wave directly  
212 transmitted to the ground.

213 Observations of dayside Pi2s at LEO are much more confusing. While daytime Pi2 pulsations  
214 are regularly observed on the ground, *Sutcliffe and Lühr* [2010] found no convincing evidence for  
215 their existence in CHAMP data. On the other hand, *Han et al.* [2004] presented two dayside  
216 events as candidate Pi2s. For these two events the amplitude at LEO was much smaller than on  
217 the ground, and the signals were in antiphase. What is clear from LEO observations, mechanism  
218 responsible for the dayside Pi2s should be different from the nightside mechanism. Both *Han et*  
219 *al.* [2004] and *Sutcliffe and Lühr* [2010] argued that the observed behavior can be explained by

220 an ionospheric current excited by an electric field transmitted from nightside auroral latitudes  
221 through the ionosphere-ground waveguide. However, the mechanism of the magnetospheric E-  
222 field transmission through the atmosphere seems rather questionable [*Yumoto et al.*, 1997]. Thus,  
223 the mechanism of daytime Pi2 pulsations still remains unknown.

## 2.6. Observations of Pc4-5 wave structure

224 Analyzing ST5 data, *Le et al.* (2011) found transverse ULF wave packets in the Pc2-3 frequency  
225 range ( $\sim 30$ -200 mHz) with durations of a few minutes. These waves were typically observed  
226 whenever ST5 crossed the dayside subauroral zone. Waves in this band were not seen by ground  
227 magnetometers located along the footprint of the ST5 orbit, instead resonant Pc4-5 waves were  
228 detected. *Le et al.* (2011) suggested that these unique waves often seen by ST5 are in fact poloidal  
229 (small-scale in transverse direction) Pc4-5 wave structures observed Doppler-shifted by ST5 as a  
230 result of its rapid traverse across the resonant field lines azimuthally. From the observed Doppler  
231 shift,  $\Delta\omega \simeq \mathbf{k}_\perp \mathbf{V}_s$  (where  $V_s$  is the satellite velocity), the azimuthal angular wave numbers were  
232 estimated in the order of 100. These results indicated that high latitude poloidal Pc4-5 waves  
233 were much more frequent than previously thought. However, the occurrence of poloidal Pc4-5  
234 waves were not verified yet by magnetospheric satellites.

## 3. Modeling the relationship between the ULF compressional disturbance above the ionosphere and ground signal

235 The ULF wave pattern in the topside ionosphere is a complicated mixture of incident, reflected,  
236 and mutually converted waves. Interpretation of the low- altitude observations and comparison  
237 of satellite/ground measurements demands a relevant model. For low frequencies (Pc3/Pi2 pul-  
238 sations) an elaboration of such a model is facilitated by the possibility to use the thin ionosphere  
239 approximation. Under such an approximation the interaction of a plane wave harmonic with

240 the magnetosphere–ionosphere–atmosphere–ground system can be described analytically (*Alper-*  
241 *ovich and Fedorov, 2007*). For periods  $T > 20$  s the analytical approximation matches well the  
242 sophisticated numerical code that links the magnetosphere with the ionosphere and underlying  
243 atmosphere and ground [*Waters et al., 2013*]. However, in the Pc1/Pi1 range the approximation  
244 of a thin ionosphere is not valid, and the full wave equations in a realistic ionospheric plasma  
245 must be treated. An additional complication arises, which is to be taken into account, that a  
246 part of the Pc1 wave energy can be trapped in the ionospheric cavity. This cavity can serve  
247 as a waveguide for the fast magnetosonic mode and as a resonator for the Alfvén mode. The  
248 channeling of Pc1 wave energy in the ionospheric waveguide ensures the propagation of the signal  
249 to large distances along the ionosphere (*Fujita and Tamao, 1988*). The partial trapping of the in-  
250 cident wave energy in the ionospheric Alfvén resonator results in oscillatory frequency-dependent  
251 transmission properties of the ionosphere in the Pc1 band (*Lysak, 1997*).

252 The occurrence of ULF compressional disturbance in the topside ionosphere can be caused by  
253 two possible mechanisms:

- 254 - an incident Alfvén wave generates an evanescent fast compressional mode upon interaction  
255 with the anisotropically conducting ionosphere (*Hughes and Southwood, 1976*);
- 256 - transport of ULF wave energy from a distant source to the ionosphere occurs predominantly  
257 via the fast magnetosonic mode.

### 3.1. MHD wave penetration through the thin ionosphere to the ground

258 Standard models of the magnetosphere – ionosphere interface consider a half-space filled with a  
259 cold magnetospheric plasma bounded by a thin ionosphere - an anisotropically conducting layer  
260 at altitude  $h$  with height-integrated conductances  $\Sigma_P$  and  $\Sigma_H$ . The magnetospheric plasma is  
261 characterized by an Alfvén velocity  $V_A$  and a wave conductance  $\Sigma_A = 1/\mu_0 V_A$ . This multi-layer

262 system is immersed in a straight magnetic field  $\mathbf{B}_0$ , inclined to the Earth's surface by angle  $I$   
263 (vertical  $\mathbf{B}_0$  corresponds to  $I = \pm\pi/2$ , in the equatorial ionosphere  $I \rightarrow 0$ ). The atmosphere and  
264 ground are assumed to be isotropic conductors with conductivities  $\sigma_a$  and  $\sigma_g$ .

265 The wave electric ( $\mathbf{e}$ ) and magnetic ( $\mathbf{b}$ ) fields can be decomposed into two modes. The mag-  
266 netospheric wave fields are the sum of

267 • Alfvén mode, where the disturbed magnetic field  $\mathbf{b}_\perp$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{B}_0$ , whereas the  
268 longitudinal component is vanishing  $b_\parallel = 0$ ; and

269 • Fast magnetosonic (FMS) mode, where the field-aligned component of the current vanishes  
270  $j_\parallel = 0$ . The field-aligned (compressional) magnetic component  $b_\parallel$  is typical for FMS mode and  
271 characterizes the plasma and magnetic field compression:  $\delta N/N \simeq b_\parallel/B_0$ .

272 An electromagnetic disturbance in the atmosphere and at the ground is composed of

273 • Magnetic (TE) H-mode, where the vertical component of the disturbed electric field is  
274 absent,  $e_z = 0$ ; and

275 • Electric (TM) E-mode, where the vertical component of the disturbed magnetic field is  
276 absent,  $b_z = 0$ .

277 Commonly, a harmonic incident wave  $\propto \exp(-i\omega t + ik_x x + ik_y y)$  is considered. Here for simplic-  
278 ity the azimuthal variations are neglected,  $k_y = 0$ , so  $k = k_x$  is the component of the horizontal  
279 wave vector. The general set of Maxwell and ideal MHD equations for the electromagnetic field in  
280 the magnetospheric plasma may be decomposed into two uncoupled sets of equations for Alfvén  
281 and FMS modes. In a similar way, the decomposition into uncoupled E- and H-modes takes  
282 place in the atmosphere/ground region.

283 The electromagnetic field in the magnetosphere may be presented as a combination of incident  
284 and reflected waves. The "thin ionosphere" theory provides analytical expressions for the matrix

285 **R** of reflection coefficients, e.g., the ratio of the horizontal magnetic components  $\mathbf{b}_\tau$  of the wave  
 286 magnetic fields after and before reflection. Similarly, for the wave penetration to the ground,  
 287 the matrix **T** of transmission coefficients for the ratio of the horizontal magnetic field at the  
 288 ground to the horizontal magnetic field in the ionosphere was calculated. The elements of the  
 289 reflection/transmission matrices are given in the theory of MHD wave interaction with the thin  
 290 ionosphere (*Alperovich and Fedorov, 2007*), and they comprise the Hall effect (*Yoshikawa and*  
 291 *Itonaga, 1996*), excitation of the ionospheric surface mode (*Pilipenko et al., 2000*), and the  
 292 finite conductivity of the atmosphere and ground. In what follows, we consider separately the  
 293 mechanisms of occurrence of  $b_\parallel$  upon incidence of Alfvén and FMS waves onto the ionosphere–  
 294 atmosphere–ground system.

**Alfvén waves.** Upon interaction with the anisotropic ionosphere, a compressional component  
 of the reflected evanescent mode can be produced by an incident Alfvén wave. The ratio  $\kappa_A(z)$   
 of the compressional component of an evanescent mode above the ionosphere  $b_\parallel(z)$  at altitude  $z$   
 to the ground magnetic signal  $b_x^{(g)}$  is (*Pilipenko et al., 2008*)

$$\kappa_A(z) = \frac{b_\parallel(z)}{b_x^{(g)}} = \exp(iI)kh_* \exp(-kz) \quad h_* = h + (1+i)\delta_g/2 \quad (1)$$

295 This relationship is valid for large-scale wave structure,  $kh \ll 1$ , and when the wave skin-depth  
 296  $\delta_g = (2/\omega\mu_0\sigma_g)^{1/2}$  in the ground is much less than the horizontal scale of the disturbance, that  
 297 is  $k\delta_g \ll 1$ . Thus, the ratio  $\kappa_A$  should not depend on the ionospheric conductance, but it is  
 298 determined by the wave scale, ground conductivity, and the altitude of the space monitor. In  
 299 fact, the atmospheric H-mode and reflected fast mode are produced by the same ionospheric Hall  
 300 current, induced by the incident Alfvén wave. As a result, the lower penetration of the magne-  
 301 tosphereic Alfvén signal to the ground and its lower efficiency of compressional mode excitation  
 302 exactly compensate each other, and the ratio  $\kappa_A$  remains nearly the same during both nighttime

303 and daytime. The latitude (or inclination) determines the phase shift between the compressional  
304 and ground signals ( $Arg(b_{\parallel}, b_x^{(g)}) \simeq I$ ), but not the amplitude of their ratio.

305 **FMS mode.** This mechanism assumes that the wave energy is transported from a source  
306 towards the ground by a FMS mode, without conversion into Alfvén waves. Though, FMS waves  
307 upon their propagation to the bottom ionosphere encounter a non-propagation (opaque) region,  
308 thanks to its large horizontal scale, even an evanescent FMS mode can convey significant wave  
309 energy towards the Earth. The factor  $\kappa_F$  characterizing the ratio of the total compressional  
310 magnetic disturbance at LEO to the mid-latitude ground magnetic disturbance, induced by the  
311 FMS mode, is determined by the transmission properties of the whole ionosphere-atmosphere-  
312 ground system. The thin ionosphere theory (Pilipenko et al., 2008, 2011) provides a remarkably  
313 simple relationship for a low altitude  $z$  and highly-conductive ground ( $\sigma_g \rightarrow \infty$ ), as follows

$$\kappa_F(z) = \frac{b_{\parallel}(z)}{b_x^{(g)}} = (1 - ip) \cos I \quad (2)$$

314 The parameter  $p = \omega h/V_C$  controls the penetration of the FMS mode through the ionosphere to  
315 the ground. Here  $V_C = (\mu \Sigma_C)^{-1}$  ( $V_C[km/s] \simeq 800/\Sigma_C[S]$ ) is the ionospheric Cowling velocity,  
316 determined by the Cowling-like combination of the ionospheric conductances  $\Sigma_C = \Sigma_P + \Sigma_H^2/\Sigma_P$ .  
317 For the nightside ionosphere the parameter  $|p| \ll 1$ . Thus, the nightside ionosphere may be  
318 considered as transparent for FMS mode, that is  $\kappa \simeq 1$ , so the incident wave is reflected mainly  
319 by Earth's surface. The component  $b_{\parallel}$  is expected to be in phase with H-component on the  
320 ground. These theoretical predictions agree with the CHAMP/ground observations of Pi2 waves  
321 [Cuturrufo et al., 2014]. At dayside  $|p| \simeq 1$ , thus, the dayside ionosphere can partially screen the  
322 magnetospheric signal from the ground, and introduce a noticeable phase delay.

323 The relationship (2) predicts that the experimentally measured ratio  $\kappa_F$  should be proportional  
324 to  $\cos I$ , that is, it should decrease away from the dip equator. This prediction agrees with the  
325 Pi2 observations by *Han et al.* [2004].

326 **Comparison of two mechanisms.** Large-scale Alfvén and FMS modes both provide ground  
327 response mainly in H- component, so just isolated ground observations cannot resolve them. For  
328 interpretation of satellite observations it is necessary to know the relation between the parameters  
329  $\kappa_A(z)$  and  $\kappa_F(z)$ . The numerically modeled behavior of these factors at CHAMP altitude for Pc3  
330 waves at middle latitudes showed that the compressional component produced by an incident  
331 Alfvén wave becomes noticeable for wave scales in the range  $k \simeq 10^{-2} - 10^{-3}\text{km}^{-1}$  [*Pilipenko et*  
332 *al.*, 2008]. The factor  $\kappa_F$ , characterizing the efficiency of fast mode penetration to the ground, is  
333 somewhat higher for the dayside ionosphere than for the night side ionosphere. Comparison of  
334 the experimentally observed ratio  $\kappa$  with the modeling results showed a better correspondence  
335 with the scenario of direct fast mode transmission to the ground, because  $\kappa \simeq \kappa_F \gg \kappa_A$ . Thus,  
336 this theoretical consideration confirmed the new paradigm of the Pc3 wave energy transmission  
337 mechanism to the ground. Throughout mid- and low latitudes, the wave energy is transmitted  
338 predominantly by FMS mode, and only a narrow latitudinal region corresponding to the field  
339 line resonance, conversion into Alfvén mode dominated.

#### 4. Possibility of electromagnetic sounding of planetary interior from a LEO probe

340 Standard magnetotelluric sounding (MTS) of the crust conductivity profile  $\sigma(z)$  is based on  
341 the determination of ground impedance  $Z_g$  from the data of synchronous magnetic and telluric  
342 electric field observations on the ground, whereas ULF magnetospheric waves are sounding elec-  
343 tromagnetic signals. When the strong skin-effect approximation (Wait-Price condition) is valid,  
344  $k\delta_g \ll 1$ , the electric and magnetic components of any electromagnetic wave on the Earth's

345 surface are related by the impedance relationship independent of the wave's spatial structure

$$\mu_0 \frac{E^{(g)}(\omega)}{B^{(g)}(\omega)} = Z_g(\omega) \quad (3)$$

346 For any conductivity profiles, an apparent resistivity  $\rho_T$  is introduced using the Tikhonov-Caniard  
347 formula  $\rho_T(\omega) = |Z_g(\omega)|^2/\omega\mu$ . *Fedorov et al.* [2014] suggested that a similar MTS approach can  
348 be used to find the planetary interior conductivity using the registration of variable electric and  
349 magnetic fields on a LEO probe above a planetary ionosphere, while FMS waves in the planetary  
350 magnetosphere can play the role of sounding waves. Indeed, any planet with a magnetosphere  
351 and detached bow shock constantly generates reflected particles and upstream waves that subse-  
352 quently penetrate into the magnetosphere and "illuminate" a planet. Observations of upstream  
353 Pc3 waves in the terrestrial magnetosphere on LEO satellites indicated that the Alfvén mode in  
354 the ULF field predominates only in the narrow resonance region, while MHD wave activity above  
355 the ionosphere is generally formed by FMS waves. The probe magnetometer measures electric  
356 and magnetic wave components above the ionosphere, which enables one using the spectra of  
357 tangent to the ionosphere electric  $E_\tau(\omega, k)$  and magnetic  $B_\tau(\omega, k)$  variations to determine the  
358 matrix of an apparent spectral impedance  $Z_I(\omega, k)$ . The satellite MTS becomes feasible if an  
359 adequate theory could provide an estimate of the planet's surface impedance contribution to  
360 the apparent impedance of an entire system magnetosphere - ionosphere - atmosphere - ground  
361 measured onboard a probe.

362 There are two conditions when the planet's surface impedance  $Z_g$  can be in principle deter-  
363 mined from the apparent impedance  $Z_I$  measured on a probe above the ionosphere. First, the  
364 ionospheric conductance should not be very high, otherwise FMS mode would be totally reflected  
365 by the ionosphere and would not reach the ground. Second, the planet's ground conductivity  
366 should be high enough, otherwise FMS mode would not reflect effectively from its surface. When

367 both conditions are valid, then, according to the thin ionosphere theory, the planet's surface  
368 impedance  $Z_g$  can be determined from measured by probe apparent impedance  $Z_I$  from the  
369 following relationship

$$Z_g \simeq Z_I + i\omega\mu(z + h) \quad (4)$$

370 The geometrical factor in (4) is easily calculated from frequency of detected waves  $\omega$  and probe  
371 altitude  $z$ . The proposed approach can be tested based on electromagnetic Pc3 and Pi2 wave  
372 observations on LEO SWARM satellite with electric and magnetic sensors onboard in the Earth's  
373 topside ionosphere before it can be applied to sound other planets.

## 5. ULF response in the upper ionosphere to atmospheric electric discharges

374 Atmospheric thunderstorms constitute one of the most powerful disturbances in the Earth's  
375 environment and provide an impulsive coupling of the Earth's atmosphere with the ionosphere  
376 above active storm cells with a considerable energy involved. Electrical storms are known to be  
377 one of the natural sources of electromagnetic emissions in a wide frequency range, from 0.1 Hz  
378 to hundreds of MHz covering ULF - ELF - VLF - HF - VHF bands. The largest spectral density  
379 of the atmospheric electrical discharge is concentrated in the VLF band ( $\sim$ few kHz), though  
380 comparable spectral power is contained in the lower ELF-ULF bands (from fractions of Hz to  
381 few tens of Hz).

382 The characteristic feature of the Earth's atmospheric electromagnetic activity is the world-wide  
383 occurrence of Schumann resonance - narrow-band electromagnetic emission at certain frequencies  
384 in the ELF range of 8-50 Hz. SR are formed due to the natural spherical resonance cavity be-  
385 tween the ground and lower ionosphere, permanently excited by the global thunderstorm activity.  
386 Commonly, it is assumed that the resonator upper boundary is a perfectly reflecting conductor.

387 Nonetheless, a theoretical possibility of electromagnetic energy leakage from the resonator into  
388 the upper ionosphere was indicated [Surkov *et al.*, 2013]. This leakage may become noticeable  
389 on the nighttime side of ionosphere. Recent electric field measurements onboard LEO C/NOFS  
390 and Chibis-M satellites revealed a distinct picture of several Schumann harmonics [Simoes *et al.*,  
391 2013; Dudkin *et al.*, 2014], most evident during nighttime.

392 A peculiar feature of the geomagnetic variations in the ULF band, just below the fundamen-  
393 tal tone of Schumann resonance, is the occurrence of multi-band Spectral Resonant Structure,  
394 observed by high-sensitive induction magnetometers during nighttime at low, middle, and even  
395 high latitudes. The lowest frequency of this multi-band spectral structure is about fractions of  
396 Hz, and the difference between the spectral harmonics is  $\sim 0.3-0.5$  Hz. The occurrence of this  
397 spectral structure was commonly attributed to the Ionospheric Alfvén Resonator (IAR) in the  
398 upper ionosphere (see review by Demekhov, 2012). The IAR lower boundary coincides with the  
399 E-layer, whereas the upper boundary is located at altitude of few thousands km where Alfvén  
400 waves are partially reflected from a steep gradient of the  $V_A(z)$  profile above the maximum of  
401 the F-layer. The ionospheric cavity with a minimum of  $V_A(z)$  works not only as resonator for  
402 Alfvén waves, but as a waveguide for the FMS mode. The waveguide magnetosonic modes with  
403 frequencies above the critical frequency  $\sim 0.5$  Hz can propagate over long distances (up to few  
404 thousand km) along the ionosphere. It was suggested that either regional thunderstorms or world  
405 tropical thunderstorm centers are able to stimulate the signals in the IAR range with sufficient  
406 intensities.

407 A resonator response is to be different for a quasi-steady harmonic driver and for an impulsive  
408 excitation. While the first driver excites a relevant eigenmode of the resonator, an impulsive  
409 source produces a pulse oscillating between the upper and bottom boundaries of resonator,

410 gradually spreading because of dispersion. *Fedorov et al.* [2014] suggested, in contrast with  
411 the traditional view, that multi-band spectra on the ground excited by lightning discharges are  
412 in fact produced by a pair or more pulses, reflected from the IAR boundaries. As illustrated in  
413 Fig. 3, upon the interaction of the initial lightning-generated pulse with the anisotropic lower  
414 ionosphere, it partially penetrates into the ionosphere, travels up the ionosphere as an Alfvén pulse,  
415 and reflects back from the upper IAR boundary. The superposition of initial pulse and echo-pulse  
416 separated by time delay  $\Delta t$  owing to the Alfvén wave propagation up and down in the ionosphere,  
417 produces spectra with multiple spectral peaks separated by  $\Delta f = 1/\Delta t$ . Indeed, examination  
418 of ULF magnetic response to the regional lightning activity showed that the mechanism of the  
419 multi-band spectral structure was not related to the oscillatory response of the upper ionosphere,  
420 but was caused by specific multi-pulse structure of geomagnetic disturbances (*Schekotov et al.*  
421 2011).

422 The issue of the magnitudes of the thunderstorm-related ULF fields in the upper ionosphere  
423 is rather controversial. Greifinger and Greifinger (1976) predicted only a weak strength of the  
424 ULF fields in the upper ionosphere above the thunderstorm. Thus, according to many theoretical  
425 models the IAR signatures could hardly be detected by a low-orbiting satellite. In contrast to  
426 the above results, *Plyasov et al.* (2012), using simplified multi-layered plane models, estimated  
427 analytically the expected IAR excitation rate by atmospheric thunderstorms, and claimed the  
428 possibility of the IAR signature detection in mid- and high latitude ionosphere by modern electric  
429 or magnetic sensors onboard LEO satellites.

430 Rather surprisingly, while ground observations of IAR are ubiquitous, the reports on detection  
431 of IAR signatures in the topside ionosphere are rare. The ELF electric field measurements  
432 onboard low-inclination ( $13^\circ$ ) C/NOFS satellite at altitudes of 400-850 km revealed few short-

433 lived ( $< 1$  s) signatures near the terminator ("fingerprint emission" with up to 20 harmonics)  
434 resembling IAR multi-band spectral structure (*Simoes et al., 2011*). However, frequencies of these  
435 structures were at least 5 times larger than model predictions. Thus, an interpretation on the  
436 basis of standard IAR model demands more than an order of magnitude lower plasma density in  
437 the upper ionosphere as compared with existing ionospheric models. *Dudkin et al. [2014]* using  
438 the electric field sensor onboard Chibis-M microsatellite found just several signatures of the  
439 triggered excitation of IAR in the upper ionosphere. Thus, the lack of ubiquitous IAR signatures  
440 in the topside ionosphere is still to be understood.

## 6. Discussion: Prospects of further studies

441 Observations at CHAMP of the global distribution of dayside compressional Pc3 pulsation  
442 activity and ground Pc3 waves have shown that a significant part of the magnetospheric fast  
443 mode energy can leak to the ionosphere, and eventually to the ground. The statistics of the  
444 Pc3 wave events are probably dominated by events with a larger contribution of intervals when  
445 CHAMP was away from the local Alfvén resonant region. In these events a ground Pc3 signal  
446 is expected to be coherent over large distances, and resonant distortions of amplitude/phase  
447 behavior will be small. Observational results and theoretical modeling have confirmed the idea  
448 of fast mode cavity mechanism of night side low-latitude Pi2 oscillations and Pc3 waves. The  
449 transmission channel of magnetospheric Pc3/Pi2 waves to the ground is especially evident at  
450 near-equatorial latitudes. The origin of night time Pc3 waves has not been firmly established  
451 yet. The coordinated CHAMP-ground observations of nighttime Pc3/Pi2 waves are generally  
452 in a qualitative agreement with the predictions of the theory, assuming the incidence onto the  
453 upper ionosphere of a pure FMS mode. The daytime CHAMP-ground Pc3 events revealed nearly  
454  $\pi$ -phase difference between the topside ionosphere and the ground [*Cuturrufo et al., 2014*], which

455 is not consistent with the fast mode transmission mechanism. However, in a general situation,  
456 coupled Alfvén and FMS modes may compose an incident ULF wave. Therefore, a situation is  
457 possible in which the compressional component in the upper ionosphere is due to FMS mode,  
458 whereas the ground signal and ionospheric electric field are produced mainly by the Alfvén  
459 mode. This case probably corresponds to the daytime Pc3 wave events observed by CHAMP  
460 by *Vellante et al.* [2004] and *Ndiitwani and Sutcliffe* [2009]. Though a close correspondence  
461 between the compressional component and ground signal was observed, the behavior of the  
462 CHAMP azimuthal component showed specific amplitude-phase structure typical for the field  
463 line resonance. The theoretical model for this general situation is still to be developed. The  
464 demand for the elaboration of a reliable qualitative model of ULF transmission through the  
465 ionosphere to the ground comes not only from ULF wave studies, but from the wider space  
466 community. Such model is necessary to evaluate how adequately ground observations of ULF  
467 waves correspond to magnetospheric wave activity, which is the important driver/loss factor for  
468 ring current protons and relativistic electrons.

469 The model of a thin ionosphere enables us to couple wave signature in the upper ionosphere  
470 and on the ground of Pc3/Pi2 pulsations. For short-period Pc1 waves the problem becomes  
471 significantly more complicated due to the ionospheric Alfvén resonator excitation and mode  
472 trapping into the FMS waveguide. These effects make the ULF wave transmission properties  
473 strongly frequency- and scale dependent and demand more sophisticated numerical models for  
474 their description (e.g., *Lysak*, 1997; *Prikner et al.*, 2004).

475 The SWARM multi-probe mission with high-sensitive magnetometers and electric field sensors  
476 onboard is capable to solve many remaining problems [*Balasis et al.*, 2013]. A combination of  
477 the electric and magnetic field measurements by the fleet of the SWARM mission provides a

478 possibility to identify the direction of the wave energy flow (Poynting vector). A combination  
479 of observations at LEO and in the inner magnetosphere will help to determine how effectively  
480 the FMS waves can illuminate a whole planet, in particular polar regions, near equatorial, and  
481 mid-latitude. What fraction of compressional mode energy can tunnel towards the E- layer? Can  
482 compressional waves refract on the night side and produce "night side" Pc3 pulsations?

483 Pi1b pulsations were suggested to be initially excited by tail fast flows, and when these waves  
484 propagate earthward, they mode convert into transverse waves and eventually end up driving  
485 Alfvénic aurora. This hypothesis is still to be validated and further examined.

486 It is theoretically possible to use MTS in order to determine the conductivity of the planetary  
487 interior based on registration of variable electric and magnetic fields on a low orbiting space probe,  
488 whereas FMS waves in the planetary magnetosphere can play the role of sounding waves. Planets  
489 with a magnetosphere and bow shock have a halo of the upstream waves. These waves penetrate  
490 into the magnetosphere as FMS mode and illuminate a whole planet. FMS wave apparent  
491 impedance registered onboard a probe makes it possible to estimate the planetary conductivity  
492 accurately if the geometric correction is taken into account. This idea can be validated using the  
493 data from SWARM mission.

494 The measurements onboard three ST5 micro-satellites showed that in the topside ionosphere  
495 the EMIC wave packets are narrowly localized over latitude with a characteristic scale from the  
496 first tens to 100 km. The observed transverse scale corresponds not to the regime of quasi-  
497 longitudinal wave propagation, as it has been assumed in all theories of EMIC instability, but  
498 to the regime of quasi-transverse wave propagation. Thus, the models on generation of EMIC  
499 waves by energetic protons in the Earth's magnetosphere should be augmented by a mechanism  
500 of formation of their strongly localized radial structure. The probable capture of waves into

501 the magnetospheric waveguide has not been explained quantitatively by available theoretical  
502 models. This waveguide, apparently, is formed at the segment of the field line adjacent to its  
503 top. The comparison of satellite and ground observations also led to the conclusion that the  
504 EMIC instability of the ring current protons works not as a convective amplifier of the multiple  
505 oscillating wave packets, but as a system of local generators of short time ( $< 10$  min) wave bursts.

506 Electromagnetic resonances (like Schumann resonance or IAR) are to be a ubiquitous feature  
507 of planetary environments that possess a ionosphere and show evidence for electrical activity,  
508 such as Venus, Jupiter, Saturn, and Neptune. A study of the properties of Schumann resonances  
509 and other ULF transients could therefore indirectly yield the information on the interiors of  
510 these planets and lightning activity. Therefore, examination of electromagnetic response in the  
511 terrestrial ionosphere to atmospheric electric discharges by LEO satellites may be considered as  
512 a testing ground for the development of tools for the study of Solar system planets.

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## 7. Figure captions

656 F1. MLT-magnetic latitude distribution of the compressional power in the 16- 100 mHz band  
657 near March equinox (about 4 month of data centered at March equinox) based on all observations  
658 between 2001-2007 by CHAMP. The wave power has been corrected for solar wind speed variation.

659 F2. The magnetic latitude dependence of  $\kappa$  observed between 0607, 11 12, and 1617 MLT,  
660 respectively (adapted from Pilipenko et al., 2008).

661 F3. Doppler-shifted FLR continuum observed by CHAMP. The dashed black line shows the  
662 mean FLR frequencies  $f_R$  determined from ground observations. The dotted black line represents  
663 a fit to the CHAMP observations made by  $0.85 \times f_R - 12$ . (adapted from Heilig et al., 2013).

664 F4. A sketch of the IAR excitation by lightning stroke.

# 2001–2007 March equinox







