

1 **Using VLF Transmitter Signals at LEO for Plasmasphere Model Validation**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 This study presents analysis of very low frequency (VLF) transmitter signal
12 measurements on the Very-Low-Frequency Propagation Mapper (VPM) CubeSat in low-
13 Earth orbit. Six months of satellite operation provided good data coverage, used to build
14 global statistical maps of VLF power distribution. The power distribution above four
15 powerful transmitters is used as input for ray tracing to study signal propagation to the
16 conjugate hemisphere in two plasmaspheric density models. The ray tracing results are
17 further compared with VPM measurements to determine which model provides better
18 agreement with observations. As ray propagation largely depends on the background
19 plasma density distribution, this indirect method can be used for plasmaspheric density
20 model validation as an alternative to multipoint in situ plasma measurements that may
21 not be readily obtainable. In addition, it can be used to investigate Landau damping and
22 ducted vs. non-ducted propagation of VLF signals.

23

24 **Plain language summary**

25 Very low frequency (VLF) transmitter signals at frequencies in the tens of kHz, used for
26 military communication with submerged submarines, can be used to determine the
27 plasma density distribution in near-Earth space. Here we demonstrate how a
28 combination of VLF antenna measurements from low-Earth orbit and numerical
29 modeling of VLF signal propagation can be applied to constrain plasma density profiles
30 in the magnetosphere. This is an indirect method that can be used for plasmaspheric
31 density model validation as an alternative to multipoint in situ plasma measurements that
32 may not be readily obtainable.

33

34 **Main point #1.** At $L < 3$, the diffusive equilibrium plasmasphere model provides much
35 better agreement with observations than GCPM.

36 **Main point #2.** Signals from selected transmitters at $L = 1.17 - 2.87$ propagate primarily in
37 a non-ducted mode.

38 **Main point #3.** Landau damping is insignificant for the selected transmitters.

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Very low frequency (VLF) waves are natural and anthropogenic electromagnetic
42 emissions in the 3-30 kHz frequency range. The major natural sources of these emissions
43 are whistler-mode waves from lightning strikes (e.g., Helliwell, 2006 and references
44 therein) and plasma instabilities in the magnetosphere (Burtis et al., 1969; Santolik et al.,
45 2004). VLF waves reflect from below at the D region of the Earth's ionosphere (60-90 km

46 altitude), and can propagate in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide nearly without
47 attenuation (~ 2 dB/Mm) over long distances. They can also penetrate into seawater,
48 which advanced their use for radio communication with submarines by deploying
49 powerful VLF transmitter stations across the world. A fraction of VLF energy from
50 ground-based sources leaks through the ionosphere and propagates through the
51 magnetosphere as whistler-mode waves, where they can interact with energetic
52 particles including radiation belt electrons.

53 VLF waves have important applications for remote sensing of the D region
54 ionosphere, which responds dynamically to cosmic rays, solar and geomagnetic activity,
55 lightning, earthquakes, solar eclipses, and more (Wait and Spies, 1964; Xu et al., 2019;
56 Gross and Cohen, 2020). VLF wave propagation in the magnetosphere depends on the
57 background plasma density. This property of VLF waves has long been used for
58 diagnostics of the plasmasphere and cold plasma density reconstruction (Inan et al.
59 1977; Kimura et al., 2001; Lichtenberger et al., 2010; Ozhogin et al., 2012; Koroncay et
60 al., 2018), and has led to the discovery of the outer boundary of the plasmasphere, the
61 plasmopause (Gringauz, 1963; Carpenter, 1966).

62 VLF transmitters emit a significant amount of electromagnetic energy into the
63 ionosphere and magnetosphere and modulate properties of the near-Earth plasma.
64 Cohen and Inan (2012) constructed empirical models of the radiated power into the
65 magnetosphere from $L < 2.6$ transmitters using six years of data from the DEMETER
66 mission. They found no detectable variation of signal intensity with geomagnetic
67 conditions. However, they reported a significant power difference between daytime and
68 nighttime observations, as expected. For nighttime intervals, they investigated trans-

69 hemispheric signal attenuation and observed more than a factor of two average
70 decrease in power. They attributed wave attenuation to Landau damping, either in the
71 magnetosphere, or from scattered quasi-electrostatic waves emerging from the
72 ionosphere. They also presented evidence of ionospheric heating. Němec and Parrot
73 (2020) found that transmitter signals do not significantly change the mean plasma density
74 and only slightly increase the electron temperature, though they can cause significant
75 perturbations to both these quantities at distances up to ~200 km from the transmitter.

76 One of the important questions in relation to VLF transmitter signal propagation
77 is whether the signals are ducted or non-ducted along plasma density gradients. Ducted
78 waves propagate inside a density enhancement or depletion known as a duct, with wave
79 energy and wave normals directed along the background magnetic field lines (Helliwell,
80 2006). Non-ducted waves propagate in a spatially smoothly varying medium, with wave
81 normals being gradually refracted away from Earth (Cerisier, 1973). Clilverd et al. (2008)
82 investigated the relative importance of the two types of propagation and found that the
83 transition between ducted and non-ducted propagation occurs around $L=1.5$, being
84 highly ducted at $L>1.5$ and mostly non-ducted below. This has been confirmed by more
85 recent studies (e.g., Agapitov et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). Even
86 though there was a consensus about the demarcation between the ducted and non-
87 ducted propagation regions, there is still ongoing discussion about VLF signal
88 propagation throughout the inner magnetosphere and the relative contribution of ducted
89 and non-ducted propagation modes. To answer this question, Gu et al. (2021)
90 performed a statistical analysis of Van Allen Probes data at $L=1.4-3.4$ and showed that
91 non-ducted propagation dominates over ducted propagation in both the occurrence and

92 intensity of transmitter signals (only a third of the observed wave energy density was
93 ducted). Using ray tracing, they also concluded that the latitudinal distribution of
94 wavevectors corresponded to non-ducted propagation.

95 Another important property of VLF waves is their potential to resonantly interact
96 with radiation belt electrons, causing electron loss into the atmosphere (Gamble et al.,
97 2008; Foster et al., 2016). This process takes place predominantly over the range $1.3 \leq$
98 $L \leq 2.4$ (Abel and Thorne, 1998). Its efficacy depends on the wave being ducted or non-
99 ducted. While both types of waves can cause electron precipitation, ducted VLF waves
100 are much more effective in driving radiation belt pitch angle scattering (Rodger et al.,
101 2010). Non-ducted waves interact with electrons through Landau resonance, as well as
102 cyclotron resonances at higher equatorial pitch angles (Abel and Thorne, 1998; Ross et
103 al., 2019). Thus, knowledge of VLF signal propagation is not only important for
104 communication applications but also for understanding of the outer radiation belt
105 dynamics (Albert et al., 2020 and references therein).

106 In this paper, we apply a combination of transmitter signal observations at LEO
107 and ray tracing to provide validation of plasmaspheric density models. We also examine
108 ducted vs. non-ducted propagation using four VLF transmitters located at different L-
109 shells, from $L=1.17$ to $L=2.87$. In Section 2, we describe instrumentation used for this
110 study. In Section 3, we discuss VLF transmitter signal analysis. In Section 4, we present
111 full wave simulations used to constrain wave properties above the transmitter location.
112 In Section 5, we introduce VLF signal ray tracing, and Section 6 summarizes our study.

113

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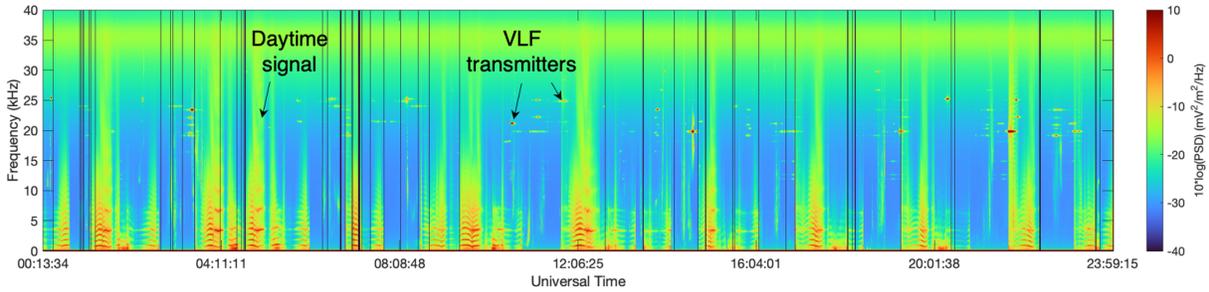
115 **2. Instrumentation**

116 The Very-Low-Frequency Propagation Mapper (VPM) is an Air Force Research
117 Laboratory (AFRL) CubeSat designed to study very low frequency (VLF) wave
118 propagation from low-Earth orbit (LEO). The science goals of the VPM mission are to
119 measure VLF signals broadcasted by the AFRL Demonstration and Science Experiments
120 (DSX) mission (Scherbarth et al., 2009), and to study natural and anthropogenic signals
121 from 300 Hz to 40 kHz in the near-Earth space environment. The VPM CubeSat was
122 deployed into a 500 km orbit with 51.6° inclination in February 2020 and collected single
123 electric field dipole antenna data for six months before communication with the
124 spacecraft was lost (Marshall et al., 2021). For this study, we used VPM survey data
125 recorded at a 26 s cadence and a 78 Hz frequency resolution.

126

127 **3. Observations**

128 An example of a VPM electric field spectrogram from March 12, 2020 is shown in Figure
129 1. VLF transmitter signals are narrow-band emissions at $\sim 10\text{-}30$ kHz, which appear to
130 be transient in the spectra as the spacecraft flies over each transmitter. As the satellite
131 orbited Earth, it passed through the daytime and nighttime ionosphere characterized by
132 varying electron density that affects the VLF signal structure. During daytime, excess
133 spacecraft noise is evident in the spectra due to battery charging circuitry. The broad-
134 band signal typical of daytime or sunlit conditions was removed from further analysis, so
135 only nighttime data were included in our statistics.



136

137 **Figure 1.** Electric field spectrogram from March 12, 2020. The discrete narrow band
 138 emissions correspond to VLF transmitters. The broad-band signal is typical of daytime
 139 sunlit conditions.

140

141 For our statistical analysis that spans the entire mission duration, we selected four
 142 powerful transmitters: three (NPM, 21.4 kHz; NLK, 24.8 kHz; NAA, 24.0 kHz) in the
 143 northern and one (NWC, 19.8 kHz) in the southern hemisphere, as listed in Table 1.

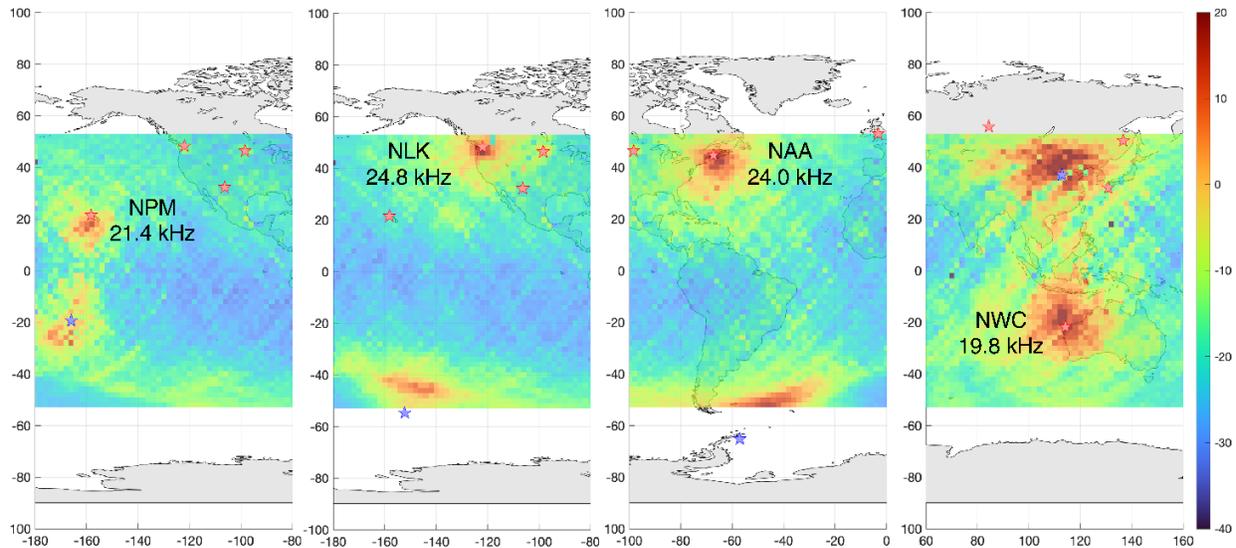
Name/ Call sign	Location	GEO lon, [°]	GEO lat, [°]	Conjugate GEO lon, [°]	Conjugate GEO lat, [°]	L- shell	Declination, [°]	Frequency (kHz)
NPM	Lualualei, Hawaii, USA	- 158.15	21.42	-165.93	-19.43	1.17	9.52	21.4
NLK	Jim Creek, Washingt on USA	- 121.91	48.20	-152.2	-54.81	2.87	15.53	24.8
NAA	Cutler, Maine, USA	-67.29	44.65	-57.06	-65.20	2.68	-16.03	24.0
NWC	Exmouth, Western Australia	114.17	-21.82	112.78	37.14	1.41	0.23	19.8

144 **Table 1.** Transmitter parameters. L-shell and declination are at a 100 km altitude above
 145 the transmitter. Conjugate location is calculated at a 500 km altitude using the CGM

146 model, <https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/vitmo/cgm.html>. Transmitter's locations (red
147 stars) and conjugate points (blue stars) are shown in Figures 2,6,7.

148

149 Within a 20-degree radius around each transmitter, VPM collected between ~2000 and
150 3000 data points or, precisely, 14.7, 16.0, 14.6, 22.7 hours of measurements around
151 NPM, NLK, NAA, and NWC, respectively. For frequencies corresponding to the selected
152 transmitters, we binned data on a 2x2 degree grid and calculated average electric field
153 power spectral density in each bin. For each transmitter, the conjugate location is
154 determined by the magnetic field declination, tilted westward for NPM, NLK and
155 eastward for NAA. The declination at NWC is minimal so that the conjugate location is
156 almost directly north of the NWC transmitter. Figure 2 shows that the signal intensity is
157 maximum above the transmitter and deviates from the magnetically conjugate location
158 in the opposite hemisphere, indicative of the transmitter signal not travelling along the
159 background magnetic field lines. The measured power distributions in the conjugate
160 region are consistent with non-ducted propagation, as predicted in our ray-tracing
161 simulations (discussed in Section 5 below).



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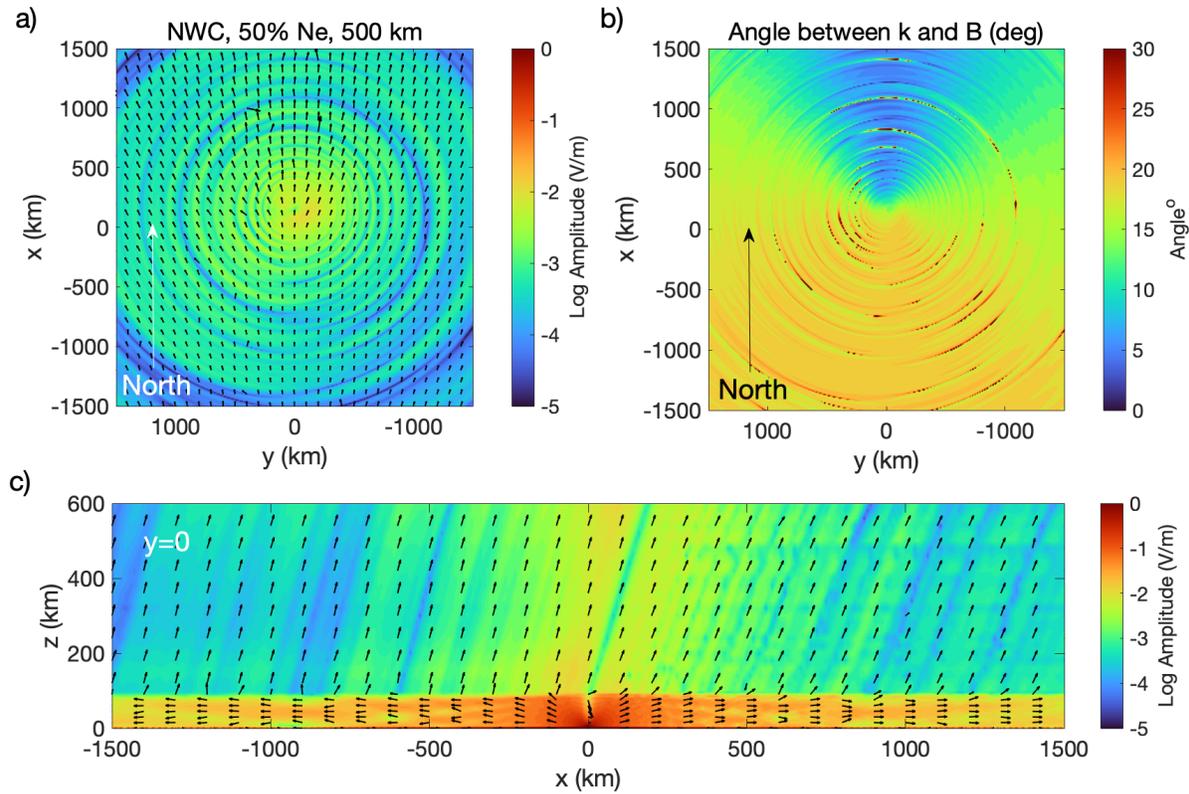
163 **Figure 2.** Average electric field power spectral density along the satellite tracks in the
 164 vicinity of the NPM (21.4 kHz), NLK (24.8 kHz), NAA (24.0 kHz) and NWC (19.8 kHz)
 165 transmitters and their conjugate locations. The red and the blue stars show the VLF
 166 transmitter positions and their conjugate locations, respectively. Data binned at 2x2
 167 degrees. Colorbar units correspond to $10 \cdot \log(\text{PSD})$ in $(\text{mV}/\text{m})^2/\text{Hz}$.

168

169 4. Full wave simulations

170 Full wave simulations (Lehtinen and Inan, 2008; 2009) are used to justify parallel wave
 171 propagation above transmitters, further used as boundary conditions in ray tracing.
 172 Figure 3 shows the wave propagation pattern around the NWC transmitter under the
 173 median ionospheric electron density condition. This electron density profile is specifically
 174 taken from the Faraday International Reference Ionosphere (FIRI) model (Friedrich et al.,
 175 2018), and corresponds to the 50th percentile of nighttime conditions. Here, the +x
 176 direction is north, -x is south, +y is west, and -y is east. NWC is in the southern
 177 hemisphere, so that the magnetic field (and k-vectors) tilt from vertical towards the north

178 (+x). Panel a) shows the electric field amplitude in the horizontal plane at the 500 km
179 altitude above NWC. The result is reasonably symmetric east-west as the NWC
180 transmitter declination is only 0.3 degrees. Panel b) shows the wave normal angle (WNA;
181 the angle between the k-vector and the local magnetic field line) in the horizontal plane.
182 In the north direction, the wave normals are close to zero, so it is easier to follow the
183 background magnetic field. For rays that start southward below the ionosphere, there is
184 a stronger angular rotation towards the magnetic field direction, and so they may not
185 quite reach parallel propagation. Panel c) shows the x-z variation in amplitude and the
186 north-south tilt of the wave patterns. The k-vectors below the ionosphere are radial away
187 from the transmitter. Once the rays reach the D-region, k-vectors rotate into the
188 magnetic field direction. Overall, these results show that the initial wave normal angle at
189 500 km altitude is within ~20 degrees of parallel to the background magnetic field. Similar
190 full-wave simulations have been conducted for the other VLF transmitters of interest, and
191 the results give comparable wave normal angle distributions.



192

193 **Figure 3.** Wave propagation pattern from full wave simulations. x is the north-south
 194 direction; positive x corresponds to north in all three panels. y is in the east-west
 195 direction; positive y is westward. a) electric field amplitude in the horizontal plane at the
 196 500 km altitude above NWC; b) wave normal angle in the horizontal plane at 500 km; c)
 197 electric field amplitude as a function of altitude and distance from NWC in the north-
 198 south direction.

199

200 5. Ray tracing

201 The Stanford VLF ray tracing program was used to compute 3D ray paths (Reid et al.,
 202 submitted). The code was originally developed by Inan and Bell (1977); it has since been
 203 updated and used in many studies (e.g., Bell et al., 2002; Botnik et al., 2007). The ray

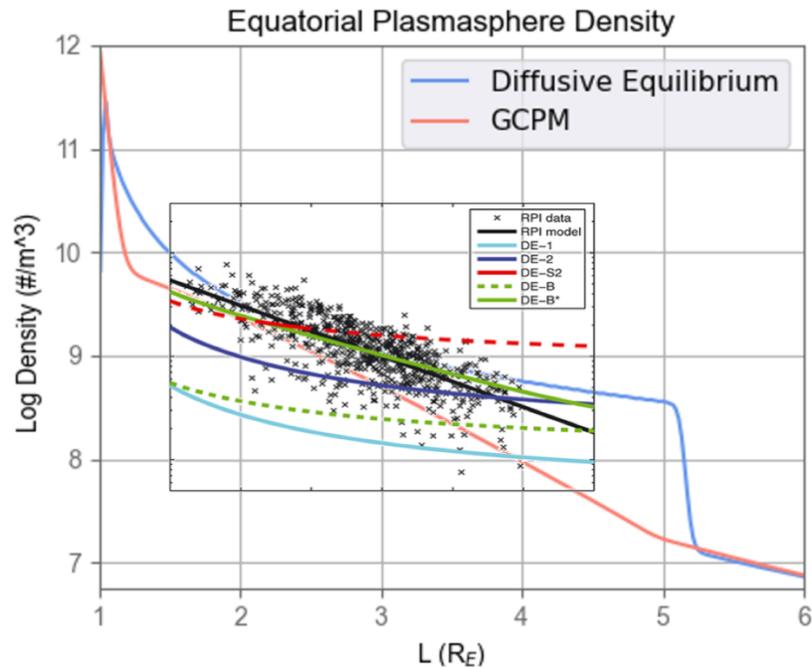
204 tracer utilizes an adaptive time stepping scheme to propagate ray paths. Rays were
205 initialized at 500 km above the transmitter with field-aligned wave normal angles to
206 simplify the process. Simulations conducted with the initial WNA +/- 10 or 20 degrees (not
207 shown here) did not have a major impact on the ray propagation or the ray final location
208 in the conjugate region. Rays were then propagated until the altitude below 500 km
209 (closer to 475 km) was reached in the conjugate hemisphere, or if the ray met one of the
210 specified exit conditions in the ray tracer (error exceeded tolerance, maximum simulation
211 time exceeded or maximum time steps exceeded). Simulation conditions were set to
212 ensure the majority of rays in each simulation were propagated until the specified altitude
213 was reached in the conjugate hemisphere. We assumed a changing Earth's background
214 magnetic field and electron density along ray paths and used the International
215 Geomagnetic Reference Field (IGRF) 13th Generation magnetic field model (Alken et al.,
216 2021) and two different plasmaspheric density models.

217 As plasma density is crucial for ray propagation and strongly affects ray refraction
218 and damping, we used our results to validate a diffusive equilibrium (DE) analytical model
219 described by Angerami and Thomas (1964) and the global core plasma model (GCPM)
220 developed by Gallagher et al. (2000). The DE model is used with the following
221 parameters. The geocentric distance to the base of the diffusive equilibrium model is set
222 to 400 km, the temperature and reference electron density at the base of the diffusive
223 equilibrium model are 1000 K and 2^{11} m^{-3} , respectively; H^+ and O^+ concentrations are
224 50%.

225 GCPM provides empirically derived core plasma density and ion composition (H^+ ,
226 He^+ , and O^+) as a function of geomagnetic and solar conditions throughout the inner

227 magnetosphere. The model is based on data from DE/RIMS, DE/PWI, and ISEE/PWI and
228 merges with the International Reference Ionosphere (IRI; Bilitza, 2001) at low altitudes. It
229 is composed of separate models for the plasmasphere, plasmopause, trough, and polar
230 cap. We used a simplified version of the GCPM model described by Sousa (2018);
231 however, inside L=4 this model is nearly identical to the original GCPM model.

232 Plasma density profiles for the DE and GCPM models are shown in Figure 4. The
233 profiles are plotted for quiet geomagnetic conditions, $K_p=1$ being the average value
234 during the period of VPM operation. The DE model peaks in density at an altitude of 325
235 km and has the plasmopause at $L\sim 5.2$. The density in the GCPM model sharply drops
236 from the inner boundary at ~ 70 km to 1590 km and then gradually decreases without the
237 well-defined plasmopause, typical for geomagnetic quiescence. Ozhogin et al. (2014)
238 evaluated electron density profiles of five diffusive equilibrium models against IMAGE
239 RPI measurements between $L=1.5$ and 4.5 (see their Figure 1, also plotted over Figure 4
240 here). The IMAGE RPI densities are shown by the black line and dots. Other curves
241 correspond to five different DE models evaluated in Ozhogin et al. (2014). The DE model
242 used in our study matches the IMAGE RPI density profiles at $L=2-3$ and slightly
243 overestimates electron density at $L=1.5-2$. The GCPM model underestimates density in
244 the whole L-shell range covered by RPI. Other than gradients present in these models,
245 no plasma irregularities or ducts are included in simulations.



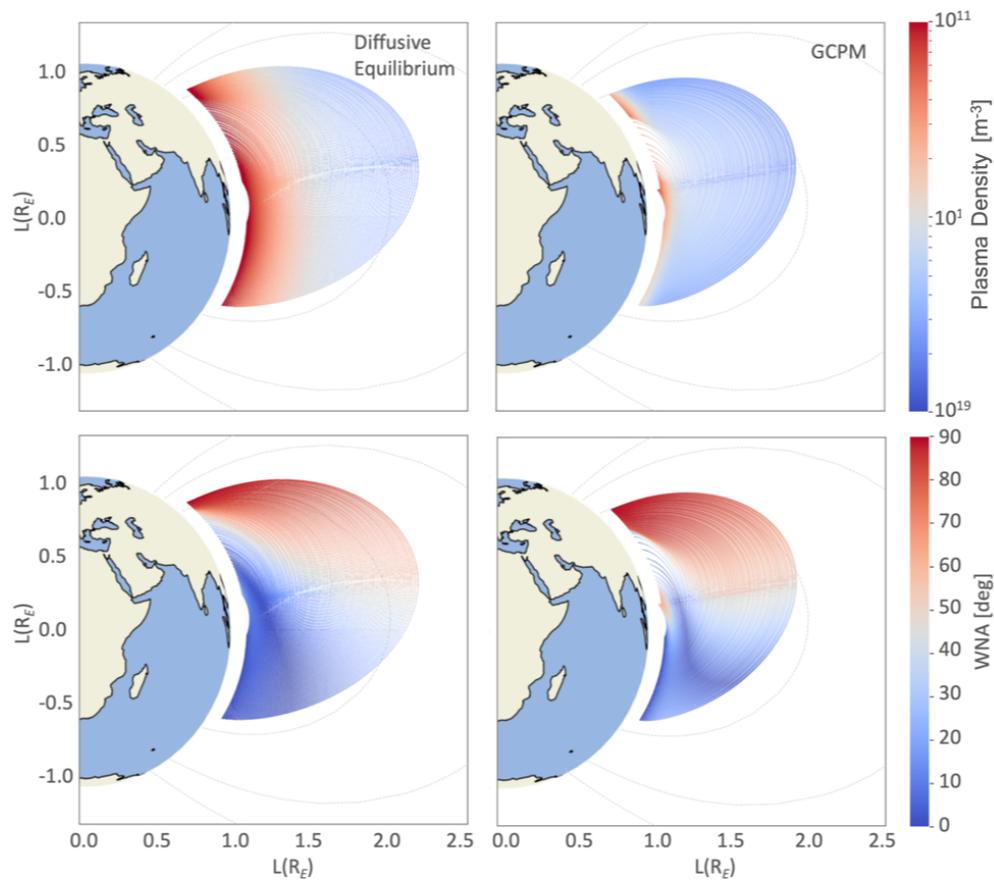
246

247 **Figure 4.** Plasmaspheric density profiles for diffusive equilibrium (orange) and GCPM
 248 (blue) calculated for $K_p=1$. Overlaid, is Figure 1 from Ozhogin et al. (2014). The IMAGE
 249 RPI densities are shown by the black line and dots. The curves correspond to five
 250 different DE models evaluated in Ozhogin et al. (2014).

251

252 We also investigated the effect of Landau damping on wave attenuation and growth and
 253 computed it along the ray path as described by Brinca (1972). Landau damping depends
 254 on the propagation medium, and as the medium properties change spatially, the
 255 damping factor is computed at every step. The final normalized damping factor was
 256 applied to each ray that reached the specified minimum altitude in the conjugate
 257 hemisphere to scale the wave power implemented in the Stanford ray tracer as described
 258 by Bortnik (2004). We found that Landau damping was negligible at the VLF transmitter
 259 frequencies and did not affect signal amplitude at the conjugate location (for both

260 plasmaspheric models), hence we do not show the ray tracing results including Landau
 261 damping here. Top and bottom panels in Figure 5 show plasma density and along ray
 262 paths and ray wave normal angle, respectively, traced from the location above the NWC
 263 transmitter to the conjugate hemisphere in the DE and GCPM density models. The rays
 264 begin with wave normal angles parallel to the background magnetic field above the
 265 transmitter, begin to deviate to 10-20 degrees, and then shift back towards zero again.
 266 They then deviate towards 90 degrees once they are in the opposite hemisphere. This
 267 pattern shows that rays reach the second WNA=0 point at a location that trends with
 268 source latitude.

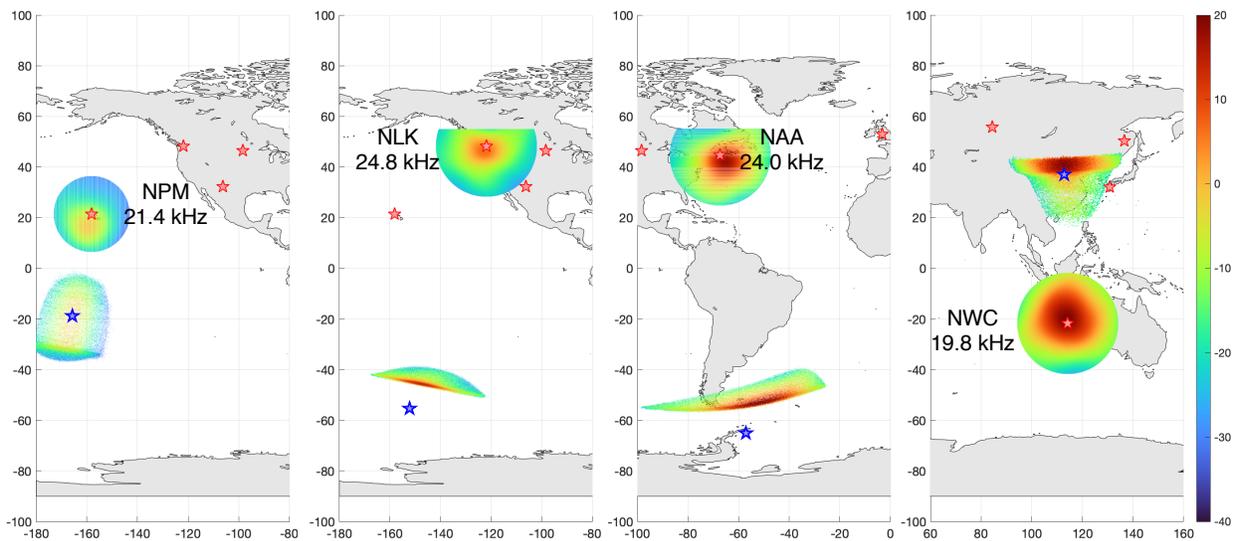


269
 270 **Figure 5.** Plasma density (top row) and WNA (bottom row) in the diffusive equilibrium
 271 (left column) and GCPM (right column) models.

272

273 Figure 6 shows raytracing results for the diffusive equilibrium model. The initial ray power
274 distribution over the transmitter was obtained from averaged VPM measurements by
275 smoothing and interpolating onto a finer, 0.1x0.1-degree grid using linear regression.
276 The power distribution in the conjugate hemisphere was renormalized by the ray density
277 to account for their latitudinal spread during propagation.

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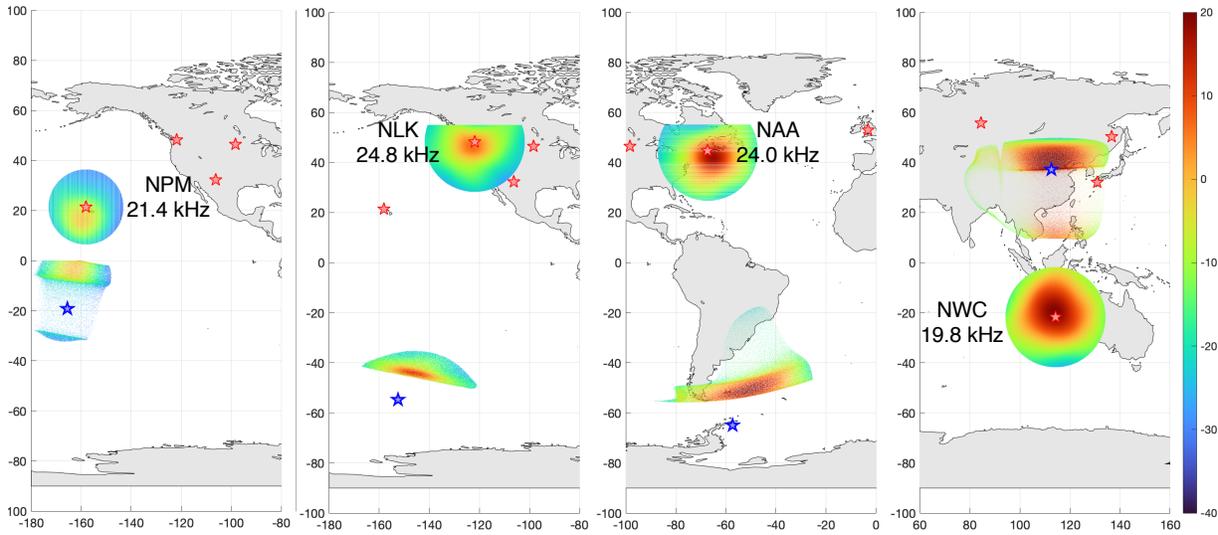


279 **Figure 6.** Average electric field power spectral density in a ray tracing output from the
280 diffusive equilibrium model. The NPM (21.4 kHz), NLK (24.8 kHz), NAA (24.0 kHz) and
281 NWC (19.8 kHz) transmitters and their conjugate locations are shown by the red and the
282 blue stars, respectively. Colorbar units correspond to $10 \cdot \log(\text{PSD})$ in $(\text{mV/m})^2/\text{Hz}$.

283

284 Likewise, Figure 7 shows raytracing results for the GCPM model. Both sets of runs (DE
285 and GCPM) reproduce the dipole tilt as they sample the same magnetic field model. The
286 differences arise from plasmaspheric density profiles which ray propagation paths are
287 extremely sensitive to. As compared to VPM measurements, DE provides good

288 agreement with observations. GCPM results in a ray latitudinal spread and power
289 distribution patterns not seen in data.



290

291 **Figure 7.** Average electric field power spectral density in a ray tracing output from the
292 GCPM model. The NPM (21.4 kHz), NLK (24.8 kHz), NAA (24.0 kHz) and NWC (19.8 kHz)
293 transmitters and their conjugate locations are shown by the red and the blue stars,
294 respectively. Colorbar units correspond to $10 \cdot \log(\text{PSD})$ in $(\text{mV/m})^2/\text{Hz}$.

295

296 Both models do not include density ducts and simulate non-ducted propagation for all
297 four transmitters, the simulation results being consistent with observations of wave
298 power at LEO. However, these results do not support earlier conclusions that VLF
299 transmitter propagation is mostly ducted at $L > 1.5$. They are more in line with the recent
300 study by Gu et al., 2021 showing that transmitter signals are largely non-ducted in a wide
301 range of L-shells from $L = 1.4$ to 3.4.

302

303

304 **6. Summary and conclusions**

305 Several months of VPM satellite operation provided good data coverage and an
306 opportunity to study VLF transmitter signal propagation statistically. As plasma density
307 alters VLF wave propagation causing refraction and attenuation, observations were
308 combined with ray tracing in order to compare and validate plasmaspheric density
309 models. In addition, a full wave model was employed to simulate wave normal angles
310 above transmitters and to constrain boundary conditions for ray tracing. For our
311 comparative analysis, we tested the DE model implemented in the Stanford ray tracer
312 and GCPM. We concluded that at $L < 3$, the DE model provides much better agreement
313 with observations. We could not investigate the performance of these models at higher
314 L-shells due to the VPM orbit inclination. We also found that the electric power
315 distribution from selected transmitters at $L = 1.17 - 2.87$ is consistent with simulated non-
316 ducted propagation. These results are different from those previously reported that
317 lower-L ($L < 1.5$) transmitter signals propagate as non-ducted, while at $L > 1.5$ the signals
318 become mostly ducted. In relation to Cohen and Inan (2012), we conclude that VLF
319 signals at ~ 20 kHz frequencies do not experience noticeable Landau damping over one
320 inter-hemispheric pass. Overall, the technique described here can be used for validation
321 of other plasmaspheric models and will be further developed to study ducted and non-
322 ducted propagation of VLF signals in the inner magnetosphere.

323

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329

330 **Data availability**

331 The data that support the findings of this study are available from AFRL. Restrictions
332 apply to the availability of these data; data and simulation output are available from the
333 authors with the permission of AFRL.

334

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