

# Comparing three approaches to the inducing source setting for the ground electromagnetic field modeling due to space weather events

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## Abstract

Ground-based technological systems, such as power grids, can be affected by geomagnetically induced currents (GIC) during geomagnetic storms and magnetospheric substorms. This motivates the necessity to numerically simulate and, ultimately, forecast GIC. The prerequisite for the GIC modeling in the region of interest is the simulation of the ground geoelectric field (GEF) in the same region. The modeling of the GEF in its turn requires spatio-temporal specification of the source which generates the GEF, as well as an adequate regional model of the Earth's electrical conductivity. In this paper we compare results of the GEF (and ground magnetic field) simulations using three different source models. Two models represent the source as a laterally varying sheet current flowing above the Earth. The first model is constructed using the results of a physics-based 3-D magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) simulation of near-Earth space, the second one uses ground-based magnetometers' data and the Spherical Elementary Current Systems (SECS) method. The third model is based on a "plane wave" approximation which assumes that the source is locally laterally uniform. Fennoscandia is chosen as a study region and the simulations are performed for the 7-8 September 2017 geomagnetic storm. We conclude that ground magnetic field perturbations are reproduced more accurately using the source constructed via the SECS method compared to the source obtained on the basis of MHD simulation outputs. We also show that the difference between the GEF modeled using laterally nonuniform source and plane wave approximation is substantial in Fennoscandia.



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## 1 Introduction

Large coronal mass ejections from the Sun release massive amounts of plasma, which flow at high speed into the interplanetary space. The interaction of this solar wind with the Earth’s magnetosphere can lead to significant spatio-temporal disturbances of the magnetic field at the surface of the Earth, which are known as geomagnetic storms. These space weather events induce a geoelectric field (GEF) in the Earth’s subsurface, which in turn drives geomagnetically induced currents (GIC) in ground-based technological systems such as power grids and pipelines posing a significant risk to the reliability and durability of such infrastructure.

The core component in quantitative estimation of the hazard to technological systems from space weather is as realistic as practicable numerical modeling of GIC, and, ultimately, their forecasting. Ideally, to perform GIC modeling one needs the following ingredients: a) a realistic model of the source of geomagnetic disturbances; b) a comprehensive three-dimensional (3-D) electrical conductivity model of the Earth’s subsurface in the region of interest; c) a 3-D numerical solver which allows for accurate and detailed modeling of the GEF in a given conductivity model excited by a given source; d) the geometry of transmission lines and system design parameters that allow for the conversion of the modeled GEF into GIC.

Many previous studies in connection with GIC operated with simplified models either of conducting Earth (one-dimensional (1-D) or thin sheet conductivity models) or the source (vertically propagating laterally uniform electromagnetic (EM) field; plane wave), or both (e.g., Viljanen et al. (2012, 2013, 2014); Pütke and Kuvshinov (2013); Pütke et al. (2014); Beggan et al. (2013); Beggan (2015); Kelly et al. (2017); Honkonen et al. (2018); Bailey et al. (2017, 2018); Divett et al. (2017, 2020)).

In spite of the fact that the importance of performing simulations using fully 3-D conductivity models is currently widely recognised (Kelbert, 2020), such simulations are still rather rare in the GIC community (e.g., Wang et al. (2016); Pokhrel et al. (2018); Nakamura et al. (2018); Liu et al. (2018); Marshall et al. (2019); Rosenqvist and Hall (2019); Marshalko et al. (2020)), mostly due to the lack of the credible 3-D conductiv-

70 ity models of the regions of interest as well as unavailability of adequate tools to model  
71 the problem in the full complexity.

72 As for the source, approximating it by plane waves still prevails in the GIC-related  
73 studies (e.g., Kelbert et al. (2017); Kelbert and Lucas (2020); Lucas et al. (2018); Cam-  
74 panya et al. (2019); Sokolova et al. (2019); Wang et al. (2020)). This approximation seems  
75 reasonable in low and middle latitudes, where the main source of anomalous geomag-  
76 netic disturbances is a large-scale magnetospheric ring current. However, the plane wave  
77 assumption may not work in higher latitudes, where the main source of the disturbances  
78 is the auroral ionospheric current, which is extremely variable both in time and space,  
79 especially during periods of enhanced geomagnetic activity (Belakhovsky et al., 2019).  
80 Marshalko et al. (2020) provided some evidence for that by comparing ground EM fields  
81 modeled in the eastern United States using the plane wave approximation and the ex-  
82 citation by a laterally variable source which was constructed using outputs from 3-D mag-  
83 netohydrodynamic (MHD) simulation of near-Earth space. The authors found that the  
84 difference increases towards higher latitudes where the lateral variability of the source  
85 expectedly enlarges. However their modeling was mostly confined to mid-latitude region,  
86 thus it is still unclear how pronounced the difference between the plane wave and “lat-  
87 erally varying source” results could be in auroral regions. In this paper we investigate  
88 this problem using Fennoscandia as a study region. The choice of Fennoscandia is mo-  
89 tivated by: a) high-latitude location of the region; b) the availability of the 3-D ground  
90 electrical conductivity model of the region (Korja et al., 2002) c) the existence of the re-  
91 gional magnetometer network (International Monitor for Auroral Geomagnetic Effect,  
92 IMAGE (Tanskanen, 2009)) allowing us to build data-based model of a laterally vari-  
93 able source, which is a natural alternative to physics-based (MHD) source model in the  
94 areas with a reasonably dense net of observations.

95 Specifically, we perform 3-D modeling of ground electric and magnetic fields in Fennoscan-  
96 dia using three different source models and taking 7–8 September 2017 geomagnetic storm  
97 as a space weather event. Two models approximate the source by laterally varying sheet  
98 current flowing above the Earth’s surface. One of the models is built using the results  
99 of physics-based 3-D MHD simulation of the near-Earth space, another model uses the  
100 IMAGE magnetometer data and the Spherical Elementary Current Systems (SECS) method  
101 (Vanhamäki & Juusola, 2020; Juusola et al., 2020). The third modeling is based on a  
102 “plane wave” approximation which assumes that the source is locally laterally uniform.  
103 Note that previous GIC-related studies in Fennoscandia operated with both 1-D (e.g.,  
104 Pulkkinen et al. (2005); Myllys et al. (2014); Viljanen and Pirjola (2017)) and 3-D (Rosenqvist  
105 & Hall, 2019; Dimmock et al., 2019, 2020) Earth’s conductivity models, the magnetic  
106 field in most of these papers was allowed to be laterally variable, but the GEF was al-  
107 ways calculated implicitly assuming the plane wave excitation.

108 We compare modeling results and discuss found differences and similarities. We  
109 also compare results of magnetic field modeling with observations. The paper is orga-  
110 nized as follows. The methodology used is described in Section 2.1 followed by presen-  
111 tation of our results in Section 3. Finally, the discussion of our results and conclusions  
112 are given in Section 4.

## 113 2 Methodology

### 114 2.1 Governing equations and modeling scheme

115 We compute the electric,  $\mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{r})$ , and magnetic,  $\mathbf{B}(t, \mathbf{r})$ , fields for a given Earth’s  
116 conductivity distribution  $\sigma(\mathbf{r})$  and a given inducing source  $\mathbf{j}^{ext}(t, \mathbf{r})$ , where  $t$  and  $\mathbf{r} =$   
117  $(x, y, z)$  denote time and position vector, correspondingly. These fields obey Maxwell’s  
118 equations, that are written in the time domain as

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \sigma \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j}^{ext}, \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}, \quad (2)$$

119 where  $\mu_0$  is the magnetic permeability of a free space. Note that this formulation of Maxwell's  
 120 equations neglects displacement currents, which are insignificant in the range of periods  
 121 considered in this study. We solve eqs (1)-(2) numerically using the following three-step  
 122 procedure:

- 123 1. The inducing source  $\mathbf{j}^{ext}(t, \mathbf{r})$  is transformed from the time to the frequency do-  
 124 main with a fast Fourier transform (FFT).
2. Maxwell's equations in the frequency domain

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \sigma \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{j}^{ext}, \quad (3)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = i\omega \mathbf{B}, \quad (4)$$

125 are numerically solved for the corresponding angular frequencies  $\omega = 2\pi f$ , us-  
 126 ing the scalable 3-D EM forward modeling code PGIEM2G (Kruglyakov & Ku-  
 127 vshinov, 2018), based on a method of volume integral equations (IE) with a con-  
 128 tracting kernel (Pankratov & Kuvshinov, 2016).

129 We would like to note here that in our previous papers (Ivannikova et al., 2018;  
 130 Marshalko et al., 2020) we used modeling code *extrEMe* (Kruglyakov et al., 2016)  
 131 which is also based on IE method. The distinction between two codes lies in dif-  
 132 ferent piece-wise bases used. PGIEM2G exploits a piece-wise polynomial basis whereas  
 133 *extrEMe* uses a piece-wise constant basis. We found that in order to properly ac-  
 134 count for the effects (in electric field) from extremely large conductivity contrasts  
 135 in the Fennoscandian region, *extrEMe* requires significantly larger computational  
 136 loads compared to the PGIEM2G. This is the reason why we used the PGIEM2G  
 137 code rather than *extrEMe* to obtain modeling results presented in this paper. Specif-  
 138 ically, PGIEM2G was run with the use of first-order polynomials in lateral direc-  
 139 tions and third-order polynomials in the vertical direction.

140 Frequencies  $f$  range between  $\frac{1}{L}$  and  $\frac{1}{2\Delta t}$  where  $L$  is the length of the (input) times  
 141 series of the inducing current  $\mathbf{j}^{ext}(t, \mathbf{r})$ , and  $\Delta t$  is the sampling rate of this time  
 142 series. In this study  $\Delta t$  is 1 min, and  $L$  is 8 h.

- 143 3.  $\mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{r})$  and  $\mathbf{B}(t, \mathbf{r})$  are obtained with an inverse FFT of the frequency-domain fields.

## 144 2.2 3-D conductivity model

145 3-D conductivity model of the region was constructed using the SMAP (Korja et  
 146 al., 2002) – a set of maps of crustal conductances (vertically integrated electrical con-  
 147 ductivities) of the Fennoscandian Shield, surrounding seas, and continental areas. The  
 148 SMAP consists of six layers of laterally variable conductance. Each layer has the thick-  
 149 ness of 10 km. The first layer comprises contributions from the sea water, sediments, and  
 150 upper crust. The other five layers describe conductivity distribution in the middle and  
 151 lower crust. SMAP covers an area  $0^\circ\text{E} - 50^\circ\text{E}$  and  $50^\circ\text{N} - 85^\circ\text{N}$  and has  $5' \times 5'$  reso-  
 152 lution. We converted the original SMAP database into Cartesian 3-D conductivity model  
 153 of Fennoscandia with three layers of laterally variable conductivity of 10, 20 and 30 km  
 154 thicknesses (Figures 1.a-c). This vertical discretization is chosen to be compatible with  
 155 that previously used by Rosenqvist and Hall (2019) and Dimmock et al. (2019, 2020) for

156 GIC studies in the region. To obtain the conductivities in Cartesian coordinates we ap-  
 157 plied the transverse Mercator map projection (latitude and longitude of the true origin  
 158 are  $50^\circ\text{N}$  and  $25^\circ\text{E}$ , correspondingly) to original data and interpolated the results onto  
 159 a regular lateral grid. The lateral discretization and size of the resulting conductivity  
 160 model were taken as  $5 \times 5 \text{ km}^2$  and  $2550 \times 2550 \text{ km}^2$ , respectively. Deeper than 60 km  
 161 we used a 1-D conductivity profile obtained by Grayver et al. (2017) (cf. Figure 1.d).

**Figure 1.** Conductivity distribution [S/m] in the model: a)–c) Plane view on 3 layers of the 3-D part of the model; d) global 1-D conductivity profile derived by Grayver et al. (2017) and used in this study. Locations of geomagnetic observatories Abisko (ABK), Uppsala (UPS), Saint Petersburg (SPG), and P1, P2 and P3 points are marked with circles in plot (a).

### 162 **2.3 EM induction source settings**

163 In this section we discuss the construction of two models for laterally variable source  
 164 and also explain how EM field is calculated in the framework of plane wave (laterally  
 165 uniform source) concept. The sources are set up for the geomagnetic storm on 7-8 Septem-

Figure 2. Global snapshots of the external magnetic field components at the surface of the Earth computed based on the SWMF outputs at 23:16 and 23:52 UT on 7 September 2017.  $B_x$ ,  $B_y$  and  $B_z$  are northward, eastward and downward directed components, respectively.

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### 2.3.2 Construction of the source using the SECS method

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The second model of the source was constructed using the SECS method (Vanhamäki & Juusola, 2020). In this method the elementary current systems form a set of basis functions for representing two-dimensional vector fields on a spherical surface. An important application of the SECS method, which is relevant for this study, is the estimation of the ionospheric current system from ground-based measurements of magnetic field distur-

Figure 5. The same legend as in Figure 4 but for Uppsala (UPS) geomagnetic observatory.

284 Finally, two lower plots in Figures 4 - 6 show plane-wave-, SECS- and MHD-based  
 285 horizontal GEF. Note that long-term continuous observations of GEF are absent in the  
 286 region, thus only modeling results are shown in the plots.

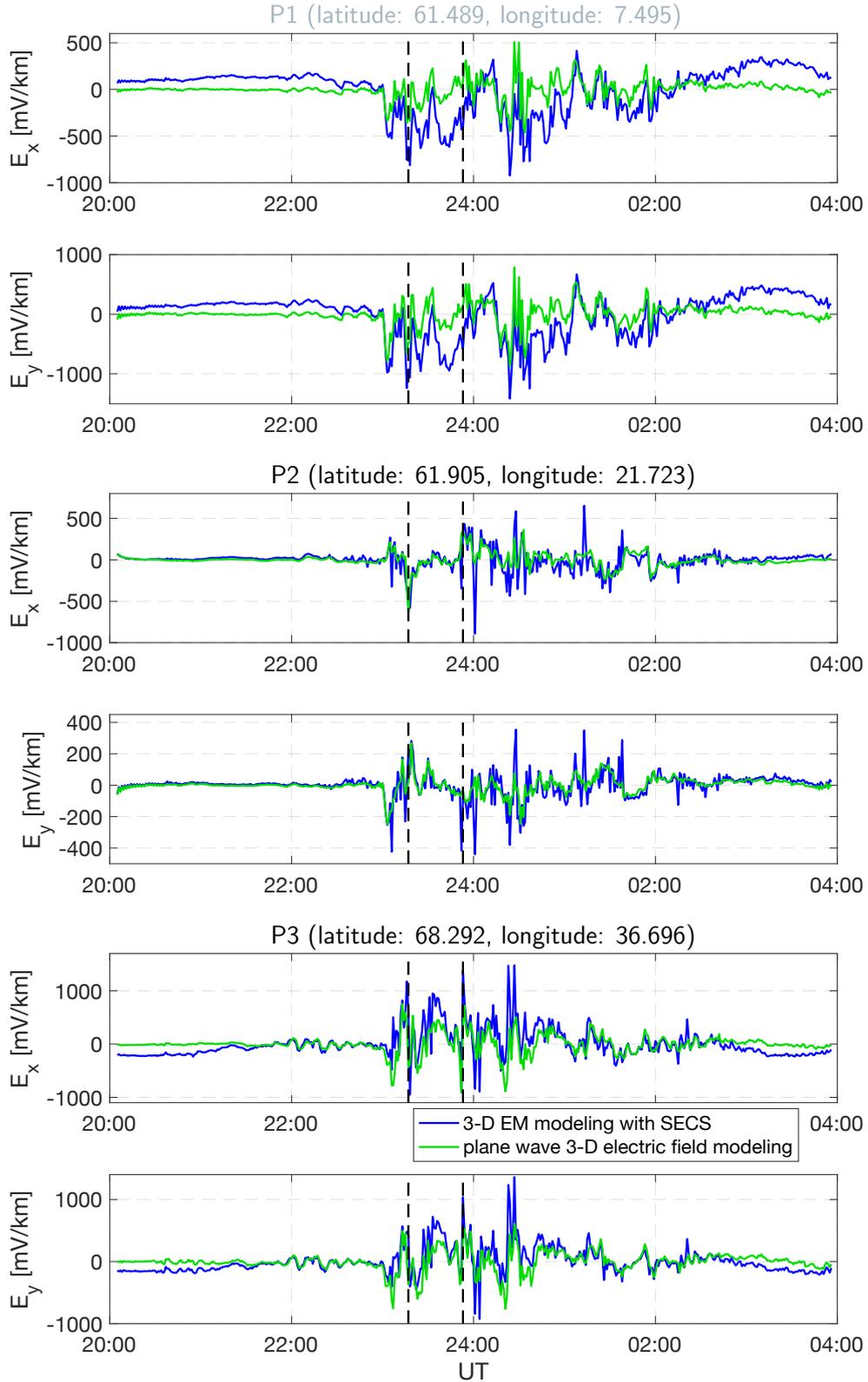
287 Similarly to MHD-based magnetic field, the MHD-based GEF is underestimated  
 288 compared to the SECS-based GEF. The correlation between these modeling results is  
 289 very low and nRMSE are high (see Table 3).

290 On the contrary, SECS- and plane wave-based electric fields are rather close to each  
 291 other, especially at locations of UPS and SPG observatories; Table 4 illustrates this quan-  
 292 titatively. Correlation between modeling results at ABK observatory is lower and nRMSE  
 293 is higher most likely due to the fact that this observatory is situated in the region with  
 294 high lateral conductivity contrasts (resistive landmass and conductive sea). To put more  
 295 weight on this inference last three columns of Table 4 and Figure 7 demonstrate SECS-  
 296 and plane-wave-based results for three "sites" also located in the regions with high lat-

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**Figure 7.** SECS- and plane-wave-based GEF modeling results at three “sites” located in the regions with high lateral conductivity contrasts; locations of these sites are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 8. Top and middle: magnitudes of respective SECS- and MHD-based GEF. Bottom: absolute differences between corresponding GEF magnitudes.