Simulation of diurnal variation of sub-ionospheric VLF transmitter signals using machine learning approach

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Abstract

This paper shows simulation models for diurnal variation of sub-ionospheric Very Low Frequency (VLF) signals using machine learning approach. Recording of VLF transmitter signals using a ground-based radio receiver provides a beautiful and costeffective way of monitoring the lower ionosphere (D/E regions) in the altitude range (60-90 km). VLF signals respond to the ionization variations due to the Sun and other terrestrial or extra-terrestrial sources. Consequently, it has many applications in remote sensing of the lower ionosphere. Therefore, predicting or simulating the diurnal variation of VLF transmitter signals using past data will help to understand the variability of the ionosphere. Here, the VLF signal from the Indian transmitter VTX (18.2 kHz) received at Kolkata is used for the training, validating, and testing purposes in the machine learning models. Two predictive models, multiple linear regression (MLR) and artificial neural network (ANN) have been built and Pearson correlation coefficients outside the training range are obtained as R=0.94 and R=0.93 respectively for the two models. Variation of the VLF transmitter signal is also calculated using the well-known Long Wave Propagation Capability (LWPC) code coupled with the International Reference Ionosphere (IRI-2016) model and the same is compared with the MLR and ANN model predictions. Both the MLR and ANN models are found to be performing better than the LWPC simulation.

SIMULATION OF DIURNAL VARIATION OF SUB-IONOSPHERIC VLF TRANSMITTER SIGNALS USING MACHINE LEARNING APPROACH

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Abstract. This paper shows simulation models for diurnal variation of sub-12 ionospheric Very Low Frequency (VLF) signals using machine learning approach. Reco-13 rding of VLF transmitter signals using a ground-based radio receiver provides a beauti-14 ful and cost-effective way of monitoring lower ionosphere (D/E regions) in the altitude 15 range (60-90 km). VLF signals respond to the ionization variations due to the Sun and 16 other terrestrial or extra-terrestrial sources. Consequently, it has many applications in 17 remote sensing of the lower ionosphere. Therefore, predicting or simulating the diurnal 18 variation of VLF transmitter signals using past data will help to understand the variabil-19 ity of the ionosphere. Here, the VLF signal from the Indian transmitter VTX (18.2 kHz) 20 received at Kolkata is used for the training, validating, and testing purposes in the ma-21 chine learning models. Two predictive models, multiple linear regression (MLR) and 22 artificial neural network (ANN) have been built and Pearson correlation coefficients 23 outside the training range are obtained as R=0.94 and R=0.93 respectively for the two 24 models. Variation of the VLF transmitter signal is also calculated using the well-known 25 Long Wave Propagation Capability (LWPC) code coupled with the International Refer-26 ence Ionosphere (IRI-2016) model and the same is compared with the MLR and ANN 27 model predictions. Both the MLR and ANN models are found to be performing better 28 than the LWPC simulation. 29

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Key words: VLF Remote Sensing; Machine Learning; D-region Ionosphere; Sub-ionospheric VLF signals;.

1. INTRODUCTION

Very Low Frequency (VLF) radio signal in the frequency range between 3-30 kHz is one of the important tools to monitor the lower ionosphere continuously. VLF signals which are originated from the lightning discharge or the navigational transmitters around the world can be received by a suitable antenna-receiver system. Due to their low attenuation rate, VLF signals propagate to long distances in the earth-ionosphere waveguide with multiple reflections in the earth's surface and ionoK. Giri et al.

sphere. Therefore, it preserves the information about the reflecting surfaces. Prop-37 erties of the lower ionosphere can be studied continuously by recording the VLF 38 signals. VLF signals recorded at any place show variation in different time scales 39 ranging from seconds, hourly, daily, monthly, seasonal, yearly to long-term. Various 40 sources such as lightning, solar x-ray and UV, flares, geomagnetic storms, cosmic 41 rays, and solar cycle are responsible for such variations in VLF signals in different 42 time scales ([1] and references therein). In addition to such sources, some meteoro-43 logical sources, such as tropical cyclones, stratospheric warming events ([2–4] and 44 references therein) and, large seismic activities [5, 6] may affect the sub-ionospheric 45 VLF signals as well as contributing to the variability of the ionosphere. One of the 46 important needs of the ionospheric community is to predict the ionospheric variabil-47 ity (hourly, daily, monthly, yearly, or long-term) as accurately as possible to under-48 stand the ionospheric behavior. Variability is more in the lower ionosphere (D/E 49 regions) which is also responsible for attenuation of the high frequency (HF) radio 50 signals. 51

There are several physics-based theoretical models to calculate radio wave 52 propagation in the earth-ionosphere waveguide. Among them, the popular models 53 are the Long Wave Propagation Capability code [7], Finite Difference Time Domain 54 (FDTD) method [8], wave-hop or ray theory method [9–11]. All these models pre-55 dict or calculate VLF signal strength between a transmitter and receiver pair based 56 on given ionospheric conditions. Ionospheric conditions are provided mostly using a 57 parameterized ionosphere model such as Wait's model [12] or using the International 58 Reference Ionosphere (IRI) model [2]. Each radio wave propagation model has its 59 advantages and disadvantages in calculation VLF signal strength under various iono-60 spheric conditions. However, the accurate prediction or calculation of the VLF signal 61 strength between a transmitter and receiver pair, namely the 24h diurnal variation in 62 high resolution with respect to time is still a very challenging task because of various 63 factors controlling the variability of the lower ionosphere and variability of the VLF 64 signal especially in the night and dusk/dawn hours. 65

On the other hand, machine learning models in the framework of artificial intel-66 ligence can do wonder in predicting various ionospheric parameters without knowing 67 details of the physical mechanisms. Various studies were done in the past to predict 68 ionospheric peak electron density (NmF2), peak height (hmF2), critical frequency 69 (foF2), total electron content (TEC) using an artificial neural network (ANN) model 70 [13–18]. Santosa & Hobara (2017) applied machine learning to VLF signal such 71 as Nonlinear Auto-regressive with Exogenous Input Neural Network (NARXNN) to 72 predict daily averaged nighttime VLF signal amplitude one day in advance with the 73 Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.93 and Root Mean Square Error 31 (RMSE) 74 of 2.02 dB. They considered stratospheric temperature, total column ozone, cosmic 75 rays, Dst, and Kp index as the inputs of the model. However, predicting the whole 76

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diurnal variation of VLF signals using a machine learning model has never been at tempted.

In this paper, for the first time, we have used two supervised machine learning techniques, such as multiple linear regression (hereafter, MLR) and artificial neural network (hereafter, ANN), to model the complex behavior of sub-ionospheric VLF signals, especially the diurnal pattern. The whole process has VLF electric field as target parameter and the parameters affecting the lower ionospheric variations which in turn affect the VLF signal variations, such as F10.7 solar flux, Cosmic ray, solar zenith angle, geomagnetic Dst index, and D-region electron density profiles from the IRI-2016 model, are considered as inputs to the models.

2. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

2.1. INPUTS AND OUTPUT

In this present work, we have considered VLF diurnal variation at 18.2 kHz 87 from the VTX transmitter. The vertical component of VLF electric fields was recorded 88 by Near-Earth Space and Atmospheric Observatory (NESAO) at Kolkata using a 3.65 89 m E-field whip antenna. VLF signal amplitudes are influenced by variations in the 90 conductivity profiles of the lower ionosphere, namely the D-region ionosphere due 91 to solar and extra-terrestrial inputs (such as Solar Lyman alpha, Soft X-ray, Cosmic 92 rav. etc.). During geomagnetic storms, energetic particle precipitation in the iono-93 sphere also change the ionospheric profiles and disturb the VLF signals [20, 21]. 94 Atmospheric forcing from below the ionosphere also modulates the ionospheric con-95 ductivity profiles [22] and therefore VLF signals [23]. But, the major factors that 96 determine the VLF diurnal variation for a particular transmitter-receiver propagation 97 path are solar inputs and corresponding conductivity profiles of the D-region iono-98 sphere. Though the shape of the VLF diurnal variation depends particularly on the propagation characteristics and transmitter-receiver distance [24, 25]. Fig. 1a shows 100 the hourly averaged (red in online version) VLF electric field amplitude (dB) from 101 25 April 2019 to 06 May 2019 as received in Kolkata. The inset of Fig. 1a shows 24h 102 variation of signal amplitude more clearly with 1 min time resolution in UT (black 103 solid) along with an hourly averaged (red dotted in online version) signal over that. 104 The amplitude minimum between 1-2 UT is generally known as sunrise terminator 105 time minimum (SRTm) which formed due to the destructive interference between the 106 propagating electromagnetic modes when the sunrise terminator sweeps the propa-107 gation path from the receiver to the transmitter. The amplitude minimum between 108 11-12 UT is known as sunset terminator time minimum (SSTm) and after SSTm the 109 signal amplitude increased due to the modal interference between daytime and night-110 time modes as the sunset terminator sweeps the propagation path from the receiver 111

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to the terminator. Between SRTm and SSTm, the amplitude follows the solar zenith
 angle variation. From 14-23 UT, complete night condition over the propagation path
 ensures the rapid fluctuations of the signal amplitude compared to the daytime.

Here, we have considered five types of inputs, namely the hourly values D-115 region electron density profiles, F10.7 solar flux, Dst index, solar zenith angle, and 116 Cosmic ray. The hourly values of D-region electron density profiles at altitude range 117 65 km to 90 km in steps of 5 km are obtained from the IRI-2016 Fortran code (avail-118 able from http://irimodel.org) over the receiver and mid-point of the transmitter-119 receiver great circle path (TRGCPm). Thus, the IRI electron density itself served 120 as 12 inputs (6 inputs for receiver and TRGCPm respectively) of the ML models. 121 The fifth panel of Fig. 1b shows the variation of D-region electron density over the 122 receiver at an altitude of 70 km (solid line) and 80 km (dashed line) as an example 123 for the duration 25 April-6 May 2019. Hourly averaged F10.7 solar flux (second 124 panel) and Dst index (third panel) data are obtained from the Space Physics Data 125 Facility of NASA, USA (https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov). Hourly averaged Cosmic 126 ray flux (fourth panel Fig. 1b) is downloaded from the Athens Cosmic ray station 127 (http://cosray.phys.uoa.gr). We also consider the daytime solar zenith angle variation 128 as shown in the first panel of Fig. 1b. Fig. 2, shows the schematic of the simulation 129 setup. In the following two subsections, we describe the two ML models. 130

2.2. MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

The regression analysis helps to predict the trends and future values from the 131 existing data. In the context of regression models, the simple linear regression (here-132 after LR) is one of the most basic and common predictive analysis models. LR is 133 used mainly to predict the relationship between independent (known as input/s) and 134 dependent variables (known as output) assuming a linear relationship between those 135 input/s and output. If there is a single input variable, then the model is referred to as 136 LR, while there are multiple input variables, the same is termed as a multiple linear 137 regression model (MLR). In both LR and MLR, the output will be a single variable. 138 For MLR, it is accustomed that the inputs are not directly correlated with each other 139 rather, inputs should be independent of each other and random in nature. The dis-140 tribution of regression residuals is a normal distribution. In Fig. 3a, the schematic 141 diagram for both the LR and MLR are given. Here, x and (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) are 142 input/s for LR and MLR restively, while, Y is the output for both LR and MLR. 143

2.3. ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORKS

The term Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) is analogous to the human brain. It includes the computational approach which is inspired by the structure of the human brain. The human brain consists of many neurons connected to each of their

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Fig. 1 – (a) Diurnal variation of VLF transmitter signal as output (target) parameter and (b) Various input parameters.

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Fig. 2 – Schematic diagram of the simulation set up.



Fig. 3 – Schematic diagram of MLR and ANN.

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neighbors. In the human brain, each neuron passes the input signal from one to another as well as passes the information that is to be computed for output. Similarly, the ANN also passes the input signal from one neuron to another and create a network of artificial neurons for computation. The basic structure of the ANN is given in Fig. 3b. A simple ANN structure consists of a n number of inputs and a single output process. Let, (X_1, X_2, X_3) are three inputs process and Y is the output process. Again, each of the input process contains one input signal, say, (x_1, x_2, x_3) along with their corresponding weights $(W1, W_2, W_3, ..., W_n)$ interconnected with output process. However, there may be more than one output process. Now, for all input process, the net input to the output process is defined as Y_in . The net output Y_{out} is a function of Y_{in} . For a simple ANN, the net output is considered as a binary step function which is given below.

$$Y_{in} = x_1 W_1 + x_2 W_2 + \dots + x_n W_n = \sum_{1}^{n} x_i W_i$$
$$Y_{out} = f(Y_{in}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_{in} > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } Y_{in} \le 0 \end{cases}$$

All the neurons in ANN build the layers or network by interconnecting them-144 selves. These interconnections may or may not be fully connected. According to 145 this layered architecture the ANN can be classified into various divisions, viz, single 146 layer feed-forward ANN, multi-layer feed-forward ANN, competitive network, and 147 recurrent network. All of these networks may have one or more hidden layers with 148 the input and output layers. The output only generates from an output processing unit 149 when a special function satisfies the required criteria for given input variables. This 150 special function that maps the net input value to the output signal values is known as 151 the activation function of that output unit of the ANN. 152

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Here, we discuss the simulation results obtained from the two ML models and also compared them with the theoretical models.

3.1. MLR ANALYSIS

MLR is the most common but powerful prediction technique in the context of supervised machine learning. As mentioned in the methodology section, the input and output data are segregated into two sets randomly. In general, among these two sets, the larger set contains more than 50 % of the data which is termed as training data, while the rest set containing less than 50% of data is known as test

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data. The data (less than 50%) which was not used during training, are used only 160 for the testing phase. It is relevant to mention here that our training data consist of 161 the data from 25 April to 06 May 2019 to increase the size of training data. On the 162 other hand, to predict VLF, test data are used for May 07-09, 2020. In Fig. 4, the 163 scatter plots of both observed (upper panel) and predicted (lower panel) are shown. 164 To avoid complexity, we used linear regression lines for both the data. Hence, the 165 MLR model reduced the multivariate problem into a simple regression problem with 166 predicted output as a function of observed VLF amplitude. The upper panel of Fig. 4 167 shows the linear regression between the predicted output and observed values during 168 the training phase with the regression coefficient of R = 0.9488. The testing phase 169 produced a regression coefficient of 0.9303. As both of the regression coefficients 170 are close to 1, we can easily conclude that the prediction using MLR is significantly 171 well for the present data. 172

Now, we will present our predicted VLF for 07-09 May 2020 using the trained 173 model. In Fig. 5, we plotted both the MLR predicted VLFs (red curve) and corre-174 sponding observed VLFs (black curve). Unfortunately, we don't have any observed 175 data after 11 UT of 08 May 2019 due to power failure. It is evident from the daytime 176 signal amplitude comparison that the MLR prediction for the first 24 hours i.e., on 177 07 May is better than the next 24 hours on 08 May. Though the timings of both the 178 minima around sunrise (near ~ 2 UT) and sunset (near ~ 12 UT) match well with the 179 observation, amplitude during sunrise minimum tend to overshoot the observation. 180 During night hours (\sim 14-23 UT), the predicted VLF signal amplitude approximately 181 follows the same pattern as the observation but, there is a mismatch between the 182 observed and predicted amplitude values, which is responsible for the regression co-183 efficient R = 0.9488 and R = 0.9303 during training and testing phases. Daytime 184 prediction in between \sim 2-12 UT is very good and matches very well with observa-185 tion. 186

3.2. ANN ANALYSIS

We have used a multi-layer perceptron ANN to predict the sub-ionospheric 187 VLF transmitter signal. The 16 variables, as discussed in the previous section, have 188 been used as primary inputs of the model. Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) algorithm 189 [26, 27] has been used to train the neural network. After performing several test runs 190 and analyzing the performance along with regression values, we found that the ar-191 chitecture with one hidden layer that contains seven neurons gives the best results. 192 During the training process, the total data from 25 April to 06 May 2019 (288 data 193 points) are divided into three parts, namely training (70% of 288 data points), vali-194 dation (15% of 288 data points), and testing (15% of 288 data points). It is relevant 195 to mention here that the distribution (70+15+15) is standard in the context of super-196

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vised machine learning. However, one may also let this distribution as 80+10+10 197 etc. The ANN model used the training data set to obtain the nonlinear relationship 198 between input parameters and the target VLF electric field. The validation set, which 199 is not used during training, is used to optimize the network performance, and the 200 testing data set is used to assess the network performance only. The best validation 201 performance is obtained with mean squared error MSE = 1.438, while the same for 202 the training set is MSE=1.432. Fig. 6 shows the linear regression coefficient (R) 203 between the target (observed VLF filed) and ANN output during training, validation, 204 and testing phases. The bottom right of Fig. 6 shows the regression between the 205 predicted and target parameters for all the data. The colored solid lines represent the 206 fit of the corresponding predicted values, and the regression values are shown on the 207 top of each panel. The regression values of the training phase (R=0.9525) and the 208 validation phase (R=0.9515) indicate a good fit between the target and model out-209 put. The regression values of the test phase (R=0.9332) and all data (R=0.9495) also 210 indicate a significant linear relationship between the target and model output. 211

After the training, validation, and testing phase, the trained model is examined 212 for learning efficiency with a new set of input data for 07-08 May 2019. The pre-213 dicted output (red dashed in on-line) is then compared with the actual observed VLF 214 amplitude data (black in on-line) for the same 48 hours in Fig. 7. Observed data 215 were absent from sunset terminator time minimum around 11 UT for 08 May 2019. 216 We can see that the ANN predicted output is well correlated with the observed val-217 ues and the linear correlation coefficient between the two is 0.95. Most importantly, 218 the error in prediction or the mismatch between predicted and observed values is 219 relatively large during night hours (between 13-23 UT), while the predicted values 220 are almost accurate for other times. Also, the ANN model captured the two minima 221 around sunrise and sunset (SRTm and SSTm) very well. These results indicate that 222 the learning efficiency and prediction capability of the ANN model are very good for 223 the simulation of diurnal variation of the VLF transmitter signal. 224

3.3. LWPC SIMULATION

Here, we have calculated the VLF signal amplitude using the most well-known 225 Long Wave Propagation Capability (LWPC) v2.1 code [7]. The LWPC code is a 226 two-dimensional full-wave model for the calculation of amplitude and phase of VLF 227 signals propagating in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide. The lower waveguide bound-228 ary is characterized by the permittivity (ϵ) and conductivity (σ) of the Earth surface 229 along the radio propagation path between a transmitter and a receiver pair. The 230 ionospheric conditions can be specified by the altitude profiles of electron and ion 231 density and the collision frequency profiles between electrons, ions, and neutrals. 232 The electron density (N_e) and electron-neutral collision frequency (ν_e) profiles are 233

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sufficient to model the VLF signal variations [28]. Here, we have used the FOR-234 TRAN code of the International Reference Ionosphere model IRI-2016 to get the 235 electron density profiles in the altitude range 65-100 km along the radio propagation 236 path used as inputs to the LWPC model. The electron-neutral collision frequency 237 (ν_e) profile as functions of altitude (h) for the D region ionosphere reads as [12], 238 $\nu_e(h) = 1.816 \times 10^{11} exp(-0.15h)$ in sec^{-1} and is default to the LWPC model. The 239 propagation path has been divided into 15 path segments partly based on ground 240 conductivity. The LWPC code has been coupled and automatized with the IRI-2016 241 model to calculate the radio signal taking inputs for the path segments from the IRI-242 2016 model along the propagation path. This process was also described in [2, 28]. 243 Then we ran the range-table model of the LWPC code for the VTX-Kolkata propa-244 gation path to calculate the diurnal variation of the VTX amplitude at 18.2 kHz with 245 electron density (N_e) and electron-neutral collision frequency (ν_e) along the path. 246 In Fig. 8, we present the IRI-LPWC calculation of the diurnal variation of VTX 247 signal amplitude for the receiver placed at Kolkata by dashed line (red in on-line) 248 corresponding to 07 May and 08 May 2019. The observed variation is indicated by 249 the solid circled line (black in on-line) line. As can be seen from the figure, the 250 IRI-LWPC calculation predicts the SRTm position in the diurnal variation almost at 251 the same time, but the position of the SSTm is delayed by ~ 1 h and also the IRI-252 LWPC with the default collision frequency predicts slightly lower amplitude at noon. 253 To compare this calculation with the ML models developed earlier, we have plotted 254 the MLR and ANN predictions of the signal amplitude in the same Fig. 8 with the 255 dot-dashed (green in on-line)) and solid (blue in on-line) lines respectively. Thus 256 it can be seen that the ANN and MLR models perform better than the IRI-LWPC 257 model and the ANN model is best among the three. All the model predictions failed 258 to reproduce the variation of the nighttime signal amplitude as the nighttime iono-259 sphere is highly variable with respect to time and space mainly due to the absence of 260 a dominating ionizing sources like the Sun in the daytime. 261

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

VLF signal is one of the most important diagnostic tools to monitor the lower 262 part of the ionosphere below 90 km altitude. Continuous monitoring of VLF signals 263 helps to monitor lower ionospheric variability associated with any space weather 264 conditions or other conditions affecting the lower ionosphere. Therefore, their pre-265 diction also helps to predict lower ionospheric variability and D-region absorption. 266 In this paper, we have exercised two machine learning models, namely the regression 267 (MLR) and neural network (ANN), for the simulation of diurnal variation of VLF 268 transmitter signal between a transmitter and receiver pair. D-region electron den-269

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sity variation over the receiver and middle point of the transmitter-receiver path, Dst 270 index, solar zenith angle, Cosmic ray flux, F10.7 solar index are considered as the 271 inputs of the two models. Data from 25 April to 6 May (12 days, 288 data points) 272 are chosen for training and testing purposes. Then using the trained models, we have 273 predicted VLF diurnal variation for 7-8 May 2019. The prediction results are also 274 compared with IRI-LWPC simulation results. It is observed that both the MLR and 275 ANN models simulated the VLF signal variation very well during daytime and dawn-276 dusk conditions. But the prediction is not good at night. This is because during the 277 nighttime variability of VLF signals is very high compared to daytime as there is no 278 Sun which causes the lower D-region to vanish completely and only weak ionization 279 remained at the upper D-region/lower E-region (above 85 km). 280

Further, the atmospheric forcing from below dominates the ionospheric vari-281 ability during nighttime causing VLF signals to fluctuate rapidly compared to day-282 time. In our model, there are no input parameters that take care of ionospheric vari-283 ability at night minutely like VLF signals causing a mismatch between hourly ob-284 servation and prediction during nighttime. The IRI-LWPC simulation also predicted 285 the daytime behavior closely related to the observation except for dusk (during sun-286 set) and night hours. Further, the comparison of all three models indicates that the 287 ANN and MLR models perform better than the IRI-LWPC simulation. Therefore, 288 the studied models can be used to fill the data gaps of sub-ionospheric VLF signals 289 that exist due to power failure or other problems. The present results also indicate 290 that there is a lot of scopes to improve the models for accurate simulation of VLF 291 signals by selecting the input variable wisely at any condition including night. Al-292 ternatively, the opposite problem can be exercised to calculate the lower ionospheric 293 electron density variation from the VLF observations which will be reported in our 294 next communication. 295

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 The IRI-2016 model (source code) was downloaded from http://irimodel.org. Athens's neutron mon itor data (http://cosray.phys.uoa.gr) were kindly provided by the Physics Department of the National
 and Kapodistrian University of Athens. Dst index and F10.7 com solar flux index were obtained from
 https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov. The VLF data are available from the Near Earth-Space and Atmo spheric Observatory, Kolkata (root.nesao@gmail.com).

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Fig. 4 – Linear regression between the target (observed VLF filed) and MLR output during (a)training, (b)testing phases respectively. Both inputs and target data are considered from 25 April to 06 May, 2014 during training phase and only inputs of 07-08 May, 2019 are considered during testing phase.

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Fig. 5 – MLR model prediction (red) is compared with corresponding observed (black) variation of VLF electric field strength at 18.2 kHz received at Kolkata during 07 May and 08 May, 2019. Both inputs and target (VLF) data from 25 April 2019 to 06 May, 2019 are used for training purpose. There are no observed data after 11 UT of 08 May, 2019 due to power failure.

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Fig. 6 – Linear regression between the target (observed VLF filed) and ANN output during (a) training, (b) validation, and (c) testing phases respectively. (d) The linear regression between the predicted and target parameters for all the data.

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Fig. 7 – ANN model prediction (red) is compared with corresponding observed (black) variation of VLF electric field strength at 18.2 kHz received at Kolkata during 07 May and 08 May, 2019. Here inputs and target (VLF) data from 25 April 2019 to 06 May, 2019 are used for training, validation and testing purpose. VLF field for 07 May and 08 May are predicted completely based on inputs only with the trained model.

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Fig. 8 – Coupled IRI-LWPC model prediction (red) compared with the observation (black) along with the ANN (blue) and MLR (green) model predictions.

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