Sensitivity of ground magnetometer array elements for GIC applications I: Resolving spatial scales with the BEAR and CARISMA arrays

Stavros Dimitrakoudis¹, David K. Milling¹, Andy Kale¹, and Ian Mann¹

¹University of Alberta

November 22, 2022

Abstract

Geomagnetically induced currents (GICs) can be driven in terrestrial electrical power grids as a result of the induced electric fields arising from geomagnetic disturbances (GMD) resulting from the dynamics of the coupled magnetosphere-ionosphere-ground system. However, a key issue is to assess an optimum spacing for the magnetometer stations in order to provide appropriate monitoring of the GIC-related GMD. Here we assess the vector correlation lengths of GMD and related amplitude occurrence distribution of the variations of horizontal magnetic field dB_{H}/dt . Specifically, we study the GMD response to two storm-time substorms using data from two magnetometer arrays, the Baltic Electromagnetic Array Research (BEAR) Project in Scandinavia and the Canadian Array for Realtime Investigations of Magnetic Activity (CARISMA) array in North America, so as to determine the optimal magnetometer spacing in latitude and longitude, for monitoring and assessing GIC risk. We find that although magnetic disturbances are well-correlated up to distances of several hundred kilometers at mid-latitudes, the vector correlation length rapidly drops off for station separations of less than 100 km within the auroral oval. In general geomagnetic fluctuations are stronger and more localized in the auroral zone. Since the auroral oval is pushed equatorward during intense magnetic storms, we highlight that networks using a station separation of $\delta = 0000$ km should provide an excellent basis for monitoring both small and large scale geomagnetic disturbances. A monitoring network with this station spacing is recommended as being optimal for assessing the role of GMD in driving GICs in the electric power grid.

Sensitivity of ground magnetometer array elements for GIC applications I: Resolving spatial scales with the BEAR and CARISMA arrays

Stavros Dimitrakoudis 1 , David K. Milling 1 , Andy Kale 1 , Ian R. Mann 1

¹Department of Physics, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Key Points:

4

5

6

7	- Occurrence distributions of dB_H/dt during two similar storms at two different ground
8	magnetometer arrays are found to be log-normal
9	• Two-point dB_H/dt vector correlations between distant stations are lower within
10	the auroral oval than at mid-latitudes
11	- Magnetometers placed 200 km apart should provide required coverage of localized
12	large dB_H/dt events for GIC applications

Corresponding author: Stavros Dimitrakoudis, dimitrak@ualberta.ca

13 Abstract

Geomagnetically induced currents (GICs) can be driven in terrestrial electrical power 14 grids as a result of the induced electric fields arising from geomagnetic disturbances (GMD) 15 resulting from the dynamics of the coupled magnetosphere-ionosphere-ground system. 16 However, a key issue is to assess an optimum spacing for the magnetometer stations in 17 order to provide appropriate monitoring of the GIC-related GMD. Here we assess the 18 vector correlation lengths of GMD and related amplitude occurrence distribution of the 19 variations of horizontal magnetic field dB_H/dt . Specifically, we study the GMD response 20 to two storm-time substorms using data from two magnetometer arrays, the Baltic Elec-21 tromagnetic Array Research (BEAR) Project in Scandinavia and the Canadian Array 22 for Realtime Investigations of Magnetic Activity (CARISMA) array in North America, 23 so as to determine the optimal magnetometer spacing in latitude and longitude, for mon-24 itoring and assessing GIC risk. We find that although magnetic disturbances are well-25 correlated up to distances of several hundred kilometers at mid-latitudes, the vector cor-26 relation length rapidly drops off for station separations of less than 100 km within the 27 auroral oval. In general geomagnetic fluctuations are stronger and more localized in the 28 auroral zone. Since the auroral oval is pushed equatorward during intense magnetic storms, 29 we highlight that networks using a station separation of ~ 200 km should provide an 30 excellent basis for monitoring both small and large scale geomagnetic disturbances. A 31 monitoring network with this station spacing is recommended as being optimal for as-32 sessing the role of GMD in driving GICs in the electric power grid. 33

34

Plain Language Summary

One of the most dangerous effects of space weather is the induction of currents on 35 wires and pipelines on Earth, which can destroy electrical transformers in the power grid 36 and damage infrastructure. Part of our effort to deal with that threat involves monitor-37 ing the variability of the Earth's magnetic field at the Earth's surface, since that can give 38 us an indication of how and when such currents may be induced. A key issue is the re-39 quired spatial separations of observing magnetic monitoring stations. Using two exist-40 ing arrays of ground stations we statistically analyzed their observations during two days 41 of strong space-related geomagnetic activity. From that analysis we have found that re-42 gions in the auroral zone have intense and more localized geomagnetic variations, com-43 pared to regions equatorward of them. Since the auroral zone can be pushed equator-44

 $_{45}$ ward at times of intense geomagnetic storms, which is when the induced currents will

- ⁴⁶ likely pose the greatest risk, we need to account for separations which can additionally
- 47 monitor small-scale fluctuations. We conclude that arrays of ground magnetometers with
- $_{48}$ a ~ 200 km separation are optimum for the required magnetic monitoring.

49 **1** Introduction

Geomagnetic disturbances (GMD) due to space weather are well-known to pose a 50 major threat to terrestrial electric power distribution systems through the generation 51 of Geomagnetically Induced Currents (GIC) in power transmission lines (e.g., Lanzerotti, 52 1979; Boteler et al., 1998). During a large GMD, the GIC flow in transformers may cause 53 half-cycle saturation, which can increase absorption of reactive power, generate harmonic 54 currents, and cause transformer hot spot heating and potential failure (e.g., Molinski, 55 2002). Increased transformer reactive power absorption and harmonic currents associ-56 ated with GMD events can also cause protection system misoperation and loss of reac-57 tive power sources, the combination of which can lead to voltage collapse(e.g., NERC, 58 2012). 59

Accurate modelling of the GIC produced during space weather events requires the 60 inclusion of the appropriate power system characteristics, magnetic source fields and Earth 61 conductivity structure (e.g., Boteler & Pirjola, 2017). The important aspects of the mag-62 netic source fields are the amplitude, polarisation, frequency content and spatial char-63 acteristics of the disturbance. Different physical mechanisms produce disturbances with 64 different spatial and temporal features (e.g., Viljanen, 2012). For instance, the ring cur-65 rent generated during the magnetic storm main phase produces disturbances on a global 66 scale which may be considered to be fairly uniform. In contrast, the magnetic disturbances 67 observed during auroral substorms are due to a combination of field-aligned currents in 68 the magnetosphere and electrojet currents in the ionosphere at a height of ~ 100 km 69 above the Earth's surface which lead to more localized and complex disturbance fields 70 (Viljanen et al., 2006; Huttunen et al., 2008). For a discussion of some of the drivers of 71 storm-time magnetic disturbances in the magnetosphere and their connection to vari-72 ations of the horizontal magnetic field at the surface of the Earth, see for example Kataoka 73 and Pulkkinen (2008) and references therein. 74

-3-

In view of the long-term risk posed by GICs to infrastructure, the United States' 75 Federal Energy Regulatory Commission has approved Reliability Standard TPL-007-1, 76 which establishes the requirement for power companies to assess the vulnerability of their 77 transmission systems according to specified guidelines (United States of America Fed-78 eral Energy Regulatory Commission, 2016). The potential of GMDs to produce GICs 79 is to be evaluated using spatially-averaged data in 500 km x 500 km regions, based on 80 the observational results of Pulkkinen et al. (2015) and on theoretical considerations of 81 the spatial structure of the large-scale auroral electrojet (Pulkkinen et al., 2006). How-82 ever, the Commission also proposed that further studies be undertaken for possible mod-83 ifications of the benchmark GMD event definition, which is based on that spatially-averaging 84 convention. In this paper we explore the evolution and statistics of dB/dt, a GIC proxy 85 (e.g., Heyns et al., 2021, and references therein), over the course of two magnetic storms 86 in two magnetometer arrays, the dense Baltic Electromagnetic Array Research (BEAR, 87 a part of EUROPROBE's SVEKALAPKO project (Hjelt & Daly, 1996)) and the sparser 88 but wider Canadian Array for Realtime InvestigationS of Magnetic Activity (CARISMA) 89 (Mann et al., 2008). 90

In a manner similar to the analysis of Viljanen et al. (2001) we analyse the occurrence distributions of the time variations of the horizontal magnetic disturbance at the Earth's surface on a range of timescale. We further assess in detail the vector spatial correlation of such disturbances to assess the optimum and/or recommended spacing between magnetometer stations which should be deployed in arrays designed to provide continuous monitoring of GMD for applications assessing the space weather risk, for example, to electric power grids arising from the resulting GICs.

98 2 Data Processing

Since the rate of change of the horizontal component of $d\mathbf{B}/dt$ on the ground cor-99 relates with GICs (Coles et al., 1992; Mäkinen, 1992; Viljanen, 1998; Bolduc et al., 1998), 100 we use that as a proxy. Although it is sometimes calculated as $dB_H/dt = d_1/B_x^2 + B_y^2/dt$ 101 (e.g. Thomson et al., 2011; Rodger et al., 2017), we find that such an approach makes 102 the results dependent on baseline subtractions while also being insensitive to rotations 103 of $\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{H}}$. To avoid these two issues, and since we are interested in the electric field which 104 may produce directional electric fields which drive GICs in one-dimensional electric power 105 lines, we instead calculate it as $dB_H/dt = \sqrt{(dB_x/dt)^2 + (dB_y/dt)^2}$ (Viljanen et al., 106

2001). Values of $dB_H/dt > 1 \text{nT/s}$ are considered noteworthy (Viljanen et al., 2001), 107 although their total effect may be cumulative with time, and the generation of signif-108 icant voltage differences along a given power line infrastructure also additionally depends 109 on the spatial structure of the driving fields along the line (see (Marshall et al., 2010) 110 for discussion on a GIC index). We followed two approaches for evaluating the statis-111 tical properties of dB_H/dt . First, we analysed the response of a very dense magnetome-112 ter array, BEAR, in a single day of high geomagnetic activity; then we analysed the re-113 sponse of a sparser array, CARISMA, in a day of very similar geomagnetic activity. The 114 two approaches are complementary. 115

The Baltic Electromagnetic Array Research (BEAR) array operated between June 116 and July 1998, with a total of 75 stations scattered across Norway, Sweden, Finland, Es-117 tonia, and the Russian Federation. The condition $dB_H/dt > \ln T/s$ is met infrequently 118 in the course of the BEAR measurements. A single day, 26 June 1998, stands out with 119 84600 such occurrences concentrated within a four-hour time period that corresponds 120 to high Kp and increasingly negative Dst. Therefore, we focused on that one day exclu-121 sively in our analysis of BEAR data. In this study we have only made use of BEAR sta-122 tions that provided full coverage during our selected time intervals, with a sampling rate 123 of 2s and no instrumental irregularities. This limited our coverage to the 42 stations shown 124 in Figure 1. To test for longitudinal or latitudinal dependencies on the spatial scale, we 125 subsequently considered subsets of those stations lying along the lines of magnetic lat-126 itudes 56.5° N, 61° N and 63.5° N, as well as magnetic longitude 105° E. Furthermore, 127 we distinguished between stations north or south of the 59.5° N line. These groups are 128 denoted with boxes (diamonds and squares) of their own specific colors in Figure 1, the 129 same colours being used in all subsequent figures that use their measurements. 130

The Canadian Array for Realtime InvestigationS of Magnetic Activity (CARISMA) 131 has been in operation since 2005, succeeding the previous Canadian Auroral Network 132 for the OPEN Program Unified Study (CANOPUS) array (Mann et al., 2008). Out of 133 numerous substorm periods that have occurred since then, we have identified one whose 134 characteristics closely match those of the one observed with BEAR, on 7 January 2015. 135 At that time, there were 19 operational CARISMA stations, which we could divide along 136 certain lines of magnetic latitude or longitude, as shown in Figure 2. CARISMA's stan-137 dard data product uses a sampling rate is 1s, which affords us higher temporal resolu-138 tion than BEAR. While the shortest distance between stations is only 210 km, compared 139

-5-



Figure 1. Map of the BEAR magnetometer network, with the stations active on June 26 1998. The orange line denotes the border between northern and southern stations used in this study. The other lines denote groups of stations along constant magnetic latitude or longitude. Boxes and diamonds of these colours for each station further indicate which subset each BEAR station belongs to.



Figure 2. Map of the CARISMA stations active on January 7 2015. The red, blue, and green lines denote groups of stations along constant magnetic latitude or longitude. As in Figure 1, boxes and diamonds of these colours for each station further indicate which subset each CARISMA station belongs to.

to 20 km for BEAR, the longest distance is 3400 km, up from 1180 km for BEAR. Thus,
the two arrays complement each other providing coverage of the structure of GMD across
different spatial scales.

We also made use of SuperMAG (Gjerloev, 2009, 2012) in order to obtain polar maps of dB_H/dt vectors for the two events. Those maps also contain fitted magnetometer vectors that fill in the gaps between magnetometer stations (Waters et al., 2015). For the 26 June 1998 event they are juxtaposed on images of the auroral oval by the Visible Imaging System (VIS) (Frank et al., 1995), flown on the Polar Spacecraft. Kp and Dst values were extracted from NASA/GSFC's OMNI data set through OMNIWeb.

In order to evaluate the effect of ground distance on the coherence of dB_H/dt measurements, and thus also assess the accuracy of inferring the structure of GMD using measurements from magnetometers separated by various distances, we flagged each instance of $dB_{H_j}/dt > 1$ nT/s on a magnetometer j and then measured the concurrent dB_{H_i}/dt on every other magnetometer *i* in the array or a subset of the array as needed. Under the conditions $dB_{H_i}/dt < dB_{H_j}/dt$ (to avoid double-counting) and $dB_{H_i}/dt > 0.5$ nT/s (to avoid superfluous measurements), we obtained values of the vector correlation (under rotation) coefficient

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{(\sigma_{xu})^2 + (\sigma_{yv})^2 + (\sigma_{xv})^2 + (\sigma_{yu})^2}{\sigma_i^2 \sigma_j^2}},$$
(1)

where the two components of dB_{H_i}/dt are designated with x and y, the two components of dB_{H_j}/dt are designated with u and v, and σ_i^2 and σ_{xu} are variances and covariances respectively (Hanson et al., 1992).

160 3 Results

Our case study for the BEAR magnetometer network is the substorm of 26 June 161 1998. Between 1:00 and 5:00 UTC Kp remains constant at 6+, while Dst drops to -101 162 nT, slowly recovering after 4:00 UTC (Figure 3). For the benefit of the reader, we plot 163 the time series of the (magnetic north-south) H-component magnetometer time series 164 from selected BEAR magnetometer stations is provided in Supplementary Material Fig-165 ure S1. It is during this time period that the ground magnetometers in the BEAR ar-166 ray register a large number of strong dB_H/dt variations. Those, as we can tell by com-167 paring the orange and purple dashed lines in Figure 3, predominantly occur in the north-168 ern region of the BEAR array; while there are 26 stations north of the arbitrarily cho-169 sen line of 59.5° N CGM compared to only 16 south of it, there are 82601 counts of $dB_H/dt >$ 170 1nT/s north of this line as compared to 1999 such counts south of it. 171

A more interesting picture emerges when we plot the occurrence distributions of 172 the number of counts above certain dB_H/dt thresholds for each group of stations in Fig-173 ure 4. These occurrence distributions appear to be log-normal, with their slopes clearly 174 also dependent on latitude; those of the northern stations, and all stations in aggregate, 175 follow the behaviour of the subset of stations along the 63.5° N line, those of southern 176 stations closely match the subset of stations on the 56.5° N line, while stations along the 177 61 N line have an intermediate slope. That behaviour persists when we downsample our 178 data to one minute cadence and assess the time rate of change of the horizontal mag-179 netic field dervied from these 1 minute samples. However, note that the number of counts 180 drops by more than the factor of 30 that we would expect in going from 2s to 60s data, 181 indicating perhaps unsurprisingly that the short timescale rates of change more often 182

-8-

reach a specific threshold of nT/s than when derived from the longer period data. This is of course explained as a result of the fluctuating nature of the magnetic field disturbances. This result clearly shows that a one minute sampling rate underestimates the occurrence rate of such short timescale, high dB_H/dt events.

We can examine the dependence of the slope of the occurrence distributions as a 187 function of latitude in greater detail by considering data from each individual station along 188 the 105° E line (Figure 5). The gradients of these distributions, in log-linear space, in-189 crease gradually with latitude, except for a sharper and more localised jump at around 190 59.5° N, and which we used earlier to define a latitude separating stations in the north-191 ern and southern regions of the BEAR array. The gradient reaches a maximum at a lat-192 itude of around 65° N, above which there is a slight decrease. That latitude of the peak 193 in the gradient of the occurrence distributions matches that of the latitudinal dependence 194 of dB/dt amplitudes shown by Woodroffe et al. (2016). Indeed, previous studies have 195 linked that maximum to the shifting location of the auroral oval as far back as (Coles 196 & Boteler, 1993). 197

In order to further investigate the latitude dependence of the characteristics of the 198 GMD, in Figure 6 we plot the means, quartiles, and upper values of dB_H/dt as a func-199 tion of magnetic latitude for each station along the 105° E longitude line, calculated sep-200 arately for data at three different sampling rates of 2s (raw; left panel (a)), 10s (middle 201 panel, (b)), and 1 minute (right panel, (c)). In all three cases we see a steep increase in 202 the characteristics of the distributions of the magnitude of dB_H/dt at a latitude of around 203 60° N, especially for the highest recorded values (denoted upper value in Figure 6), and 204 which predictably push the mean values above the medians. The one minute sampling 205 rate data in panel (c) suffers somewhat from reduced count statistics, particularly at lower 206 latitudes, and also indicates lower dB_H/dt changes in nT/s, since those would have to 207 be sustained for a full minute to be recorded as the same amplitude as the 1s dB_H/dt 208 magnitudes shown in panel (a). In Figure 7 we show polar maps of magnetic disturbance 209 vectors from SuperMAG magnetometers at three times, in one-hour intervals, during the 210 high dB_H/dt activity phase of the 26 June 1998 substorm. From concurrent VIS images 211 of the auroral oval we can confirm that the large magnetic perturbations seen with Su-212 perMAG and the large values of dB_H/dt seen with the BEAR array correspond to re-213 gion of the auroral oval over the European sector in the dawn local time sector. 214

-9-



Figure 3. Kp, Dst, and dB_H/dt counts per hour, on 26 June 1998 with the BEAR array. Grey lines show the time span we used. Coloured lines correspond to data from different subsets of magnetometer stations, as shown in Figure 1.

In Figure 8 we show the values of the vector correlation ρ for the three constant-215 latitude groups of stations, for pairs of stations with stations in 50 km-wide bins, using 216 BEAR magnetic data using both a two second (a) and one minute (b) sampling rate. Three 217 important and clear trends are apparent. First, measurements at southern stations are 218 spatially more well-correlated across larger longitudinal separations than those in the north. 219 For example, this is particularly evident when comparing the magenta line, correspond-220 ing to 56.5° N, with the red line, corresponding to 63.5° N). Second, while the median 221 values of $dB_{x,y_i}/dB_{x,y_j}$ drop roughly monotonically with station separation distance, the 222 effect of a randomization of their angle θ after about 200 km means that their vector cor-223 relations drop precipitously from there at larger inter-station separations. Third, the one 224 minute data shows very similar behaviour to the two second data, although to account 225 for the lower count statistics we had to relax the $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ threshold which we used to 226 collate the magnetic disturbances for this correlative assessment by a factor of ten. 227

To further investigate the effect of latitude on these inter-station vector correlations, we selected three stations along the 105 degrees E line, one at its southern tip, one

-10-



Figure 4. Occurrence distribution of dB_H/dt counts as a function of threshold, from 01:00 to 5:00 UTC on 26 June 1998, using 2s cadence data from the BEAR array. Coloured lines correspond to data derived from different subsets of stations, as shown in Figure 1. The short dashed lines show measurements derived from one minute cadence data for the same subsets of stations. See text for details.



Figure 5. a) Occurrence distribution of dB_H/dt counts above a specific threshold (units nT/s), which occurred from from 01:00 to 5:00 UTC on 26 June 1998, for all individual stations along the 105° E (green) line of BEAR; b) Linear fits to the slopes of each logarithmic occurrence distribution line from panel (a) as a function of the latitude of the station.



Figure 6. Mean, quartiles, and upper value of dB_H/dt measurements (for $dB_H/dt > 1nT/s$) taken from 01:00 to 5:00 UTC on 26 June 1998, for all stations along the 105° E (green) line of BEAR; with a) a two second sampling rate, b) a ten second sampling rate, and c) a one minute sampling rate.



Figure 7. Polar maps from SuperMAG for the 26 June 1998 event, with Polar VIS images overlaid and which show the auroral oval. Three snapshots are shown, for 2:00 UTC, 3:00 UTC, and 4:00 UTC. A clear correspondance between the large magnetic perturbations and the auroral oval over the European sector, which is on the dawn flank at this time, is clear.

at its northern tip, and one in the middle, and calculated the two-point vector correla-230 tion of $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ between that station and all other stations along the same 105 degrees 231 E line. The results are shown in Figure 9, which again shows clearly that the inter-station 232 correlations drop as before with increasing distance, but they remain high for longer dis-233 tances when using the lower latitude station as our point of reference. This further ver-234 ifies the assertion that the correlation lengths as a function of latitude are longer at lower 235 latitude locations. In our view, based for example on the correspondence between the 236 Polar VIS images and the large SuperMAG fluctuations shown in Figure 7, it is likely 237 that magnetic disturbances are influenced by variations in ionospheric conductivity. In 238 the auroral zone, energetic electron precipitation and related changes in conductivity can 239 lead to the generation of small scale conductance structures which are associated with 240 large amplitude waves with small perpendicular scales, likely with polarisation rotations, 241 perhaps amplified as a result of ionospheric feedback processes (cf. Lysak, 1991). Con-242 versely, outside the auroral zone, the conductance at sub-auroral latitudes might be more 243 spatially uniform leading to larger vector correlation lengths for GMD. It is also quite 244 likely that there is also an impact from an amplitude selection effect as well. For exam-245 ple, as we saw in Figure 4, the number of $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ measurements above all thresholds 246 increases almost monotonically with increasing latitude. Therefore, while the majority 247 events captured at high latitudes, with typical amplitudes, will be associated with weaker 248 and more uncorrelated measurements at low latitudes, any event strong enough to reg-249 ister at lower latitudes will most likely be related to similar and even larger measurements 250 at higher latitudes. As a result the correlation length statistics at lower latitudes could 251 be larger than those at higher latitudes as a result of the latitudinal dependence of the 252 amplitudes of typical GMD. 253

The same latitudinal dependence of the inter-station vector correlation is also ap-254 parent when we reduce the data to a temporal cadence of one minute, although it should 255 be noted that count statistics for the fixed amplitude threshold $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ are then very 256 poor for the lowest latitude station, and all but the first three data points for it in panel 257 (b) of Figure 9 correspond to fewer than ten pairings of measurements. The median an-258 gles of the individual $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ vectors also display some further differences as a function 259 of latitude between the more northern and southern stations in the BEAR array, as shown 260 in Figure 10. For the more southerly stations, variations predominantly occur with a po-261 larisation in the East-West direction (panels (c, f, i)). For the more northerly stations 262

-14-



Figure 8. Vector correlation coefficients of concurrent dB_H/dt vectors from two different stations as a function of inter-station separation distances, between 1:00 and 5:00 UTC for the BEAR array; using a) a two second sampling rate, b) a ten second sampling rate, and c) a one minute sampling rate. Coloured lines correspond to different subsets of stations at constant latitude, as shown in Figure 1.

(panels (b, e, g), on the other hand, they are much more likely to occur in the NorthSouth direction. Nonetheless, in all panels there is a significant variability in the direction of polarisation, with significant amplitudes occurring in almost all polarisation directions.

For CARISMA, we chose the substorm of 7 January 2015 as our comparator case 267 study. Similar to the BEAR event, Kp retains a value of 6+ for three hours, only drop-268 ping to 4 at the tail end of our period of dB_H/dt measurements. Dst drops to -99 nT 269 during the period of the largest dB_H/dt occurrence, and remains low for the next few 270 hours (Figure 11). One notable difference is that while the 26 June 1998 BEAR event 271 was detected on the ground in the post-midnight to dawn sector the 7 January 2015 was 272 detected by the CARISMA array closer to local midnight. As with the previous event, 273 we provide the (magnetic north-south) H-component magnetometer time series from se-274 lected CARISMA magnetometer stations in Supplementary Material Figure S2. Because 275

-15-



Figure 9. Vector correlation coefficients between measurements at three selected stations on the line of constant 105° E longitude (green) line of the BEAR array (A04, B28 and B36) with other stations on that line, between 1:00 and 5:00 UTC; and using magnetic data with a) a two second sampling rate, b) a ten second sampling rate, and c) a one minute sampling rate.



Figure 10. Angular polarisation occurrence of total number of $dB_H/dt > 1nT/s$, using 1s data, measured between 1:00 and 5:00 UTC at BEAR, for various groups of stations.

of the smaller number of stations, and the fact that they are all situated in Canada or 276 the northern United States, we did not perform a separate analysis of northern and south-277 ern stations, as with BEAR. But we did group several stations along three lines of con-278 stant geomagnetic latitude or longitude, as shown in Figure 2. as with the BEAR event, 279 stations along the southern (blue) line had fewer counts of $dB_H/dt > \ln T/s$ compared 280 to stations along the northern (red) line. It is noteworthy that the occurrence peak in 281 the south (blue line) occurred between 11:00 and 12:00 UTC, while the peak in the north 282 (red line) had occurred earlier between 9:00 and 10:00 UTC. After 11:00 UTC, there was 283 more activity observed in the blue line than in the red one. Figure 12 shows the occur-284 rence rates of dB_H/dt as a function of threshold for the CARISMA groups of stations 285 using 1s data. As in the BEAR case, there again appears a steepening of the slopes for 286 the southern stations compared to the northern ones. The same result is again obtained 287 using one minute cadence data. The resulting lines are again almost log-normal, with 288 slightly higher curvature than the ones from the BEAR case, perhaps as a result of the 289 lower count statistics. As in Figure 7 for the previous event, here we again show polar 290 maps of magnetic perturbation vectors from SuperMAG for this event in Figure 13 for 291 three selected times within the period of high dB_H/dt activity. Although there was no 292 visual coverage of the auroral oval available from space at this time, we can see a sim-293 ilar ordering of dB_H/dt vectors within the same latitude range. 294

In Figure 14 we again show values of ρ plotted as a function of station separation 295 distance. Because of the larger distances between the CARISMA stations, we cannot re-296 solve distances below the 250 km bin. However, we can still see an indication of a de-297 crease in coherence up to distances of around 500 km, after which the vector correlation 298 flattens out near zero at larger scales. Interestingly, when we reduce our sampling rate 299 to one minute, the correlation coefficients increase for all separation distances. This was 300 also the case in Figure 8 but is more obvious here. This is probably because very local-301 ized $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ spikes are smoothed out when down-sampling the data. As with BEAR, 302 we have also considered the correlations between three individual stations along a line 303 of constant longitude, with all other stations at that longitude, with results shown in Fig-304 ure 15. Consistent with the BEAR results, only the lowest latitude station shows appre-305 ciable magnetic correlation with other stations nearby. The median angles of $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ 306 vectors at CARISMA, shown in Figure 16, are more homogeneous at all four different 307 groups of stations than was the case for the BEAR event. This may be an effect of dif-308

-17-



Figure 11. Kp (top), Dst (middle), and dB_H/dt counts per hour (bottom), on 7 January 2015 with the CARISMA array. Grey vertical lines show the time span of data used for analysis. Coloured lines in the bottom panel correspond to different subsets of stations, as shown in Figure 2.



Figure 12. Occurrence distribution of dB_H/dt as a function of threshold (units of nT/s), using data from 01:00 to 5:00 UTC on 7 January 2015, for the CARISMA array; for all stations (black line), and along three lines of constant magnetic latitude or longitude (red, blue, and green lines). The short dashed lines show measurements with a one minute sampling rate.



Figure 13. Polar maps from SuperMAG for the 7 January 2015 event. Three snapshots are shown, for 9:00 UTC, 10:00 UTC, and 11:05 UTC.



Figure 14. Vector correlation coefficients, used to compare the similarity of concurrent dB_H/dt vectors at different inter-station separation distances along two lines of constant latitude at 67 degrees N (red) and 58 degrees N (blue), between 8:00 and 12:00 UTC at CARISMA; and with a) a one second sampling rate, b) a ten second sampling rate, and c) a one minute sampling rate.

ferences between the magnetic disturbances for the two substorm events, at slightly different MLT, or due to the lack of a group of stations in CARISMA at sufficiently low latitude (cf. the magenta line for BEAR).

312 4 Discussion

Based on the vector inter-station GMC correlations presented here, spatial corre-313 lations range in scale from 100-500 km - the shortest correlation lengths occurring at 314 higher latitudes and in proximity to the auroral zone. Current FERC guidelines man-315 date the use of spatially-averaged data in $500 \text{ km} \ge 500 \text{ km}$ regions, and do not take into 316 account the effect of latitude on their measurements. Based on the GMD correlation length 317 scales we report here, we conclude that these current FERC guidelines can be prone to 318 under-reporting the intensity of localized GMD activity. Most areas of high population 319 density and high economic activity lie at low latitudes, below the auroral zone, and would 320 thus be well served by a 500 km magnetometer spacing under normal geomagnetic con-321

-20-



Figure 15. Vector correlation coefficients between measurements at three specific stations, RANK, GILL, and OSAK, on the 26 W (green) line of constant longitude at CARISMA and all other stations on that line, between 8:00 and 12:00 UTC; with a) a two second sampling rate, b) a ten second sampling rate, and c) a one minute sampling rate.

ditions. However, intense magnetic storms will push the auroral oval equatorward requir-322 ing a higher spatial resolution magnetic monitoring in order to properly characterise the 323 GMD-related GIC risk. Overall, our results show that GMD tend to be very coherent 324 at distances of ~ 100 km, as expected since this corresponds to the approximate height 325 of the E region of the ionosphere which carries the ionospheric currents driving the GMD. 326 Based on our results, a station separation of ~ 200 km would seem to be more appro-327 priate for more accurately capturing the small scale variability of the GMD. A one-minute 328 sampling rate appears does appear to provide slightly higher coherence of measurements 329 for all distances, but not high enough to make up for the variability at higher latitudes. 330 Moreover, one minute cadence data is too slow to fully capture the timescales of GMD 331 which are important for GICs, and in our view monitoring at 1s cadence is preferred. 332

A similar comparison of the spatial scales of GMD in North America was undertaken by (Butala et al., 2017), including some of the CARISMA stations, but mostly focusing on lower latitudes. By obtaining cross correlations between north and east magnetic measurements, these authors found that variances can only be accurately modelled

-21-



Figure 16. Occurrence of polarisations of events with $dB_H/dt > 1nT/s$, measured between 8:00 and 12:00 UTC at CARISMA using 1s data, for various groups of stations. (a) All, (b) at 26 degrees W longitude, (c) at 67 degrees N latitude (higher latitude), and (d) at 58 degrees N latitude (lower latitude).

at short distances from each magnetometer, which agrees with our results. However, they 337 were limited to a sampling rate of 60s and to geomagnetic latitudes below 58° N, and 338 as we have demonstrated here the correlation lengths can be different at different lat-339 itudes. Dimmock et al. (2020) also looked into the regional variability of dB/dt in Scan-340 dinavia using 10s resolution data. They employed a different approach, comparing dB_H/dt 341 from single stations to the average derived from other sets of stations. By assuming that 342 those dB_H/dt variations induce currents on a grid of transmission lines, they found that 343 even on scales of ~ 200 km there was a regional variability of up to 60% in peak volt-344 ages compared to the assumption of a uniform magnetic disturbance field. A spatial scale 345 of 200 km was also proposed by EPRI (2020), after an examination of the statistics of 346 localized geoelectric field enhancements in Canada and Scandinavia. 347

The two storms we considered here, while otherwise similar according to their ge-348 omagnetic indices, represent geomagnetic disturbances centered on the local dawn and 349 midnight sectors, respectively. The midnight activity is characteristic of Disturbance Po-350 lar 1 surface magnetic field perturbations, brought upon by the substorm current wedge 351 during the sustorm's expansion phase. Similar perturbations at dawn would be more in-352 dicative of activity on the flank of the magnetosphere and most likely related to global 353 convection. This highlights the importance of considering multiple mechanisms when mod-354 elling the risk of GICs (e.g., Freeman et al., 2019). Our method can be expanded to take 355 into account multiple other storms under different geomagnetic conditions, drawing on 356 the decades of CARISMA observations, including for the analysis of the occurrence dis-357 tributions and statistics of the magnitudes of the worst case GMD, and that will be the 358 focus of future work. 359

360 5 Conclusions

From an investigation of ground magnetic field measurements for two similar periods of geomagnetic activity during geomagnetic storms as observed by two magnetometer arrays with elements spanning different spatial scales (BEAR in Scandinavia and CARISMA in Canada; in the local pre-dawn to dawn, and local midnight sectors, respectively) we have found the following:

-23-

366	• Occurrence distributions of $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ are log-normal (in the case of BEAR) or close
367	to log-normal (in the case of CARISMA) for magnitudes up to around $10nT/s$,
368	where the statistics become sparse;
369	• For the events studied here, there is evidence that there is a sharp gradient in these
370	occurrence distributions above and below 60 degrees magnetic latitude;
371	• The locations of regions of high $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ appear to be closely related to the loca-
372	tion of the auroral oval;
373	• The spatial scale of high $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ vector correlation between stations of varying
374	separation is shorter at higher latitudes; it remains high for distances exceeding
375	400 km when only considering stations at latitudes lower than the auroral oval;
376	• The magnitudes of $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ statistically decrease with decreasing latitude. The
377	GMD also have larger magnitudes in nT/s when measured at 1s cadence, rather
378	than at 10s or 1 minute cadence, indicative of the short-scale temporal variabil-
379	ity of the GMD;
380	- In general, there is no directional preference for $d\mathbf{B}_H/dt$ vector polarisation (when
381	$d\mathbf{B}_H/dt > 1 \mathrm{nT/s}$ for higher latitudes (within the auroral oval); there is some
382	evidence for a preference for East-West GMD polarisation at sub-auroral latitudes;
383	• Since the auroral oval is pushed southward during intense magnetic storms, a higher
384	magnetometer station density is required to accurately assess the ground impact
385	of GMD across all latitudes at all times. Therefore a station separation of $\sim 200~{\rm km}$
386	is recommended as being optimal as a general requirement for GMD monitoring
387	for GIC applications.

388 Acknowledgments

- 389 SD was supported by the Canadian Space Agency through the Geospace Observatory
- (GO) Canada program. IRM is supported by a Discovery Grant from Canadian NSERC.
- ³⁹¹ CARISMA is operated by the University of Alberta, funded by the Canadian Space Agency.
- ³⁹² For the Polar VIS Earth Camera images we gratefully acknowledge the Polar VIS Earth
- ³⁹³ Camera team, PI Prof. Louis A Frank. We acknowledge use of NASA/GSFC's Space
- ³⁹⁴ Physics Data Facility's OMNIWeb service, and OMNI data. The data from BEAR used
- in this paper are available at: https://osf.io/jcv3d/?view_only=46769e5350ac459c89c96c25f92d0cd3
- ³⁹⁶ CARISMA magnetometer data are available at: www.carisma.ca.

397 References

- Bolduc, L., Langlois, P., Boteler, D., & Pirjola, R. (1998, October). A study of geo electromagnetic disturbances in Quebec, 1. general results. *IEEE Transactions* on Power Delivery, 13(4).
- Boteler, D. H., & Pirjola, R. J. (2017). Modeling geomagnetically induced currents. Space Weather, 15(1), 258–276. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10
 .1002/2016SW001499 (2016SW001499) doi: 10.1002/2016SW001499
- Boteler, D. H., Pirjola, R. J., & Nevanlinna, H. (1998). The effects of geomagnetic
 disturbances on electrical systems at the earth's surface. Advances in Space *Research*, 22, 17-27. doi: 10.1016/S0273-1177(97)01096-X
- ⁴⁰⁷ Butala, M. D., Kazerooni, M., Makela, J. J., Kamalabadi, F., Gannon, J. L.,
- 408Zhu, H., & Overbye, T. J.(2017, October).Modeling Geomagnetically409Induced Currents From Magnetometer Measurements: Spatial Scale As-
- sessed With Reference Measurements. Space Weather, 15, 1357-1372. doi:
 10.1002/2017SW001602
- Coles, R. L., & Boteler, D. H. (1993). Geomagnetic induced currents: assessment of
 geomagnetic hazard (Report). GSC Open File 2635.
- Coles, R. L., Thompson, K., & Jansen van Beek, G. (1992). A comparison between the rate of change of the geomagnetic field and geomagnetically induced
 currents in a power transmission system..
- ⁴¹⁷ Dimmock, A. P., Rosenqvist, L., Welling, D. T., Viljanen, A., Honkonen, I., Boyn-
- ton, R. J., & Yordanova, E. (2020). On the regional variability of db/dt
 and its significance to gic. Space Weather, 18(8), e2020SW002497. Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/
 10.1029/2020SW002497 (e2020SW002497 10.1029/2020SW002497) doi:
- 422 https://doi.org/10.1029/2020SW002497
- EPRI. (2020). Furthering the understanding of the characteristics and scales of geoelectric field (Report No. 3002017900). EPRI, Palo Alto, CA.
- Frank, L. A., Sigwarth, J. B., Craven, J. D., Cravens, J. P., Dolan, J. S., Dvorsky,
- M. R., ... Muller, D. W. (1995, February). The Visible Imaging System
 (VIS) for the Polar Spacecraft. Space Sci. Rev., 71(1-4), 297-328. doi:
 10.1007/BF00751334
- 429 Freeman, M. P., Forsyth, C., & Rae, I. J. (2019, June). The Influence of Sub-

430	storms on Extreme Rates of Change of the Surface Horizontal Magnetic
431	Field in the United Kingdom. Space Weather, 17(6), 827-844. doi:
432	10.1029/2018SW002148
433	Gjerloev, J. W. (2009, July). A Global Ground-Based Magnetometer Initiative. EOS
434	Transactions, 90, 230-231. doi: 10.1029/2009EO270002
435	Gjerloev, J. W. (2012, September). The SuperMAG data processing technique.
436	Journal of Geophysical Research (Space Physics), 117, A09213. doi: 10.1029/
437	2012JA017683
438	Hanson, B., Klink, K., Matsuura, K., Robeson, S., & Willmott, C. (1992, 03). Vec-
439	tor correlation: Review, exposition, and geographic application. Annals of
440	The Association of American Geographers - ANN ASSN AMER GEOGR, 82,
441	103-116. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8306.1992.tb01900.x
442	Heyns, M. J., Lotz, S. I., & Gaunt, C. T. (2021). Geomagnetic pulsations driving
443	geomagnetically induced currents. $Space Weather, 19(2), e2020SW002557.$
444	Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/
445	$10.1029/2020SW002557 (e2020SW002557 \ 10.1029/2020SW002557) doi:$
446	https://doi.org/10.1029/2020SW002557
447	Hjelt, S. E., & Daly, S. (1996). SVEKALAPKO, Evolution of Palaeoproterozoic and
448	Archaean Lithosphere
449	Huttunen, K. E. J., Kilpua, S. P., Pulkkinen, A., Viljanen, A., & Tanskanen, E.
450	(2008). Solar wind drivers of large geomagnetically induced currents dur-
451	ing the solar cycle 23. Space Weather, $6(10)$. Retrieved from https://
452	agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/2007SW000374 doi:
453	https://doi.org/10.1029/2007SW000374
454	Kataoka, R., & Pulkkinen, A. (2008). Geomagnetically induced currents during
455	intense storms driven by coronal mass ejections and corotating interacting re-
456	gions. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 113(A3). Retrieved
457	<pre>from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/</pre>
458	2007JA012487 doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JA012487
459	Lanzerotti, L. J. (1979, August). Geomagnetic influences on man-made sys-
460	tems. Journal of Atmospheric and Terrestrial Physics, 41, 787-796. doi:
461	10.1016/0021- $9169(79)90125$ - 9
462	Lysak, R. L. (1991). Feedback instability of the ionospheric resonant cavity. Journal

-26-

463	of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 96(A2), 1553-1568. Retrieved from
464	https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/90JA02154
465	doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/90JA02154
466	Mäkinen, T. (1992). Geomagnetically induced currents in the Finnish power trans-
467	mission system. Finnish Meteorological Institute $Geophysical Publications(32)$,
468	101.
469	Mann, I. R., Milling, D. K., Rae, I. J., Ozeke, L. G., Kale, A., Kale, Z. C.,
470	Singer, H. J. (2008, December). The Upgraded CARISMA Magnetome-
471	ter Array in the THEMIS Era. Space Science Reviews, 141, 413-451. doi:
472	10.1007/s11214-008-9457-6
473	Marshall, R. A., Waters, C. L., & Sciffer, M. D. (2010, May). Spectral analysis
474	of pipe-to-soil potentials with variations of the Earth's magnetic field in the
475	Australian region. Space Weather, 8, 05002. doi: 10.1029/2009SW000553
476	Molinski, T. S. (2002, November). Why utilities respect geomagnetically induced
477	currents. Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics, 64, 1765-1778.
478	doi: $10.1016/S1364-6826(02)00126-8$
479	NERC. (2012, February). 2012 Special Reliability Assessment Interim Report: Ef-
480	fects of Geomagnetic Disturbances on the Bulk Power System.
481	Pulkkinen, A., Bernabeu, E., Eichner, J., Viljanen, A., & Ngwira, C. (2015,
482	June). Regional-scale high-latitude extreme geoelectric fields pertaining to
483	geomagnetically induced currents. Earth, Planets, and Space, 67, 93. doi:
484	10.1186/s40623-015-0255-6
485	Pulkkinen, A., Klimas, A., Vassiliadis, D., Uritsky, V., & Tanskanen, E. (2006,
486	March). Spatiotemporal scaling properties of the ground geomagnetic field
487	variations. Journal of Geophysical Research (Space Physics), 111, A03305. doi:
488	10.1029/2005JA011294
489	Rodger, C. J., Mac Manus, D. H., Dalzell, M., Thomson, A. W. P., Clarke, E.,
490	Petersen, T., Divett, T. (2017, November). Long-Term Geomagneti-
491	cally Induced Current Observations From New Zealand: Peak Current Esti-
492	mates for Extreme Geomagnetic Storms. Space Weather, 15, 1447-1460. doi:
493	10.1002/2017SW001691
494	Thomson, A. W. P., Dawson, E. B., & Reay, S. J. (2011, October). Quantifying ex-
495	treme behavior in geomagnetic activity. Space Weather, 9, S10001. doi: 10

manuscript submitted to Space Weather

496	.1029/2011SW000696
497	United States of America Federal Energy Regulatory Commission. (2016, Septem-
498	ber). Reliability Standard for Transmission System Planned Performance for
499	Geomagnetic Disturbance Events, Order No. 830.
500	Viljanen, A. (1998, October). Relations of geomagnetically induced currents and lo-
501	cal geomagnetic variations. IEEE Transactions on Power Delivery, $13(4)$.
502	Viljanen, A. (2012). 3B. Description of the magnetospheric/ionospheric sources. In
503	A. D. Chave & A. G. Jones (Eds.), The magnetotelluric method: Theory and
504	practice. Cambridge University Press.
505	Viljanen, A., Nevanlinna, H., Pajunpää, K., & Pulkkinen, A. (2001, September).
506	Time derivative of the horizontal geomagnetic field as an activity indicator.
507	Annales Geophysicae, 19, 1107-1118. doi: 10.5194/angeo-19-1107-2001
508	Viljanen, A., Tanskanen, E. I., & Pulkkinen, A. (2006). Relation between sub-
509	storm characteristics and rapid temporal variations of the ground magnetic
510	field. Annales Geophysicae, 24(2), 725-733. Retrieved from https://angeo
511	.copernicus.org/articles/24/725/2006/ doi: 10.5194/angeo-24-725-2006
512	Waters, C. L., Gjerloev, J. W., Dupont, M., & Barnes, R. J. (2015). Global
513	maps of ground magnetometer data. Journal of Geophysical Research:
514	Space Physics, 120(11), 9651-9660. Retrieved from https://agupubs
515	.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/2015JA021596 doi:
516	https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JA021596
517	Woodroffe, J. R., Morley, S. K., Jordanova, V. K., Henderson, M. G., Cowee, M. M.,
518	& Gjerloev, J. G. (2016, September). The latitudinal variation of geoelectro-
519	magnetic disturbances during large (Dst \leq -100 nT) geomagnetic storms. Space

520

Weather, 14, 668-681. doi: 10.1002/2016SW001376

Supporting Information for "Sensitivity of ground magnetometer array elements for GIC applications I: Resolving spatial scales with the BEAR and CARISMA arrays"

Stavros Dimitrakoudis¹, David K. Milling¹, Andy Kale¹, Ian R. Mann¹

 $^{1}\mathrm{Department}$ of Physics, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Contents of this file

1. Figures S1 to S2

Introduction

This supporting information provides (magnetic north-south) H-component magnetometer time series from selected BEAR and CARISMA magnetometer stations for the 26 June 1998 and 7 January 2015 substorm events. X - 2



Figure S1. H-component magnetometer time series from four BEAR magnetometer stations on 26 June 1998.

September 17, 2021, 6:24am



Figure S2. H-component magnetometer time series from four CARISMA magnetometer stations on 7 January 2015.