# Statistical Decomposition and Machine Learning to Clean In-Situ Spaceflight Magnetic Field Measurements

Matthew G. Finley<sup>1</sup>, Trevor A Bowen<sup>2</sup>, Marc Pulupa<sup>3</sup>, Andriy Koval<sup>4</sup>, and David Michael Miles<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Iowa <sup>2</sup>Space Sciences Laboratory <sup>3</sup>Space Sciences Laboratory, University of California at Berkeley <sup>4</sup>Goddard Planetary Heliophysics Institute, University of Maryland Baltimore County

March 16, 2023

#### Abstract

Robust in-situ magnetic field measurements are critical to understanding the various mechanisms that couple mass, momentum, and energy throughout our solar system. However, the spacecraft on which magnetometers are often deployed contaminate the magnetic field measurements via onboard subsystems including reaction wheels and magnetorquers. Two magnetometers can be deployed at different distances from the spacecraft to determine an approximation of the interfering field for subsequent removal, but constant data streams from both magnetometers can be impractical due to power and telemetry limitations. Here we propose a method to identify and remove time-varying magnetic interference from sources such as reaction wheels using statistical decomposition and convolutional neural networks, providing high-fidelity magnetic field data even in cases where dual-sensor measurements are not constantly available. For example, a measurement interval from the Parker Solar Probe outboard magnetometer experienced a 95.1% reduction in reaction wheel interference following application of the proposed technique.

1 2	Statistical Decomposition and Machine Learning to Clean In-Situ Spaceflight Magnetic Field Measurements			
3	M.G. Finley <sup>1</sup> , T.A. Bowen <sup>2</sup> , M. Pulupa <sup>2</sup> , A. Koval <sup>3,4</sup> , and D.M. Miles <sup>1</sup>			
4	<sup>1</sup> Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Iowa, IA, USA			
5	<sup>2</sup> Space Sciences Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley, CA, USA			
6	<sup>3</sup> Heliophysics Science Division, NASA, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD, USA			
7	<sup>4</sup> University of Maryland, Baltimore County, Baltimore, MD, USA			
8	Corresponding author: Matthew G. Finley (matthew-g-finley@uiowa.edu)			
9	Key Points:			
10	• Local magnetic interference is a common issue faced by in-situ magnetometers.			
11 12	• Gradiometer measurements have historically been required to denoise in-situ magnetometer data.			
13 14 15	• Statistical decomposition and machine learning enable denoising even with limited gradiometer data.			

#### 16 Abstract

Robust in-situ magnetic field measurements are critical to understanding the various 17 mechanisms that couple mass, momentum, and energy throughout our solar system. However, 18 the spacecraft on which magnetometers are often deployed contaminate the magnetic field 19 measurements via onboard subsystems including reaction wheels and magnetorquers. Two 20 21 magnetometers can be deployed at different distances from the spacecraft to determine an approximation of the interfering field for subsequent removal, but constant data streams from 22 both magnetometers can be impractical due to power and telemetry limitations. Here we propose 23 a method to identify and remove time-varying magnetic interference from sources such as 24 reaction wheels using statistical decomposition and convolutional neural networks, providing 25 high-fidelity magnetic field data even in cases where dual-sensor measurements are not 26 constantly available. For example, a measurement interval from the Parker Solar Probe 27 outboard magnetometer experienced a 95.1% reduction in reaction wheel interference following 28 29 application of the proposed technique.

#### 30 Plain Language Summary

Measurements of magnetic fields captured by instruments onboard spacecraft are necessary to 31 further our understanding of the solar system. These measurements are often contaminated by 32 magnetic noise from the host spacecraft, substantially reducing the fidelity of the data. One 33 common method to reduce the impact of these interfering magnetic fields utilizes a pair of 34 magnetometers deployed at different distances from the main body of the spacecraft. The 35 difference between the two sensors allows for an approximation of the interfering fields to be 36 calculated for subsequent removal. However, many missions cannot afford to send data from 37 both instruments back to Earth. This manuscript proposes a method for the mitigation of 38 magnetic interference caused by the host spacecraft, even with limited data from the 39 magnetometer pair. Specifically, signal decomposition techniques and machine learning are 40 used to isolate and remove the interfering magnetic fields. For example, the proposed method 41 applied to a measurement interval from the Parker Solar Probe outboard magnetometer enabled 42 43 a 95% reduction in magnetic interference.

### 44 1 Introduction

45 High-quality in-situ magnetic field measurements are essential to understanding the geophysical processes that couple mass, energy, and momentum throughout near-Earth space 46 and the solar system. This often involves identifying comparably small perturbations due to 47 field-aligned currents or plasma processes from a much larger background field that, 48 49 unfortunately, is often contaminated by magnetic noise from the host satellite platform. Stray magnetic fields can emanate from the materials used in the construction of the host spacecraft, 50 from attitude control systems such as reaction wheels and magnetorquers, or from the solar 51 panels, batteries, and electrical systems that manage power for the spacecraft subsystems. 52

To mitigate the impact of the interfering fields, magnetometers can be deployed on a boom, increasing the physical separation from the host spacecraft. Historically, very long booms (e.g., >5-meters) have been implemented to achieve optimal interference mitigation (Miller, 1979; Smola et al., 1980). For additional interference mitigation potential a pair of magnetometers has often been used, mounted at different distances along the boom. At a large distance from the source a simple dipole approximation can be fit to the field gradient and 59 subtracted (Ness et al., 1971). However, many recent missions such as Van Allen Probes 60 (Kletzing et al., 2013) and Dellingr (Clagett et al., 2017) have opted for shorter booms (3-meter 61 and 0.52-meter, respectively) to reduce complexity and implementation costs. This reduced 62 boom length tends to place the sensors in the near-field of the magnetic noise source where the 63 complex multipole terms cannot be neglected. In theory, a multipole source model can still be 64 used to subtract the gradient; however, this requires careful pre-flight characterization of all 65 possible interference sources which can be challenging or logistically impossible.

Recently, additional techniques have been developed in order to mitigate local magnetic 66 interference onboard spacecraft. One simple approach is to simply apply a band-stop filter at the 67 frequencies associated with the dominant interference source (e.g., reaction wheels). However, 68 methods that utilize this approach can encounter problems during spacecraft maneuvers, as the 69 reaction wheels diverge from their nominal rates, contaminate extremely large frequency bands, 70 and can spectrally overlap with geophysical signals of interest. Advanced methods such as blind 71 source separation (Hoffmann & Moldwin, 2022; Sheinker & Moldwin, 2016), independent 72 component analysis (Imajo et al., 2021), maximum variance analysis (Constantinescu et al., 73 2020), and spectrum-based feature extraction (Bowen, Mallet, et al., 2020) have been shown to 74 successfully identify and remove interference from magnetometer measurements when two or 75 more sensors are available without relying on hand-tuned filters. 76

Recent advances in machine learning techniques have seen their widespread adoption in 77 various space physics fields. For example: Space weather forecasting (Camporeale, 2019), in-situ 78 79 magnetometer calibration (Styp-Rekowski et al., 2022), auroral image classification (Clausen & Nickisch, 2018), and plasma modeling (Bard & Dorelli, 2021). These machine learning tools 80 have been used in a variety of other fields in order to improve the fidelity of contaminated 81 measurements (Tian et al., 2019; E. Wang & Nealon, 2019). However, interference mitigation 82 for on-orbit magnetic field data utilizing machine learning techniques has not been thoroughly 83 explored. 84

This manuscript proposes a novel method for the integration of machine learning and 85 statistical decomposition for magnetometer interference mitigation. The proposed method 86 87 leverages potentially limited gradiometer data and provides the capability to automatically identify and remove magnetic noise caused by the host spacecraft during intervals when only a 88 single magnetometer is constantly telemetering data. For example, a measurement interval from 89 only the Parker Solar Probe outboard magnetometer will be shown to experience a 95.1% 90 reduction in interference attributed to the spacecraft's reaction wheels following the application 91 of the proposed algorithm. 92

### 93 2 Methodology

### 94 **2.1** Statistical Decomposition and Classification for Gradiometers

Singular Spectrum Analysis (SSA) is a statistical technique for the decomposition of
signals into physical meaningful components (Golyandina et al., 2001; Groth & Ghil, 2015).
Historically, this technique has seen success in a wide range of fields from climatology (Chen et al., 2013; Vautard & Ghil, 1989) to economics (Hassani et al., 2010; Hassani & Thomakos,
2010). Recently, the multivariate extension of SSA (MSSA) has been used to simultaneously
decompose time-series measurements from a pair of satellite-mounted magnetometers into

robust, physically meaningful components corresponding to the near-DC trend, interesting
 geomagnetic phenomena, and local magnetic interference (Finley et al., 2023).

103 Mathematically, this process can be defined as singular value decomposition (SVD) of a 104 trajectory matrix (Groth & Ghil, 2015). The trajectory matrix is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x(1) & x(2) & \dots & x(K) \\ x(2) & x(3) & \dots & x(K+1) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x(L) & x(L+1) & \dots & x(N) \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (1)

Note that X, which is generated with columns as lagged copies of the original input, contains information about the temporal variation of the signal captured by the *window length*, *L*. Applying SVD determines the eigenvector matrix (V) for the covariance matrix associated with the trajectory matrix (e.g.,  $XX^T$ ). The principal components of X can be determined by projecting it onto the eigenvectors via

 $P = V^T X.$  (2)

112 This process can then be inverted for each of the *L* principal components and associated 113 eigenvectors. This is defined for each eigenvector  $V_i$  and principal component  $P_i$  as

$$\boldsymbol{R}_{i} = V_{i} \times P_{i} \,\forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\}.$$

$$(3)$$

The sub-signals,  $r_i$ , associated with each principal component are then calculated by averaging along the anti-diagonals of each of the *L* matrices  $\mathbf{R}_i$ . No information is lost in this process; summing all of the sub-signals will completely reconstruct the original input. The multichannel extension (MSSA) expands one dimension of the trajectory matrix by the number of channels such that spatiotemporal information from all inputs (e.g., measurements made by multiple magnetometers) is leveraged in the decomposition process.

Once the sub-signals have been calculated it is necessary to group them according to their apparent contribution to important geomagnetic phenomena or local magnetic interference generated by the host spacecraft so the interference can be removed. This is done by calculating the statistical correlation between the imperfect interference approximation provided by the magnetic field gradient,

126

105

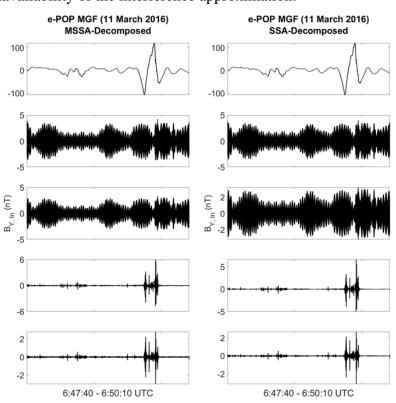
114

$$(\hat{x}_{interference} = x_{inboard} - x_{outboard}),$$
(4)

and each of the decomposed sub-signals,  $r_i$ . A high degree of correlation implies that the subsignals are morphologically similar to the interference approximation and should be removed. Setting a threshold parameter (a) subsequently determines the confidence of the interference mitigation algorithm and should be tuned accordingly. Further mathematical details and results for the application of this dual-sensor magnetometer denoising technique can be found in (Finley et al., 2023).

### 133 **2.2** Machine Learning for Single-Sensor Classification

Although the field gradient between two magnetometers is useful in classifying decomposed sub-signals as geomagnetic phenomena or local interference, data is not always available from both magnetometers onboard a spacecraft. Often, telemetry limitations force compromises to be made when transmitting magnetic field data to the ground, resulting in limited intervals where two sensors are providing full-cadence measurements. This can obviously limit the applicability of the statistical interference mitigation technique described in
 Sec. 2.1 due to the unavailability of the interference approximation.



141

Figure 1: Inboard sensor sub-signals generated by applying MSSA to both sensors (left) and SSA applied only to the
 inboard sensor (right) on an interval of CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo magnetic field data.

However, it can be observed that for well-synchronized and calibrated pairs of 144 magnetometers, SSA and MSSA produce extremely similar results. Figure 1 illustrates the first 145 five sub-signals output for the outboard sensor from the dual-sensor MSSA decomposition, as 146 well as the single-sensor SSA decomposition for the outboard sensor, over an interval of 147 CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo magnetic field data (Wallis et al., 2015; Yau & James, 2015). Note that 148 the same features such as near-DC trend (Row 1), oscillations presumably caused by reaction 149 wheels (Rows 2 and 3), and geomagnetic phenomena (Rows 4 and 5) previously identified as 150 Alfvénic activity (Finley et al., 2023; Miles et al., 2018) can be seen in both methods of 151 decomposition. This implies that the classification of the sub-signals decomposed by both 152 techniques should also be extremely similar, although we cannot rely on the simple field gradient 153 for classification when only one sensor is available. 154

Recent advances in machine learning (ML) tools have seen neural networks achieve a great deal of success in classifying time-series signals. This manuscript proposes the use of such networks to automatically classify signals decomposed by SSA as either local magnetic interference or residual geophysical signal, enabling interference mitigation even when only a single magnetometer is constantly telemetering data. A high-level block diagram of the proposed technique is shown in Fig. 2a. During intervals where two magnetic field sensors are telemetering data, MSSA is used to decompose the measurements and the magnetic gradient

- between the sensors is used to classify them, as explained in Sec. 2.1(Finley et al., 2023). These
- decomposed signals and associated labels are used to train a Convolutional Neural Network
- 164 (CNN), which is used to perform the same binary classification on SSA-decomposed signals
- 165 when measurements from only a single magnetometer are available.

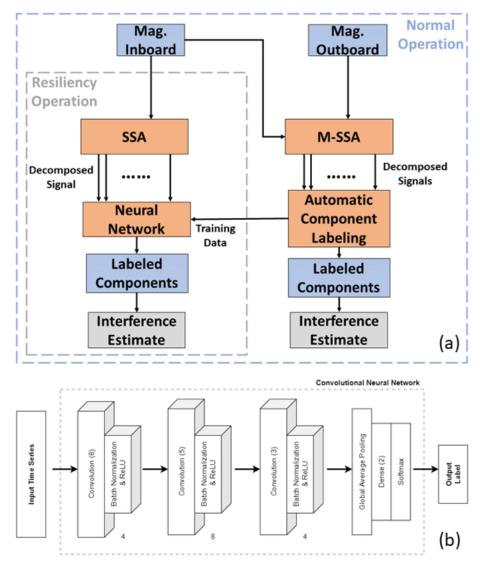


Figure 2: Illustration of the proposed method of interference mitigation applicable to intervals where only a single
magnetic field sensor is available. (a) High-level block diagram of proposed method; (b) Specific CNN utilized by
the proposed method.

The specific CNN implemented for this manuscript is shown in Fig. 2b, and was adapted 170 from a similar architecture described in (Z. Wang et al., 2017). This network was selected due to 171 the simplicity of its implementation and its performance history on classification of time series 172 data. The basic building block of this network is a convolutional layer followed by batch 173 normalization and the *ReLU* activation function to provide nonlinearity. The filter applied at each 174 convolution decreases in length from eight to five to three for each of the respective blocks. The 175 number of filters applied in each convolutional layer is four for the leftmost and rightmost block, 176 177 and is eight at the center block. After the convolutions are applied, a global pooling operation is

performed, a dense layer is used to adjust the dimensionality, and the *Softmax* activation function

provides the probability associated with the binary output labels. This network was implemented

in MATLAB 2022b using functionality from the Deep Learning Toolbox. Training parameters

and results are discussed in detail in Sec. 4.

## 182 **3** Data

### 183 **3.1** CASSIOPE e-POP/Swarm-Echo MGF

The first source of data analyzed in this manuscript is from the CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo 184 magnetic field instrument (MGF). These identical fluxgate magnetometers are deployed on a 185 common boom at distances of approximately 0.9 and 0.6 meters from the host spacecraft. Both 186 sensors measure and telemeter data at a cadence of 160 Sa/sec. The specific intervals chosen for 187 visualization or analysis were selected due to the presence of interesting geophysical events such 188 as the Alfvén waves (Miles et al., 2018) shown in Fig. 1 and ion downflow (Shen et al., 2016, 189 2018) shown in Sec. 4. Note that a 20-sec mean has been removed from the original 190 measurements captured by the e-POP MGF for ease of visualization. 191

### 192 **3.2 Parker Solar Probe FIELDS MAG**

Another source of data analyzed in this manuscript is from the Parker Solar 193 Probe/FIELDS experiment (Bale et al., 2016). FIELDS consists of two fluxgate magnetometers 194 (MAGs) 1.9 and 2.7 m from the spacecraft, which operate at a maximum sample rate of 292.969 195 Sa/sec (Bowen, Bale, et al., 2020). The dual sensors provide for failure redundancy, gradiometric 196 estimates of spacecraft noise, and monitoring of variations in DC offsets. The outboard MAG 197 (MAGo) is less impacted by spacecraft noise and accordingly used as the primary science 198 instrument. The inboard MAG (MAGi) is generally run at a lower sample cadence due to 199 telemetry constraints of the mission. Data chosen in this study were chosen due to the identical 200 sample rates of the inboard and outboard measurements. Note that low-frequency interference 201 from other subsystems dominates the field gradient spectrum, and a high-pass filter at 3 Hz is 202 applied to enable isolation of only the reaction wheels, which are a significant source of noise in 203 studying the polarization of plasma waves (Bowen, Mallet, et al., 2020). 204

### 205 4 <u>Results</u>

### 206 4.1 Neural Network Training

The CNN used to classify decomposed sub-signals on e-POP MGF data was trained 207 using gradiometer data from 1-5 March 2016. The data was split into 40-second intervals (i.e., 208 6400 samples/interval) and discarded if NaN values were present in either the inboard or 209 outboard measurements (due to data dropouts or other factors). Each of the resulting 476 pairs of 210 measurements were passed through MSSA with a window length of 40, resulting in ~39,000 211 212 pairs of sub-signals that were subsequently labeled via correlation against the magnetic field gradient with a threshold of 0.55. This threshold value was intentionally set high to increase the 213 confidence in the labeling scheme, although the resulting labels may still be incorrect when the 214 statistical significance of the sub-signals is ambiguous. Of the original ~76,000 sub-signals, 215 ~2,500 were labeled as interference and ~74,000 were labeled as residual geophysical signal. A 216 random permutation of 2,000 of the sub-signals corresponding to each binary label were selected 217 as inputs to the CNN training. 218

A similar data processing scheme was utilized for the limited gradiometer data from the Parker Solar Probe MAG. Only three hours of data (06:00:00 – 09:00:00 UTC) from 30 March (Encounter 2) were processed with a window length of 40 and a threshold value of 0.35, resulting in ~43,000 labeled 40-second intervals (~2,600 labeled as local interference, ~40,500 labeled as residual geophysical signal). A random permutation of 2,500 of the sub-signals corresponding to each label were selected as inputs to the CNN training.

Prior to training the CNN, all input data were normalized between 0 and 1. The total 225 input set was divided randomly into training, validation, and testing sub-sets using a typical 80%, 226 10%, 10% split. The network was then trained, using the default Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 227 2017) to minimize the cross-entropy loss function, for ten epochs. Cross-entropy, which 228 calculates the difference between two probability distributions, is a standard choice for 229 classification networks (de Boer et al., 2005). It is important to note that, given the potential for 230 misclassification in the generation of the training set, the performance of the classification 231 network is not necessarily indicative of the performance of the interference mitigation algorithm 232 as a whole. That said, the CNN trained on e-POP MGF data achieved a validation accuracy and 233 loss of 98.0% and 0.086. The CNN trained on PSP MAG data achieved a validation accuracy 234 235 and loss of 98.86% and 0.046.

### 236 4.2 Numerical Analysis

To quantitatively assess the performance of the proposed method in mitigating stray magnetic field caused by reaction wheels, it is necessary to perform numerical analysis of the results. This manuscript calculates the linear spectrum associated with the apparent reaction wheel frequencies during the events under observation before and after the application of the proposed method of single-sensor decomposition and ML-enabled sub-signal classification. Results are also calculated for the dual-sensor, gradient-based algorithm to provide a comparison with the technique used to train the classification network.

The values of the linear spectrum associated with the reaction wheel frequencies is calculated using Welch's method of overlapping periodograms (Welch, 1967) and an HFT95 flat-top window with an effective noise bandwidth (ENBW) of 3.8112 Hz (Heinzel et al., 2002). Mathematically, the linear spectrum (LS) can be defined based on the power spectral density (PSD) resulting from Welch's method as

249

$$LS = \sqrt{PSD \times ENBW}.$$
(5)

The results analyzed in this section are from data with near-constant reaction wheel rates for computational simplicity in the absence of a ground truth. Note that, during the intervals selected for analysis, the CASSIOPE reaction wheels were spinning at a uniform rate. As such, only one frequency point must be analyzed to determine the mitigation performance provided by the proposed method. However, the Parker Solar Probe reaction wheels are not at a uniform rate during these intervals, so the linear spectrum value attributed to each reaction wheel frequency (determined using the spacecraft's housekeeping data) is calculated and averaged.

### 257 **4.3** Experiments

The proposed method of automated single-sensor interference mitigation utilizing machine learning classification techniques was applied to four distinct intervals of magnetometer data from two different missions, as shown in Fig. 3. Each row of Fig. 3 corresponds to one interval: Row 1 and 2 illustrate the proposed method applied e-POP MGF data during ion downflow events (Shen et al., 2016, 2018); Row 3 and 4 illustrate the technique applied to

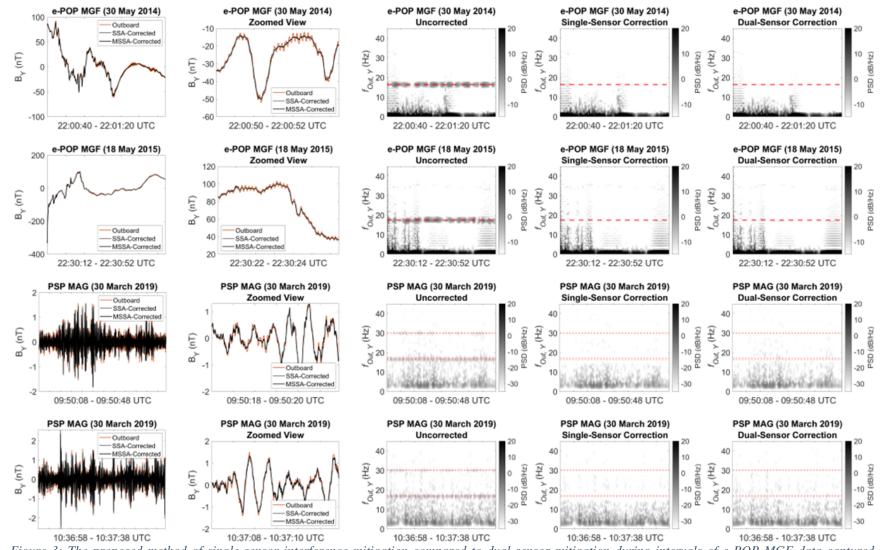
intervals of Parker Solar Probe (PSP) MAG data during Encounter 2. The first two columns of 263 Fig. 3 show the outboard measurements before and after the single-sensor correction, as well as 264 after the dual-sensor correction for comparison. Column 1 shows the entire 40-second interval 265 under observation, whereas Column 2 shows a 2-second zoomed view for ease of visualization. 266 Columns 3-5 show the spectra associated with the uncorrected, single-sensor corrected, and dual-267 sensor corrected measurements, respectively. The red dashed lines overlaid on the spectra 268 correspond to the frequencies of the spacecraft's reaction wheels during these intervals, although 269 this information is not required in the implementation of the proposed interference mitigation 270 271 technique.

Table 1 provides numerical results for the proposed interference mitigation method using the analysis technique described in Sec. 4.2. The specific frequencies analyzed correspond to the dashed red lines overlaid on the spectra in Fig. 3. For the e-POP MGF events shown, the proposed single-sensor method reduces the amplitude of the frequencies associated with the spacecraft reaction wheels by greater than 87%. For the PSP MAG intervals during Encounter 2, an amplitude reduction of greater than 95% can be seen.

These results are compared to the dual-sensor interference mitigation method, which utilized the same window length (L = 40) as in the single-sensor decomposition, paired with a threshold value of 0.25 for PSP and 0.15 for e-POP. Amplitude reductions of greater than 88% and 78% can be seen for e-POP and PSP, respectively. This slightly lower reduction (specifically for the PSP MAG) can be attributed to the substantial time-frequency overlap seen between the apparent reaction wheel interference and the observed magnetic phenomena during the intervals analyzed.

As the SSA technique and its multivariate extension provide asymptotic separability 285 (Harmouche et al., 2018), larger window lengths enable signal elements with close spectral 286 signatures to be decomposed from one another; however, greater window length also increases 287 the number of sub-signals generated by the decomposition, potentially reducing their statistical 288 significance. As such, an identical window length was used across all experiments for simplicity 289 and consistency. Qualitative analysis of the results displayed in Fig. 3 corroborate this 290 assessment: although both single-sensor and dual-sensor interference mitigation techniques 291 substantially reduce the power at the reaction wheel frequencies, the single-sensor method 292 negates a slightly larger bandwidth surrounding the apparent reaction wheel signature. Although 293 this results in higher numerical accuracy, it is not necessarily indicative of better algorithm 294 295 performance, and is instead likely an artifact of the limited training set provided to the CNN. More robust models utilizing all available gradiometer data, hyperparameter optimization, and 296 model generalizability across missions are all exciting avenues for future work related to the 297 proposed method of interference mitigation. 298

299



30010:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC10:37:08 - 10:37:10 UTC10:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC10:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC301Figure 3: The proposed method of single-sensor interference mitigation compared to dual-sensor mitigation during intervals of e-POP MGF data captured302during geomagnetic phenomena (Rows 1-2) and Parker Solar Probe MAG data captured during Encounter 2 (Rows 3-4). (Columns 1-2) Forty-second total303interval and two-second zoomed interval time-series data for uncorrected, single-sensor corrected, and dual-sensor corrected outboard measurements; (Column 3) Uncorrected outboard spectrum; (Column 4) Single-sensor corrected outboard spectrum; (Column 5) Dual-sensor corrected outboard spectrum. The dashed305red lines indicate the reaction wheel frequencies during each interval.

Table 1: Numerical analysis for the events shown in Fig. 3. (Rows 1-2) Results for interesting geomagnetic intervals captured by the e-POP MGF; (Rows 3-4)
 Results for PSP MAG data captured during Encounter 2.

	Event	Dominant Wheel Tones	Uncorrected (Linear Spectrum)	SSA- Corrected (Linear Spectrum)	<b>SSA-Corrected</b> (Improvement)	MSSA- Corrected (Linear Spectrum)	MSSA-Corrected (Improvement)
e-POP	30 May 2014 (22:00:40 UTC)	16.4 Hz (x4)	1.18 nT	0.15 nT	87.2%	0.04 nT	96.6%
MGF	18 May 2015 (22:30:12 UTC)	17.5 Hz (x4)	0.98 nT	0.07 nT	92.8%	0.11 nT	88.7%
PSP	30 March 2019 (9:50:08 UTC)	16.4 Hz, 17.1 Hz, 29.9 Hz, 30.0 Hz	0.042 nT	0.002 nT	95.2%	0.009 nT	78.5%
MAG	30 March 2019 (10:36:58 UTC)	16.6 Hz, 17.1 Hz, 30.0 Hz, 30.1 Hz	0.041 nT	0.002 nT	95.1%	0.007 nT	82.9%

#### 309 5 Conclusions

310 This manuscript has presented a novel method for the automatic mitigation of local magnetic interference from sources such as reaction wheels on spacecraft where gradiometer 311 measurements are not always available. Specifically, statistical decomposition and analysis 312 313 provide a large dataset of labeled sub-signals when gradiometer measurements are available. This dataset is subsequently used to train a neural network to label decomposed signals as local 314 interference or residual physical fields when data from only a single magnetometer is available. 315 316 This method has been tested, with positive results, against measurements from the CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo and Parker Solar Probe missions. For example, on a 40-second interval 317 of data during Parker Solar Probe's Encounter 2, a reduction in reaction wheel amplitude of 318 319 95.2% can be seen following the application of the proposed method.

### 320 Acknowledgments

321 The CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo mission is supported by the European Space Agency's Third Party

322 Mission Program. This work was supported in part by the US Air Force Office of Scientific

Research (FA9550-21-1-0206). Parker Solar Probe was designed, built, and is now operated by

the Johns Hopkins Applied Physics Laboratory as part of NASA's Living With a Star (LWS)

325 program (contract NNN06AA01C).

### 326 **Open Research**

327 All CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo MGF data, including the examples used in this manuscript, is publicly available at https://epop-data.phys.ucalgary.ca/. Public access to outboard measurements 328 from Parker Solar Probe MAG is available at https://fields.ssl.berkeley.edu/data/. The Parker 329 Solar Probe MAG inboard data used in this manuscript, as well as the code and data used to 330 figures generate the and analysis. are currently stored https://iowa-331 at my.sharepoint.com/:f:/g/personal/mgfinley\_uiowa\_edu/ErDxXKn5NSRGuRP6UqP3050Bm4Vq 332 68Njb3L1dClgfK2ROg. Upon acceptance of this manuscript the code and data will be stored in a 333 University of Iowa Institutional Repository for long-term storage and reuse. 334

335

### 336 **References**

337	Bale, S. D., Goetz	, K., Harvey, P. F	R., Turin, P., Bonnell, J.	W., Dudok de Wit, T.	, Ergun, R. E.,
		, ., <b>,</b> , .			.,,

- MacDowall, R. J., Pulupa, M., Andre, M., Bolton, M., Bougeret, J.-L., Bowen, T. A.,
- Burgess, D., Cattell, C. A., Chandran, B. D. G., Chaston, C. C., Chen, C. H. K., Choi, M.
- 340 K., ... Wygant, J. R. (2016). The FIELDS Instrument Suite for Solar Probe Plus. Space
- 341 *Science Reviews*, 204(1), 49–82. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-016-0244-5

- 342 Bard, C., & Dorelli, J. C. (2021). Neural Network Reconstruction of Plasma Space-Time.
- 343 Frontiers in Astronomy and Space Sciences, 8.
- 344 https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fspas.2021.732275
- Bowen, T. A., Bale, S. D., Bonnell, J. W., Dudok de Wit, T., Goetz, K., Goodrich, K.,
- Gruesbeck, J., Harvey, P. R., Jannet, G., Koval, A., MacDowall, R. J., Malaspina, D. M.,
- <sup>347</sup> Pulupa, M., Revillet, C., Sheppard, D., & Szabo, A. (2020). A Merged Search-Coil and
- 348 Fluxgate Magnetometer Data Product for Parker Solar Probe FIELDS. Journal of
- 349 *Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, *125*(5), e2020JA027813.
- 350 https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JA027813
- Bowen, T. A., Mallet, A., Huang, J., Klein, K. G., Malaspina, D. M., Stevens, M., Bale, S. D.,
- Bonnell, J. W., Case, A. W., Chandran, B. D. G., Chaston, C. C., Chen, C. H. K., Dudok
- de Wit, T., Goetz, K., Harvey, P. R., Howes, G. G., Kasper, J. C., Korreck, K. E., Larson,
- D., ... The PSP/FIELDS and PSP/SWEAP Teams. (2020). Ion-scale Electromagnetic
- 355 Waves in the Inner Heliosphere. *The Astrophysical Journal Supplement Series*, 246(2),
- 356 66. https://doi.org/10.3847/1538-4365/ab6c65
- Camporeale, E. (2019). The Challenge of Machine Learning in Space Weather: Nowcasting and
   Forecasting. *Space Weather*, *17*(8), 1166–1207. https://doi.org/10.1029/2018SW002061
- Chen, Q., van Dam, T., Sneeuw, N., Collilieux, X., Weigelt, M., & Rebischung, P. (2013).
- Singular spectrum analysis for modeling seasonal signals from GPS time series. *Journal of Geodynamics*, 72, 25–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jog.2013.05.005
- Clagett, C., Santos, L., Azimi, B., Cudmore, A., Marshall, J., Starin, S., Sheikh, S., Zesta, E.,
- 363 Paschalidis, N., Johnson, M., Kepko, L., Berry, D., Bonalsky, T., Chai, D., Colvin, M.,
- 364 Evans, A., Hesh, S., Jones, S., Peterson, Z., ... Rodriquez, M. (2017). Dellingr: NASA

365	Goddard Space Flight Center's First 6U Spacecraft. Small Satellite Conference.
366	https://digitalcommons.usu.edu/smallsat/2017/all2017/83
367	Clausen, L. B. N., & Nickisch, H. (2018). Automatic Classification of Auroral Images From the
368	Oslo Auroral THEMIS (OATH) Data Set Using Machine Learning. Journal of
369	Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 123(7), 5640–5647.
370	https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JA025274
371	Constantinescu, O. D., Auster, HU., Delva, M., Hillenmaier, O., Magnes, W., & Plaschke, F.
372	(2020). Maximum-variance gradiometer technique for removal of spacecraft-generated
373	disturbances from magnetic field data. Geoscientific Instrumentation, Methods and Data
374	Systems, 9(2), 451-469. https://doi.org/10.5194/gi-9-451-2020
375	de Boer, PT., Kroese, D. P., Mannor, S., & Rubinstein, R. Y. (2005). A Tutorial on the Cross-
376	Entropy Method. Annals of Operations Research, 134(1), 19-67.
377	https://doi.org/10.1007/s10479-005-5724-z
378	Finley, M. G., Broadfoot, R. M., Shekhar, S., & Miles, D. M. (2023). Identification and Removal
379	of Reaction Wheel Interference From In-Situ Magnetic Field Data Using Multichannel
380	Singular Spectrum Analysis. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 128(2),
381	e2022JA031020. https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JA031020
382	Golyandina, N., Nekrutkin, V., & Zhigljavsky, A. A. (2001). Analysis of Time Series Structure:
383	SSA and Related Techniques. CRC Press.
384	Groth, A., & Ghil, M. (2015). Monte Carlo Singular Spectrum Analysis (SSA) Revisited:
385	Detecting Oscillator Clusters in Multivariate Datasets. Journal of Climate, 28(19), 7873-
386	7893. https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0100.1

- 387 Harmouche, J., Fourer, D., Auger, F., Borgnat, P., & Flandrin, P. (2018). The Sliding Singular
- 388 Spectrum Analysis: A Data-Driven Nonstationary Signal Decomposition Tool. *IEEE*
- 389 *Transactions on Signal Processing*, 66(1), 251–263.
- 390 https://doi.org/10.1109/TSP.2017.2752720
- Hassani, H., Soofi, A. S., & Zhigljavsky, A. A. (2010). Predicting daily exchange rate with
- singular spectrum analysis. *Nonlinear Analysis: Real World Applications*, 11(3), 2023–
   2034. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nonrwa.2009.05.008
- Hassani, H., & Thomakos, D. (2010). A review on singular spectrum analysis for economic and
   financial time series. *Statistics and Its Interface*, *3*(3), 377–397.
- 396 https://doi.org/10.4310/SII.2010.v3.n3.a11
- Heinzel, G., Rudiger, A., & Schilling, R. (2002). Spectrum and spectral density estimation by the
   Discrete Fourier transform (DFT), including a comprehensive list of window functions
   and some new flat-top windows.
- 400 Hoffmann, A. P., & Moldwin, M. B. (2022). Separation of Spacecraft Noise From Geomagnetic
- 401 Field Observations Through Density-Based Cluster Analysis and Compressive Sensing.
- 402 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, *127*(9), e2022JA030757.
- 403 https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JA030757
- Imajo, S., Nosé, M., Aida, M., Matsumoto, H., Higashio, N., Tokunaga, T., & Matsuoka, A.
- 405 (2021). Signal and Noise Separation From Satellite Magnetic Field Data Through
- 406 Independent Component Analysis: Prospect of Magnetic Measurements Without Boom
- 407 and Noise Source Information. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, 126(5),
- 408 e2020JA028790. https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JA028790

409	Kingma, D. P., & Ba, J. (2017). Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization (arXiv:1412.6980).
410	arXiv. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1412.6980

- 411 Kletzing, C. A., Kurth, W. S., Acuna, M., MacDowall, R. J., Torbert, R. B., Averkamp, T.,
- 412 Bodet, D., Bounds, S. R., Chutter, M., Connerney, J., Crawford, D., Dolan, J. S.,
- 413 Dvorsky, R., Hospodarsky, G. B., Howard, J., Jordanova, V., Johnson, R. A., Kirchner,
- 414 D. L., Mokrzycki, B., ... Tyler, J. (2013). The Electric and Magnetic Field Instrument
- 415 Suite and Integrated Science (EMFISIS) on RBSP. Space Science Reviews, 179(1), 127–
- 416 181. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-013-9993-6
- 417 Miles, D. M., Mann, I. R., Pakhotin, I. P., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A. D., Knudsen, D. J., Lysak,
- 418 R. L., Wallis, D. D., Cogger, L. L., & Yau, A. W. (2018). Alfvénic Dynamics and Fine
- 419 Structuring of Discrete Auroral Arcs: Swarm and e-POP Observations. *Geophysical* 420 *Research Letters*, 45(2), 545–555. https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076051
- 421 Miller, D. C. (1979, April 1). *The Voyager magnetometer boom*.
- 422 https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/19790013187
- 423 Ness, N. F., Behannon, K. W., Lepping, R. P., & Schatten, K. H. (1971). Use of two
- 424 magnetometers for magnetic field measurements on a spacecraft. *Journal of Geophysical*
- 425 *Research* (1896-1977), 76(16), 3564–3573. https://doi.org/10.1029/JA076i016p03564
- 426 Sheinker, A., & Moldwin, M. B. (2016). Adaptive interference cancelation using a pair of
- magnetometers. *IEEE Transactions on Aerospace and Electronic Systems*, 52(1), 307–
  318. https://doi.org/10.1109/TAES.2015.150192
- 429 Shen, Y., Knudsen, D. J., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A. D., Yau, A. W., Miles, D. M., James, H.
- 430 G., Perry, G. W., & Cogger, L. (2018). Low-Altitude Ion Heating, Downflowing Ions,

431	and BBELF Waves in the Return Current Region. Journal of Geophysical Research:
432	Space Physics, 123(4), 3087-3110. https://doi.org/10.1002/2017JA024955
433	Shen, Y., Knudsen, D. J., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A., Yau, A., Redmon, R. J., Miles, D. M.,
434	Varney, R. H., & Nicolls, M. J. (2016). Strong ambipolar-driven ion upflow within the
435	cleft ion fountain during low geomagnetic activity. Journal of Geophysical Research:
436	Space Physics, 121(7), 6950-6969. https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JA022532
437	Smola, J. F., Radford, W. E., & Reitz, M. H. (1980, May 1). The Magsat magnetometer boom.
438	https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/19800015026
439	Styp-Rekowski, K., Michaelis, I., Stolle, C., Baerenzung, J., Korte, M., & Kao, O. (2022).
440	Machine learning-based calibration of the GOCE satellite platform magnetometers.
441	Earth, Planets and Space, 74(1), 138. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40623-022-01695-2
442	Tian, C., Xu, Y., Fei, L., & Yan, K. (2019). Deep Learning for Image Denoising: A Survey. In
443	JS. Pan, J. CW. Lin, B. Sui, & SP. Tseng (Eds.), Genetic and Evolutionary
444	Computing (pp. 563–572). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-5841-8_59
445	Vautard, R., & Ghil, M. (1989). Singular spectrum analysis in nonlinear dynamics, with
446	applications to paleoclimatic time series. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena, 35(3), 395-
447	424. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-2789(89)90077-8
448	Wallis, D. D., Miles, D. M., Narod, B. B., Bennest, J. R., Murphy, K. R., Mann, I. R., & Yau, A.
449	W. (2015). The CASSIOPE/e-POP Magnetic Field Instrument (MGF). Space Science
450	Reviews, 189(1), 27-39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-014-0105-z
451	Wang, E., & Nealon, J. (2019). Applying machine learning to 3D seismic image denoising and
452	enhancement. Interpretation, 7(3), SE131-SE139. https://doi.org/10.1190/INT-2018-
453	0224.1

454	Wang, Z., Yan, W., & Oates, T. (2017). Time series classification from scratch with deep neural
455	networks: A strong baseline. 2017 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks
456	(IJCNN), 1578–1585. https://doi.org/10.1109/IJCNN.2017.7966039
457	Welch, P. (1967). The use of fast Fourier transform for the estimation of power spectra: A
458	method based on time averaging over short, modified periodograms. IEEE Transactions
459	on Audio and Electroacoustics, 15(2), 70-73. https://doi.org/10.1109/TAU.1967.1161901
460	Yau, A. W., & James, H. G. (2015). CASSIOPE Enhanced Polar Outflow Probe (e-POP)
461	Mission Overview. Space Science Reviews, 189(1), 3-14. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-
462	015-0135-1

1 2	Statistical Decomposition and Machine Learning to Clean In-Situ Spaceflight Magnetic Field Measurements			
3	M.G. Finley <sup>1</sup> , T.A. Bowen <sup>2</sup> , M. Pulupa <sup>2</sup> , A. Koval <sup>3,4</sup> , and D.M. Miles <sup>1</sup>			
4	<sup>1</sup> Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Iowa, IA, USA			
5	<sup>2</sup> Space Sciences Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley, CA, USA			
6	<sup>3</sup> Heliophysics Science Division, NASA, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD, USA			
7	<sup>4</sup> University of Maryland, Baltimore County, Baltimore, MD, USA			
8	Corresponding author: Matthew G. Finley (matthew-g-finley@uiowa.edu)			
9	Key Points:			
10	• Local magnetic interference is a common issue faced by in-situ magnetometers.			
11 12	• Gradiometer measurements have historically been required to denoise in-situ magnetometer data.			
13 14 15	• Statistical decomposition and machine learning enable denoising even with limited gradiometer data.			

#### 16 Abstract

Robust in-situ magnetic field measurements are critical to understanding the various 17 mechanisms that couple mass, momentum, and energy throughout our solar system. However, 18 the spacecraft on which magnetometers are often deployed contaminate the magnetic field 19 measurements via onboard subsystems including reaction wheels and magnetorquers. Two 20 21 magnetometers can be deployed at different distances from the spacecraft to determine an approximation of the interfering field for subsequent removal, but constant data streams from 22 both magnetometers can be impractical due to power and telemetry limitations. Here we propose 23 a method to identify and remove time-varying magnetic interference from sources such as 24 reaction wheels using statistical decomposition and convolutional neural networks, providing 25 high-fidelity magnetic field data even in cases where dual-sensor measurements are not 26 constantly available. For example, a measurement interval from the Parker Solar Probe 27 outboard magnetometer experienced a 95.1% reduction in reaction wheel interference following 28 29 application of the proposed technique.

#### 30 Plain Language Summary

Measurements of magnetic fields captured by instruments onboard spacecraft are necessary to 31 further our understanding of the solar system. These measurements are often contaminated by 32 magnetic noise from the host spacecraft, substantially reducing the fidelity of the data. One 33 common method to reduce the impact of these interfering magnetic fields utilizes a pair of 34 magnetometers deployed at different distances from the main body of the spacecraft. The 35 difference between the two sensors allows for an approximation of the interfering fields to be 36 calculated for subsequent removal. However, many missions cannot afford to send data from 37 both instruments back to Earth. This manuscript proposes a method for the mitigation of 38 magnetic interference caused by the host spacecraft, even with limited data from the 39 magnetometer pair. Specifically, signal decomposition techniques and machine learning are 40 used to isolate and remove the interfering magnetic fields. For example, the proposed method 41 applied to a measurement interval from the Parker Solar Probe outboard magnetometer enabled 42 43 a 95% reduction in magnetic interference.

### 44 1 Introduction

45 High-quality in-situ magnetic field measurements are essential to understanding the geophysical processes that couple mass, energy, and momentum throughout near-Earth space 46 and the solar system. This often involves identifying comparably small perturbations due to 47 field-aligned currents or plasma processes from a much larger background field that, 48 49 unfortunately, is often contaminated by magnetic noise from the host satellite platform. Stray magnetic fields can emanate from the materials used in the construction of the host spacecraft, 50 from attitude control systems such as reaction wheels and magnetorquers, or from the solar 51 panels, batteries, and electrical systems that manage power for the spacecraft subsystems. 52

To mitigate the impact of the interfering fields, magnetometers can be deployed on a boom, increasing the physical separation from the host spacecraft. Historically, very long booms (e.g., >5-meters) have been implemented to achieve optimal interference mitigation (Miller, 1979; Smola et al., 1980). For additional interference mitigation potential a pair of magnetometers has often been used, mounted at different distances along the boom. At a large distance from the source a simple dipole approximation can be fit to the field gradient and 59 subtracted (Ness et al., 1971). However, many recent missions such as Van Allen Probes 60 (Kletzing et al., 2013) and Dellingr (Clagett et al., 2017) have opted for shorter booms (3-meter 61 and 0.52-meter, respectively) to reduce complexity and implementation costs. This reduced 62 boom length tends to place the sensors in the near-field of the magnetic noise source where the 63 complex multipole terms cannot be neglected. In theory, a multipole source model can still be 64 used to subtract the gradient; however, this requires careful pre-flight characterization of all 65 possible interference sources which can be challenging or logistically impossible.

Recently, additional techniques have been developed in order to mitigate local magnetic 66 interference onboard spacecraft. One simple approach is to simply apply a band-stop filter at the 67 frequencies associated with the dominant interference source (e.g., reaction wheels). However, 68 methods that utilize this approach can encounter problems during spacecraft maneuvers, as the 69 reaction wheels diverge from their nominal rates, contaminate extremely large frequency bands, 70 and can spectrally overlap with geophysical signals of interest. Advanced methods such as blind 71 source separation (Hoffmann & Moldwin, 2022; Sheinker & Moldwin, 2016), independent 72 component analysis (Imajo et al., 2021), maximum variance analysis (Constantinescu et al., 73 2020), and spectrum-based feature extraction (Bowen, Mallet, et al., 2020) have been shown to 74 successfully identify and remove interference from magnetometer measurements when two or 75 more sensors are available without relying on hand-tuned filters. 76

Recent advances in machine learning techniques have seen their widespread adoption in 77 various space physics fields. For example: Space weather forecasting (Camporeale, 2019), in-situ 78 79 magnetometer calibration (Styp-Rekowski et al., 2022), auroral image classification (Clausen & Nickisch, 2018), and plasma modeling (Bard & Dorelli, 2021). These machine learning tools 80 have been used in a variety of other fields in order to improve the fidelity of contaminated 81 measurements (Tian et al., 2019; E. Wang & Nealon, 2019). However, interference mitigation 82 for on-orbit magnetic field data utilizing machine learning techniques has not been thoroughly 83 explored. 84

This manuscript proposes a novel method for the integration of machine learning and 85 statistical decomposition for magnetometer interference mitigation. The proposed method 86 87 leverages potentially limited gradiometer data and provides the capability to automatically identify and remove magnetic noise caused by the host spacecraft during intervals when only a 88 single magnetometer is constantly telemetering data. For example, a measurement interval from 89 only the Parker Solar Probe outboard magnetometer will be shown to experience a 95.1% 90 reduction in interference attributed to the spacecraft's reaction wheels following the application 91 of the proposed algorithm. 92

### 93 2 Methodology

### 94 **2.1** Statistical Decomposition and Classification for Gradiometers

Singular Spectrum Analysis (SSA) is a statistical technique for the decomposition of
signals into physical meaningful components (Golyandina et al., 2001; Groth & Ghil, 2015).
Historically, this technique has seen success in a wide range of fields from climatology (Chen et al., 2013; Vautard & Ghil, 1989) to economics (Hassani et al., 2010; Hassani & Thomakos,
2010). Recently, the multivariate extension of SSA (MSSA) has been used to simultaneously
decompose time-series measurements from a pair of satellite-mounted magnetometers into

robust, physically meaningful components corresponding to the near-DC trend, interesting
 geomagnetic phenomena, and local magnetic interference (Finley et al., 2023).

103 Mathematically, this process can be defined as singular value decomposition (SVD) of a 104 trajectory matrix (Groth & Ghil, 2015). The trajectory matrix is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x(1) & x(2) & \dots & x(K) \\ x(2) & x(3) & \dots & x(K+1) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x(L) & x(L+1) & \dots & x(N) \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (1)

Note that X, which is generated with columns as lagged copies of the original input, contains information about the temporal variation of the signal captured by the *window length*, *L*. Applying SVD determines the eigenvector matrix (V) for the covariance matrix associated with the trajectory matrix (e.g.,  $XX^T$ ). The principal components of X can be determined by projecting it onto the eigenvectors via

 $P = V^T X.$  (2)

112 This process can then be inverted for each of the *L* principal components and associated 113 eigenvectors. This is defined for each eigenvector  $V_i$  and principal component  $P_i$  as

$$\boldsymbol{R}_{i} = V_{i} \times P_{i} \,\forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\}.$$

$$(3)$$

The sub-signals,  $r_i$ , associated with each principal component are then calculated by averaging along the anti-diagonals of each of the *L* matrices  $\mathbf{R}_i$ . No information is lost in this process; summing all of the sub-signals will completely reconstruct the original input. The multichannel extension (MSSA) expands one dimension of the trajectory matrix by the number of channels such that spatiotemporal information from all inputs (e.g., measurements made by multiple magnetometers) is leveraged in the decomposition process.

Once the sub-signals have been calculated it is necessary to group them according to their apparent contribution to important geomagnetic phenomena or local magnetic interference generated by the host spacecraft so the interference can be removed. This is done by calculating the statistical correlation between the imperfect interference approximation provided by the magnetic field gradient,

126

105

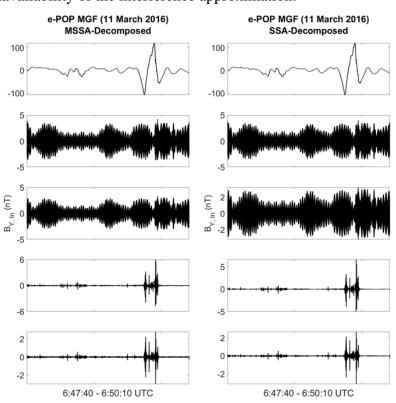
114

$$(\hat{x}_{interference} = x_{inboard} - x_{outboard}),$$
(4)

and each of the decomposed sub-signals,  $r_i$ . A high degree of correlation implies that the subsignals are morphologically similar to the interference approximation and should be removed. Setting a threshold parameter (a) subsequently determines the confidence of the interference mitigation algorithm and should be tuned accordingly. Further mathematical details and results for the application of this dual-sensor magnetometer denoising technique can be found in (Finley et al., 2023).

### 133 **2.2** Machine Learning for Single-Sensor Classification

Although the field gradient between two magnetometers is useful in classifying decomposed sub-signals as geomagnetic phenomena or local interference, data is not always available from both magnetometers onboard a spacecraft. Often, telemetry limitations force compromises to be made when transmitting magnetic field data to the ground, resulting in limited intervals where two sensors are providing full-cadence measurements. This can obviously limit the applicability of the statistical interference mitigation technique described in
 Sec. 2.1 due to the unavailability of the interference approximation.



141

Figure 1: Inboard sensor sub-signals generated by applying MSSA to both sensors (left) and SSA applied only to the
 inboard sensor (right) on an interval of CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo magnetic field data.

However, it can be observed that for well-synchronized and calibrated pairs of 144 magnetometers, SSA and MSSA produce extremely similar results. Figure 1 illustrates the first 145 five sub-signals output for the outboard sensor from the dual-sensor MSSA decomposition, as 146 well as the single-sensor SSA decomposition for the outboard sensor, over an interval of 147 CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo magnetic field data (Wallis et al., 2015; Yau & James, 2015). Note that 148 the same features such as near-DC trend (Row 1), oscillations presumably caused by reaction 149 wheels (Rows 2 and 3), and geomagnetic phenomena (Rows 4 and 5) previously identified as 150 Alfvénic activity (Finley et al., 2023; Miles et al., 2018) can be seen in both methods of 151 decomposition. This implies that the classification of the sub-signals decomposed by both 152 techniques should also be extremely similar, although we cannot rely on the simple field gradient 153 for classification when only one sensor is available. 154

Recent advances in machine learning (ML) tools have seen neural networks achieve a great deal of success in classifying time-series signals. This manuscript proposes the use of such networks to automatically classify signals decomposed by SSA as either local magnetic interference or residual geophysical signal, enabling interference mitigation even when only a single magnetometer is constantly telemetering data. A high-level block diagram of the proposed technique is shown in Fig. 2a. During intervals where two magnetic field sensors are telemetering data, MSSA is used to decompose the measurements and the magnetic gradient

- between the sensors is used to classify them, as explained in Sec. 2.1(Finley et al., 2023). These
- decomposed signals and associated labels are used to train a Convolutional Neural Network
- 164 (CNN), which is used to perform the same binary classification on SSA-decomposed signals
- 165 when measurements from only a single magnetometer are available.

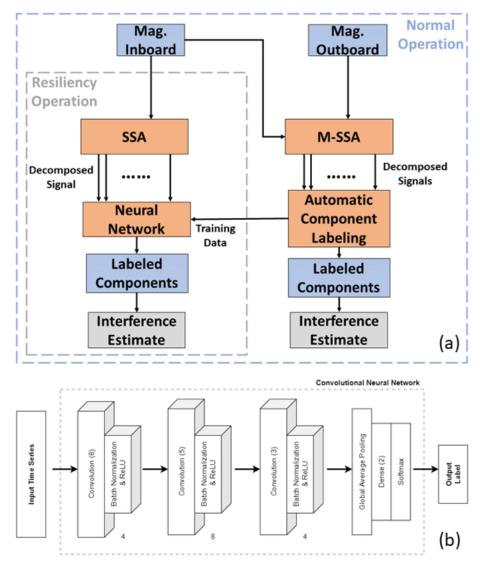


Figure 2: Illustration of the proposed method of interference mitigation applicable to intervals where only a single
magnetic field sensor is available. (a) High-level block diagram of proposed method; (b) Specific CNN utilized by
the proposed method.

The specific CNN implemented for this manuscript is shown in Fig. 2b, and was adapted 170 from a similar architecture described in (Z. Wang et al., 2017). This network was selected due to 171 the simplicity of its implementation and its performance history on classification of time series 172 data. The basic building block of this network is a convolutional layer followed by batch 173 normalization and the *ReLU* activation function to provide nonlinearity. The filter applied at each 174 convolution decreases in length from eight to five to three for each of the respective blocks. The 175 number of filters applied in each convolutional layer is four for the leftmost and rightmost block, 176 177 and is eight at the center block. After the convolutions are applied, a global pooling operation is

performed, a dense layer is used to adjust the dimensionality, and the *Softmax* activation function

provides the probability associated with the binary output labels. This network was implemented

in MATLAB 2022b using functionality from the Deep Learning Toolbox. Training parameters

and results are discussed in detail in Sec. 4.

## 182 **3** Data

### 183 **3.1** CASSIOPE e-POP/Swarm-Echo MGF

The first source of data analyzed in this manuscript is from the CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo 184 magnetic field instrument (MGF). These identical fluxgate magnetometers are deployed on a 185 common boom at distances of approximately 0.9 and 0.6 meters from the host spacecraft. Both 186 sensors measure and telemeter data at a cadence of 160 Sa/sec. The specific intervals chosen for 187 visualization or analysis were selected due to the presence of interesting geophysical events such 188 as the Alfvén waves (Miles et al., 2018) shown in Fig. 1 and ion downflow (Shen et al., 2016, 189 2018) shown in Sec. 4. Note that a 20-sec mean has been removed from the original 190 measurements captured by the e-POP MGF for ease of visualization. 191

### 192 **3.2 Parker Solar Probe FIELDS MAG**

Another source of data analyzed in this manuscript is from the Parker Solar 193 Probe/FIELDS experiment (Bale et al., 2016). FIELDS consists of two fluxgate magnetometers 194 (MAGs) 1.9 and 2.7 m from the spacecraft, which operate at a maximum sample rate of 292.969 195 Sa/sec (Bowen, Bale, et al., 2020). The dual sensors provide for failure redundancy, gradiometric 196 estimates of spacecraft noise, and monitoring of variations in DC offsets. The outboard MAG 197 (MAGo) is less impacted by spacecraft noise and accordingly used as the primary science 198 instrument. The inboard MAG (MAGi) is generally run at a lower sample cadence due to 199 telemetry constraints of the mission. Data chosen in this study were chosen due to the identical 200 sample rates of the inboard and outboard measurements. Note that low-frequency interference 201 from other subsystems dominates the field gradient spectrum, and a high-pass filter at 3 Hz is 202 applied to enable isolation of only the reaction wheels, which are a significant source of noise in 203 studying the polarization of plasma waves (Bowen, Mallet, et al., 2020). 204

### 205 4 <u>Results</u>

### 206 4.1 Neural Network Training

The CNN used to classify decomposed sub-signals on e-POP MGF data was trained 207 using gradiometer data from 1-5 March 2016. The data was split into 40-second intervals (i.e., 208 6400 samples/interval) and discarded if NaN values were present in either the inboard or 209 outboard measurements (due to data dropouts or other factors). Each of the resulting 476 pairs of 210 measurements were passed through MSSA with a window length of 40, resulting in ~39,000 211 212 pairs of sub-signals that were subsequently labeled via correlation against the magnetic field gradient with a threshold of 0.55. This threshold value was intentionally set high to increase the 213 confidence in the labeling scheme, although the resulting labels may still be incorrect when the 214 statistical significance of the sub-signals is ambiguous. Of the original ~76,000 sub-signals, 215 ~2,500 were labeled as interference and ~74,000 were labeled as residual geophysical signal. A 216 random permutation of 2,000 of the sub-signals corresponding to each binary label were selected 217 as inputs to the CNN training. 218

A similar data processing scheme was utilized for the limited gradiometer data from the Parker Solar Probe MAG. Only three hours of data (06:00:00 – 09:00:00 UTC) from 30 March (Encounter 2) were processed with a window length of 40 and a threshold value of 0.35, resulting in ~43,000 labeled 40-second intervals (~2,600 labeled as local interference, ~40,500 labeled as residual geophysical signal). A random permutation of 2,500 of the sub-signals corresponding to each label were selected as inputs to the CNN training.

Prior to training the CNN, all input data were normalized between 0 and 1. The total 225 input set was divided randomly into training, validation, and testing sub-sets using a typical 80%, 226 10%, 10% split. The network was then trained, using the default Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 227 2017) to minimize the cross-entropy loss function, for ten epochs. Cross-entropy, which 228 calculates the difference between two probability distributions, is a standard choice for 229 classification networks (de Boer et al., 2005). It is important to note that, given the potential for 230 misclassification in the generation of the training set, the performance of the classification 231 network is not necessarily indicative of the performance of the interference mitigation algorithm 232 as a whole. That said, the CNN trained on e-POP MGF data achieved a validation accuracy and 233 loss of 98.0% and 0.086. The CNN trained on PSP MAG data achieved a validation accuracy 234 235 and loss of 98.86% and 0.046.

### 236 4.2 Numerical Analysis

To quantitatively assess the performance of the proposed method in mitigating stray magnetic field caused by reaction wheels, it is necessary to perform numerical analysis of the results. This manuscript calculates the linear spectrum associated with the apparent reaction wheel frequencies during the events under observation before and after the application of the proposed method of single-sensor decomposition and ML-enabled sub-signal classification. Results are also calculated for the dual-sensor, gradient-based algorithm to provide a comparison with the technique used to train the classification network.

The values of the linear spectrum associated with the reaction wheel frequencies is calculated using Welch's method of overlapping periodograms (Welch, 1967) and an HFT95 flat-top window with an effective noise bandwidth (ENBW) of 3.8112 Hz (Heinzel et al., 2002). Mathematically, the linear spectrum (LS) can be defined based on the power spectral density (PSD) resulting from Welch's method as

249

$$LS = \sqrt{PSD \times ENBW}.$$
(5)

The results analyzed in this section are from data with near-constant reaction wheel rates for computational simplicity in the absence of a ground truth. Note that, during the intervals selected for analysis, the CASSIOPE reaction wheels were spinning at a uniform rate. As such, only one frequency point must be analyzed to determine the mitigation performance provided by the proposed method. However, the Parker Solar Probe reaction wheels are not at a uniform rate during these intervals, so the linear spectrum value attributed to each reaction wheel frequency (determined using the spacecraft's housekeeping data) is calculated and averaged.

### 257 **4.3** Experiments

The proposed method of automated single-sensor interference mitigation utilizing machine learning classification techniques was applied to four distinct intervals of magnetometer data from two different missions, as shown in Fig. 3. Each row of Fig. 3 corresponds to one interval: Row 1 and 2 illustrate the proposed method applied e-POP MGF data during ion downflow events (Shen et al., 2016, 2018); Row 3 and 4 illustrate the technique applied to

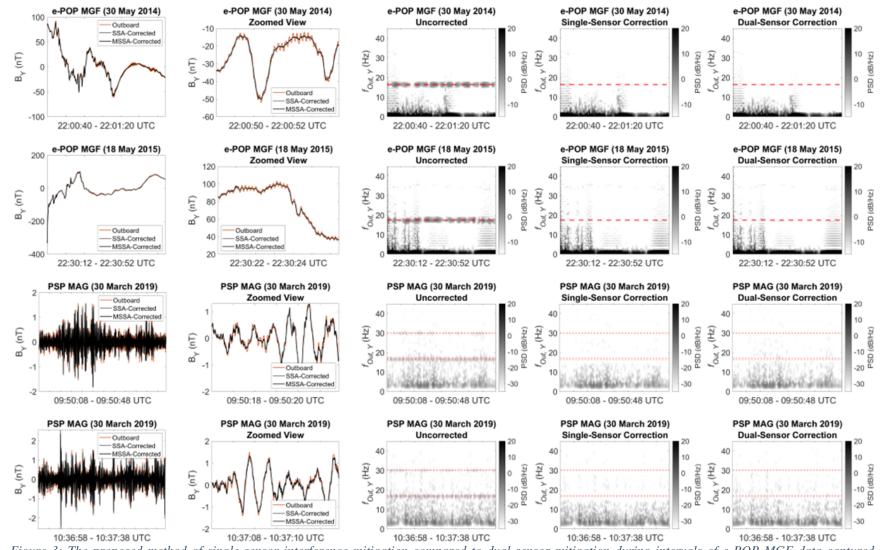
intervals of Parker Solar Probe (PSP) MAG data during Encounter 2. The first two columns of 263 Fig. 3 show the outboard measurements before and after the single-sensor correction, as well as 264 after the dual-sensor correction for comparison. Column 1 shows the entire 40-second interval 265 under observation, whereas Column 2 shows a 2-second zoomed view for ease of visualization. 266 Columns 3-5 show the spectra associated with the uncorrected, single-sensor corrected, and dual-267 sensor corrected measurements, respectively. The red dashed lines overlaid on the spectra 268 correspond to the frequencies of the spacecraft's reaction wheels during these intervals, although 269 this information is not required in the implementation of the proposed interference mitigation 270 271 technique.

Table 1 provides numerical results for the proposed interference mitigation method using the analysis technique described in Sec. 4.2. The specific frequencies analyzed correspond to the dashed red lines overlaid on the spectra in Fig. 3. For the e-POP MGF events shown, the proposed single-sensor method reduces the amplitude of the frequencies associated with the spacecraft reaction wheels by greater than 87%. For the PSP MAG intervals during Encounter 2, an amplitude reduction of greater than 95% can be seen.

These results are compared to the dual-sensor interference mitigation method, which utilized the same window length (L = 40) as in the single-sensor decomposition, paired with a threshold value of 0.25 for PSP and 0.15 for e-POP. Amplitude reductions of greater than 88% and 78% can be seen for e-POP and PSP, respectively. This slightly lower reduction (specifically for the PSP MAG) can be attributed to the substantial time-frequency overlap seen between the apparent reaction wheel interference and the observed magnetic phenomena during the intervals analyzed.

As the SSA technique and its multivariate extension provide asymptotic separability 285 (Harmouche et al., 2018), larger window lengths enable signal elements with close spectral 286 signatures to be decomposed from one another; however, greater window length also increases 287 the number of sub-signals generated by the decomposition, potentially reducing their statistical 288 significance. As such, an identical window length was used across all experiments for simplicity 289 and consistency. Qualitative analysis of the results displayed in Fig. 3 corroborate this 290 assessment: although both single-sensor and dual-sensor interference mitigation techniques 291 substantially reduce the power at the reaction wheel frequencies, the single-sensor method 292 negates a slightly larger bandwidth surrounding the apparent reaction wheel signature. Although 293 this results in higher numerical accuracy, it is not necessarily indicative of better algorithm 294 295 performance, and is instead likely an artifact of the limited training set provided to the CNN. More robust models utilizing all available gradiometer data, hyperparameter optimization, and 296 model generalizability across missions are all exciting avenues for future work related to the 297 proposed method of interference mitigation. 298

299



30010:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC10:37:08 - 10:37:10 UTC10:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC10:36:58 - 10:37:38 UTC301Figure 3: The proposed method of single-sensor interference mitigation compared to dual-sensor mitigation during intervals of e-POP MGF data captured302during geomagnetic phenomena (Rows 1-2) and Parker Solar Probe MAG data captured during Encounter 2 (Rows 3-4). (Columns 1-2) Forty-second total303interval and two-second zoomed interval time-series data for uncorrected, single-sensor corrected, and dual-sensor corrected outboard measurements; (Column 3) Uncorrected outboard spectrum; (Column 4) Single-sensor corrected outboard spectrum; (Column 5) Dual-sensor corrected outboard spectrum. The dashed305red lines indicate the reaction wheel frequencies during each interval.

Table 1: Numerical analysis for the events shown in Fig. 3. (Rows 1-2) Results for interesting geomagnetic intervals captured by the e-POP MGF; (Rows 3-4)
 Results for PSP MAG data captured during Encounter 2.

	Event	Dominant Wheel Tones	Uncorrected (Linear Spectrum)	SSA- Corrected (Linear Spectrum)	<b>SSA-Corrected</b> (Improvement)	MSSA- Corrected (Linear Spectrum)	MSSA-Corrected (Improvement)
e-POP	30 May 2014 (22:00:40 UTC)	16.4 Hz (x4)	1.18 nT	0.15 nT	87.2%	0.04 nT	96.6%
MGF	18 May 2015 (22:30:12 UTC)	17.5 Hz (x4)	0.98 nT	0.07 nT	92.8%	0.11 nT	88.7%
PSP	30 March 2019 (9:50:08 UTC)	16.4 Hz, 17.1 Hz, 29.9 Hz, 30.0 Hz	0.042 nT	0.002 nT	95.2%	0.009 nT	78.5%
MAG	30 March 2019 (10:36:58 UTC)	16.6 Hz, 17.1 Hz, 30.0 Hz, 30.1 Hz	0.041 nT	0.002 nT	95.1%	0.007 nT	82.9%

#### 309 5 Conclusions

310 This manuscript has presented a novel method for the automatic mitigation of local magnetic interference from sources such as reaction wheels on spacecraft where gradiometer 311 measurements are not always available. Specifically, statistical decomposition and analysis 312 313 provide a large dataset of labeled sub-signals when gradiometer measurements are available. This dataset is subsequently used to train a neural network to label decomposed signals as local 314 interference or residual physical fields when data from only a single magnetometer is available. 315 316 This method has been tested, with positive results, against measurements from the CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo and Parker Solar Probe missions. For example, on a 40-second interval 317 of data during Parker Solar Probe's Encounter 2, a reduction in reaction wheel amplitude of 318 319 95.2% can be seen following the application of the proposed method.

### 320 Acknowledgments

321 The CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo mission is supported by the European Space Agency's Third Party

322 Mission Program. This work was supported in part by the US Air Force Office of Scientific

Research (FA9550-21-1-0206). Parker Solar Probe was designed, built, and is now operated by

the Johns Hopkins Applied Physics Laboratory as part of NASA's Living With a Star (LWS)

325 program (contract NNN06AA01C).

### 326 **Open Research**

327 All CASSIOPE/Swarm-Echo MGF data, including the examples used in this manuscript, is publicly available at https://epop-data.phys.ucalgary.ca/. Public access to outboard measurements 328 from Parker Solar Probe MAG is available at https://fields.ssl.berkeley.edu/data/. The Parker 329 Solar Probe MAG inboard data used in this manuscript, as well as the code and data used to 330 figures generate the and analysis. are currently stored https://iowa-331 at my.sharepoint.com/:f:/g/personal/mgfinley\_uiowa\_edu/ErDxXKn5NSRGuRP6UqP3050Bm4Vq 332 68Njb3L1dClgfK2ROg. Upon acceptance of this manuscript the code and data will be stored in a 333 University of Iowa Institutional Repository for long-term storage and reuse. 334

335

### 336 **References**

337	Bale, S. D., Goetz	, K., Harvey, P. F	R., Turin, P., Bonnell, J.	W., Dudok de Wit, T.	, Ergun, R. E.,
		, ., <b>,</b> , .			.,,

- MacDowall, R. J., Pulupa, M., Andre, M., Bolton, M., Bougeret, J.-L., Bowen, T. A.,
- Burgess, D., Cattell, C. A., Chandran, B. D. G., Chaston, C. C., Chen, C. H. K., Choi, M.
- 340 K., ... Wygant, J. R. (2016). The FIELDS Instrument Suite for Solar Probe Plus. Space
- 341 *Science Reviews*, 204(1), 49–82. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-016-0244-5

- 342 Bard, C., & Dorelli, J. C. (2021). Neural Network Reconstruction of Plasma Space-Time.
- 343 Frontiers in Astronomy and Space Sciences, 8.
- 344 https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fspas.2021.732275
- Bowen, T. A., Bale, S. D., Bonnell, J. W., Dudok de Wit, T., Goetz, K., Goodrich, K.,
- Gruesbeck, J., Harvey, P. R., Jannet, G., Koval, A., MacDowall, R. J., Malaspina, D. M.,
- <sup>347</sup> Pulupa, M., Revillet, C., Sheppard, D., & Szabo, A. (2020). A Merged Search-Coil and
- 348 Fluxgate Magnetometer Data Product for Parker Solar Probe FIELDS. Journal of
- 349 *Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, *125*(5), e2020JA027813.
- 350 https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JA027813
- Bowen, T. A., Mallet, A., Huang, J., Klein, K. G., Malaspina, D. M., Stevens, M., Bale, S. D.,
- Bonnell, J. W., Case, A. W., Chandran, B. D. G., Chaston, C. C., Chen, C. H. K., Dudok
- de Wit, T., Goetz, K., Harvey, P. R., Howes, G. G., Kasper, J. C., Korreck, K. E., Larson,
- D., ... The PSP/FIELDS and PSP/SWEAP Teams. (2020). Ion-scale Electromagnetic
- 355 Waves in the Inner Heliosphere. *The Astrophysical Journal Supplement Series*, 246(2),
- 356 66. https://doi.org/10.3847/1538-4365/ab6c65
- Camporeale, E. (2019). The Challenge of Machine Learning in Space Weather: Nowcasting and
   Forecasting. *Space Weather*, *17*(8), 1166–1207. https://doi.org/10.1029/2018SW002061
- Chen, Q., van Dam, T., Sneeuw, N., Collilieux, X., Weigelt, M., & Rebischung, P. (2013).
- Singular spectrum analysis for modeling seasonal signals from GPS time series. *Journal of Geodynamics*, 72, 25–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jog.2013.05.005
- Clagett, C., Santos, L., Azimi, B., Cudmore, A., Marshall, J., Starin, S., Sheikh, S., Zesta, E.,
- 363 Paschalidis, N., Johnson, M., Kepko, L., Berry, D., Bonalsky, T., Chai, D., Colvin, M.,
- 364 Evans, A., Hesh, S., Jones, S., Peterson, Z., ... Rodriquez, M. (2017). Dellingr: NASA

365	Goddard Space Flight Center's First 6U Spacecraft. Small Satellite Conference.
366	https://digitalcommons.usu.edu/smallsat/2017/all2017/83
367	Clausen, L. B. N., & Nickisch, H. (2018). Automatic Classification of Auroral Images From the
368	Oslo Auroral THEMIS (OATH) Data Set Using Machine Learning. Journal of
369	Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 123(7), 5640–5647.
370	https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JA025274
371	Constantinescu, O. D., Auster, HU., Delva, M., Hillenmaier, O., Magnes, W., & Plaschke, F.
372	(2020). Maximum-variance gradiometer technique for removal of spacecraft-generated
373	disturbances from magnetic field data. Geoscientific Instrumentation, Methods and Data
374	Systems, 9(2), 451-469. https://doi.org/10.5194/gi-9-451-2020
375	de Boer, PT., Kroese, D. P., Mannor, S., & Rubinstein, R. Y. (2005). A Tutorial on the Cross-
376	Entropy Method. Annals of Operations Research, 134(1), 19-67.
377	https://doi.org/10.1007/s10479-005-5724-z
378	Finley, M. G., Broadfoot, R. M., Shekhar, S., & Miles, D. M. (2023). Identification and Removal
379	of Reaction Wheel Interference From In-Situ Magnetic Field Data Using Multichannel
380	Singular Spectrum Analysis. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 128(2),
381	e2022JA031020. https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JA031020
382	Golyandina, N., Nekrutkin, V., & Zhigljavsky, A. A. (2001). Analysis of Time Series Structure:
383	SSA and Related Techniques. CRC Press.
384	Groth, A., & Ghil, M. (2015). Monte Carlo Singular Spectrum Analysis (SSA) Revisited:
385	Detecting Oscillator Clusters in Multivariate Datasets. Journal of Climate, 28(19), 7873-
386	7893. https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0100.1

- 387 Harmouche, J., Fourer, D., Auger, F., Borgnat, P., & Flandrin, P. (2018). The Sliding Singular
- 388 Spectrum Analysis: A Data-Driven Nonstationary Signal Decomposition Tool. *IEEE*
- 389 *Transactions on Signal Processing*, 66(1), 251–263.
- 390 https://doi.org/10.1109/TSP.2017.2752720
- Hassani, H., Soofi, A. S., & Zhigljavsky, A. A. (2010). Predicting daily exchange rate with
- singular spectrum analysis. *Nonlinear Analysis: Real World Applications*, 11(3), 2023–
   2034. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nonrwa.2009.05.008
- Hassani, H., & Thomakos, D. (2010). A review on singular spectrum analysis for economic and
   financial time series. *Statistics and Its Interface*, *3*(3), 377–397.
- 396 https://doi.org/10.4310/SII.2010.v3.n3.a11
- Heinzel, G., Rudiger, A., & Schilling, R. (2002). Spectrum and spectral density estimation by the
   Discrete Fourier transform (DFT), including a comprehensive list of window functions
   and some new flat-top windows.
- 400 Hoffmann, A. P., & Moldwin, M. B. (2022). Separation of Spacecraft Noise From Geomagnetic
- 401 Field Observations Through Density-Based Cluster Analysis and Compressive Sensing.
- 402 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, *127*(9), e2022JA030757.
- 403 https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JA030757
- Imajo, S., Nosé, M., Aida, M., Matsumoto, H., Higashio, N., Tokunaga, T., & Matsuoka, A.
- 405 (2021). Signal and Noise Separation From Satellite Magnetic Field Data Through
- 406 Independent Component Analysis: Prospect of Magnetic Measurements Without Boom
- 407 and Noise Source Information. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics*, 126(5),
- 408 e2020JA028790. https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JA028790

409	Kingma, D. P., & Ba, J. (2017). Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization (arXiv:1412.6980).
410	arXiv. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1412.6980

- 411 Kletzing, C. A., Kurth, W. S., Acuna, M., MacDowall, R. J., Torbert, R. B., Averkamp, T.,
- 412 Bodet, D., Bounds, S. R., Chutter, M., Connerney, J., Crawford, D., Dolan, J. S.,
- 413 Dvorsky, R., Hospodarsky, G. B., Howard, J., Jordanova, V., Johnson, R. A., Kirchner,
- 414 D. L., Mokrzycki, B., ... Tyler, J. (2013). The Electric and Magnetic Field Instrument
- 415 Suite and Integrated Science (EMFISIS) on RBSP. Space Science Reviews, 179(1), 127–
- 416 181. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-013-9993-6
- 417 Miles, D. M., Mann, I. R., Pakhotin, I. P., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A. D., Knudsen, D. J., Lysak,
- 418 R. L., Wallis, D. D., Cogger, L. L., & Yau, A. W. (2018). Alfvénic Dynamics and Fine
- 419 Structuring of Discrete Auroral Arcs: Swarm and e-POP Observations. *Geophysical* 420 *Research Letters*, 45(2), 545–555. https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076051
- 421 Miller, D. C. (1979, April 1). *The Voyager magnetometer boom*.
- 422 https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/19790013187
- 423 Ness, N. F., Behannon, K. W., Lepping, R. P., & Schatten, K. H. (1971). Use of two
- 424 magnetometers for magnetic field measurements on a spacecraft. *Journal of Geophysical*
- 425 *Research* (1896-1977), 76(16), 3564–3573. https://doi.org/10.1029/JA076i016p03564
- 426 Sheinker, A., & Moldwin, M. B. (2016). Adaptive interference cancelation using a pair of
- magnetometers. *IEEE Transactions on Aerospace and Electronic Systems*, 52(1), 307–
  318. https://doi.org/10.1109/TAES.2015.150192
- 429 Shen, Y., Knudsen, D. J., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A. D., Yau, A. W., Miles, D. M., James, H.
- 430 G., Perry, G. W., & Cogger, L. (2018). Low-Altitude Ion Heating, Downflowing Ions,

431	and BBELF Waves in the Return Current Region. Journal of Geophysical Research:
432	Space Physics, 123(4), 3087-3110. https://doi.org/10.1002/2017JA024955
433	Shen, Y., Knudsen, D. J., Burchill, J. K., Howarth, A., Yau, A., Redmon, R. J., Miles, D. M.,
434	Varney, R. H., & Nicolls, M. J. (2016). Strong ambipolar-driven ion upflow within the
435	cleft ion fountain during low geomagnetic activity. Journal of Geophysical Research:
436	Space Physics, 121(7), 6950-6969. https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JA022532
437	Smola, J. F., Radford, W. E., & Reitz, M. H. (1980, May 1). The Magsat magnetometer boom.
438	https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/19800015026
439	Styp-Rekowski, K., Michaelis, I., Stolle, C., Baerenzung, J., Korte, M., & Kao, O. (2022).
440	Machine learning-based calibration of the GOCE satellite platform magnetometers.
441	Earth, Planets and Space, 74(1), 138. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40623-022-01695-2
442	Tian, C., Xu, Y., Fei, L., & Yan, K. (2019). Deep Learning for Image Denoising: A Survey. In
443	JS. Pan, J. CW. Lin, B. Sui, & SP. Tseng (Eds.), Genetic and Evolutionary
444	Computing (pp. 563–572). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-5841-8_59
445	Vautard, R., & Ghil, M. (1989). Singular spectrum analysis in nonlinear dynamics, with
446	applications to paleoclimatic time series. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena, 35(3), 395-
447	424. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-2789(89)90077-8
448	Wallis, D. D., Miles, D. M., Narod, B. B., Bennest, J. R., Murphy, K. R., Mann, I. R., & Yau, A.
449	W. (2015). The CASSIOPE/e-POP Magnetic Field Instrument (MGF). Space Science
450	Reviews, 189(1), 27-39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-014-0105-z
451	Wang, E., & Nealon, J. (2019). Applying machine learning to 3D seismic image denoising and
452	enhancement. Interpretation, 7(3), SE131-SE139. https://doi.org/10.1190/INT-2018-
453	0224.1

454	Wang, Z., Yan, W., & Oates, T. (2017). Time series classification from scratch with deep neural
455	networks: A strong baseline. 2017 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks
456	(IJCNN), 1578–1585. https://doi.org/10.1109/IJCNN.2017.7966039
457	Welch, P. (1967). The use of fast Fourier transform for the estimation of power spectra: A
458	method based on time averaging over short, modified periodograms. IEEE Transactions
459	on Audio and Electroacoustics, 15(2), 70-73. https://doi.org/10.1109/TAU.1967.1161901
460	Yau, A. W., & James, H. G. (2015). CASSIOPE Enhanced Polar Outflow Probe (e-POP)
461	Mission Overview. Space Science Reviews, 189(1), 3-14. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11214-
462	015-0135-1