Rigorous 3-D modeling of the ground electric field in Fennoscandia during the Halloween geomagnetic storm

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Key Points:

- 3-D GEF modeling in Fennoscandia is performed for the Halloween geomagnetic storm using three different approaches to approximate the source
- The highest correlation between GEF-based and observed GIC is achieved by using the "conductivity-based" approach
- Critical dependence of the GEF on the earth conductivity is demonstrated

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Abstract

In this study, we perform rigorous three-dimensional (3-D) ground electric field (GEF) modeling in Fennoscandia for three days of the Halloween geomagnetic storm (29-31 October 2003) using magnetic field data from the IMAGE magnetometer network and a 3-D conductivity model of the region. To explore the influence of the inducing source model on the 3-D GEF simulations, we considered three different approaches to approximate the source. Within the first two approaches, the source varies laterally, whereas in the third method, the GEF is calculated by implementing the time-domain realization of the magnetotelluric intersite impedance method. We then compare GEF-based geomagnetically induced current (GIC) with observations at the Mäntsälä natural gas pipeline recording point. We conclude that a high correlation between modeled and recorded GIC is observed for all considered approaches. The highest correlation is achieved when performing a 3-D GEF simulation using a "conductivity-based" laterally nonuniform inducing source. Our results also highlight the strong dependence of the GEF on the earth's conductivity distribution.

Plain Language Summary

Geomagnetically induced currents (GIC) flow in technological conductor systems during geomagnetic variations. Their simulation is of practical interest, since in the worst case, GIC can even cause power grid blackouts. The critical parameter in GIC modeling is the ground electric field (GEF) at the earth's surface. GEF is rarely measured directly, so it needs to be simulated based on other geophysical data. The modeling input consists of earth electrical conductivity models and ground magnetic field data recorded by magnetometers. Based on the fundamental laws of electrodynamics, it is possible to calculate the GEF at any point on the earth's surface. From the known GEF, GIC can be determined as well. This study discusses several GEF modeling techniques. Results of modeling during the Halloween geomagnetic storm in October 2003 are validated against GIC observations in Fennoscandia. The study also demonstrates that a conductivity model is a critical factor in estimating GIC since the magnitude of the GEF can decrease or increase many times over short distances due to lateral conductivity variations.

1 Introduction

The so-called Halloween geomagnetic storm on 29-31 October 2003 is one of the largest geomagnetic storms in the history of observations, which also appeared to be very well recorded due to the increase in the scientific instrumentation at that time (Pulkkinen et al., 2005). The Halloween storm consisted of a series of events. The first phase of the storm, which was caused by an arrival of an interplanetary coronal mass ejection (ICME), started with a sudden southward turning of the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) at about 05:40 UT, 29 October 2003. The second phase started at about 14:00 UT, 29 October 2003, when the internal field of the ejecta itself caused another southward IMF event. Soon after the passage of the first ICME, another hit the magnetosphere. Strong southward turning of the IMF was observed at L1 Lagrange point at about 18:20 UT, 30 October 2003, and was soon followed by a minimum Disturbance storm time index (Dst) of about -400 nT with very strong substorm-related activity in the ionosphere. During this third phase of the storm, the Malmö region in southern Sweden experienced a large-scale blackout caused by the geomagnetic activity. A thorough analysis and the timeline of the Halloween geomagnetic storm can be found in Pulkkinen et al. (2005).

According to Faraday's law, the fluctuation of the geomagnetic field during space weather events leads to the generation of the ground electric field (GEF), which in turn drives currents in the earth and ground-based technological systems, such as power grids and pipelines (Viljanen & Pirjola, 1994). These geomagnetically induced currents (GIC) can have negative impact on the operation of technological networks. Although widespread

irreversible damage to power systems is unlikely (Pulkkinen et al., 2017), extreme GIC can cause blackouts over extended areas, as it happened in the Malmö region on 30 October 2003.

The primary aim of the current study is to perform rigorous three-dimensional (3-D) GEF modeling in Fennoscandia during the Halloween geomagnetic storm using available observed geomagnetic field data (Tanskanen, 2009) and a 3-D conductivity model of the region (Korja et al., 2002). As it was mentioned by Pulkkinen et al. (2017), from the engineering point of view, the spatiotemporal characteristics of the horizontal GEF provide the ideal description of a geomagnetic disturbance. Simulated GEF data of a very intense event can serve as a reference point for evaluating possible risks to ground-based technological systems in Fennoscandia from space weather, as GIC can be calculated based on the GEF data in the region, the geometry of a technological network and system design parameters (Lehtinen & Pirjola, 1985; Pirjola et al., 2022).

Worth attention, the GEF and GIC in the Fennoscandian region, and also elsewhere in Europe, have been previously modeled in several projects as described by, e.g., Viljanen et al. (2014) and Myllys et al. (2014). Wei et al. (2013) followed a similar idea to model the GEF in North America. A key difference to the present work is that usually to calculate the GEF, researchers employ the plane wave method; moreover, in most studies, only 1-D ground conductivity models have been utilized. Although different 1-D models were used for different locations, the 1-D approach cannot take properly into account effects in the GEF arising from lateral gradients in 3-D conductivity distributions (Ivannikova et al., 2018; Rosenqvist & Hall, 2019; Marshalko et al., 2020; Kelbert, 2020).

To explore the influence of the inducing source model on the 3-D GEF simulations, we considered three different approaches to approximate the source. Noteworthy, all methods exploit the same IMAGE magnetic field data to simulate the GEF, rely on the same 3-D conductivity model of the region, and use the same forward problem engine. Within the first two approaches, the source varies laterally and is factorized by spatial modes (SM) and respective expansion coefficients. In both approaches the SM are the same and are obtained following the two-step numerical scheme introduced by Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022). The difference between methods lies in the calculation of the expansion coefficients. The details on these two approaches (and the reasoning to invoke the second approach) are presented in Section 2.1. Within the third approach (discussed in the same section), the GEF is calculated by implementing the time-domain realization of the magnetotelluric (MT) intersite impedance method.

Further, in Section 3 we present the results of the source recovery using the first two approaches and the results of the GEF modeling obtained using three considered methods. Besides, we explore in this section how well the observed time series of GIC at Mäntsälä natural gas pipeline recording point (Viljanen et al., 2006) during the Halloween storm are reproduced through a linear combination of the simulated horizontal GEF components at this point. We note once again that the Halloween event is chosen because it is a representative example of a big geomagnetic storm causing the largest value of GIC in the Finnish natural gas pipeline (Dimmock et al., 2019).

A summary of the results and discussion on the possible ways forward are presented in Section 4.

2 Methodology

In this section, we present and discuss three approaches which we invoke to calculate the time-domain GEF. First two methods rely on laterally varying inducing source models, the third one – on the plane-wave excitation. EM modeling is performed for three days (72 hours) of the Halloween geomagnetic storm (29-31 October 2003).

2.1 GEF modeling with laterally varying source

2.1.1 Governing equations in the frequency domain

We start with the discussion of the problem in the frequency domain. Maxwell's equations govern EM field variations and, in the frequency domain, these equations read as

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0}\nabla\times\mathbf{B} = \sigma\mathbf{E}+\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}, \tag{1}$$

$$\nabla\times\mathbf{E} = \mathrm{i}\omega\mathbf{B}, \tag{2}$$

where μ_0 is the magnetic permeability of free space; ω is angular frequency; $\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r},\omega)$ is the extraneous (inducing) electric current density; $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ are magnetic and electric fields, respectively; $\sigma(\mathbf{r})$ is the spatial distribution of electrical conductivity; $\mathbf{r}=(x,y,z)$ is a position vector, in our case in the Cartesian geometry. Note that we neglected displacement currents and adopted the following Fourier convention:

$$f(t)=\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\omega)e^{-\mathrm{i}\omega t}\mathrm{d}\omega. \tag{3}$$

In problem setups, when a laterally nonuniform source is considered, we assume that the current density, $\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r},\omega)$, can be represented as a linear combination of SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$:

$$\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r},\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{L} c_i(\omega)\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r}). \tag{4}$$

The form of SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$ (and their number, L) varies with application. For example, $\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r},\omega)$ is parameterized via spherical harmonics (SH) in Püthe and Kuvshinov (2013b); Honkonen et al. (2018); Guzavina et al. (2019); Grayver et al. (2021); Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Nair (2022), current loops in Sun and Egbert (2012), eigenmodes from the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the physics-based models in Egbert et al. (2021) and Zenhausern et al. (2021), and eigenmodes from the PCA of the data-based models in Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022). In this paper, we will use parameterization adopted in the latter paper.

By virtue of the linearity of Maxwell's equations with respect to the $\mathbf{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r},\omega)$ term, we can expand electric and magnetic fields as linear combinations of individual fields $\mathbf{E}_i$ and $\mathbf{B}_i$,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^{L} c_i(\omega)\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma), \tag{5}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^{L} c_i(\omega)\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma), \tag{6}$$

where $\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ fields are "electric" and "magnetic" solutions of the following Maxwell's equations:

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0}\nabla\times\mathbf{B}_i = \sigma\mathbf{E}_i+\mathbf{j}_i, \tag{7}$$

$$\nabla\times\mathbf{E}_i = \mathrm{i}\omega\mathbf{B}_i. \tag{8}$$

2.1.2 Governing equations in the time domain

The transformation of Equations (5) and (6) into the time domain leads to the representation of the electric and magnetic fields as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t;\sigma)=\sum_{i=1}^{L}\int_{0}^{\infty} c_i(t-\tau)\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)d\tau, \tag{9}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},t;\sigma)=\sum_{i=1}^{L}\int_{0}^{\infty}c_i(t-\tau)\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)d\tau. \tag{10}$$

The reader is referred to Appendix A in Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022) for more details on the convolution integrals in the above equations. We note that we use the same notation for the fields in the time and frequency domains. Equations (9) and (10) show how the fields can be calculated provided $c_i(t)$ and conductivity model σ are given. To make formulas ready for implementation, one needs to estimate the upper limits of integrals in the above equations, or, in other words, to evaluate time intervals, T_E and T_B, above which $\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)$ become negligibly small. The latter will allow us to approximate Equations (9) and (10) as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t;\sigma)\approx\sum_{i=1}^{L}\int_{0}^{T_E}c_i(t-\tau)\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)d\tau, \tag{11}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},t;\sigma)\approx\sum_{i=1}^{L}\int_{0}^{T_B}c_i(t-\tau)\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\tau;\sigma)d\tau. \tag{12}$$

The details of numerical calculation of the integrals in the above equations are presented in Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022) and Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Nair (2022). Assuming that time series $c_i(t)$ are given with the sampling interval Δt, one calculates $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t_k;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},t_k;\sigma)$ at $t_k=k\Delta t$ as

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t_k;\sigma)\approx\sum_{i=1}^{L}\sum_{n=0}^{N_{T_E}}c_i(t_k-n\Delta t)\mathcal{M}^{n}_{\mathbf{E}_i}\left(\mathbf{r},T_E;\sigma\right), \tag{13}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r},t_k;\sigma)\approx\sum_{i=1}^{L}\sum_{n=0}^{N_{T_B}}c_i(t_k-n\Delta t)\mathcal{M}^{n}_{\mathbf{B}_i}\left(\mathbf{r},T_B;\sigma\right), \tag{14}$$

where $N_{T_E}=T_E/\Delta t$, $N_{T_B}=T_B/\Delta t$ and

$$\mathcal{M}^{n}_{\mathbf{E}_i}\left(\mathbf{r},T_E;\sigma\right)=\mathrm{Re}\left\{\frac{\Delta t}{\pi}\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{\Delta t}}\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)e^{-i\omega n\Delta t}d\omega\right\},\ n=1,2,...N_{T_E}-1, \tag{15}$$

$$\mathcal{M}^{n}_{\mathbf{B}_i}\left(\mathbf{r},T_B;\sigma\right)=\mathrm{Re}\left\{\frac{\Delta t}{\pi}\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{\Delta t}}\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)e^{-i\omega n\Delta t}d\omega\right\},\ n=1,2,...N_{T_B}-1. \tag{16}$$

Expressions for $\mathcal{M}^{0}_{\mathbf{E}_i}$, $\mathcal{M}^{N_{T_E}}_{\mathbf{E}_i}$ and $\mathcal{M}^{0}_{\mathbf{B}_i}$, $\mathcal{M}^{N_{T_B}}_{\mathbf{B}_i}$ are more complicated and are presented in Appendix A of the current paper. A few comments on the latter equations are relevant at this point.

- T_E and T_B significantly differ. As shown by Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022) T_E can be taken as small as 15 min for Fennoscandia. As for T_B, it is several orders of magnitude larger than T_E (Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, & Nair, 2022); specifically T_B should be taken as large as half a year. Note that in this study we only model the GEF in the region, not the magnetic field. Therefore, only T_E is relevant for us.

- Computation of the integrals in the right-hand side of Equations (15) and (16) is performed as follows. First, $\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ are computed at 60 logarithmically spaced frequencies from $3.67\cdot10^{-6}$ to 0.054 Hz. Note that for magnetic field, modeling at zero frequency is also required (see equation (A4) from Appendix A). Further, using cubic spline interpolation as applied to calculated $\mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma)$, one can analytically compute the corresponding integrals.

- Quantities $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}, T_E; \sigma)$ and $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}, T_B; \sigma)$ are time-invariant, and — for the predefined set of $\mathbf{j}_i$ and a given conductivity model — are calculated only once, then stored and used when the calculation of $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t; \sigma)$ and $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t; \sigma)$ is required.

- One of the key ingredients to make regional EM modeling in Fennoscandia as realistic as feasible is a conductivity model of the Earth's subsurface of the region. The model adopted in this paper comprises a 3-D part and an underlying 1-D conductivity profile (Kuvshinov et al., 2021). 3-D part is based on the SMAP model (Korja et al., 2002), covers the area of 2550×2550 km^2 and consists of three layers of laterally variable conductivity of 10, 20, and 30 km thicknesses; conductivity distributions in these layers are shown in Figure 3. The lateral discretization of the model is 512×512 cells. Note that this model was also exploited in Marshalko et al. (2021) and Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022). Another note is that computations of electric and magnetic fields in this model (at a given frequency) are performed using the scalable 3-D EM forward modeling code PGIEM2G (Kruglyakov & Kuvshinov, 2018) based on a method of volume integral equation with a contracting kernel (Pankratov & Kuvshinov, 2016).

- As seen from the above equations, GEF computations require specification of SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$ and estimation of time series of coefficients $c_i(t)$. We address this topic in the next two sections.

2.1.3 GEF modeling using the SECS-based approach

As mentioned in the Introduction, SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$ (and corresponding time series of expansion coefficients $c_i(t)$) can be obtained using the following two-step scheme (Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, & Marshalko, 2022):

1. Spherical Elementary Current Systems (SECS) method (Vanhamäki & Juusola, 2020) is applied to 29-31 October 2003 IMAGE magnetic field data to separate the inducing and induced current systems. The data from all 26 magnetometers were used to perform SECS analysis. Note that IMAGE data for this time interval (72 hours) contain several gaps; linear interpolation was used to obtain magnetic field data in the gaps.

2. The PCA is applied to the SECS-recovered inducing source resulting in the desired SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r}), i = 1, 2, ..., L$, and time series of the corresponding expansion coefficients $c_i(t)$. With $L = 34$, we succeeded to describe 99.9% of the inducing source variability.

Once $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$ and $c_i(t)$ are derived, the GEF can be computed using Equations (13). Hereinafter we will refer to this two-step approach to specify the source and, consequently, compute the GEF as the SECS-based method.

It is important to discuss here one potential drawback of the SECS-based approach to isolate the inducing source (see also Juusola et al. (2020), Section 4.3). Note that this method can be viewed as a regional variant of the Gauss method – the method widely used to separate the inducing (external) and induced (internal) sources on a global scale. If the region of interest is characterized substantially by 3-D conductivity distribution (as in our case) the induced part is inevitably influenced by 3-D effects arising, in particular, from the lateral (for example, land/ocean) conductivity contrasts. Given deficient spatial distribution of the IMAGE sites, SECS-based approach precludes an accurate description of the induced part affected by localized 3-D effects. Evidently, such imperfection in induced part description also influences the recovery of the inducing part, at least in terms of $c_i(t)$ recovery.

In the next section we discuss an approach to circumvent this issue.

2.1.4 GEF modeling using the conductivity-based approach

Let us first assume that the IMAGE data analysis discussed in the previous section gives us trustworthy SM $\mathbf{j}_i(\mathbf{r})$. Assume further that the ground 3-D conductivity distribution is known to us at the inducing source construction stage; this is the reason why we call the method discussed in this section the conductivity-based (CB) approach.

With the above assumptions in mind the most adequate way to obtain $c_i(t)$ at a given time instant is to reuse Equation (14). Specifically, the calculation of $c_i(t)$ at a given time instant $t_k = k\Delta t$ is performed as follows. Substituting coordinates of IMAGE sites into Equation (14) and rearranging the terms, we obtain a system of equations to determine $c_i(t_k)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{L} c_i(t_k)\mathcal{M}^0_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_j, T_B; \sigma) = \mathbf{B}^{obs}(\mathbf{r}_j, t_k) - \sum_{i=1}^{L}\sum_{n=1}^{N} c_i(t_k - n\Delta t)\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_j, T_B; \sigma), \qquad (17)$$

where $N = \min(k-1, N_{T_B})$, $j = 1, 2, ..., J$, and J is the number of IMAGE sites. The expression (17) represents an overdetermined system of linear equations which is solved by least-square method.

This scheme was implemented and validated by Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Nair (2022) who analyzed hourly-mean mid-latitude magnetic field signals of magnetospheric/ionospheric origin. As it is seen from (17), computational loads to obtain $c_i(t_k)$, i.e. for single time instance, are proportional to $L \times N_{T_B}$. In our scenario, $L = 34$, $N_{T_B} = 180 \times 24 \times 60 \times 6$ making computational loads to be prohibitively high; recall that the value for $N_T = T_B/\Delta t$ is obtained assuming that T_B is taken as half of the year, i.e. $T_B = 180 \times 24 \times 60 \times 60$ s, and $\Delta t = 10$ s.

Note that the above discussed approaches were developed to perform the near real-time calculations of the GEF (and magnetic field if needed). In this paper we are interested in computing the GEF for the specific event, and, thus, we can exploit an alternative variant of the CB approach. Noteworthy, this variant has been routinely used for the last two decades to analyse the ground-based signals of magnetospheric origin (Olsen & Kuvshinov, 2004; Püthe & Kuvshinov, 2013a; Püthe et al., 2014; Honkonen et al., 2018; Munch et al., 2020). As applied to our problem setup, this variant of the CB method includes the following steps:

1. Magnetic field data $\mathbf{B}^{obs}(\mathbf{r}_j, t)$, $j = 1, 2, ..., J$ recorded at IMAGE sites are converted from the time to frequency domain using the fast Fourier Transform (FFT). Note that in our case, $J = 23$; sites Ny Ålesund, Longyearbyen, and Hornsund fall outside the modeling region.

2. At each FFT frequency ω, we estimate $c_i(\omega)$ by solving the over-determined system of linear equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{L} c_i(\omega)\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r}_j, \omega; \sigma) = \mathbf{B}^{obs}(\mathbf{r}_j, \omega), \;\; j = 1, 2, ..., J, \qquad (18)$$

   by means of the regularized least squares method. Note that FFT frequencies range between $\frac{1}{S}$ and $\frac{1}{2\Delta t}$ where S is the length of the event (72 h).

3. Time series $c_i(t), i = 1, ..., L$ are then obtained by means of the inverse FFT of frequency-domain coefficients $c_i(\omega)$.

4. Finally, the GEF at a given time instant t_k and location $\mathbf{r}$ is computed using Equation (13).

2.2 GEF modeling using the MT intersite impedance method

Although in reality the source of the ground EM field is always laterally variable, conventional approach to model GEF relies on the plane-wave source assumption. Such assumption allows researchers to relate the frequency-domain (horizontal) GEF at point $\mathbf{r}$ with horizontal magnetic field at a base site $\mathbf{r}_b$ through the intersite impedance (Kruglyakov & Kuvshinov, 2019)

$$\mathbf{E}_h(\mathbf{r},\omega;\sigma) = \frac{1}{\mu_0} Z(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}_b,\omega;\sigma)\mathbf{B}_h(\mathbf{r}_b,\omega;\sigma),$$
$$Z(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}_b,\omega;\sigma) = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{xx} & Z_{xy} \\ Z_{yx} & Z_{yy} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{19}$$

Note that if $\mathbf{r}$ coincides with $\mathbf{r}_b$, an intersite impedance transforms into a standard 3-D MT impedance (Berdichevsky & Dmitriev, 2008).

GEF at a given time instant t_k and location $\mathbf{r}$ is then calculated using a numerical scheme similar to that described in Section 2.1.2 (cf. Equation 13), namely

$$\mathbf{E}_h(\mathbf{r},t_k;\sigma) \approx \frac{1}{\mu_0} \sum_{n=0}^{N_{T_E}} Z(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}_b,T_E;\sigma)\mathbf{B}_h^{obs}(\mathbf{r}_b,t_k - n\Delta t). \tag{20}$$

3 Results

3.1 Original current versus PCA-constrained current

Since two approaches discussed in Sections 2.1.3 and 2.1.4 exploit PCA-recovered SM, we explore in this section how well the (ionospheric) equivalent current calculated using $L = 34$ SM identified by the PCA fits the original equivalent current obtained using the SECS technique. Figure 1 demonstrates time series of the aforementioned currents above two exemplary sites: Abisko (ABK; latitude: 68.35°N, longitude: 18.82°E) and Nurmijärvi (NUR; latitude: 60.5°N, longitude: 24.65°E); their locations are shown in Figure 2. One can hardly see the difference between the results. A perfect fit is also quantified in terms of high correlation between time series (0.9997), low normalized root-mean-square-errors (nRMSE; lower than 0.023), and low maximum absolute differences (MAD; lower than 0.041 A/m) for both x (north) and y (east) components of the equivalent current at each location. Note that nRMSE is defined as follows:

$$\mathrm{nRMSE}(a,b) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_l}(a_i-b_i)^2}{N_l}} \Bigg/ \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_l} b_i^2}{N_l}}, \tag{21}$$

where a is the ionospheric equivalent current calculated using PCA-recovered SM and b is the original ionospheric equivalent current, a_i and b_i are elements of these time series, and N_l is the number of time instants (in our case, $6 \times 60 \times 72$).

We conclude from this comparison that spatial structure of the equivalent current (at least for the considered 72-hour event) is very well explained by $L = 34$ PCA-based SM, thus supporting the usage of this SM basis in SECS-based and CB approaches.

3.2 SECS-based current versus conductivity-based current

In this section, we compare equivalent currents obtained using SECS-based and CB approaches. Figure 2a shows snapshots of the SECS and CB equivalent currents as well

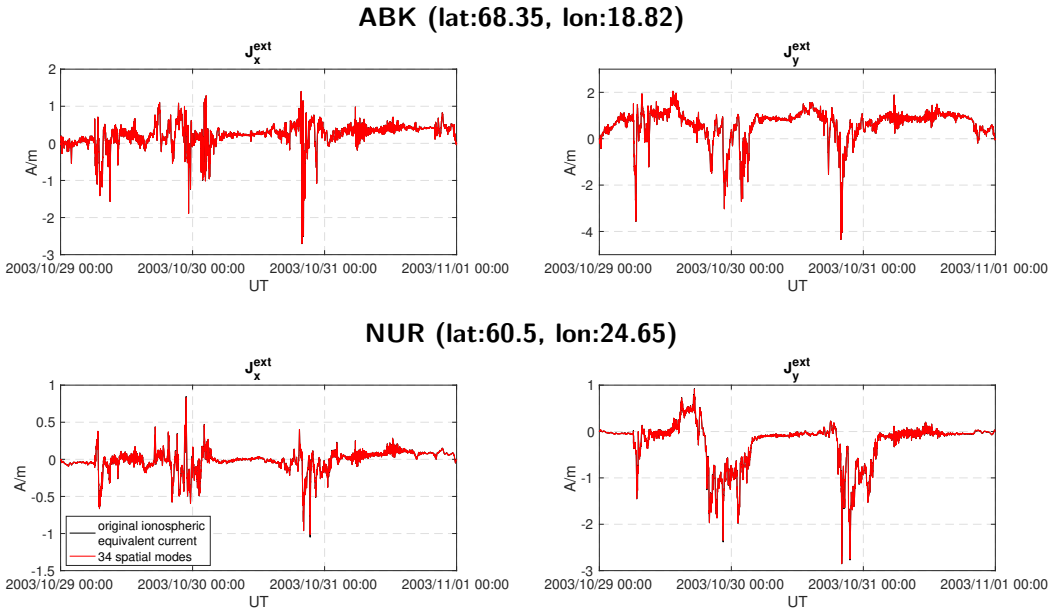

Figure 1. Time series of the original ionospheric equivalent current obtained using the SECS method and ionospheric equivalent current calculated using 34 SM above two exemplary sites: Abisko (ABK) and Nurmijärvi (NUR). The results are in A/m. Left and right panels show x- and y-components of the currents, respectively.

as equivalent current's time derivatives above Fennoscandia at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003, — the moment of the largest amplification of GIC in the Finnish natural gas pipeline during the substorm event, which caused the blackout in Malmö, Sweden. It can be seen that the overall behavior of equivalent currents is similar. This is also true for the time derivatives of the equivalent currents. However, the SECS-based source and its time derivatives have smoother spatial structure compared to CB source. Figure 2b demonstrates time series of the SECS and CB equivalent currents above ABK and NUR geomagnetic observatories. It can be seen that the magnitude of variations is larger in case of the CB source for NUR. The difference between time series is especially prominent in case of smaller x-component of the equivalent current. The nRMSE is quite high in this case — 0.8944. For y-component, the nRMSE is 0.2826. For ABK, good match between time series of equivalent currents is observed.

The detected difference in the recovered equivalent currents will be further assessed in the next sections by comparing GEF and GIC modeled with the use of different approaches.

3.3 Comparison of GEF modeled by three methods

Figures 3a and 3b show snapshots of the magnitude and direction of the GEF in Fennoscandia modeled with the use of the SECS and CB sources, respectively, at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003. Figure 3c presents the absolute difference between magnitudes of the GEF demonstrated in Figures 3a and 3b. Figure 3d shows the GEF in the area of the Finnish natural gas pipeline modeled using the CB equivalent current at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003. Finally, Figures 3e-g demonstrate conductivity distribution in three layers of the 3-D model that we use in our simulations. It is clear that the overall behavior of the GEF obtained with the use of the considered sources is very similar. However, it can be seen that differences in magnitudes of the GEF reach over 8300 mV/km

Table 1. Correlation coefficients, normalized root mean square errors, and maximum absolute differences (in mV/km) between GEF obtained using SECS, CB and MT approaches at Abisko (ABK) and Nurmijärvi (NUR) geomagnetic observatories, Mäntsälä (MAN) GIC recording point, and Point X located 0.5° north of MAN. In case of MAN and Point X, MT results are obtained with the use of magnetic field data observed at NUR.

	ABK	NUR	MAN	Point X
corr($E_{x,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.9634	0.8588	0.8565	0.8424
corr($E_{x,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.8905	0.9254	0.9344	0.9226
corr($E_{y,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.9778	0.9288	0.9339	0.9476
corr($E_{y,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.9416	0.9519	0.9542	0.9522
nRMSE($E_{x,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.2776	0.5123	0.5164	0.5409
nRMSE($E_{x,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.8216	0.4508	0.4136	0.4099
nRMSE($E_{y,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.2307	0.3802	0.3692	0.3523
nRMSE($E_{y,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	0.6629	0.558	0.5435	0.4623
MAD($E_{x,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{CB}}$)	401	2137.3	1366.1	256.4
MAD($E_{x,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{x,\mathrm{rec}}$)	927.6	1999.9	1114.3	166.3
MAD($E_{y,\mathrm{SECS}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	305.5	506.3	490.8	350
MAD($E_{y,\mathrm{MT}}$,$E_{y,\mathrm{CB}}$)	961.4	745.9	709.4	293.1

at this particular time instant at the Norwegian coastline (see Figure 3c). Besides, the behavior of the GEF in the region is complex; the magnitude of the GEF can decrease or increase many times over short distances due to lateral variations of conductivity, especially at the ocean coast as it is demonstrated in Figures 3a-b.

Figure 4 shows the snapshots of the GEF across Fennoscandia (left figures) and in the area of the Finnish natural gas pipeline (right figures) at two moments of maximum GIC amplification at Mäntsälä, which occurred during the initial phase of the Halloween geomagnetic storm: 06:57:30 and 07:27:00 UT, 29 October 2003.

We also compare GEF modeled with the use of three approaches at several locations: ABK, NUR, MAN pipeline recording point (latitude: 60.6°N, longitude: 25.2°E) and Point X, which is located 0.5° north of MAN (cf. Figures 5-8). It is worth mentioning that even though NUR, MAN, and Point X are located very close to each other (about 32 km apart in case of NUR and MAN and about 56 km in case of MAN and Point X), the magnitude of the GEF variations at these three sites is very different. The highest GEF values are observed at NUR, which is located above a resistive structure and close to a border of conductivity contrast (see Figure 3e). Point X is located above a more conductive structure. That is why GEF values are smaller at this site.

We further quantify the difference between modeled GEF in terms of correlation coefficients, nRMSE, and MAD in Table 1. Note that MAD between x-components of the GEF induced by the SECS and CB source as well as those between x-components of the GEF obtained using CB source and MT impedance method are quite large at NUR and MAN due to the fact that GEF values at this locations are also large at the moment of maximum GEF amplification. MAD are significantly smaller in case of Point X. However, the nRMSE between x-components of the GEF induced by SECS and CB source at NUR, MAN, and Point X are practically equal.

3.4 Comparison of modeled and observed GIC

We calculate GIC based on the GEF modeled via three methods discussed above and compare them with GIC observed at the MAN natural gas pipeline recording point.

It was previously demonstrated by Viljanen et al. (2006) that GIC at MAN can be reproduced accurately enough based on the horizontal electric field data using the following expression:

$$\mathrm{GIC}(t) = aE_x(t) + bE_y(t), \tag{22}$$

where coefficients a and b depend only on the topology and resistances of the pipeline system. In their study, Viljanen et al. (2006) exploited parameters determined by Pulkkinen et al. (2001): $a = -70$ A·km/V and $b = 88$ A·km/V. It should be noted that above expression is a simplification and it assumes that the GEF along the pipeline is spatially uniform.

Figure 9a demonstrates the comparison of observed GIC and GIC calculated based on the GEF simulated at MAN with the use of the CB source. Note that modeled GIC is scaled by a factor of 4.51 in the figure. The iteratively reweighted least squares algorithm (Holland & Welsch, 1977) was used to estimate this factor. Note that in the study of Dimmock et al. (2019) who carried out 3-D GEF and GIC modeling in the Fennoscandian region due to 7-8 September 2017 geomagnetic storm, GIC calculated based on Pulkkinen et al. (2001) parameters and GEF simulated in the SMAP conductivity model was also scaled by a factor of 4. Dimmock et al. (2019) point out that conductivities in the model adopted by Viljanen et al. (2006) are significantly larger than those in the SMAP model. Figures 9b and 9c provide a closer look on time intervals 06:00:00-08:00:00 UT, 29 October 2003 (the initial phase of the Halloween geomagnetic storm, when the largest GIC value was observed at MAN), and 19:00:00-21:00:00 UT, 30 October 2003 (the substorm event, which caused the blackout in Malmö, Sweden).

When calculating GIC based on the GEF modeled with the SECS-based source and MT method, scaling factors should also be applied. The scaling factors estimated via the iteratively reweighted least squares algorithm are 4.68 and 5.39, correspondingly.

As it was demonstrated in Section 3.3, GEF values at Point X are significantly smaller than those at MAN due to the fact that Point X is located on a more conductive basement. Figure 9d demonstrates the comparison of observed GIC and GIC calculated based on the GEF simulated at Point X with the use of the CB source. Modeled GIC are not scaled in this figure. It is clear that simulated GIC variations are of the same order of magnitude as observed ones.

Table 2 presents correlation coefficients, nRMSE, and MAD between observed GIC and GIC calculated based on the GEF modeled with the use of the three discussed methods. The values are demonstrated for GIC calculated both at MAN and Point X locations. It can be seen that the highest correlation between modeled and observed GIC is achieved with the use of the CB source.

4 Concluding Remarks

In this paper, we perform rigorous 3-D GEF modeling in Fennoscandia for three days of the Halloween geomagnetic storm (29-31 October 2003). To explore the influence of the inducing source model on 3-D GEF simulations, we consider three different approaches to approximate the source. Noteworthy, all methods exploit the same IMAGE magnetic field data to simulate the GEF, rely on the same high-resolution 3-D conductivity model of the region (SMAP, Korja et al. (2002)), and use the same forward problem engine (Kruglyakov & Kuvshinov, 2018).

Table 2. Correlation coefficients, normalized root mean square errors, and maximum absolute differences (in A) between modeled and observed GIC at the Mäntsälä (MAN) pipeline recording point and Point X located 0.5° north of MAN. Note that modeled GIC at MAN are scaled by factors of 4.68 (using SECS source), 5.39 (using MT method), and 4.51 (using CB source). At Point X, GIC are not scaled.

	MAN	Point X
$\mathrm{corr}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{SECS}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.7729	0.724
$\mathrm{corr}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{MT}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.8857	0.7951
$\mathrm{corr}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{CB}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.9026	0.8094
$\mathrm{nRMSE}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{SECS}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.6345	0.7108
$\mathrm{nRMSE}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{MT}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.4647	0.8198
$\mathrm{nRMSE}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{CB}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	0.4306	0.6342
$\mathrm{MAD}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{SECS}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	40.3	52.7
$\mathrm{MAD}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{MT}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	28.8	64.8
$\mathrm{MAD}(\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{CB}},\mathrm{GIC}_{\mathrm{obs}})$	29.1	56.4

Within the first two approaches, the source varies laterally and is factorized from the original SECS-recovered source (Vanhamäki & Juusola, 2020) by spatial modes (SM) and respective expansion coefficients. In both approaches, the SM are the same and obtained following the two-step numerical scheme introduced by Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022). The difference between methods lies in the calculation of the expansion coefficients; in the second approach, which we call "conductivity-based", the expansion coefficients are obtained by taking the conductivity distribution of the earth into account. Within the third approach, the GEF is calculated by implementing the time-domain realization of the MT intersite impedance method.

We modeled GIC at the MAN Finnish natural gas pipeline recording site based on the GEF obtained with the use of three aforementioned modeling approaches and compared results with GIC observed there. We conclude that for all considered methods, the correlation between modeled and observed GIC is high. The highest correlation with GIC recordings and the lowest nRMSE is achieved with the use of the CB source. However, when calculating GIC based on the GEF simulated at MAN, their values appear to be overestimated 4–6 times in case of all modeling techniques. Similar results were obtained by Dimmock et al. (2019) who calculated GIC at MAN based the GEF computed in the SMAP model during 7–8 September 2017 geomagnetic storm. When calculating GIC on the basis of the GEF at a point located 0.5° north of MAN (and on a significantly more conductive basement), resulting GIC have the same order of magnitude as observed ones. As this example demonstrates, the ground conductivity has a crucial role in estimating the GEF. Especially challenging are regions with sharp gradients of the near-surface conductivity. We also stress that in contrast to the spatially highly variable ground conductivity, the equivalent ionospheric currents and their time derivatives are relatively smooth. Thus, most of the lateral variation of the GEF arises from the ground conductivity.

For GIC calculation in this study, we used a simplified method, which assumes that the GEF along the pipeline is spatially uniform. One can argue that this approximation is too rough taking into account that our modeling results demonstrate large differences between GEF values at different sites in the pipeline area (see Figures 3d and 6–8). Calculation of the actual GIC in technological networks is an engineering task, which can be performed with a significantly higher level of accuracy by companies operating these networks and possessing all the necessary information about their configurations and pa-

rameters. Moreover, the information about changes in configurations of technological systems over the years is required to model GIC properly during a particular time interval. That is why in this study, we limit ourselves to using this simplified GIC modeling method, with the help of which reasonable modeling results were previously obtained by Viljanen et al. (2006). We also share our GEF simulation results through an open-access repository (Marshalko et al., 2022). With the help of these data, companies operating technological systems in Fennoscandia will be able to assess the potential hazard to these systems from space weather.

Concerning future studies, our results of the Halloween storm serve as an explicit point of comparison. Using the same ground conductivity model, but different geomagnetic field input, we can quantify the magnitude of other events with respect to the Halloween storm. Of special interest is a recent reproduction of the Carrington storm by Blake et al. (2021) and the simulation of a sudden storm commencement due to an extreme solar wind shock (Welling et al., 2021).

Another topic for future activity is updating the 3-D conductivity model of Fennoscandia, which is to be based on a multi-scale 3-D inversion of a significant amount of new MT data collected in the region in the framework of various goal-oriented MT projects. Note that the biggest uncertainty in the GEF and GIC modeling arises due to incompleteness of the conductivity model. In a recent study, Love et al. (2022) considered the famous magnetic storm in March 1989. They presented maps of reported GIC impacts in the contiguous United States (CONUS) power grids and compared their occurrence to the peak values of the GEF based on empirical MT impedances. There is a clear correspondence between the locations of GIC impacts and high GEF values. As Love et al. (2022) point out, geomagnetic variations tend to decrease with decreasing geomagnetic latitude. This is also seen in geoelectric hazard maps. However, the hazard across CONUS is much more prominently organized by the surface impedance, i.e. the ground conductivity. This emphasises the need for using as accurate information on the earth conductivity as possible.

Finally, the ongoing research aims to further develop the conductivity-based approach to enable its real-time implementation.

5 Open Research

Modeled GEF data are available at `https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7385880` under CC BY 4.0. The SMAP model (Korja et al., 2002) is publicly available via the EPOS portal: `http://mt.bgs.ac.uk/EPOSMT/2019/MOD/EPOSMT2019_3D.mod.json`. PGIEM2G 3-D EM forward modeling code is openly available under GPLv2 via Gitlab: `https://gitlab.com/m.kruglyakov/PGIEM2G`.

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Appendix A Expressions for $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}$, $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}$

The derivation of expressions for $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}$ and $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}$ is presented in Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022) and Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Nair (2022) for elec-

tric and magnetic fields, correspondingly. Even though the same technique is used in both papers, the notation and final form of expressions are different. Thus, to avoid readers' confusion, we present the expressions for $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}$ and $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}$ in similar closed forms.

As already discussed in Section 2.1.2, the expressions for $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}$ and $\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}$ for $n = 1, 2 \dots N_{T_E} - 1, N_{T_B} - 1$ are the following

$$\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}, T_E; \sigma) = \mathrm{Re}\left\{ \frac{\Delta t}{\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{\Delta t}} \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}, \omega; \sigma) e^{-i\omega n \Delta t} d\omega \right\}, \; n = 1, 2, \dots N_{T_E} - 1, \tag{A1}$$

$$\mathcal{M}^n_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}, T_B; \sigma) = \mathrm{Re}\left\{ \frac{\Delta t}{\pi} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{\Delta t}} \mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r}, \omega; \sigma) e^{-i\omega n \Delta t} d\omega \right\}, \; n = 1, 2, \dots N_{T_B} - 1. \tag{A2}$$

At the same time, for $n = 0, N_{T_E}, N_{T_B}$ the expressions are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}^0_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) &= -\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_{T_E}-1} \mathcal{M}^k_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) \left(1 - \frac{k}{N_{T_E}}\right), \\ \mathcal{M}^{N_{T_E}}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) &= \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_{T_E}-1} \mathcal{M}^k_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) \frac{k}{N_{T_E}}, \end{aligned} \tag{A3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}^0_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) =& -\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_{T_B}-1} \mathcal{M}^k_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) \left(1 - \frac{k}{N_{T_B}}\right) \\ &+ \mathrm{Re}\,\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r}_s, \omega; \sigma)|_{\omega=0}, \\ \mathcal{M}^{N_{T_B}}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) =& \mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) - \sum_{k=1}^{N_{T_B}-1} \mathcal{M}^k_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) \frac{k}{N_{T_B}}. \end{aligned} \tag{A4}$$

It is worth stressing here that unlike (A3), (A4) contains an additional term $\mathrm{Re}\,\mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r}_s, \omega; \sigma)|_{\omega=0}$ for $n = 0$ since the magnetic field is not necessarily zero for $\omega = 0$.

Functions $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma)$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma)$ have the following form:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma) = \frac{1}{T_E} \int_0^{T_E} \tau \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}_s, \tau; \sigma) d\tau, \tag{A5}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma) = \frac{1}{T_B} \int_0^{T_B} \tau \mathbf{B}_i(\mathbf{r}_s, \tau; \sigma) d\tau. \tag{A6}$$

The numerical method to compute integrals (A5) and (A6) is described in Appendix C of Kruglyakov, Kuvshinov, and Marshalko (2022). Note that although both $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{E}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_E; \sigma)$ and $\mathcal{L}_{\mathbf{B}_i}(\mathbf{r}_s, T_B; \sigma)$ vanish as $T_E, T_B \to \infty$, they decay too slowly to be neglected for specified values of T_E, T_B.

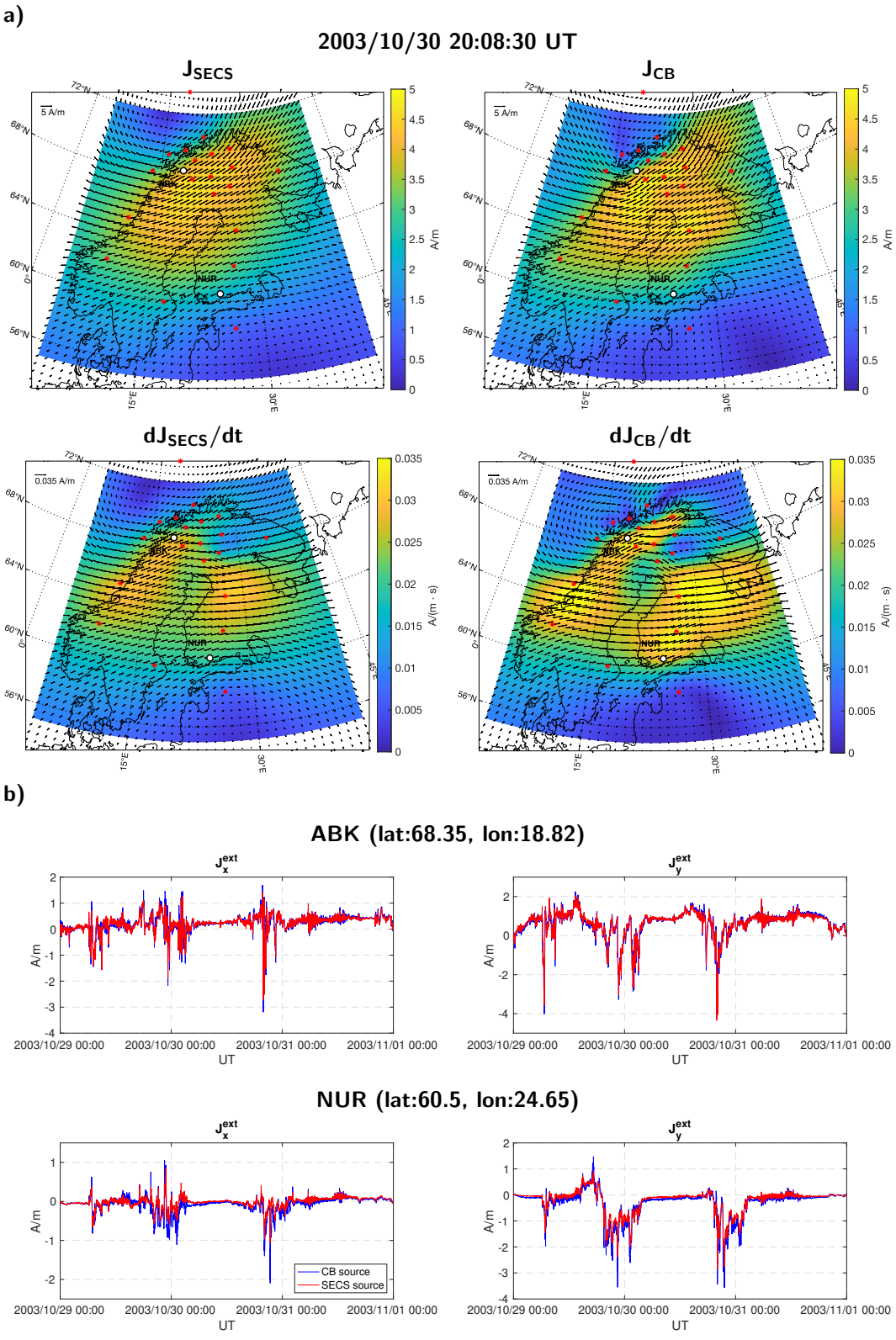

Figure 2. (a) Snapshots of the magnitude and direction of the SECS and CB equivalent currents and equivalent currents' time derivatives above Fennoscandia at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003. IMAGE sites are marked with red asterisks and white circles. (b) Time series of the SECS and CB ionospheric equivalent currents above Abisko (ABK) and Nurmijärvi (NUR) geomagnetic observatories. Left and right panels show x- and y-components of the currents, respectively.

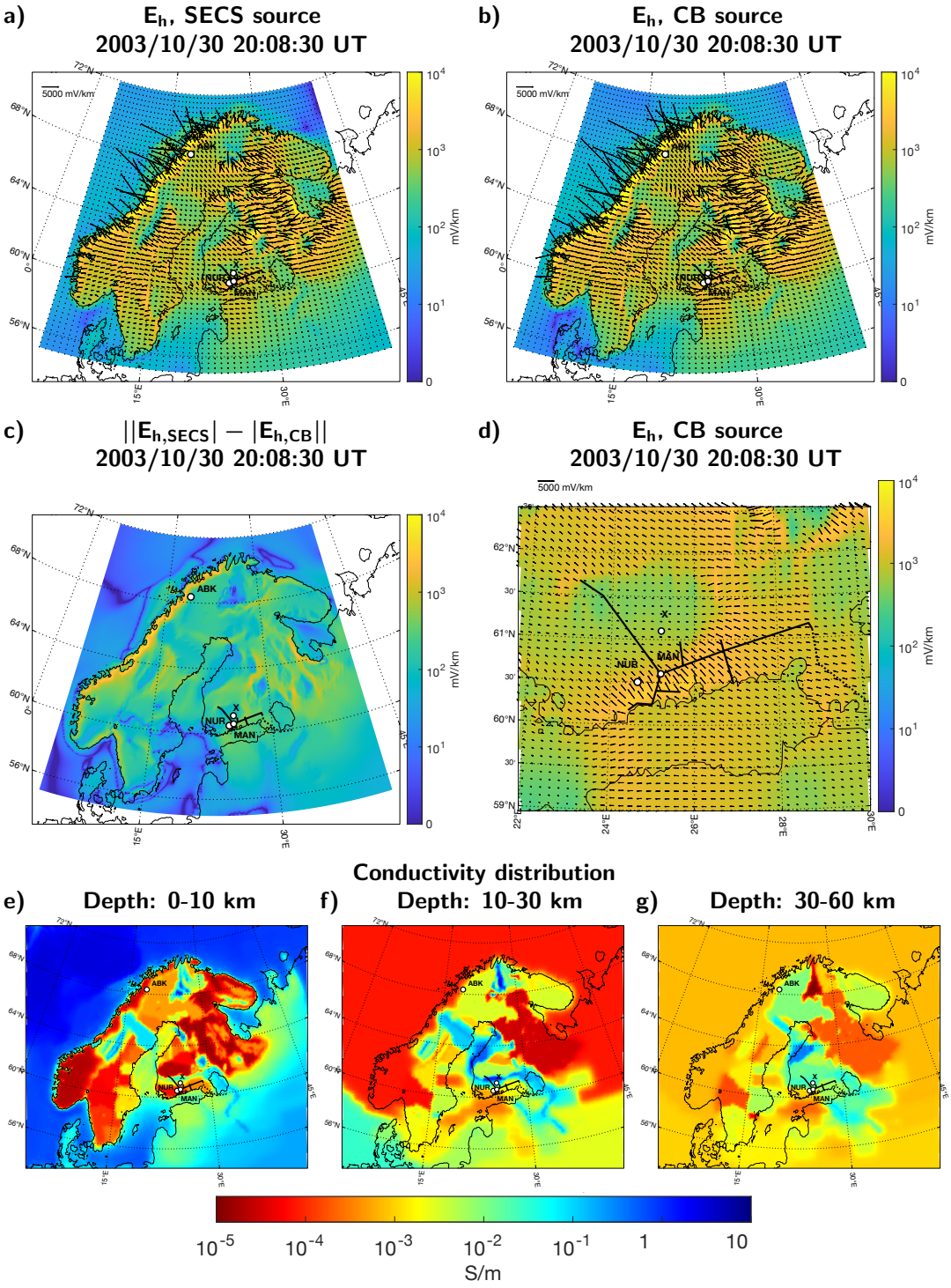

Figure 3. (a-b) Snapshots of the magnitude and direction of the GEF in Fennoscandia modeled using SECS and CB equivalent currents, at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003. (c) The absolute difference between magnitudes of the GEF demonstrated in (a) and (b). (d) The magnitude and direction of the GEF in the area of the Finnish natural gas pipeline modeled with the use of the CB source at 20:08:30 UT, 30 October 2003. (e-g) Conductivity distribution in three layers of the 3-D part of the conductivity model. Finnish natural gas pipeline network is marked in all figures. IMAGE sites Abisko (ABK) and Nurmijärvi (NUR) as well as Mäntsälä (MAN) pipeline GIC recording site and Point X located 0.5° north of MAN are marked with white circles.

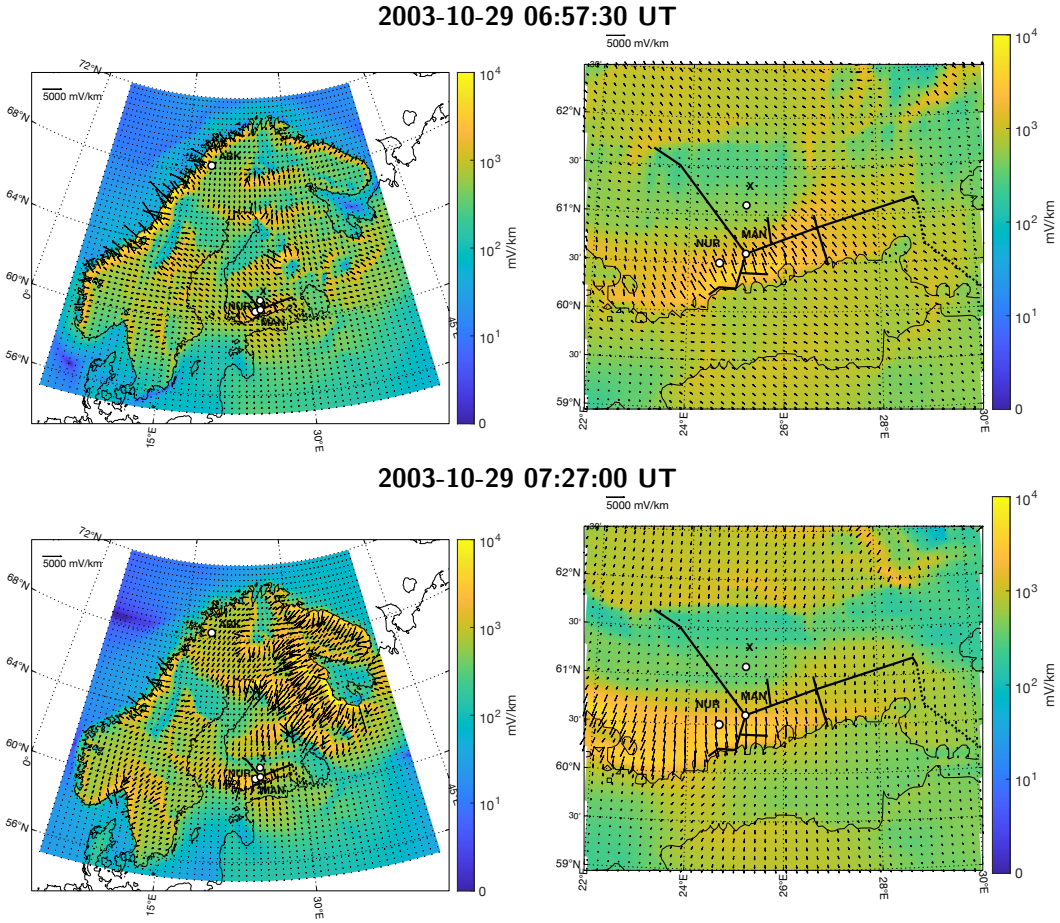

Figure 4. Snapshots of the magnitude and direction of the GEF across Fennoscandia (left) and in the Finnish natural gas pipeline area (right) modeled using the CB source at 06:57:30 UT, 29 October 2003 (top), and 07:27:00 UT, 29 October 2003 (bottom). Finnish natural gas pipeline network is marked in all figures. IMAGE sites Abisko (ABK) and Nurmijärvi (NUR) as well as Mäntsälä (MAN) pipeline GIC recording site and Point X located 0.5° north of MAN are marked with white circles.

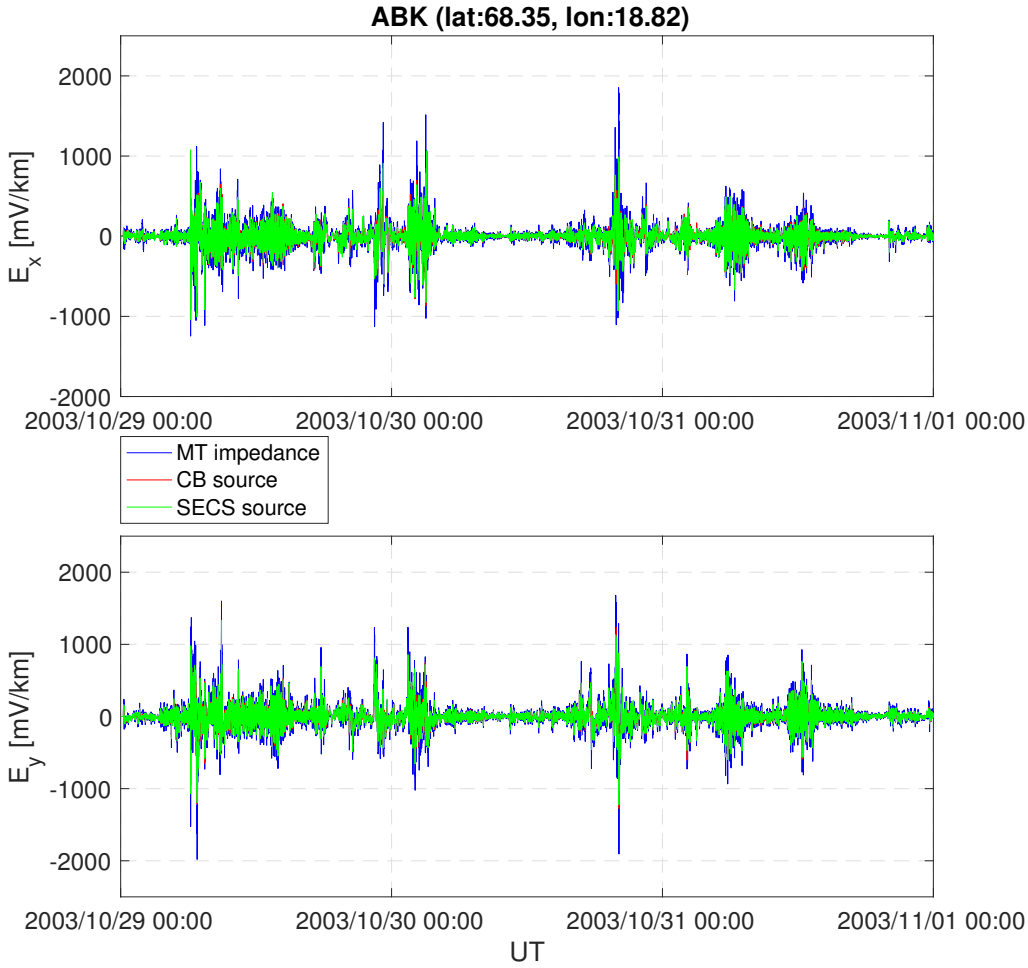

Figure 5. Time series of the GEF at the Abisko (ABK) geomagnetic observatory modeled using SECS, CB and MT approaches.

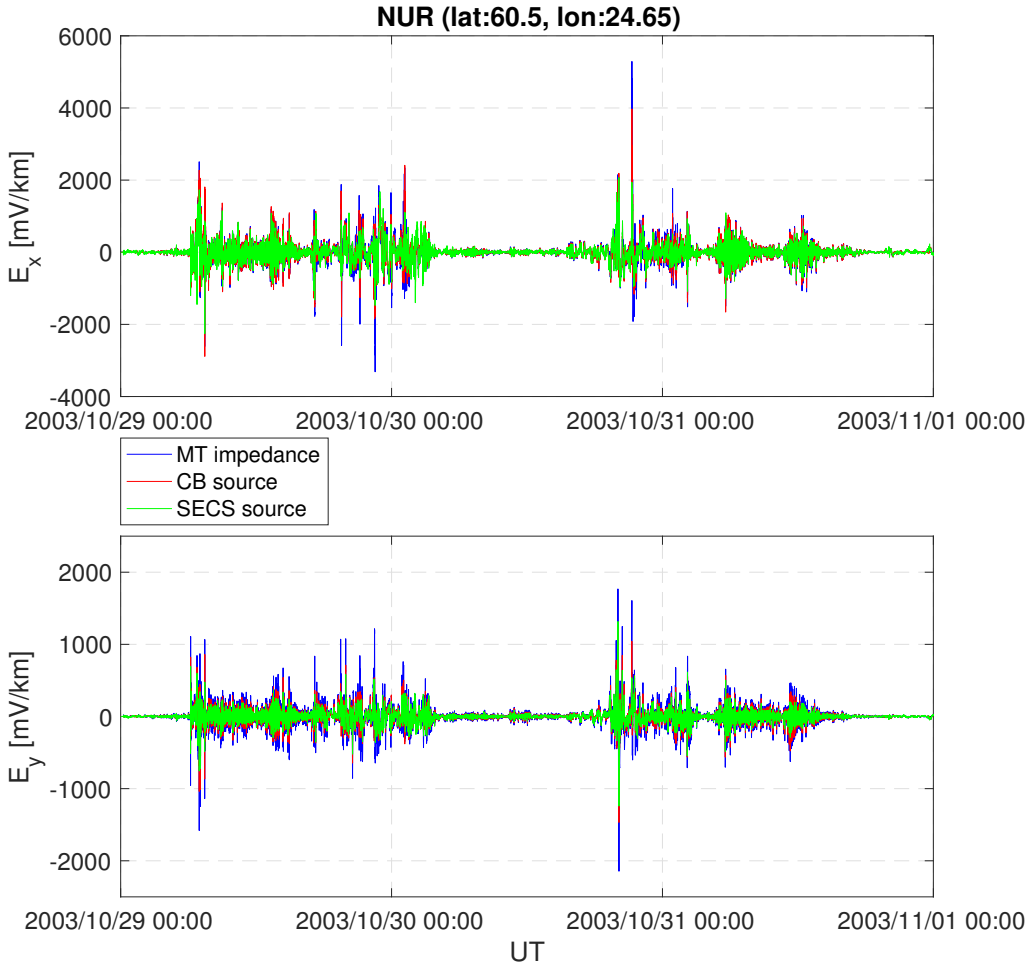

Figure 6. The same caption as in Figure 5 but for the Nurmijärvi (NUR) geomagnetic observatory.

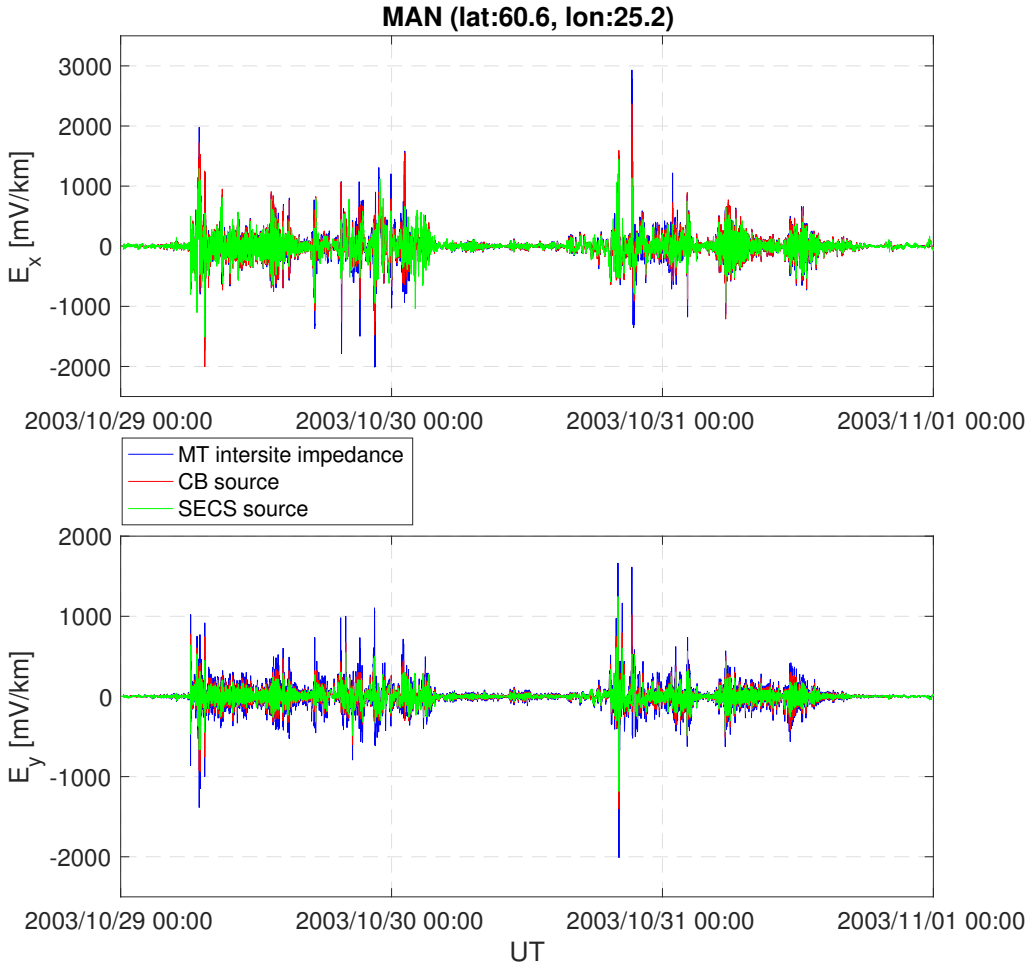

Figure 7. The same caption as in Figure 5 but for the Mäntsälä (MAN) natural gas pipeline GIC recording site.

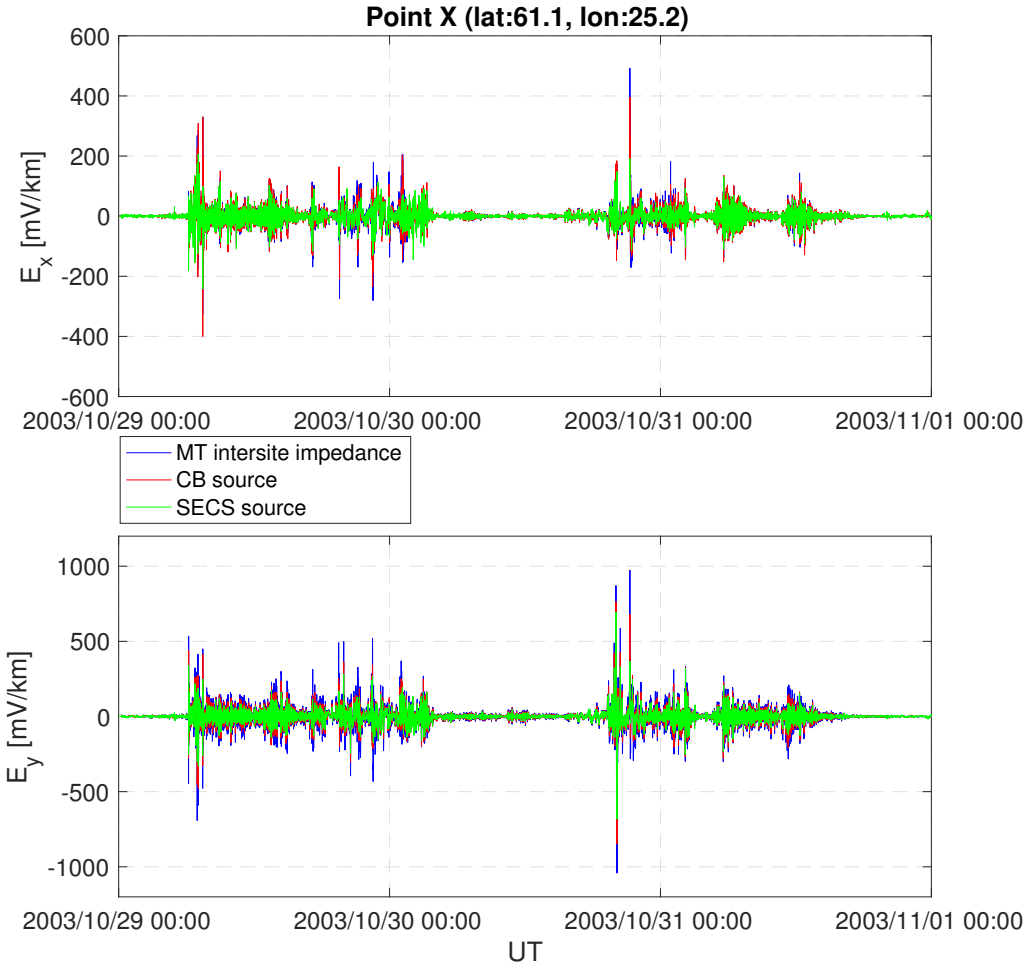

Figure 8. The same caption as in Figure 5 but for Point X located 0.5° north of Mäntsälä natural gas pipeline GIC recording site.

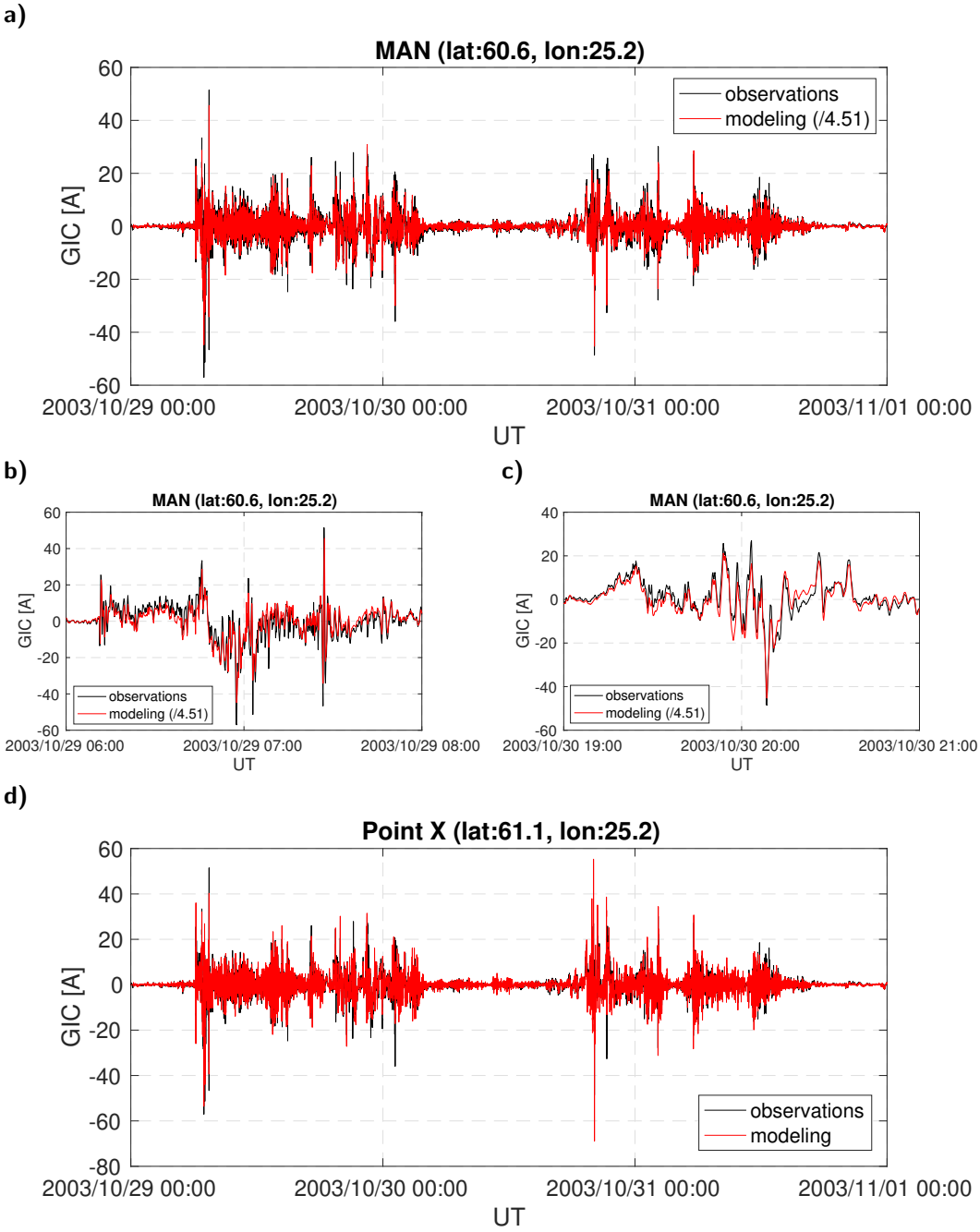

Figure 9. (a) Time series of observed GIC and GIC calculated at the Mäntsälä (MAN) natural gas pipeline recording point. (b-c) Time series of GIC observed and modeled at MAN at time intervals 06:00:00-08:00:00 UT, 29 October 2003, and 19:00:00-21:00:00 UT, 30 October 2003. (d) Time series of GIC observed and modeled at Point X located 0.5° north of MAN. Note that modeled GIC is scaled by a factor of 4.51 in Figurs (a-c), while there is no scaling in Figure (d). GIC in all figures were calculated based on the GEF modeled using the CB source.