

1 Whistler Waves above the Lower Hybrid Frequency 2 in the Ionosphere and their Counterparts in the 7 Magnetosphere

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4 In this study, we report the statistical properties of whistler mode low hy-
5 brid (LH) emissions in the ionosphere, which have structureless spectra with
6 a lower frequency boundary that matches the variation of the local lower hy-
7 brid resonance frequency f_{LHR} . A potential source for the low hybrid emis-
8 sions is identified as the high-frequency plasmaspheric hiss (HFPH) in the
9 magnetosphere. We use DEMETER and Van Allen Probes data to perform
10 a statistical study of the wave power distribution of the LH emissions and
11 HFPH. Both LH and HFPH emissions show a similar frequency range, a sim-
12 ilar invariant magnetic latitude range, and have similar trends in magnetic
13 local time (MLT) (stronger wave intensity on the dayside) and in the AE in-
14 dex (stronger wave intensity for higher AE condition). A ray tracing simu-
15 lation is also performed to demonstrate the propagation of HFPH waves from
16 the magnetosphere into the ionosphere as LH waves.

1. Introduction

17 Whistler mode waves are right hand circularly polarized electromagnetic waves in the
18 very low frequency (VLF) range and play very important roles in the loss of high energy
19 electrons via cyclotron resonance and Landau resonance [e.g., *Inan and Tkalcevic*, 1982;
20 *Inan and Bell*, 1991; *Bell*, 1984, 1986; *Shklyar and Matsumoto*, 2009; *Artemyev et al.*,
21 2013]. Typical types of whistler mode waves, such as chorus waves, plasmaspheric hiss,
22 lightning generated whistlers and whistlers that originate from ground-based transmitters,
23 can often be observed in the Earth's ionosphere and magnetosphere. Whistler mode waves
24 can propagate through the region that contains the Earth's ionosphere and magnetosphere,
25 and the propagation process includes refraction, guiding, scattering and reflection under
26 the control of the plasma density and background magnetic field. When the local lower
27 hybrid resonance frequency f_{LHR} is close to the wave frequency, a whistler mode wave
28 can completely reverse its direction, which is known as magnetospheric reflection [*Chum*
29 *and Santolík*, 2005; *Jiříček et al.*, 2001; *Lyons and Thorne*, 1970; *Shklyar et al.*, 2004; *Xu*
30 *et al.*, 2020].

31 In the magnetosphere, the plasmaspheric hiss is usually observed as incoherent, struc-
32 tureless emissions with a wide frequency band from ~ 100 Hz to 2 kHz [*Thorne et al.*,
33 1973; *Ni et al.*, 2013, 2014; *Yu et al.*, 2017; *Su et al.*, 2018]. The main sources of hiss wave
34 generation include local excitation by electron injections [*Li et al.*, 2013; *Shi et al.*, 2017;
35 *He et al.*, 2019], chorus propagation from the region outside of the plasmopause into the
36 plasmasphere [*Bortnik et al.*, 2008, 2009; *Chen et al.*, 2009, 2012; *Yue et al.*, 2017] and
37 lightning-generated whistlers [*Bortnik et al.*, 2003; *Draganov et al.*, 1992; *Meredith et al.*,

2006; *Sonwalkar and Inan*, 1989]. The high-frequency plasmaspheric hiss (HFPH) is a kind of high-frequency hiss wave with a frequency of up to 10 kHz that can be locally excited by substorm-injected electrons with an energy of approximately 1 keV [*He et al.*, 2019]. A statistical study from the Van Allen Probes' observations [*He et al.*, 2020] indicates that the HFPH intensity is stronger from the predawn to dusk region and under geomagnetically active conditions compare to quiet times. Additionally, the statistical spectra show that the frequency of HFPH increases with the background magnetic field and that the power of the HFPH is concentrated between 0.1 and 0.5 f_{ce} .

Lightning-generated whistlers (LGWs) are often observed in both the magnetosphere and the ionosphere and are generated by electromagnetic waves that are produced by lightning strokes leaking from the Earth-ionosphere waveguide and propagating through the ionosphere into the magnetosphere. The contribution of the LGWs to the wave intensity in the inner magnetosphere has been studied from the observations of DEMETER, the Van Allen Probes satellites and the World Wide Lightning Location Network (WWLLN). Previous studies show that the LGW wave intensity is stronger on the nightside than on the dayside, and is highly controlled by lightning activity on the ground [*Němec et al.*, 2010; *Záhlava et al.*, 2018b, 2019; *Zheng et al.*, 2016; *Ripoll et al.*, 2020; *Green et al.*, 2020].

In this study, we use the measurement from the Detection of Electromagnetic Emissions Transmitted from Earthquake Regions (DEMETER) satellite to provide observations of strong VLF emissions with frequencies that substantially exceed the local lower hybrid resonance frequency (f_{LHR}) at the topside of the ionosphere. The possibility that LGW

60 is the source of the LH emission is excluded due to the different wave spectral structures
61 and the wave power dependence on the local time and AE index. To determine the source
62 of these LH emissions, using the measurements of DEMETER and Van Allen Probes, we
63 statistically study the wave power distribution versus frequency and the magnetic lati-
64 tude for both LH emissions in the ionosphere and the HFPH wave in the magnetosphere
65 and find satisfactory agreements of these two wave power distributions in terms of the
66 frequency range, latitude range, MLT dependence and AE dependence. A ray tracing
67 simulation is also performed to verify the link between the observed LH emissions in the
68 ionosphere and the HFPH wave in the magnetosphere. The remainder of this paper is
69 organized as follows: In Section 2, we briefly introduce the DEMETER and Van Allen
70 Probes satellites. In Section 3, we provide two event observations of LH emissions from
71 DEMETER observations. In Section 4, we analyze and compare the wave power distri-
72 butions of LH emissions and HFPH waves. Finally, a ray tracing simulation is performed
73 in Section 5.

2. Spacecraft and Instruments

74 DEMETER is a French satellite with a low-altitude nearly Sun-synchronous circular
75 orbit ($\sim 10:30$ and $\sim 22:30$ LT). It was operated over a ~ 6.5 -year period from June 2004
76 to December 2010. The altitude of the spacecraft was initially 710 km before Decem-
77 ber 2005 and subsequently decreased to 660 km [Parrot *et al.*, 2006]. The Instrument
78 Champ Electrique (ICE) [Berthelier *et al.*, 2006b] onboard consists of 4 sensors, which
79 are spherical aluminum electrodes of 60 mm diameter that are deployed by stacer booms
80 at approximately 4 m from the satellite. It can provide measurements of the electric field

81 in the frequency range from the DC/ULF band (0-15 Hz) up to the HF band (10 kHz
82 to 3.175 MHz). The Instrument Magnetic Search Coil (IMSC) [Parrot *et al.*, 2006] can
83 measure the magnetic field from a few Hz to 20 kHz. The Instrument Sonde de Langmuir
84 (ISL) is a Langmuir probe that can measure the density and temperature of electrons
85 [Lebreton *et al.*, 2006]. The Instrument Analyseur de Plasma (IAP) is a two-analyzer
86 spectrometer that measures the ion density, composition, temperature and flow velocity
87 [Berthelier *et al.*, 2006a]. The background magnetic field data are calculated from the
88 International Geomagnetic Reference Field (IGRF) 2000 model [Olsen *et al.*, 2000].
89 The Van Allen Probes (Van Allen Probes) [Mauk *et al.*, 2013] consist of two satel-
90 lites with identical instruments with nearly similar near-equatorial highly elliptical orbits
91 with perigees of approximately 620 km and apogees of approximately $5.8 R_E$. They were
92 launched in August 2012, and their mission ended in October 2019, with an approxi-
93 mately 7-year operating duration. The Waveform Receiver (WFR) of the Electric and
94 Magnetic Field Instrument Suite and Integrated Science (EMFISIS) [Kletzing *et al.*, 2013]
95 can provide measurements of magnetic and electric power spectral density from 10 Hz to
96 11.2 kHz, from which wave polarization and propagation features (such as wave normal
97 direction, ellipticity and planarity) are calculated by the singular value decomposition
98 (SVD) method [Santolik *et al.*, 2003]. The high-frequency receiver (HFR) can identify the
99 upper hybrid resonance frequency between 10 and 400 kHz, which is used to calibrate the
100 plasma density that is derived from the measurement of the spacecraft potential by the
101 electric fields and waves (EFW) instrument [Wygant *et al.*, 2013].

3. DEMETER Observation of LH Emissions

102 Figure 1 shows two LH emission events that were observed by the DEMETER satellite.
103 The first event, which occurred on January 6, 2008, is shown in Figures 1a and 1b, which
104 present the electric field (1a) and magnetic field (Figure 1b) wave power spectral density
105 from VLF spectra data that were measured by ICE and IMSC instruments, respectively.
106 The white solid lines represent the value of f_{LHR} under the assumption of proton-electron
107 plasma without heavier ions. For the f_{LHR} calculation, the magnetic field strength is ob-
108 tained from the IGRF model, and the plasma density is measured by the ISL instrument
109 of the DEMETER satellite. The ion composition measurement from the IAP instrument
110 is subject to substantial uncertainty [Vavilov *et al.*, 2013]; thus, we did not use this ion
111 composition for the f_{LHR} calculation. With the inclusion of additional heavy ions, f_{LHR}
112 decreases; namely, under the assumption of proton-only plasma, the calculated f_{LHR} will
113 overestimate the actual f_{LHR} , especially during the period when the ionospheric ion tem-
114 perature is high. For higher temperatures, the ion scale height increases, and significant
115 O^+ concentration may be expected at the DEMETER altitude. For cooler temperatures,
116 the opposite is true, that is, H^+ will be the dominant species at this altitude and thus the
117 calculated f_{LHR} reflects the actual f_{LHR} . Consider the first event (which corresponds to
118 the winter season for the Northern Hemisphere) in Figure 1a as an example. The satellite
119 traveled from south to north, with magnetic latitudes varying from approximately -60°
120 to 60° . In the region of magnetic latitude above 50° , we clearly observe strong electric
121 emission (marked by the magenta arrows) with a lower frequency limit that well matches
122 the pure proton f_{LHR} , which reflects the actual f_{LHR} . Over magnetic latitudes of $< -50^\circ$,
123 similar emissions are detected. However, the lower frequency limit is below and does not

124 match the proton-only f_{LHR} , which overestimates the actual f_{LHR} in this Southern Hemi-
125 sphere summer. This emission has a counterpart spectrum in the magnetic field (Figure
126 1b), although the wave magnetic field intensity is very weak. The second event of similar
127 emissions, which occurred on June 2, 2010 (Northern Hemisphere summer), as shown in
128 Figure 1c, also supports the matching of the lower frequency limit of the emissions with
129 f_{LHR} . For the second event, the proton-only f_{LHR} reflects the actual f_{LHR} in the Southern
130 Hemisphere while overestimating the actual f_{LHR} in the Northern Hemisphere.

131 Two possible sources of the LH emissions are lightning-generated whistler waves and
132 whistler waves that are excited in the magnetosphere. To determine whether the source of
133 the LH emissions is LGW, we examine the second event (Figure 1c), during which burst
134 mode waveform measurements from ICE and IMSC instruments are available. The FFT
135 power spectral density of the electric field waveform is shown in Figure 1d. The waveform
136 spectrum shows the structure of this emission at a higher time resolution (~ 0.205 sec),
137 and the time interval of the waveform spectrum is represented by the two magenta dashed
138 lines in Figure 1c. The LH emissions are structureless and broadband. In addition to the
139 LH emissions, we also found that lightning-generated whistler signals, which appeared as
140 vertical strips above 5 kHz and showed frequency dispersion below 5 kHz, did not exhibit
141 a temporal correlation with the LH emissions. Because of the differences in temporal and
142 spectral properties, we conclude that this LH emission differs from the lightning-generated
143 whistler waves.

4. Statistical Analysis of Data from DEMETER and the Van Allen Probes

144 We have presented examples of LH emissions that were observed by the DEMETER
145 satellite. However, in a previous statistical study by *Záhlava et al.* [2018a, 2019], LH
146 emissions (strong emissions from ~ 2 kHz to ~ 10 kHz in the middle latitude range) were
147 not found in the frequency-latitude distribution of the wave power (Figure 5 in *Záhlava*
148 *et al.* [2018a], Figures 2 & 3 *Záhlava et al.* [2019]). One possible reason is that in the
149 work of *Záhlava et al.* [2018a, 2019], the statistical wave power distribution is represented
150 by the median value, which may neglect LH emissions with stronger intensity but lower
151 occurrence. Therefore, in this section, we replot in Figure 2 the wave power distribution
152 by using the mean value to verify the statistical significance of the LH emissions. Figure
153 2a shows the mean electric wave power distribution versus frequency and magnetic lati-
154 tude on the dayside, and Figure 2b shows the wave power distribution on the nightside.
155 These wave power distributions are obtained by assigning the wave power spectra density
156 data into bins of different frequencies and magnetic latitudes (for dayside and nightside,
157 respectively) and calculating the mean wave power spectra density for each frequency-
158 latitude bin. From these statistical distributions, we observe that in the middle latitude
159 region (~ 40 - 60°), strong emissions occur in the two hemispheres at both the dayside and
160 nightside. The lower frequency limit decreases as the absolute latitude ($|\lambda|$) increases,
161 which matches the variation of f_{LHR} versus the magnetic latitude. These strong emissions
162 should be contributed mainly by the LH emissions. The emissions on the nightside in the
163 frequency range from ~ 2 kHz to ~ 10 kHz over the magnetic latitude from -40° to 40°
164 should be mainly from the LGW, which are much weaker than the LH emissions. The
165 LGW power is much higher on the nightside than on the dayside, while in contrast, the

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166 LH emission power is higher on the dayside. The difference in the day-night dependence
167 further supports our previous conclusion that the LH emissions do not originate from the
168 lightning-generated whistler.

169 Recently, *Maxworth et al.* [2020] reported some events from the observation of the ePOP-
170 RRI satellite, in which there exist LH waves correlated with LGW, and they explained
171 these LH waves are excited by the intense whistler waves. However, the LH emissions in
172 our study do not correlate with LGW and the wave power distribution shows opposite
173 day-night dependence compared to the distribution of LGW. Thus, we consider the source
174 of the LH emissions in this study may be whistler waves that originate from the magneto-
175 sphere. The wave activities in the magnetosphere highly correspond to the geomagnetic
176 activity levels; thus, we evaluate the dependence of the LH emissions on the AE index.
177 Figures 2c and 2d show the distribution of the mean electric wave power versus frequency
178 and the magnetic latitude on the dayside for low (<200 nT) and high (>200 nT) AE index
179 conditions, respectively. We find that the intensity of the LH emissions is significantly
180 higher under higher AE conditions, while the intensity of the LGW emissions in the low
181 latitude region does not significantly depend on the AE level. This result indicates that
182 the source of the LH emissions may be in the Earth's magnetosphere.

183 In the magnetosphere, a possible source of LH emissions is the high-frequency plasma-
184 spheric hiss waves (HFPHs), which cover a similar frequency range of ~ 1 kHz to >10
185 kHz [*He et al.*, 2019]. Using the 7-year measurements from Van Allen Probes WFR wave
186 spectra, we perform a statistical study of the HFPH wave power distribution, which is
187 shown in Figures 3a & b. Figure 3a and 3b show the distribution of the median mag-

netic field wave power of the HFPH versus frequency and the magnetic latitude of the
700 km (close to DEMETER altitude) footprints of the Van Allen Probes satellites (the
corresponding dipole L shell values are also labeled) over the MLT range near 10 (9-11)
hr under two AE conditions, namely, low AE (<200 nT) and high AE (>200 nT). The
following filters, which are similar to those used by *He et al.* [2020], are used to extract the
signals of HFPH waves: 1) Observations are made inside the plasmasphere by requiring
plasma density $> 100\text{cm}^{-3}$ or $L < 2$; 2) the wave magnetic power spectral density is
larger than $10^{-9}\text{nT}^2/\text{Hz}$; 3) the wave frequency ranges from 2 kHz to the lower of f_{ce}
and 12 kHz (which is the upper frequency limit of the WFR instrument); 4. the wave
ellipticity is larger than 0.7; and 5) the wave planarity is larger than 0.5. The wave power
distribution shows strong HFPH wave power over the magnetic latitude range of the foot-
prints from $\pm 55^\circ$ to 65° (L shell from ~ 3 to 5). The frequency of the HFPH ranges from
approximately 2 kHz to 12 kHz, and the frequency increases as the absolute value of the
magnetic latitude decreases. The frequency range of the HFPH waves is close to that of
the LH emissions that were observed by the DEMETER satellite. The dependence of the
wave frequency on the magnetic latitude is consistent between the two types of emissions.
The footprint latitude range of the HFPH waves, although slightly narrower, is close to
that of the LH emissions. This slight discrepancy in the latitude range may be explained
by the oblique propagation of the whistler waves. The HFPH wave power is higher under
the higher AE condition, which is consistent with that for the LH emissions. From the
results in Figure 2 of *He et al.* [2020], the HFPH on the dayside wave power is higher than
that on the nightside, which is also in agreement with the dependence of the LH waves

210 on the local time. In summary, the statistical study of the wave power distributions of
211 LH and HFPH waves shows similar frequency ranges and magnetic latitude ranges, along
212 with consistent AE dependence and MLT dependence. Such common properties support
213 that the LH emissions originate from the HFPH waves in the magnetosphere.

214 Using the same Van Allen Probes WFR data, we examine the HFPH wave normal angle
215 distribution on the meridional plane for a selected frequency of 4 kHz, which is shown
216 in Figure 3c. The result shows that at $L > 3$, the median HFPH wave normal angles
217 are quasi-parallel and anti-parallel to the background magnetic field in the Northern
218 and Southern Hemispheres, respectively. This wave normal distribution suggests that
219 the HFPH propagates away from the equatorial source in the magnetosphere, which is
220 consistent with our conclusion that the HFPH is the source of the LH emissions in the
221 ionosphere.

5. Ray Tracing Simulation Results

222 In the previous section, we showed observationally that the LH emissions in the iono-
223 sphere originate from HFPH waves in the inner magnetosphere. To verify this hypothesis,
224 we run a ray tracing simulation to check whether HFPH waves can propagate down to-
225 ward low altitudes and are limited above f_{LHR} . We use the HOTRAY ray tracing code
226 [Horne, 1989] with a dipole magnetic field and a diffusive equilibrium plasma density
227 model [Bortnik *et al.*, 2011, and references within]. The density model has implemented
228 a much-simplified density component in the ionosphere (see the details in Bortnik *et al.*
229 [2011]), which performs adequately for our purpose of testing the hypothesis. To more
230 accurately model the LH emission spectra, a realistic ionospheric model (such as the in-

ternational reference ionosphere [*Bilitza et al.*, 2017; *Bilitza*, 2018]) may be used, which is beyond the scope of this study.

In the ray tracing simulation, waves with frequencies from 6 to 14 kHz are launched at the equator at $L = 3.75$ with an initial wave normal angle of 0° . The results of the ray tracing simulation are shown in Figure 4. Figure 4a shows the distribution of background plasma density in the meridional plane and Figure 4b shows the distribution of the local f_{LHR} . Figure 4c shows the ray paths for waves with various frequencies (colored solid lines), Figures 4d and 4e show the variation of magnetic latitude and local f_{LHR} for ray paths. From the f_{LHR} distribution (Figure 4b), we observe that f_{LHR} reaches its maximum value (~ 10 kHz) near the topside of the ionosphere, and the peak is formed because f_{LHR} value increases with magnetic field but decreases with plasma density especially at low altitudes. Initially, the waves can propagate nearly along the magnetic field into the ionosphere. The paths of higher frequency rays bend inward and can reach the ionospheric altitude at a smaller value of L . After reaching the ionosphere, the rays with frequencies that are lower than 10 kHz are reflected, propagate back to the equator and then to the Southern Hemisphere (Figure 4c). From Figure 4e, we can see that as the rays initially propagate to higher latitudes, f_{LHR} increases due to the increasing background magnetic field. When the wave frequency falls just below the local f_{LHR} , the waves are reflected. For example, the low frequency wave (6 kHz, cyan line) is reflected at higher altitude than the high frequency wave (8 kHz, green line) since the local f_{LHR} values increase during the propagation away from the equator. This reflection is also known as magnetospheric reflection, although it can occur near the ionospheric altitude. Because of

253 the magnetospheric reflection, at a fixed ionospheric location, only waves with frequencies
254 that exceed the local f_{LHR} can access and thus be observed. Our model also includes the
255 effect of Landau Damping and the variation of wave power gain is shown in Figure 4f. We
256 can see that when the waves reach the topside of the ionosphere, the wave damping is less
257 than -10 dB for all the rays and the waves are still strong enough to be observed. This
258 ray tracing simulation demonstrates the physical feasibility of HFPH waves accessing
259 ionospheric altitudes, and magnetospheric reflection just below f_{LHR} may explain the
260 observed LH emission spectrum with a lower frequency limit near f_{LHR} .

6. Conclusions and Discussion

261 Using the 6.5-year observation data of the DEMETER satellite, we present the LH
262 emission, which is a type of strong electromagnetic emission with a lower frequency limit
263 that is near the local f_{LHR} . We perform a statistical study on the distribution of the
264 wave power versus the frequency, geomagnetic latitude, MLT and AE index for the LH
265 emissions. Additionally, we perform a statistical study on their counterparts in the mag-
266 netosphere, namely, HFPH waves. A ray tracing simulation is carried out to test the
267 physical connection between the two types of emissions. The features of the LH emissions
268 are summarized as follows:

- 269 1. The LH emissions have structureless spectra with distinct lower frequency limits that
270 are near f_{LHR} and occur in the latitude ranges of 40° to 60° in the Northern Hemisphere
271 and -40° to -60° in the Southern Hemisphere.
- 272 2. The lower frequency limit of the LH emissions increases as the absolute value of the
273 geomagnetic latitude decreases, which follows the latitudinal variation of f_{LHR} .

274 3. The intensity of the LH emissions is stronger on the dayside (MLT ~ 10) and under
275 higher AE conditions.

276 Given the above properties of the LH emissions, we exclude the LGW as the source
277 of the LH emissions and identify the HFPH as the most likely source. We compare the
278 statistical properties of the LH waves from the DEMETER observations and the HFPH
279 emissions from the Van Allen Probes observations. The comparison shows similarities
280 in the frequency range and the invariant magnetic latitude range and shows consistent
281 dependences on MLT and the AE index. Furthermore, the distribution of HFPH wave
282 normals shows that the HFPH propagates away from the equator in the magnetosphere,
283 which further supports that the observed LH emissions at the topside of the ionosphere
284 are caused by the HFPH waves propagating into the ionosphere. Finally, we perform a ray
285 tracing simulation and demonstrate the process by which whistler waves propagate from
286 the equator to the ionospheric altitude. The process of magnetospheric reflection occurs
287 when the wave frequency falls just below the local f_{LHR} , which explains the observed
288 lower frequency limit of the LH emissions near f_{LHR} . Recent study [*Meredith et al.*, 2021]
289 suggests that the HFPH observed in *He et al.* [2019, 2020] should be the chorus waves
290 outside the plasmopause. The HFPH in *He et al.* [2019, 2020] and in our study, however,
291 are confirmed inside the high-density plasmasphere by requiring that the plasma density
292 exceeds a critical value (100 cm^{-3} in this study), the observed HFPH is unlikely the
293 chorus waves, which are observed in the low density plasma trough region.

294 In addition to the LGW, we also exclude auroral hiss as a potential source of LH
295 emissions. The auroral hiss occurs over a wide frequency range from a few hundred Hz to

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several tens of kHz and is often observed by the in-situ satellite with a "funnel-shaped" frequency-time signature, which is caused by the narrow latitudinal range (5-10° near the auroral zone) for the low-frequency band and the wider range for the high-frequency band [Smith, 1969; Mosier and Gurnett, 1969; James, 1976]. The auroral hiss is suggested to be produced by electron beams that are associated with the aurora in the high-latitude magnetosphere [Maggs, 1976; Pfaff et al., 2001; Ergun et al., 2003; Kopf et al., 2010]. We find that the auroral hiss is unlikely to be the source of the LH emissions for the following reasons. 1. The auroral hiss can be observed only inside or near the auroral zones, which are at higher latitudes than the LH emissions. 2. The in-situ observed spectra of the auroral hiss exhibit a funnel-shaped frequency-time structure, while the LH emission spectra do not. 3. The occurrence and amplitude of the auroral hiss increase on the nightside, compared to the dayside [Spasojevic, 2016]. This local time dependence is opposite to that of the LH emission wave. 4. The auroral hiss propagates upwards and away from the Earth, so it won't be able to get down to the low altitude of the DEMETER orbit.

Using the detected LH emission spectra with the lower frequency limit being f_{LHR} , we can roughly estimate the proportion of heavy ions at the topside of the ionosphere. The supplemental material briefly introduces how to estimate the O^+ composition in the ions from the LH emission spectra under the assumption that the ions only contain protons and O^+ .

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322 tively. The DEMETER data that are presented in the paper can be downloaded from
323 <https://cdpp-archive.cnes.fr/>. The Van Allen Probes data can be downloaded from SPDF
324 <https://spdf.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/data/rbsp/>.

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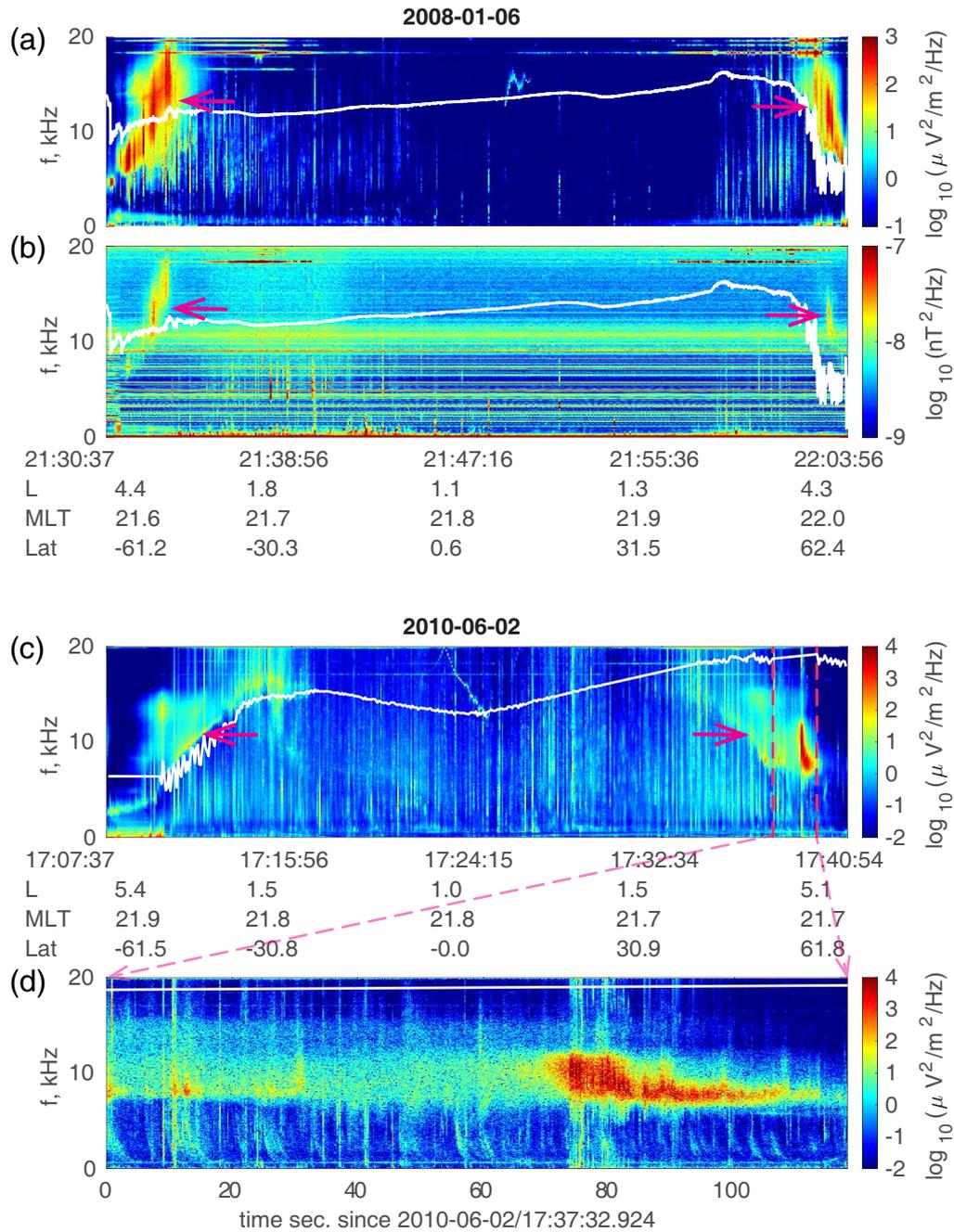


Figure 1. Two events of LH emissions that were observed by the DEMETER satellite. (a) and (b) show the electric field and magnetic field wave spectra of the first event. (c) shows the electric field spectrum for the second event. (d) shows the FFT spectra of the electric field waveform data for the time interval labeled by the two magenta dashed lines in the second event. The white solid lines represent the variation of the pure proton f_{LHR} . The magenta arrows point to the LH emissions.

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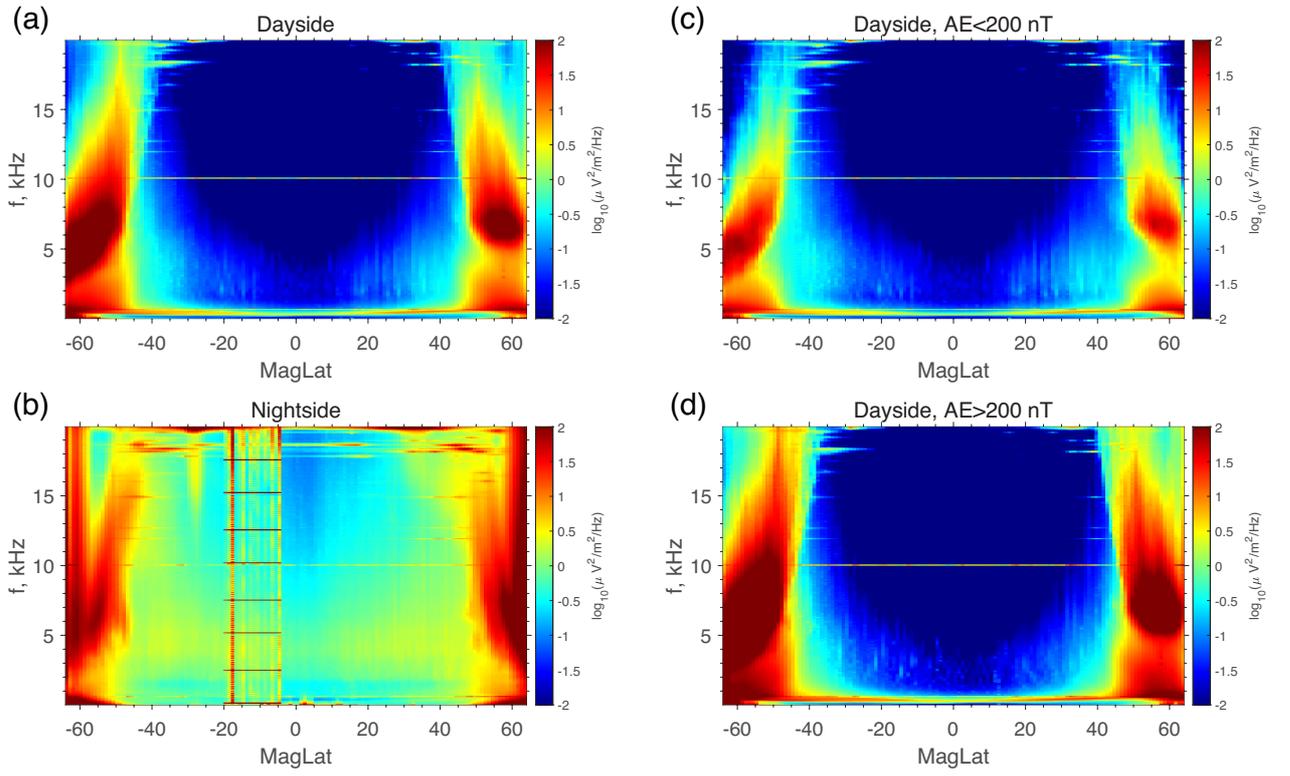


Figure 2. Mean electric wave power distribution versus frequency (y-axis) and magnetic latitude (x-axis) from the DEMETER observations for the dayside (a) and nightside (b), and for low AE (<200 nT) condition (c) and high AE (>200 nT) condition (d) on the dayside.

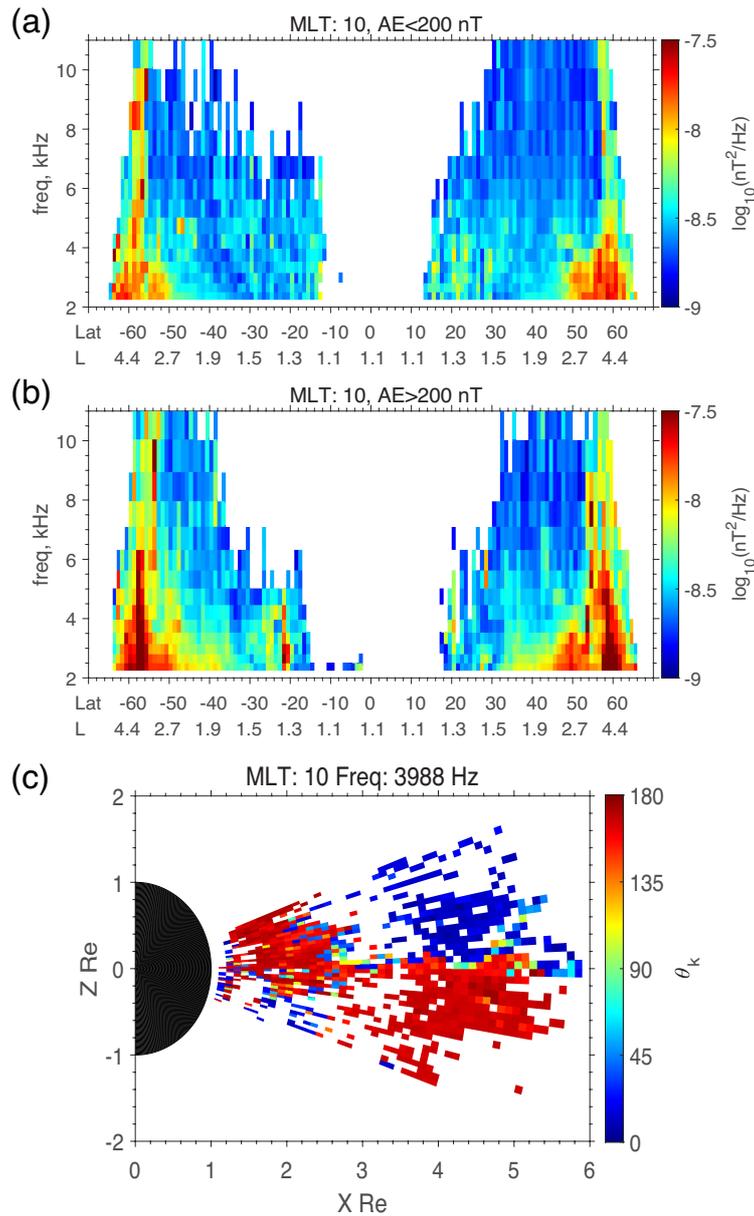


Figure 3. Median magnetic wave power distribution versus frequency (y-axis) and magnetic latitude of the 700km footprints and the corresponding dipole L shell (x-axis) from the Van Allen Probes observations on the dayside (MLT near 10) for low AE (<200 nT) condition (a) and high AE (>200 nT) condition (b). (c) is the meridional distribution of the median wave normal angle for a 3988 Hz wave.

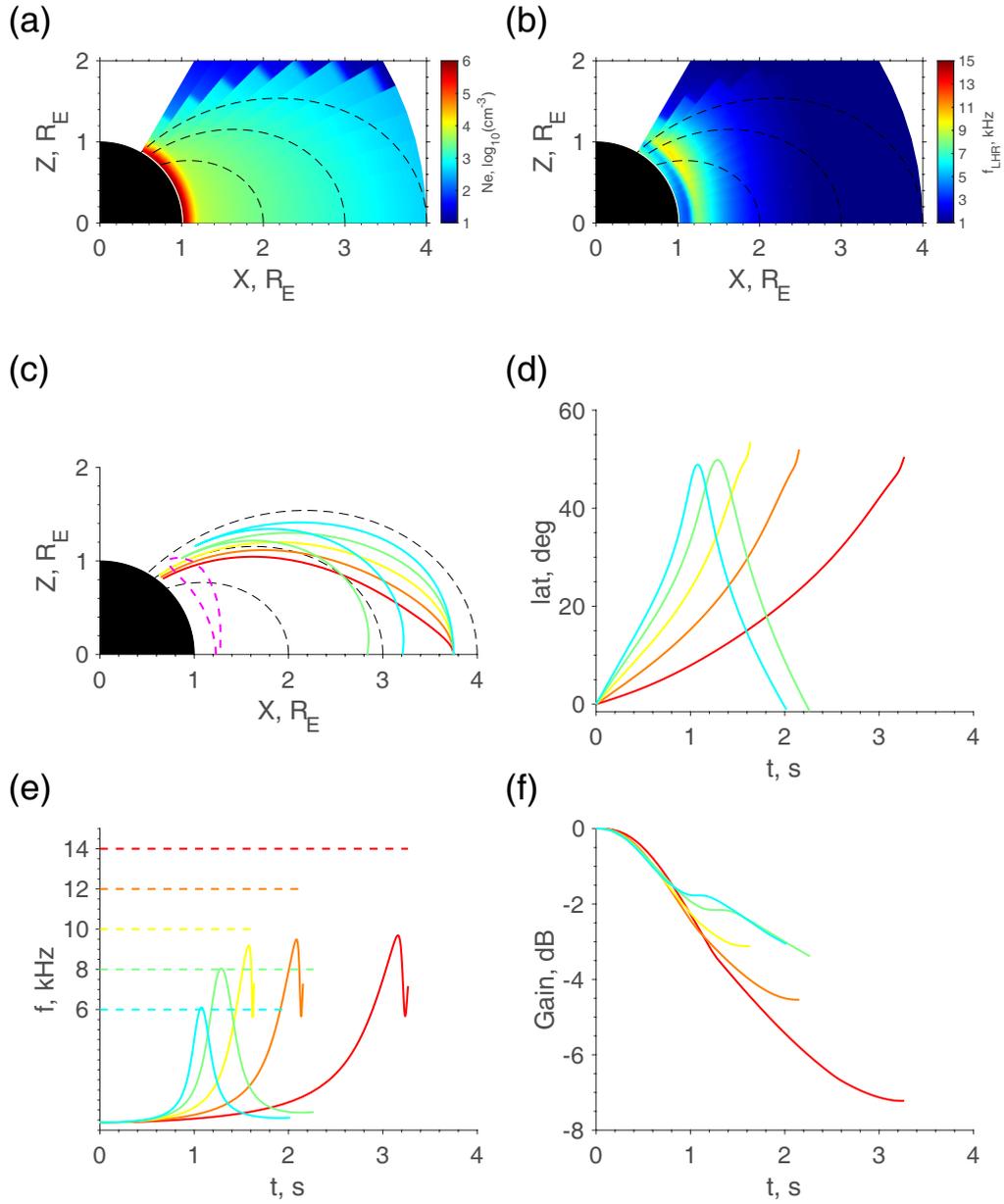


Figure 4. Ray tracing simulation results for waves that are launched at the equator and $L=3.75$ with frequencies from 6 to 14 kHz. (a) the distribution of the plasma density. (b) the distribution of the local f_{LHR} . (c) the ray paths of waves of different frequencies. (d) the variation of the rays' magnetic latitude, (e) the variation of the local f_{LHR} (solid lines) along the ray paths, with wave frequency also shown by dashed lines as comparison. (f) the variation of the path-integrated wave gain along the ray paths. A contour of $f_{LHR}=8$ kHz is overplotted as the magenta dashed line in (c).

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