Very low frequency radio events with a reduced

- ² intensity observed by the low-altitude DEMETER
- ³ spacecraft

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X - 2 ZÁHLAVA ET AL.: VLF RADIO EVENTS WITH REDUCED INTENSITY Abstract. We present results of a systematic study of unusual very low 4 frequency (VLF) radio events with a reduced intensity observed in the frequency-5 time spectrograms measured by the low-orbiting DEMETER spacecraft. They 6 occur exclusively on the nightside. During these events, the intensity of frac-7 tional hop whistlers at specific frequencies is significantly reduced. These fre-8 quencies are usually above about 3.4 kHz (second Earth-ionosphere waveg-9 uide cut-off frequency), but about 20% of events extend down to about 1.7 kHz 10 (first Earth-ionosphere waveguide cut-off frequency). The frequencies of a 11 reduced intensity vary smoothly with time. We have inspected 6.5 years of 12 DEMETER data and we identified in total 1601 such events. We present a 13 simple model of the event formation based on the wave propagation in the 14 Earth-ionosphere waveguide. We apply the model to two selected events, and 15 we demonstrate that the model is able to reproduce both the minimum fre-16 quencies of the events and their approximate frequency-time shapes. The over-17 all geographic distribution of the events is shifted by about 3000 km west-18 ward and slightly southward with respect to the areas with high long-term 19 average lightning activity. We demonstrate that this shift is related to the 20 specific DEMETER orbit, and we suggest its qualitative explanation by the 21 East-West asymmetry of the wave propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveg-22 uide. 23

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1. Introduction

More than 6 years (2004-2010) of electromagnetic data measured by the low-altitude 24 DEMETER spacecraft contain a significant number of interesting and not yet well un-25 derstood phenomena. An extensive overview of these was recently given by Parrot et al. 26 [2015]. We focus on the wave phenomenon shown in their Figure 12, i.e., very low fre-27 quency (VLF) wave events whose frequency-time spectrograms consist of many bands of 28 reduced intensity that are evidently about 0.2 kHz apart at 4 kHz and almost 1 kHz apart 29 at 10 kHz (Figure 1). Parrot et al. [2015] mentioned that these events are frequently 30 observed during the nighttime, and that they seem to be related to the thunderstorm 31 activity. We provide a more detailed discussion of the event formation and properties 32 in the present paper, along with a systematic analysis of the event occurrence. We also 33 develop a simple model of the event formation, and we demonstrate its performance for 34 two selected events. 35

Parrot et al. [2008] and Mazouz et al. [2011] reported curious events observed by the 36 DEMETER spacecraft whose form in the frequency-time spectrograms resembled a V-37 shape signature. They occurred at times when the satellite was passing above regions with 38 a strong lightning activity (tens of lightning strokes per second), and they were shown 39 to be related to the propagation of lightning generated waves in the Earth-ionosphere 40 waveguide prior to their leakage to the DEMETER altitudes (about 700 km). Although a 41 full-wave propagation code has been used to simulate detailed properties of these events 42 [Parrot et al., 2008], the basic principle of their formation can be understood in terms of 43 the waveguide mode theory [Budden, 1961]. 44

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Considering only transverse magnetic (TM) modes, which are excited by mostly verti-45 cal lightning currents, only the waves of the zero-order transverse magnetic (TM0) mode 46 can propagate at frequencies below the first waveguide critical frequency (which is typi-47 cally close to 1.7 kHz during the nighttime). At frequencies above the waveguide critical 48 frequency, an additional mode (TM1) can propagate. This usually results in a clearly 49 identifiable boundary in frequency-time spectrograms measured by DEMETER, as the 50 intensity of lightning generated whistlers at frequencies higher than the waveguide critical 51 frequency is much larger than their intensity below it [Toledo-Redondo et al., 2012]. At 52 frequencies higher than the second waveguide critical frequency, there is an additional 53 waveguide mode, TM2, etc. The individual waveguide modes propagate with different 54 frequency-dependent phase speeds. When the resulting wave intensity is evaluated as the 55 sum over all possible wave modes, they interfere with phase differences dependent upon 56 the frequency and the length of the propagation path, which results in periodic variations 57 of the intensity of the detected signal [e.g., Cummer, 2000]. We believe that the same 58 mechanism is responsible for the formation of the events with a reduced intensity reported 59 in this paper. However, in contrast to the formerly reported V-shaped events, these re-60 duced intensity events are formed at considerably larger distances from the source storms. 61 This results in their different spectral shape. Also, their occurrence rate is significantly 62 higher, as there is no need for the spacecraft to pass almost over the storm for the events 63 to form. 64

⁶⁵ Our results show that lightning generated signals are powerful enough to propagate ⁶⁶ over large distances in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide, exit it, and penetrate through the ⁶⁷ ionosphere far from the source thunderstorm. As a result of the interference of different

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⁶⁸⁸ waveguide modes of the propagating signals, the frequency spectrum of a series of result⁶⁹⁹ ing whistlers sometimes exhibits a characteristic strip-like pattern. This is potentially
⁷⁰ important for all studies of lightning effects on the Earth's electromagnetic environment.
⁷¹ The data that we have used in the present study are described in section 2. The obtained
⁷² results are presented in section 3, and they are discussed in section 4. Finally, section 5
⁷³ contains a brief summary.

2. Data set

The DEMETER spacecraft operated between 2004 and 2010. It had a nearly circular orbit with an altitude of about 700 km. The orbit was nearly polar and quasi Sunsynchronous, so that DEMETER measurements were performed either shortly before the local noon (about 11:30 LT) or shortly before the local midnight (about 22:30 LT). The exact distribution of local times can be found in Figure 1 of *Němec et al.* [2010].

The DEMETER spacecraft was equipped with both electric field instruments *Berthelier* 79 et al., 2006] and magnetic field instruments [Parrot et al., 2006]. However, the magnetic 80 field data contain a significant amount of spacecraft interferences, and only electric field 81 data are thus used in the present study. In the VLF range (up to 20 kHz), onboard 82 calculated frequency-time spectrograms of one electric field component are available. The 83 measurements are continuous in time, but they are restricted to geomagnetic latitudes 84 lower than about 65°. The frequency resolution of the spectrograms is 19.53 Hz (i.e., 1024) 85 frequency channels between 0 and 20 kHz), and the time resolution is 2.048 s. Moreover, 86 waveforms of one electric field component with the sampling frequency of 40 kHz are 87 available during the Burst mode, which was active above locations of a special interest. 88

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In addition to the electromagnetic wave data measured by the DEMETER spacecraft, 89 we made use of the lightning data from the Lightning Imaging Sensor/Optical Transient 90 Detector (LIS/OTD). The used 2.5 Degree Low Resolution Annual/Diurnal Climatology 91 (LRADC) v2.2 is a $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ gridded composite of climatological total (intra-cloud and 92 cloud to ground) lightning bulk production as a function of local hour, expressed as a 93 flash rate density (flashes/km²/year). This is a combination of climatologies from the 94 5-year OTD (April 1995 – March 2000) and 8-year LIS (January 1998 – December 2005) 95 missions. Best available detection efficiency corrections and instrument cross normaliza-96 tions, as of the product generation date (2009/01/06), have been applied [Christian et al., 97 2003]. The data were recalculated to reflect only the local time intervals corresponding 98 to the DEMETER spacecraft measurements, i.e., 8.7–11.7 hours local time (daytime) and 99 20.7–23.7 hours local time (nighttime) [Němec et al., 2010]. Moreover, the World Wide 100 Lightning Locations Network (WWLLN) data were used for selected time intervals. These 101 provide us with locations and times of lightning strokes which occurred all over the world 102 during the selected time intervals [Lay et al., 2004; Rodger et al., 2004]. 103

An example frequency-time spectrogram of power spectral density of electric field fluctu-104 ations corresponding to one of the observed reduced intensity events is shown in Figure 1. 105 The data were measured during a nighttime half-orbit on 7 February 2007. The frequen-106 cies of reduced intensity observed above about 4 kHz first decrease with time, then there is 107 an apparent about 7 minutes long gap in the event, and finally the frequencies of reduced 108 intensity increase with time. The white vertical dashed line at about 03:41 UT corresponds 109 to the time when DEMETER crossed the geomagnetic equator. The apparent gap in the 110 event, when the intensity of the detected emissions significantly decreases, occurs about 111

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¹¹² at the time of the geomagnetic equator crossing. Taking into account (as we demonstrate ¹¹³ further) that the observed emissions are lightning generated whistlers [*Helliwell*, 1965], ¹¹⁴ the decrease of the emission intensity can be likely explained by the lower efficiency of the ¹¹⁵ wave penetration through the ionosphere in this region [e.g., *Němec et al.*, 2008]. Black ¹¹⁶ bars at the top of Figure 1 mark the time intervals when the Burst mode was active and ¹¹⁷ high-resolution data were available.

A noteworthy feature of the example reduced intensity event is that the frequency 118 spacing between the frequencies of reduced intensity increases with the frequency, which 119 turns out to be the case for all identified events. At higher frequencies, the frequency 120 spacing becomes rather large, and the intensity of the emissions quite low, so that it 121 is difficult to properly determine the upper frequency boundary of the event. For this 122 particular event we can estimate the upper frequency to be equal to about 14 kHz. One 123 can also identify the waveguide critical frequency of about 1.7 kHz, where the intensity 124 of the observed emissions has a rather sharp intensity cut-off [Toledo-Redondo et al., 125 2012, indicating that the emissions are indeed affected by the propagation in the Earth-126 ionosphere waveguide. 127

¹²⁸ Curiously, the reduced intensity event from Figure 1 is accompanied by additional bands ¹²⁹ of reduced intensity between about 1.8 and 2.5 kHz, which occur shortly before the time of ¹³⁰ the apparent gap in the emissions (around 03:35 UT). As this additional reduced intensity ¹³¹ event is too weak to be seen properly in Figure 1, a zoomed frequency-time spectrogram ¹³² corresponding to the interval marked by the white rectangle is shown in Figure 2a. The ¹³³ additional reduced intensity event can be seen in the area marked by the white rectangle ¹³⁴ in Figure 2a. It starts just above the waveguide critical frequency at about 1.7 kHz.

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The main reduced intensity event then starts at frequencies of about 3.5 kHz, which approximately corresponds to the second waveguide critical frequency.

Geographic locations of the DEMETER spacecraft during the time interval analyzed 137 in Figure 1 are shown in Figure 2b by a thin curve. The part of the DEMETER orbit 138 corresponding to the zoomed interval from Figure 2a is shown by the solid red rectangle. 139 The parts of the spacecraft orbit where the Burst mode was active are shown by thick black 140 curves. We note that DEMETER moved from the South to the North (as is the case for 141 all nighttime half-orbits). We selected the first Burst mode interval from Figure 1 to plot a 142 detailed frequency-time spectrogram of this part of the event, in order to demonstrate that 143 it is really formed by lightning generated whistlers. Detailed frequency-time spectrogram 144 of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations corresponding to the whole Burst 145 mode interval is shown in Figure 3a. Figure 3b then shows a very detailed frequency-time 146 spectrogram corresponding to a 5 s long time interval marked by the black bar on the top 147 of Figure 3a. 148

It can be seen that the emissions forming the event consist of many consecutive lightning 149 generated whistlers, which are significantly attenuated at some specific frequencies. This 150 clearly demonstrates that the events are really formed due to a selective reduction of 151 the wave intensity at some specific frequencies rather than due to a frequency-dependent 152 source. The dispersion of the whistlers is rather low, meaning that they were dispersed 153 only during their passage from the Earth-ionosphere waveguide through the ionosphere 154 (fractional hop 0+ whistlers). The frequencies of reduced intensity are nearly constant 155 on time/spatial scales analyzed in Figure 3, but they change considerably on time/spatial 156 scales analyzed in Figure 1. 157

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We note that using a single spacecraft one cannot in general directly distinguish between spatial and temporal variations of analyzed phenomena. Nevertheless, as we demonstrate further, in the case of the reduced intensity events the variations are spatial (i.e., due to the spacecraft movement) rather than temporal. Essentially, we believe that many lightning occurring at about the same place (source storm) are needed to form a reduced intensity event. The shape of the reduced intensity event is then related to the spacecraft

movement with respect to the source storm, i.e., to the varying distance across which the

¹⁶⁵ lightning generated emissions have to propagate in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide.

We visually inspected all VLF Survey mode data measured by the DEMETER space-166 craft during the whole duration of its mission (2004–2010) for the presence of reduced 167 intensity events. This inspection was done using spectrograms of whole DEMETER half-168 orbits, which individually corresponded to about 35 minutes of data. The frequency range 169 was from 0 to 20 kHz, the same for all the spectrograms. The power spectral density scale 170 was also fixed, ranging from 10^{-3} to $10^2 \ \mu V^2 \ m^{-2} \ Hz^{-1}$. The events are found to occur 171 exclusively during the nighttime half-orbits. Altogether, 1601 reduced intensity events 172 were identified in 28,670 nighttime spectrograms, thus occurring in about 6% of all night-173 time orbits. Among these, 312 events were accompanied by additional reduced intensity 174 events at lower frequencies, as described above for the example case in Figure 1 at about 175 03:35 UT. For each event, we have recorded its minimum and maximum frequencies and 176 its beginning and ending times. Moreover, the times when the system of reduced intensity 177 curves reached their minimum frequency were recorded for each event. These parameters 178 were used as a starting point for the further analysis. 179

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3. Results

A histogram of event durations as they were observed by DEMETER is shown in Figure 4. It can be seen that the events typically last from about 5 to 10 minutes. However, some events may last for as long as 30 minutes, i.e., principally a whole DEMETER half-orbit. Taking into account the spacecraft orbit, one can try to estimate the corresponding spatial dimensions. Namely, DEMETER moves by about 3.7 latitudinal degrees per minute, corresponding to some 400 km per minute. The typical dimensions of the observed reduced intensity events are thus between 2000 and 4000 km.

The frequencies of the reduced intensity events are analyzed in Figure 5. The frequency 187 resolution of our analysis is 0.5 kHz. Unfortunately, it is not possible to achieve a better 188 frequency resolution, as it is often difficult to determine the exact minimum and maximum 189 frequencies of the events. Figure 5a shows a histogram of the minimum frequencies of the 190 events. It can be seen that the minimum frequencies of the events range from 3 to 4 kHz. 191 Taking into account the limited frequency resolution, this range of frequencies is consistent 192 with the second critical frequency of the Earth-ionosphere waveguide, which is equal to 193 about 3.4 kHz during the night. A histogram of maximum frequencies of the events is 194 shown in Figure 5b. The distribution is rather broad, peaking at about 9 kHz. We note 195 that the broadness of the distribution is at least partially caused by the typically fuzzy 196 upper boundary of the events and the related inaccurracy of its identification. Finally, 197 Figure 5c shows a histogram of minimum frequencies of lower-frequency reduced intensity 198 events, which sometimes occur along with the normal reduced intensity events. It can be 199 seen that the identified lower frequencies of these events are either 1.5 kHz or 2.0 kHz, 200

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i.e., they are consistent with the first critical frequency of the Earth-ionosphere waveguide,
which is equal to about 1.7 kHz during the night.

Geographic locations of all 1601 reduced intensity events are shown in Figure 6a. For 203 each event, the location is determined by the location of the DEMETER spacecraft at 204 the time of the minimum frequency of the system of lines. As we show further, this 205 location corresponds to the spacecraft location at the time when it was closest to the 206 source storm. Number of events in each $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ bin is color coded according to the 207 scale on the top. Three areas of enhanced event occurrence can be identified. One of 208 these areas is located in the equatorial region to the West of the Central Africa. Other 209 two areas of increased event occurrence are located to the West of America, one in the 210 northern and one in the southern hemisphere. The distribution of geographic locations of 211 the additional reduced intensity events at lower frequencies which sometimes occur along 212 with the normal reduced intensity events are very similar to the locations of the normal 213 reduced intensity events shown in Figure 6a. Taking into account that the events are due 214 to the intensity modulation of lightning generated whistlers, it is interesting to compare 215 event and lightning locations. Although the event formation is related to an intense 216 localized thunderstorm rather than global lightning activity, it is instructive to compare 217 their global occurrence with the long-term average lightning activity from LIS/OTD. For 218 this purpose, the average lightning activity in the local time interval 20.7–23.7 hours 219 (i.e., the local time interval corresponding to the DEMETER nightside measurements) is 220 plotted in Figure 6b. The average number of lightning strokes per square kilometer per 221 year in each $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ bin is color coded according to the scale on the top. 222

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One can identify three main areas of an increased lightning activity. These are located 223 in the Central Africa and in both North and South America. We note that the lightning 224 distribution varies during the year, with lightning activity being enhanced during the 225 months corresponding to the local summer (depending on the hemisphere). However, for 226 our purpose the overall average lightning activity is sufficient. Comparing Figures 6a and 227 6b, one can see that the three areas of increased occurrence of the reduced intensity events 228 appear to be related to the three areas of increased lightning activity, but they are shifted 229 in the western direction. Moreover, the two areas of increased occurrence of the reduced 230 intensity events close to America appear to be shifted also in the southern direction. 231

The fact that the reduced intensity events do not occur at locations of the highest 232 lightning activity but they are somewhat shifted can be likely explained by a hypothesis 233 that the lightning generated emissions need to propagate some distance in the Earth-234 ionosphere waveguide to form the reduced intensity events. However, in order to try to 235 understand the positional shift of the reduced intensity events with respect to the lightning 236 locations, one needs to take into account the orbit of the DEMETER spacecraft. This orbit 237 is nearly polar and quasi Sun-synchronous, with the satellite moving from the South to 238 the North and slightly to the West on the nightside. The shape of a DEMETER nightside 239 half-orbit is shown in Figure 7a. It was moved arbitrarily in the East-West direction in 240 order to go through the longitude equal to zero at the equator. Hypothesizing that the 241 locations of reduced intensity events plotted in Figure 6a correspond to the positions when 242 the spacecraft was closest to the source storms, and that the reduced intensity events are 243 typically formed at some characteristic distance from the source storm, this analysis can 244 help us to at least partly understand the positional shift of the reduced intensity events. 245

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When one assumes that the position of a reduced intensity event is defined by its 246 frequency minimum and that the distance between this position and a source storm would 247 be the lowest all over a given DEMETER half-orbit, it is clear that the line connecting the 248 location of the reduced intensity event and the source storm must be perpendicular to the 249 appropriate DEMETER half-orbit at the location of the reduced intensity event. Taking 250 into account the shape of DEMETER nightside half-orbits, and hypothesizing further that 251 the events are formed preferentially at some characteristic distance from the source storm, 252 this necessarily results in reduced intensity events formed either to the West/Southwest 253 from source storms or in reduced intensity events formed to the East/North-East from 254 source storms. Nevertheless, we can only guess why the reduced intensity events are 255 formed preferentially in the West/Southwest direction (see section 4). 256

As for the characteristic distance between reduced intensity events and source storms, 257 we can perform the analysis shown in Figure 7b. Assuming some value of the charac-258 teristic distance, we shift the lightning activity bins from Figure 6b by this distance in 259 the direction perpendicular to the DEMETER orbit at the resulting shifted location. 260 Out of the two possible solutions which fulfill this condition, we choose the shift in the 261 West/Southwest direction, corresponding to the observed situation. The resulting shifted 262 map of the average lightning activity from LIS/OTD is then compared with the map of 263 the event occurrence from Figure 6a. This allows us to determine such a characteristic 264 distance between reduced intensity events and source storms which results in the best vi-265 sual agreement between the two maps. It is found that this best-agreement characteristic 266 distance is equal to about 3000 km. The resulting map of lightning activity shifted using 267 the above described approach by 3000 km is shown in Figure 7b. A direct comparison of 268

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this shifted lightning map with the map of the event occurrence from Figure 6a shows a reasonable agreement. This means that the overall geographic distribution of the events is shifted by a characteristic distance and in a specific direction reflecting the DEMETER orbit with respect to the global lightning activity. Although this reveals a typical picture averaged over all the events, it is important to note that individual events may behave rather differently (see, e.g., the example event in Figure 8).

We have suggested that the formation of the reduced intensity events is related to the 275 propagation of lightning generated waves in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide prior to their 276 leakage to the DEMETER altitudes. In order to verify and demonstrate this idea in more 277 detail, we selected two well pronounced reduced intensity events for a detailed analysis. 278 The frequency-time spectrograms of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations 279 corresponding to these events are shown in Figures 8c and 9c, respectively. The first event 280 was measured on 29 March 2010 and the second event was measured on 22 September 281 The black horizontal lines in the figures show the frequencies of 1.7 kHz and 2007. 282 3.4 kHz, respectively, i.e., the frequencies corresponding to typical nightside waveguide 283 critical frequency and its double. The black vertical lines in the figures mark the times 284 when DEMETER gets closest to the source storms (see below). 285

The corresponding satellite orbits are shown in Figures 8a and 9a by the thin curves. The thick curves correspond to the parts of the orbits when the events were observed (i.e., to the time intervals plotted in the frequency-time spectrograms). We have used the WWLLN data to investigate the lightning activity during these time intervals. Numbers of lightning strokes detected by WWLLN during the event time intervals in $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ bins are color coded according to the scales at the top.

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The thin horizontal and vertical lines mark the positions of source storms. These were 292 determined using Figures 8b and 9b. In these figures, the distances between individual 293 lightning strokes detected by WWLLN and the DEMETER spacecraft are shown by the 294 black points as a function of time. If a single dominating localized storm was present 295 during the event occurrence, the individual points would lie close to a curve corresponding 296 to the spacecraft movement with respect to the storm center. This is indeed the case 297 in Figure 8b. The appropriate distance-time curve calculated assuming a source storm 298 located at the intersection of the thin horizontal and vertical lines in Figure 8a is shown 299 by the red curve. It can be seen that a substantial number of black points is well fitted by 300 this curve, indicating that the assumption of a dominating localized storm is reasonable. 301 The situation in Figure 9b is somewhat less clear. It is more complex, with several 302 different storms possibly playing a role. Nevertheless, a significant number of lightning 303 strokes lie close to the red curve, indicating that one of the storms can be probably again 304 considered as dominant. The black vertical line marks the time when DEMETER got 305 closest to the source storm. It is noteworthy that the minimum distance between the 306 spacecraft and the source storm is significantly lower in this event than it was in the 307 event from Figure 8. It is also noteworthy that the event from Figure 8 occurred to 308 the East from the source storm, as the events typically tend to occur to the West (see 309 above). Finally, we note that while the used approach allows us to determine the source 310 location in clear cases (Figure 8), it struggles with more complex events (Figure 9), and 311 it ultimately fails at the times of high lightning activity taking place simultaneously at 312 several locations. This is why it can be used for case studies, but it cannot provide us 313 with the overall distribution of source storm locations. 314

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Having identified the locations of the source storms, we can try, following a model 315 described by *Parrot et al.* [2008], to develop a simple model of the event formation using 316 an idealized waveguide mode theory. We consider a planar Earth surface and a planar 317 lower boundary of the ionosphere, and we assume that both are perfectly conducting. 318 Using the coordinate system where the Earth surface lies in the z = 0 plane and the 319 bottom of the ionosphere lies in the z = h plane, the electric field intensity E of a signal 320 with the frequency f and the wave vector $k = 2\pi f/c$ (c is the speed of light) at a horizontal 321 distance x from the source is then [Budden, 1961]: 322

$$E(f,x) \propto \exp(-ikx\cos\theta),$$
 (1)

where θ is the angle between the wave normal and the horizontal direction. It is, for a given waveguide mode number n, given by:

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$$kh\sin\theta = n\pi\tag{2}$$

We note that for a given waveguide mode number, only frequencies higher than the critical
 frequency

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$$f_n = \frac{nc}{2h} \tag{3}$$

³³⁰ can propagate in the waveguide.

For the purpose of our simple model calculation, we adopt a typical value of the nighttime waveguide critical frequency $f_1 = 1.7$ kHz. This corresponds to the effective waveguide height $h \approx 88$ km, and it is well consistent with the investigated frequency-time spectrograms (see the intensity cut-offs close to the lower horizontal black lines marking $f_1 = 1.7$ kHz in Figures 8c and 9c). The effective height of the waveguide may vary over the propagation path. This might be especially important close to the terminator where

the changes are expected to be substantial. However, in our simple model we consider the
 effective waveguide height to be constant.

Taking into account that higher-order modes are attenuated significantly more than 339 lower-order modes [e.g., Wait, 1962] and following Parrot et al. [2008], we limit, in the 340 first approximation, our calculation only to the first two modes (TM1 and TM2). The total 341 intensity of a signal at a distance x from the source is then calculated as a sum of these 342 two modes. The intensities of these two modes are described by complex dependencies 343 given by equations (1) and (2), considering n = 1 and n = 2, respectively. The two 344 modes interfere, and the resulting intensity of the signal at a given frequency changes 345 periodically with the distance from the source. Moreover, the resulting signal intensity at 346 a given distance from the source changes periodically with the frequency of the signal. It 347 is clear that, in our simplified model, this modulation occurs only at frequencies higher 348 than the critical frequency of the TM2 mode (equation (3) for n = 2), i.e., at frequencies 349 where both TM1 and TM2 modes can propagate. In order to get the interference below 350 the critical frequency of the TM2 mode and explain occasionally observed lower-frequency 351 reduced intensity events, one would have to consider the TM0 mode, and the interference 352 between TM0 and TM1 modes in our model. 353

We use this very simplified model of the modal interference in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide to calculate theoretical frequency-time spectrograms corresponding to the two selected reduced intensity events. The horizontal distance x of the signal propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide is considered to be equal to the distance between the source storm and the satellite projection on the ground. The intensities of TM1 and TM2 modes are assumed to be the same. The obtained results are shown in Figures 8d and 9d.

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It can be seen that the resulting modeled frequency-time spectrograms are comparable 360 to the shape of the measured spectrograms. The modeled patterns of frequencies with 361 a reduced intensity have a minimum at the time when DEMETER gets closest to the 362 source storm (marked by the black vertical line). Moreover, the modeled variation of the 363 frequencies with a reduced intensity is comparable with the observed situation. Finally, 364 the frequency separation between individual frequencies of reduced intensity increases as 365 a function of frequency, again in agreement with the observations. It is, however, clear 366 that the exact structure of the reduced intensity events cannot be properly reproduced by 367 our simple model. This can be particularly well seen at higher frequencies, where more 368 frequencies of reduced intensity are observed than predicted by the model. Moreover, the 369 data-model agreement for the event analyzed in Figure 9 is significantly worse than for 370 the event analyzed in Figure 8, particularly at the times when the DEMETER spacecraft 371 was close to the source storm. This will be discussed more in detail in section 4. 372

4. Discussion

Detailed frequency-time spectrograms available during the times of the active Burst 373 mode reveal that the reduced intensity events are composed by individual lightning gener-374 ated 0+ whistlers, whose intensity at some specific frequencies is significantly attenuated. 375 This attenuation, which is related to the propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide, 376 is in principle present any time DEMETER detects lightning generated whistlers which 377 experienced the propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide before penetrating the 378 ionosphere from below. However, in order to form a detectable reduced intensity event, 379 the whistler occurrence rate must be high enough to result in apparently nearly continu-380

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³⁸¹ ous smooth reduced intensity curves in the Survey mode data with the time resolution of ³⁸² 2 s.

The reduced intensity events were visually identified in frequency-time spectrograms of 383 power spectral density of electric field fluctuations. This visual identification is necessarily 384 partly subjective. Most importantly, only events which are sufficiently clear and which 385 last a sufficiently long time were identified. The event thus has to last sufficiently long 386 (on the order of minutes) and consist of a high number of individual whistlers (several per 387 second) in order to be properly identified. This inevitably limits the used data set to only 388 the best pronounced events. It is also likely the reason why no events with a very short 389 duration were identified. However, the events were systematically identified in all data 390 measured by the DEMETER spacecraft, and the – albeit sometimes rather subjective – 391 criteria of the event identification remained the same. Consequently, we believe that there 392 is no sampling bias in the sense that there is no reason why the resulting set of identified 393 events should prefer some specific times and/or locations. 394

The suggested model of the event formation based on the modal interference in the 395 Earth-ionosphere waveguide [Parrot et al., 2008] explains well some of basic event prop-396 erties. Considering that at least two wave modes have to be able to propagate at a given 397 frequency in order to interfere, one can directly explain the observed cut-off frequencies. 398 Taking into account that the typical value of the waveguide critical frequency during the 399 night is about 1.7 kHz, the lower frequency cut-off of the reduced intensity events at about 400 3.4 kHz is due to the fact that the TM2 mode necessary for the modal interference can 401 propagate only above this frequency. The only exception might be the modal interfer-402 ence between TM0 and TM1 modes, which is likely responsible for the formation of the 403

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lower-frequency reduced intensity events. These are, however, typically very weak and 404 they are observed only for comparatively short times. We note that the accuracy of the 405 cut-off determination from the experimental data is not very high (0.5 kHz). However, 406 the predicted cut-off frequencies are consistent with the observations. Another feature of 407 the reduced intensity events explainable by the simple modal interference model is the 408 fact that the frequency separation of the reduced intensity frequencies is larger at higher 409 frequencies. The analysis of two selected reduced intensity events reveals that also the 410 predicted frequency slope of the reduced intensity curves – related to the varying dis-411 tance between the satellite and the source storm - is in a reasonable agreement with the 412 observations. 413

The formation of the reduced intensity events and their basic properties thus seem 414 to be explainable by the modal interference. There are, however, two important points 415 that this simple model is not able to explain properly. First, it is the exact frequency 416 structure of the events. Particularly at higher frequencies the observed frequencies of 417 reduced intensity do not correspond to the predicted ones, and there is in general a 418 trend of more frequencies with a reduced intensity observed than predicted. This is likely 419 related to the fact that while our simplified calculation considers only first two waveguide 420 modes, there are additional modes occurring at higher frequencies. These higher modes 421 inevitably result to additional interference frequencies, and thus additional frequencies 422 with a reduced intensity in the frequency spectra. However, the exact consideration of 423 these higher order modes is complicated, as it would require the proper evaluation of 424 their intensities, i.e., one would have to consider both the attenuation of individual modes 425 during their propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide, and their relative excitation 426

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⁴²⁷ by the source lightning. Moreover, one should also consider that due to the not entirely ⁴²⁸ sharp lower boundary of the ionosphere the cut-off frequencies of individual waveguide ⁴²⁹ modes are not exactly harmonic [*Kumar et al.*, 2008]. A proper full wave analysis of ⁴³⁰ another similar event has been done by *Parrot et al.* [2008].

Another important observational fact which is not explainable by the simple modal in-431 terference model is the positional shift of the observed events with respect to the probable 432 source lightning locations. Specifically, although the observed West/South-West shift has 433 been shown to be related to the spacecraft orbit, it remains unexplained why it is so much 434 preferred as compared to the East/North-East shift, and why the events are formed prefer-435 entially at distances of about 3000 km from source lightning locations. In this regard one 436 should consider whether the average global lightning occurrence map used to determine 437 the positional shift is optimal, as it does not take into account the properties of individual 438 lightning neither their instantaneous occurrence rate, only the long-term average. These 439 can be, however, significantly different at different locations. It is, for example, known 440 that lightning observed above oceans are generally stronger and last longer than lightning 441 observed above land [Beirle et al., 2014]. On the other hand, land thunderstorms typically 442 have higher flash rates [Ushio et al., 2001]. Assuming that the thunderstorms/lightning 443 with some specific properties are more likely to generate the reduced intensity events, 444 and assuming that they are located at some specific regions, a comparison of the event 445 locations with the average lightning map may not be sufficient. However, a comparison 446 of the shifted average lightning map with the event locations shows a surprisingly good 447 agreement, indicating that the event observations to the West/South-West from the areas 448

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of enhanced average lightning occurrence are likely really due to emissions propagating
from these areas.

As for the explanation of the optimal positional shift direction and distance, we can only 451 speculate. It seems reasonable that the lightning generated emissions have to propagate in 452 the Earth-ionosphere waveguide for some distance, so that there is a phase shift between 453 individual waveguide modes, allowing for the negative interference at some frequencies. 454 Moreover, at larger distances higher order waveguide modes get attenuated, simplifying 455 thus the resulting interference pattern. The experimentally estimated optimum distance of 456 about 3000 km for the event occurrence might be a compromise between these effects and 457 the overall attenuation of the lightning generated emissions with distance, which prevents 458 the event formation at too large distances from source storms. The low intensity of 0+459 whistlers detected by the DEMETER spacecraft during the daytime caused by the large 460 ionospheric attenuation [e.g., Němec et al., 2008] is also likely the reason why reduced 461 intensity events are observed exclusively during the night. 462

Concerning the question why the West/South-West shift of the events with respect to 463 the storm locations is preferred as compared to the East/North-East shift, the situation 464 is even more complicated. There is an attenuation difference between the eastward and 465 westward propagation in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide. This asymmetry is introduced 466 by the Earth's magnetic field, which results in the azimuthally dependent attenuation. 467 The waves exhibit larger attenuation when propagating westward than when propagating 468 eastward [Crombie, 1958; Barber and Crombie, 1959; Dobrott and Ishimaru, 1961; Budden, 469 1968; Jacobson et al., 2012; Burkholder et al., 2013]. Recent experimental results obtained 470 using the WWLLN data showed that the average daytime attenuation of spherics in the 471

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⁴⁷² 8–18 kHz band propagating in the Earth-ionosphere waveguide over the water is $1.13 \pm$ ⁴⁷³ 0.35 dB/Mm and 2.98 ± 0.68 dB/Mm for eastward-propagating and westward-propagating ⁴⁷⁴ spherics, respectively [*Hutchins et al.*, 2013]. These values are well comparable with former ⁴⁷⁵ experimentally determined attenuation rates [*Taylor*, 1960]. During the nighttime, the ⁴⁷⁶ average attenuation rates are 0.71 ± 0.68 dB/Mm and 2.66 ± 0.39 dB/Mm for eastward ⁴⁷⁷ and westward propagation, respectively [*Hutchins et al.*, 2013].

It is, however, not clear how exactly this asymmetric attenuation in the waveguide 478 should result in the asymmetric shift of the event locations. Roughly speaking, it might 479 be possible that for a reduced intensity event to occur, a single localized storm must be 480 a dominant source of emissions detected by the spacecraft. If the spacecraft is located to 481 the east of the storm centers, this might be difficult to achieve, as lightning originating 482 at several different storms are detected at the same time due to the low attenuation in 483 the waveguide. On the other hand, if the spacecraft is located to the west of the storm 484 centers, a single source storm might possibly dominate, as the lightning originating at 485 other, more distant, storms are sufficiently attenuated not to play a role in the event 486 formation. Let us assume two storms with the same flash rate and lightning intensity. 487 Considering the fixed scale of frequency-time spectrograms used for the identification 488 of events $(10^{-3} \text{ to } 10^2 \ \mu\text{V}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1})$, the power spectral density of resulting whistlers 489 should differ by about 5 dB for the whistlers from one storm to be sufficiently dominant. 490 Taking into account the average nighttime attenuation rates reported by Hutchins et al. 491 [2013], the storm-spacecraft distances would have to differ by about 7000 km for the waves 492 propagating eastward, but by less than 2000 km for the waves propagating westward. The 493 event from Figure 8 might be well consistent with this picture. Although it occurred to 494

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the East from the source storm, other storms at that time were clearly too weak and distant to affect the situation.

Another possibility to explain the westward rather than eastward shift of the event 497 locations with respect to the lightning locations might be to consider the terminator effects 498 on the Earth-ionosphere waveguide propagation. DEMETER nighttime observations take 499 place around 22:30 LT. The average spatial separation of the observed events from the 500 terminator therefore approximately is 7500 km. Taking into account the spatial separation 501 of the observed events from the source storms of about 3000 km, the propagation path is 502 generally entirely nighttime, with likely quite uniform Earth-ionosphere waveguide. Thus, 503 this excludes the influence of the terminator effects. 504

5. Conclusions

We demonstrated the existence of unusual events with a reduced intensity present in 505 the electromagnetic wave data measured by the DEMETER spacecraft in the VLF range. 506 It was demonstrated that these events are formed by 0+ whistlers whose intensity is sig-507 nificantly attenuated at specific frequencies. When the whistler occurrence rate is high 508 enough, the smooth variation of the frequencies with a reduced intensity results in distinct 509 curves of reduced intensity which are identifiable in frequency-time spectrograms. Such 510 reduced intensity events were identified by a systematic inspection of all available DEME-511 TER data, resulting in a data set of 1601 events. About 20% of cases are accompanied 512 by additional reduced intensity events observed at lower frequencies. The events occur 513 exclusively during the night. 514

⁵¹⁵ We have suggested a simple model of the event formation based on modal interference ⁵¹⁶ of lightning generated electromagnetic waves propagating in the Earth-ionosphere waveg-

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⁵¹⁷ uide, and we applied this model to two selected events. The model is able to reproduce ⁵¹⁸ some of the observed event characteristics (minimum cut-off frequencies, approximate ⁵¹⁹ frequency-time shape of events).

The overall geographic distribution of the events is shifted by about 3000 km westward and slightly southward with respect to the areas with high long-term average lightning activity. We demonstrated that this shift is related to the specific DEMETER orbit. The optimum distance of the shift is likely a compromise between the necessity to attenuate higher order waveguide modes and the overall attenuation of the emissions with distance. The West/South-West shift might be preferred as compared to the East/North-East shift due to the azimuthal asymmetry of the waveguide attenuation.

Lightning generated whistlers thus routinely penetrate through the ionosphere at dis-527 tances as large as a few thousand of kilometers from the source storm. This is a much 528 larger region than is typically assumed when considering the effect of a single thunderstorm 529 on the ionosphere and magnetosphere. Due to the propagation in the Earth-ionosphere 530 waveguide the frequency spectrum of a series of whistlers coming from an isolated thun-531 derstorm sometimes shows a characteristic modulation which can be explained by the 532 interference of different waveguide modes of propagating signals. This specific pattern 533 of the whistler frequency spectrum should be considered when evaluating the effects of 534 lightning on the Earth's electromagnetic environment and/or energetic particles. 535

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satellite lightning data were produced by the NASA LIS/OTD Science Team (Princi-540 pal Investigator, Dr. Hugh J. Christian, NASA/Marshall Space Flight Center) and are 541 available from the Global Hydrology Resource Center (http://ghrc.msfc.nasa.gov). The 542 authors wish to thank the World Wide Lightning Location Network (http://wwlln.net), 543 a collaboration among over 50 universities and institutions, for providing the lightning 544 location data used in this paper. The work of JZ and FN was supported by GACR grant 545 15-01775Y. The work of OS and IK was supported by CAS grant M100421206 and GACR 546 grant 14-31899S. 547

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Figure 1. Frequency-time spectrogram of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations corresponding to one of the observed events. The frequencies of reduced intensity first decrease with time, then there is an apparent gap in the event, and, finally, the frequencies of reduced intensity increase with time. The data were measured on 7 February 2007. The white vertical dashed line at about 03:41 UT corresponds to the time when DEMETER crossed the geomagnetic equator. Black bars on the top mark the time intervals when the Burst mode was active and high-resolution data were available.

Figure 2. (a) Zoomed frequency-time spectrogram of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations corresponding to the interval marked by the white rectangle in Figure 1. The white rectangle marks an additional faint reduced intensity event at lower frequencies. (b) Map showing the DEMETER locations during the time interval analyzed in Figure 1 (thin curve). The part of the DEMETER orbit corresponding to the zoomed interval from panel a) is shown by the solid red rectangle. Parts of the DEMETER orbit with the active Burst mode are shown by the thick black curves. Note that DEMETER moved from the South to the North.

Figure 3. (a) Detailed frequency-time spectrogram of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations corresponding to the first Burst mode interval from Figure 1. (b) Detailed frequency-time spectrogram corresponding to a 5 s long time interval marked by the black bar on the top of panel a).

Figure 4. Histogram of the observed event durations.

Figure 5. (a) Histogram of minimum frequencies of events. (b) Histogram of maximum frequencies of events. (c) Histogram of minimum frequencies of lower-frequency events. The frequency resolution of all these histograms is 0.5 kHz.

Figure 6. (a) Map of event locations. The location of a given event is determined as the location of the DEMETER spacecraft at the time of the minimum of the event frequency dependence. Number of events in each $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ bins is color coded according to the scale on the top. (b) Average lightning activity from LIS/OTD between in the local time window 20.7–23.7 hours is color coded according to the scale at the top. This local time range corresponds to DEMETER nighttime half-orbits.

Figure 7. (a) Trajectory corresponding to a DEMETER nightside half-orbit. (b) Map of lightning locations from LIS/OTD shifted by 3000 km in the West/South-West direction. The direction of the shift was determined in each location to be perpendicular to the DEMETER orbit at the resulting shifted location, i.e., the shifted location is the place where the DEMETER spacecraft gets closest to the original location.

Figure 8. (a) DEMETER orbit is shown by the thin curve. The thick curve corresponds to the part of the DEMETER orbit where the event was observed. Numbers of lightning strokes detected during this time interval by the WWLLN network in individual $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ bins are color coded according to the scale at the top. The thin horizontal and vertical lines mark the position of a source storm (see text). (b) Distances between individual lightning strokes detected by WWLLN and the DEMETER spacecraft are shown by the black points as a function of time. The red curve shows the distance between the DEMETER spacecraft and the location of the source storm. The black vertical line marks the time when DEMETER gets closest to the source storm. (c) Frequency-time spectrogram of power spectral density of electric field fluctuations corresponding to the event. The data were measured on 29 March 2010. (d) Model frequencytime spectrogram calculated using modal interference between TM1 and TM2 modes of the Earth-ionosphere waveguide.

Figure 9. The same as Figure 8, but for the event measured on 22 September 2007. Note that the situation is less clear than in Figure 8, with several different storms occurring in the vicinity of the DEMETER spacecraft at the time of the event. Also note that the DEMETER spacecraft passed very close to the source storm in this particular event.



















