



1 **Latitudinal variations of ionospheric-thermospheric** 2 **responses to Geomagnetic Storms from Multi-** 3 **Instruments**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Scintillations of transionospheric satellite signals during geomagnetic storms can severely threaten
22 navigation accuracy and the integrity of space assets. We analyze vertical Total Electron Content
23 (vTEC) variations from the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) at different latitudes
24 around the world during the geomagnetic storms of June 2015 and August 2018. The resulting
25 ionospheric perturbations at the low-and mid-latitudes are investigated in terms of the prompt
26 penetration electric field (PPEF), the equatorial electrojet (EEJ), and the magnetic H component
27 from INTERMAGNET stations near the equator. East and South-East Asia, Russia, and Oceania
28 exhibited positive vTEC disturbances, while South American stations showed negative vTEC
29 disturbances during both storms. We also analyzed the vTEC from the Swarm satellites and found
30 similar results to the GNSS retrieved vTEC during different phases of both geomagnetic storms.
31 Moreover, we observed that ionospheric plasma tended to increase rapidly during the afternoon in



the main phase of the storms. At nighttime, the ionosphere depicted an opposite behavior under similar conditions. The equatorial ionization anomaly (EIA) crest expansion to mid and high latitudes is driven by PPEF during daytime at the main and recovery phases of the storms. The magnetic H component exhibits a longitudinal behavior along with the EEJ enhancement near the magnetic equator.

Keywords: Ionosphere, Geomagnetic Storms, Total Electron Content, Prompt Penetration Electric Field

1. Introduction

The Sun trigger space weather events such as geomagnetic storms that can cause negative impacts on communication and navigation through transionospheric electromagnetic signals on the Earth. Geomagnetic storms result from large-scale disturbances of the Earth's magnetosphere under variable solar activity, leading to anomalous ionosphere variability. These disturbances occur at short-term scales (hours to a few days) and are usually triggered by Coronal Mass Ejection (CME), Co-rotating Interaction Regions (CIRs), or fast-moving solar wind streams. Anomalous ionospheric variations are observed during geomagnetic storms from plasma content variability during the geomagnetic storms of 6 April and 29 May 2010 (Joshua et al., 2011; Adebisi et al., 2012). Several studies have investigated the ionospheric variations during storms at different latitudes from satellite data (e.g., Fang et al. 2012; Adebisi et al. 2013; Calabia et al., 2022). Moreover, the seasonal variations and hemispherical ionospheric irregularities are also presented during geomagnetic storms (e.g., Tsurutani et al. 2004, Mannucci et al. 2005, Gao et al. 2008, Stankov et al. 2010). However, the overall perception of storm-time ionospheric variations across the different latitude ranges in both hemispheres is still uncertain.

Moreover, GNSS based TEC and in-situ data from multi-instruments describe the ionosphere abnormalities in different spatial and temporal resolution at different latitudes during solar and geomagnetic conditions (Chartier et al. 2018). The ionospheric irregularities have significant effects on GNSS signals in the low latitudes during main phase of the storm; however, the triggering reasons are unknown (Buchert et al. 2015; Xiong et al. 2016a). Transionospheric signal delay during storm conditions results in unacceptable GNSS positioning errors for practical



61 applications (e.g., Stankov et al. 2007, 2009; Warnant et al., 2007). Since the ionospheric delay in
62 GNSS signal is not yet corrected, the Global Ionospheric Maps (GIMs) of TEC from the
63 International GNSS Service (IGS) are an exceptional product to calibrate the ionospheric
64 correction and eliminate discrepancies from GNSS signal with the help of other multi-instrument
65 data.

66 Geomagnetic storms induce effects in the ionosphere at different latitudes and longitudes in the
67 form of electric field penetration from high to low latitudes due to PPEF. Furthermore, the
68 perturbations of global thermospheric circulation in high latitude induced joule-heating
69 enhancement during geomagnetic activity leading to Disturbed Dynamo Electric Fields (DDEF).
70 In the equatorial and low latitudes, the electrodynamics in the ionospheric E and F regions
71 influences the plasma distribution (Heelis, 2004). Field Aligned Current System (FACS) controls
72 the transfer of energy and momentum from the magnetosphere to the ionosphere in the form of
73 two clear shells (Binod et al. 2017). These two shells include regions 1 and 2 for higher and lower
74 latitudes connected through the ionosphere around the Earth, respectively. The neutral wind
75 dynamo induced polarized electric fields in the low latitude during dayside (night side) in eastward
76 (westward) direction (Fuller-Rowell, 2011). The horizontal component of magnetic field
77 corresponds to zonal electric field generates electrons upwelling due to $E \times B$ effect. As a result,
78 negatively and positively charged particles form on top and bottom of the ionospheric E region,
79 respectively. At an altitude of 90-130 km, the migration of electrons produces an electric current
80 known as the equatorial electrojet (EEJ).

81 Sharma et al. (2011) presented two enhanced peaks in TEC with twice in intensity as compared to
82 quiet days in low latitude region as storm-time responses of August 25, 2005. They showed that
83 the first peak in ionospheric TEC is due to PPEF and the second peak occurred due to plasma
84 fountain. Moreover, the PPEF influences along the longitudes showed nearly homogeneous effects
85 in the storm of August 25, 2005. On the other hand, the southward shifted interplanetary magnetic
86 field (IMF) B_z component induced the increased activity in the high-latitude convection. Previous
87 researches have provided insights on mid-latitude TEC enhancements during the initial phase of
88 geomagnetic storms as compared to main phase (Hargreaves, 1992; Araujo-Pradere et al. 2006).
89 For example, Astafyeva et al. (2016) showed the equatorial-and mid-latitudinal ionospheric TEC
90 during main phase of the storm at different part of the world from multi-instrument satellite data.



91 Similarly, Astafyeva et al. (2017) also assessed the effects of the June 2015 geomagnetic storm
92 with a comprehensive study using multiple satellite observations. They further demonstrated that
93 the storm had major effects on the ionosphere due to thermospheric winds in the low-and mid-
94 latitude regions. They also showed that dayside neutral mass density enhancement during storms
95 exceeded the quiet period in the thermosphere due to strong and robust PPEF influences the
96 ionosphere with significant variability. Moreover, Adebiyi et al. (2012) and Joshua et al. (2011)
97 reported an enhanced electron density in the African equatorial region during the geomagnetic
98 storms of 6 April and 29 May 2010.

99 Apart from above reports, positive and negative ionospheric anomalies due to geomagnetic storms
100 can significantly vary depending on the duration of the solar activity, season, latitude, local solar
101 time, etc., and each storm showed different characteristics. Clearly, we need to observe satellites
102 with multiple instruments in order to find the missing drivers (Araujo-Pradere et al. 2006;
103 Mannucci et al. 2008). This study comprises the understanding of the probable latitudinal
104 mechanisms that influence the variable ionosphere by studying the geomagnetic storms of June
105 2015 and August 2018 using multi-instrumental data. In the following section, we present a brief
106 description of the data and methods used in this study. Section 3 describes deeply the results, and
107 section 4 discuss the observed magnetosphere-thermosphere-ionosphere (MIT) coupling during
108 the storm. The last section summarizes the conclusions.

109 2. Data and Methods

110 In this paper, we study ionospheric response to the geomagnetic storms of 2015 and 2018 on global
111 scale to find out the source triggered the ionospheric variations. In particular, we analyze the 3-
112 hourly geomagnetic Kp index, the 1-min averaged electric Ey field, the IMF Bz component, the
113 solar wind velocity Vsw, the aurora AE index, the geomagnetic disturbance storm time index (Dst),
114 and the solar flux F10.7 index. The data is available at the Omni Web of NASA at
115 <http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. The beginning of a geomagnetic storm usually exhibits a prompt
116 decrease in the Dst index. The AE index can be used to study the energy transmitted to the auroral
117 ionosphere during the storm. The Kp index can provide a good description of the magnitude of the
118 storm; the range of Kp is between 0 to 9. The PPEF data is obtained from the real-time model of
119 the Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences website
120 <https://geomag.colorado.edu/real-time-model-of-the-ionospheric-electric-fields.html>.



121 The Global Ultraviolet Imager (GUVI) onboard the Thermosphere-Ionosphere-Mesosphere
 122 Energetics and Dynamics (TIMED) satellite senses far-ultraviolet emissions and provides
 123 thermospheric [O/N₂] ratio maps (Christensen et al., 2003). These maps are obtained from
 124 <https://guvitimed.jhuapl.edu/>. The [O/N₂] ratio is a measure of the electron density at the
 125 ionospheric F region; increases in N₂ decreases electron density (Prölss and Bird, 2010).

126 The TEC data from 15 different GNSS stations at low-mid and high-latitude regions were retrieved
 127 from the IONOLAB website, <https://www.ionolab.org/>. Fig. 1 shows the location of the GNSS
 128 stations used in this study and Table 1 details them. Slant TEC (STEC) is estimated as the number
 129 of free electrons in a square meter section along the line of sight between a GNSS satellite and
 130 receiver. The STEC units are TEC Units (TECU), where 1 TECU = 10¹⁶ electron/m². The STEC
 131 is obtained from IONOLAB and is processed by below equations (Arikan et al. 2008).

$$132 \quad \text{STEC} = \frac{f_1^2 f_2^2}{40.28(f_1^2 - f_2^2)} (L_1 - L_2 + \lambda_1(N_1 + b_1) - \lambda_2(N_2 + b_2) + \epsilon) \quad (1)$$

$$133 \quad \text{STEC} = \frac{f_1^2 f_2^2}{40.28(f_1^2 - f_2^2)} (P_1 - P_2 - (d_1 - d_2) + \epsilon) \quad (2)$$

134 In this equation, carrier phase frequencies are presented by f_1 and f_2 , pseudo-range is denoted as L ,
 135 the delay path of the signal of carrier phase observations is P , the signal wavelength is λ , and the
 136 ray path uncertainty is N . Here, d and b denote the biases of consequent signal pseudo-range and
 137 instrumental carrier phase, and ϵ is the random error in the signal. The STEC is converted to VTEC
 138 using the following equation (Shah et al. 2020):

$$139 \quad \text{VTEC} = \text{STEC} \times \cos\left(\arcsin\left(\frac{R \sin Z}{R + H}\right)\right) \quad (3)$$

140 In this equation, Z is the elevation angle of the satellite, and R and H are the Earth's radius and the
 141 ionosphere height, respectively (Klobuchar 1987).

142 **Table 1. The details of GNSS stations used to study ionospheric variations.**



	Region	Station	Receiver	Geographic Latitude (Longitude)	Geomagnetic Latitude (Longitude)	
					2015	2018
Low Latitude	South East Asia	Australia (COCO)	SEPT POLARX5	12.188°S (96.834°E)	21.62°S (168.89°E)	21.46°S (168.95°E)
		Indonesia (BAKO)	LEICA GR50	6.49°S (106.85°E)	16.13° S (179.44°E)	15.97°S (179.49°E)
		India (HYDE)	LEICA GRX1200G GPRO	17.417°N (78.551°E)	8.77°N (152.23°E)	8.92°N (152.26°E)
	South Asia	India (IISC)	SEPT POLARX5	13.021°N (77.570°E)	4.50° N (150.92°E)	4.64°N (150.9°E)
	Oceania	New Caledonia (KOUUC)	TRIMBLE NETR9	20.559°S (164.287°E)	25.48°S (119.59°W)	25.40°S (119.61°W)
		Ecuador (GLPS)	JAVAD TRE_G3TH	0.743°S (90.304°W)	8.49°N (17.89°W)	8.33°N (17.84°W)
	South America	French Guiana (KOUR)	SEPT POLARX5 TR	5.252°N (52.640°W)	14.31°N (20.55°E)	14.15° (20.58°E)
		Ecuador (RIOP)	TRIMBLE NETRS	1.651°S (78.651°W)	7.99N (6.09W)	7.83°N (6.05°W)
Mid Latitude	Oceania	New Zealand (AUCK)	TRIMBLE ALLOY	36.6.3°S (174.834°E)	39.58°S (105.37°W)	39.53°S (105.47°W)
	East Asia	Japan (STK2)	TRIMBLE ALLOY	43.529°N (141.845°E)	35.14°N (149.78°W)	35.29°N (149.69°W)
		Japan (USUD)	SEPT POLARX5	36.133°N (138.362°E)	27.51°N (151.98°W)	27.66°N (151.91°W)
	Eastern Europe and Russia	Russia (YSSK)	JAVAD TRE_3N	47.030°N (142.717°E)	38.69°N (149.55°W)	38.84°N (149.45°W)
	South America	Chile (SANT)	SEPT POLARX5	-33.150°S (70.669°W)	-23.29°S (1.78°E)	-23.46°S (1.81°E)
		Sweden (KIR0)	SEPT POLARX5	67.878°N (21.060°E)	65.26°N (115.42°E)	65.33°N (115.13°E)
High Latitude	Western Europe	Sweden (MAR6)	SEPT POLARX5	60.595°N (17.259°E)	59.04°N (106.40°E)	59.08°N (106.17°E)

143

144 Moreover, we also study the ionospheric indices from Swarm satellites to provide more evidence
 145 to vTEC variations from GNSS. The Swarm mission is comprised of three identical satellites,
 146 where Swarm A and C orbit at 440-460 km height and Swarm B track is at 520-530 km height.
 147 These satellites carry sophisticated magnetometers, an Electric Field instrument to measure
 148 electron density (N_e), and a GNSS receiver to provide vTEC. Moreover, all satellites have polar
 149 orbits with inclination angle of 87°- 88°. The vTEC data from Swarm is available at
 150 <https://vires.services>. The Swarm data was also analyzed during the different phases of both the
 151 storms.

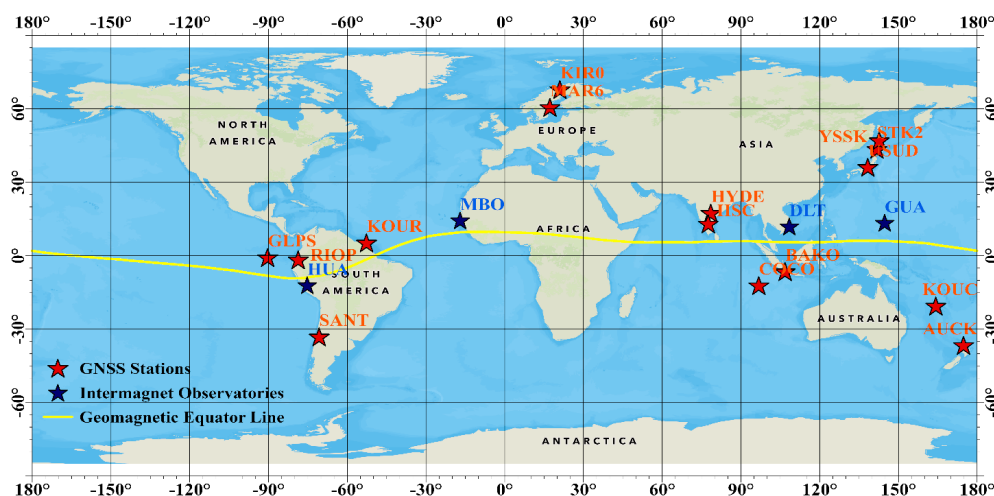


Fig. 1. Geographic location of GNSS and INTERMAGNET stations used in this study. The yellow line represents the magnetic equator. The corresponding coordinates are given in Table 1.

Furthermore, vTEC and dTEC from GNSS of IGS network is analyzed in bi-hourly temporal resolution and spatial resolution of 2.5° by 5° in latitude and longitude, respectively (Hernández-Pajares et al. 1999; Roma-Dollase et al., 2018). The maps are available in the IONEX (IONosphere map Exchange) format at the Crustal Dynamics Data Information System (CDDIS) Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) website <https://cddis.nasa.gov/index.html>.

In order to investigate the abrupt TEC anomalies during geomagnetic storms, the new empirical vTEC model of Calabia and Jin (2020, 2019) is used as quiet-time background. In this model, vTEC observables from 2003 to 2018 were reduced to a lower-dimensional through the principal component analysis, and the resulting time-expansion coefficients were parameterized in terms of solar and magnetospheric forcing, annual, and LST cycles. The quiet magnetospheric forcing is set during the geomagnetic index condition at $A_m=6$. In this scheme, the diurnal, annual, and solar cycle variations are eliminated, and the residuals mainly show the short-term variations due to magnetospheric forcing; i.e., those variations mainly caused due to geomagnetic storms. The Calabia and Jin model is available at <https://zenodo.org/record/3563463>.

The Earth's magnetic field components are obtained from the magnetometer stations near the magnetic equator. This data aims to help investigate the E region response during various phases



of the geomagnetic storms. The data at 1-min resolution is available at the INTERMAGNET network <http://intermagnet.org>. We employ data from the stations at HUA (America), GUA (Pacific Ocean), and MBO (Africa). The geographic and geomagnetic coordinates of the magnetometer stations are listed in Table 2, and their locations are shown in Figure 1. According to Biot and Savart's law, ground magnetic field perturbations can be an integral part of ionospheric and magnetospheric electric current (Shao et al., 2002; Le and Amoray-Mazaudier, 2005). The horizontal component (H) of geomagnetic field can be computed using the north (X) and east (Y) components of the magnetic field (i.e., $H = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$). The observed H component corresponds to the current flow into the magnetosphere-ionosphere systems (Cole, 1966). The equation is as follows:

$$H = S_R + D \quad (4)$$

In this equation, S_R and D represent the solar regular variations of Earth's magnetic field due to regular ionospheric dynamo and the combined effect of various current systems flowing in the MI system, respectively (Zaourar et al., 2017). According to Le and Amoray-Mazaudier (2005), the H component can be rewritten as follows:

$$H = H_0 + S_R + D_M + D_{iono} \quad (5)$$

In this equation, H_0 and S_R are Earth's core induced baseline magnetic field and regular variation of Earth's magnetic field on a given day, respectively. Whereas, magnetic field variations associated to magnetosphere and ionosphere currents are represented as D_M and D_{iono} , respectively. The D_{iono} is estimated as follows (Le and Amoray-Mazaudier, 2005):

$$D_{iono} = H - D_M - S_q \quad (6a)$$

$$D_{iono} = DP2 + D_{dyn} \quad (6b)$$

In this equation, D_{iono} consists on the combined effect caused by ionospheric disturbance due to polar currents (DP2) and dynamo currents (D_{dyn}) at low latitudes, DP2 is associated with PPEF, and D_{dyn} is associated with DDEF (Nishida, 1968; Le and Amoray-Mazaudier, 2005). D_M is calculated using the SYM-H index and the dip angle Φ as follows:

$$D_M = \text{SYM-H} * \cos(\Phi) \quad (7)$$



199 In equation 6a, S_q represents the average of selective quiet days (S_R). Here, 5 quiet days are
 200 considered to compute S_q . We average the H component as suggested by the German Research
 201 Center of Geosciences (GFZ) (<ftp://ftp.gfz-potsdam.de/pub/home/obs/kp-ap/quietdst/>). The results
 202 are shown in Table 3, and the equation of S_q is as follows:

$$203 \quad S_q = \langle H^{\text{quiet}} \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n H_i^{\text{quiet}} \quad (8)$$

204 The EEJ at each station is computed by differences of the H component inside and outside the EEJ
 205 region at similar longitudes. These differences are related to the contribution of the EEJ current
 206 (Anderson et al., 2004):

$$207 \quad \text{EEJ} = H_1 - H_2 \quad (9)$$

208 In equation 9, H_1 and H_2 are the average of H components inside and outside the EEJ region,
 209 respectively.

210



Table 2. The geographic and geomagnetic locations and magnetic dip angle of Magnetometer stations.

Region	Station Code	Geographic Latitude (Longitude)	Geomagnetic Latitude (Longitude)		Dip Angle	
			2015	2018	2015	2018
America	HUA	12.0686°S	2.31°S	2.48°S	-0.3612°	-0.8384°
		(75.2103°W)	(2.54°W)	(2.50°W)		
Pacific Ocean	GUA	13.4443°N	5.61°N	5.74°N	12.4583°	12.3219°
		(144.7937°E)	(143.57°W)	(143.52°W)		
Africa	MBO	14.4228°N	19.63°N	19.54°N	7.0608°	6.6283°
		(16.9654°W)	(58.13°E)	(58.12°E)		
Asia	DLT	11.9404°N	2.18°N	2.34°N	11.230°	11.6661°
		(108.4583°E)	(178.95°W)	(178.91°W)		

Table 3. The selected magnetic quiet day to calculate Sq during June 2015 and August 2018 storms.

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
June, 2015	20	5	2	4	3
August, 2018	6	14	10	13	23

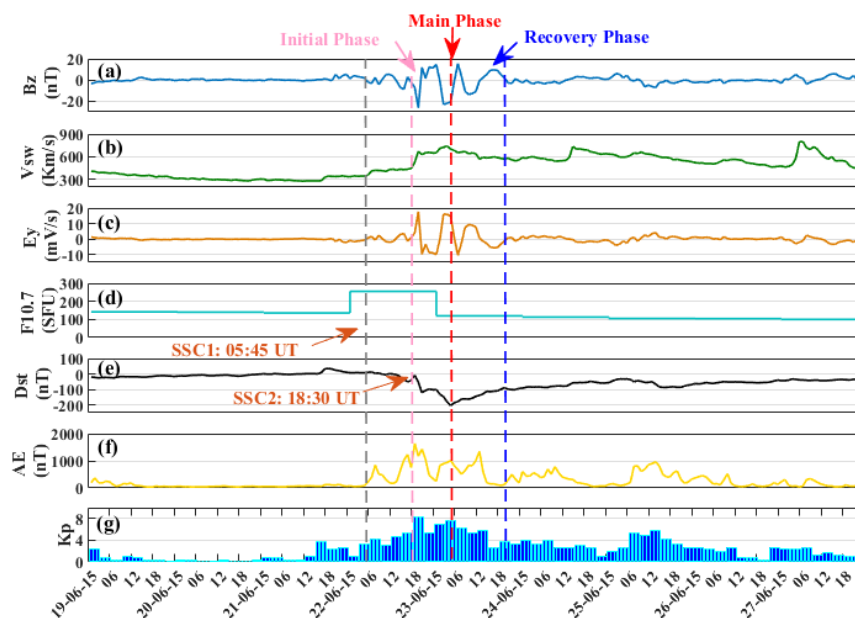
3. Results

3.1 The Geomagnetic Storms of June 2015 and August 2018

The geomagnetic storm of June 2015 occurred during the solar cycle 24, and it was the second largest known storm after the St. Patrick's storm. On 22 June 2015, two CMEs hit the Earth's magnetosphere at 05:45 UT and 18:35 UT. Figures 2-3 shows the Sudden Storm Commencement (SSC), where the different phases are classified on the basis of different storm indices. The IMF Bz component shows a sharp southward turning immediately after the SSC, followed by a second



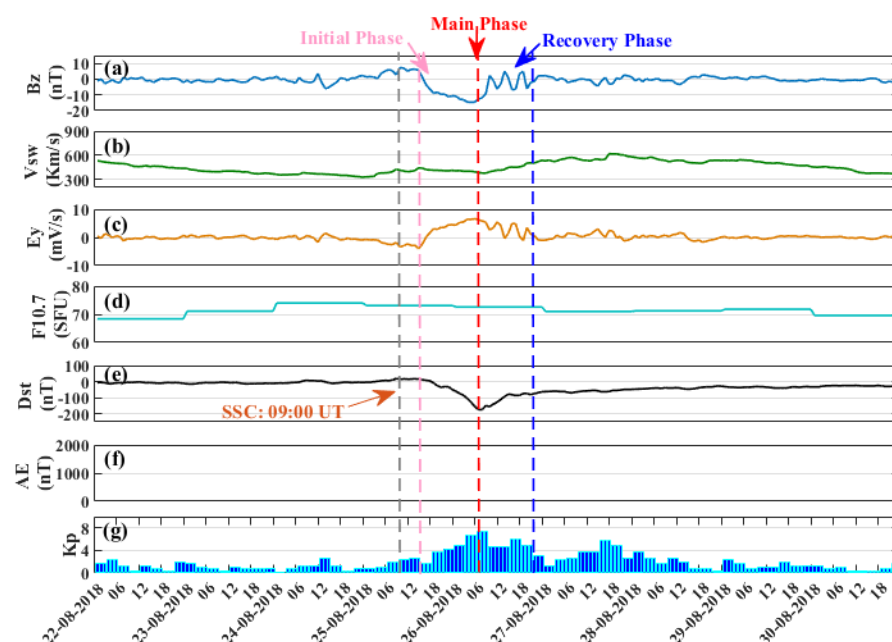
228 southward IMF Bz before the main phase. These IMF Bz turnings are associated with more than
 229 720 km/s speed of solar wind after the second SSC.



230

231 **Fig. 2.** Space weather indices for the storm of 22 June 2015. The SSCs are marked with red arrows
 232 and different phases of the storm are marked with vertical dashed lines.

233 The storm of August 2018 occurred due to a large CME ejection from the Sun on 20 August 2018
 234 (Figure 3). Formerly, scientist from the National Oceanic Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)
 235 called it a minor storm due slow speed stream but later on a G4 severe geomagnetic storm evolved
 236 as long term southward IMF Bz; i.e., from 15:55 h UT on 25 August to 09:45 h UT on 26 August,
 237 thus allowing a large number of particles entering the Earth's magnetosphere. The SSC initiated
 238 at 09:00 UT on 25August 2018 and, after 3 hours of the SSC, at 09:00 h UT, a rapid drop in Dst
 239 index was observed until 23:00 h UT on 23 August. The lowest Dst value was -203nT around
 240 07:00 h UT on 26 August.



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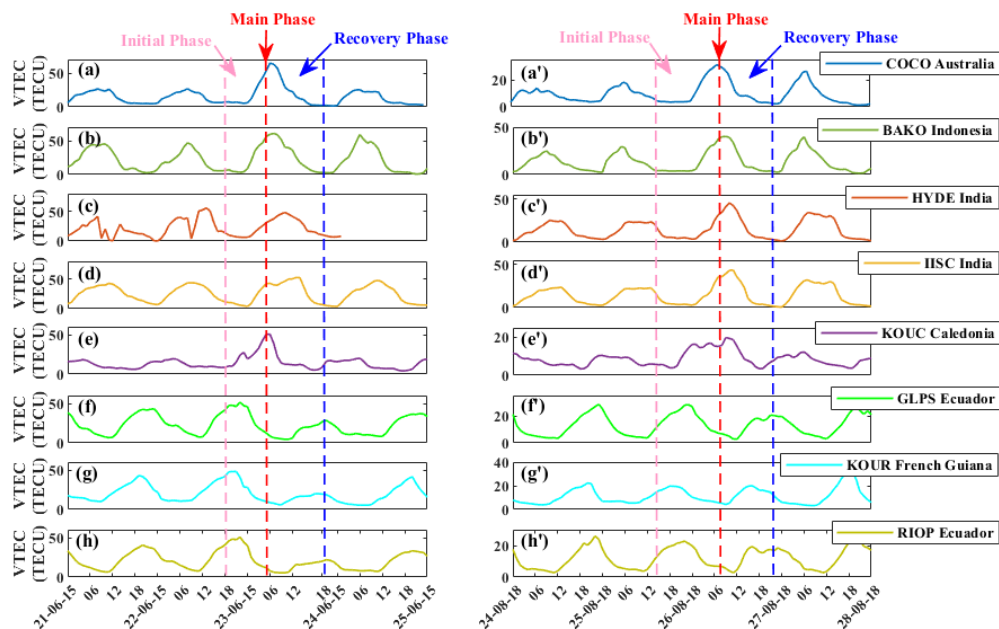
242 **Fig. 3.** Space weather indices during the storm of 26 August 2018 from OMNI web NASA. The
 243 SSC is marked with a red arrow and the different phases of the storm are marked with different
 244 color vertical dashed lines.

245 3.2 Ionospheric-Thermospheric Irregularities

246 The vTEC variations occurred at low-latitude stations in South America, South Asia, South East
 247 Asia, and Oceania region effect during the 2 geomagnetic storms (Figure 4). During the initial
 248 phases of both the storms, no clear enhancements occurred at the low latitude GNSS stations.
 249 However, for both storms, the GNSS stations at South East Asia showed significant vTEC
 250 variations during the main phase. For the South American stations, only the KOUR showed
 251 significant variability. Although both storms are of similar intensity, VTEC enhancements of > 50
 252 TECU, $42 < \text{TECU} < 50$, and $40 < \text{TECU} < 45$ occurred in the low latitude stations of South East Asia,
 253 South Asia and American stations, respectively, during main phase of June 2015 storm. On the
 254 other hand, vTEC variations occurred in the range of $18 < \text{TECU} < 20$, $42 < \text{TECU} < 50$, $40 <$
 255 $\text{TECU} < 45$, and $18 < \text{TECU} < 20$ for COCO, BAKO, South Asia, and KOUR GNSS stations in 2018
 256 during the main phase of the storm, respectively. Moreover, there were not significant variations
 257 in vTEC during the recovery phases of 2015 and 2018 storms; only a minor depletion in the South



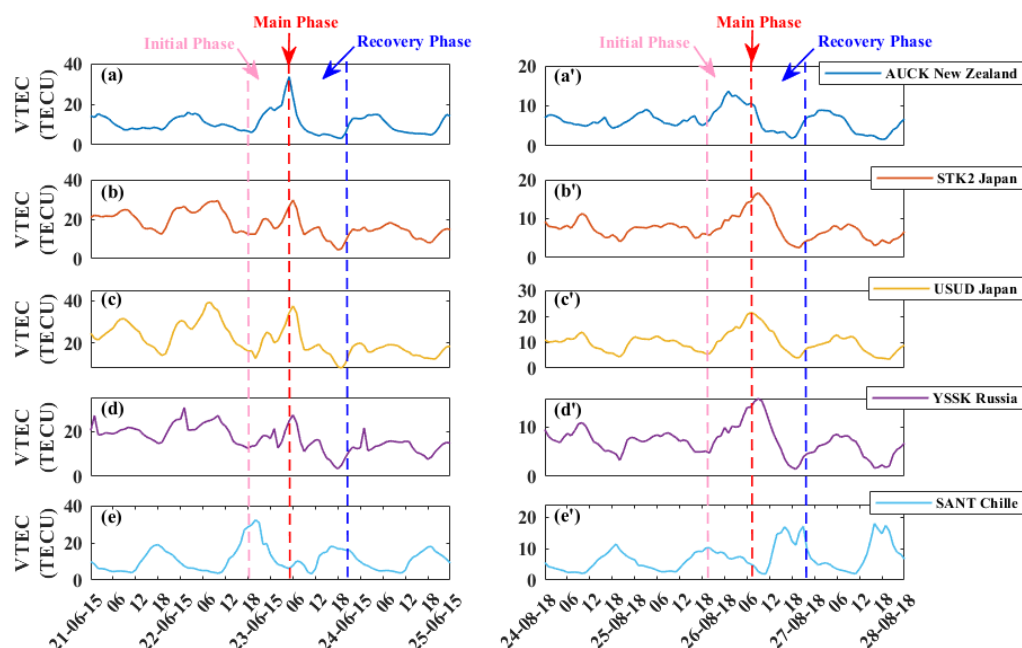
258 American stations. During the recovery phase, TEC depletions in South American stations were
 259 more prominent in 2015 than in 2018.



260

261 **Fig. 4.** vTEC variation at the low-latitude stations in different longitudinal sectors for the
 262 geomagnetic storms of 2015 and 2018. The locations of the stations are showed in Figure 1. The
 263 different phases of the storm are marked with vertical dashed lines.

264 The vTEC variations at the mid-latitude GNSS stations are shown in Figure 5. We employ the
 265 AUCK station in New Zealand, the STK2 and USSD stations in East Asia, the YSSK station in
 266 Russian, and the SANT station in Chile. During the initial phases of both storms, no clear vTEC
 267 variations occurred in any of the stations; only the SANT station showed a weak variation. During
 268 the main phases of both storms, the sharp enhancements are shown for all stations; except for the
 269 SANT station. The vTEC during the main phase of the 2015 geomagnetic storm at Oceania, East
 270 Asia, and Russia is $30 < \text{TECU} < 40$, $30 < \text{TECU} < 40$, $20 < \text{TECU} < 30$, respectively. On the other hand,
 271 Oceania, East Asia, and Russia exhibited $10 < \text{TECU} < 20$, $10 < \text{TECU} < 20$, $10 < \text{TECU} < 20$ during the
 272 2018 geomagnetic storm, respectively. All the mid-latitude stations showed no significant
 273 anomalies during the recovery phases of both storms.

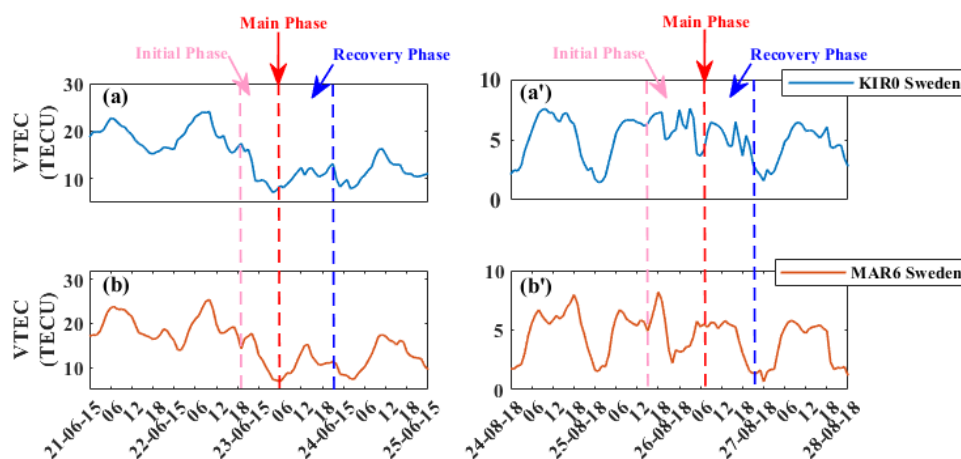


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275 **Fig. 5.** vTEC variation at the mid-latitude stations in different longitudinal sectors for the
 276 geomagnetic storms of 2015 and 2018. The locations of the stations are showed in Figure 1. The
 277 different phases of the storm are marked with vertical dashed lines.

278

279 The vTEC at the high-latitude stations of KIR0 and MAR6 in Sweden and Europe are shown in
 280 Figure 6. In this Figure, enhancements of 2 TECU in KIR0 are shown within 2 hours after the SSC
 281 of the storm of 2015; Then, a sudden depletion until the main phase of the storm occurred.
 282 Similarly, the MAR6 station increases 4 TECU after the SSC, and then a depletion in the main
 283 phase occurred. In the recovery phase, no increases were seen for both stations.

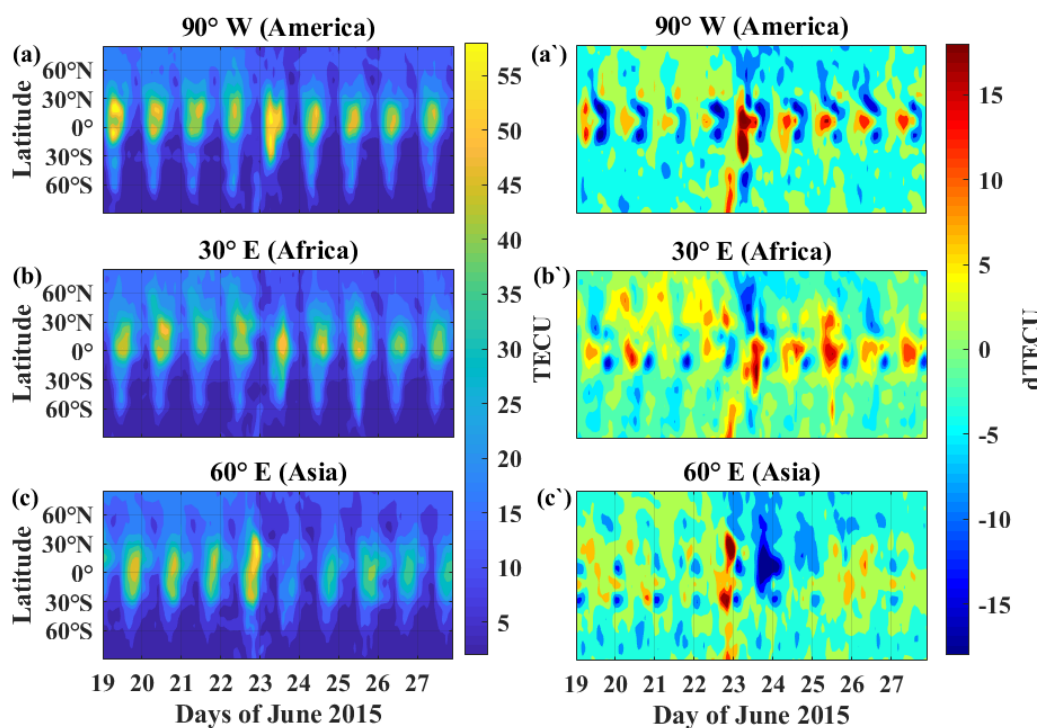


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285 **Fig. 6.** vTEC variation at the high-latitude stations in different longitudinal sectors for the
 286 geomagnetic storms of 2015 and 2018. The location of the stations is shown in Figure 1. The
 287 different phases of the storm are marked with vertical dashed lines.

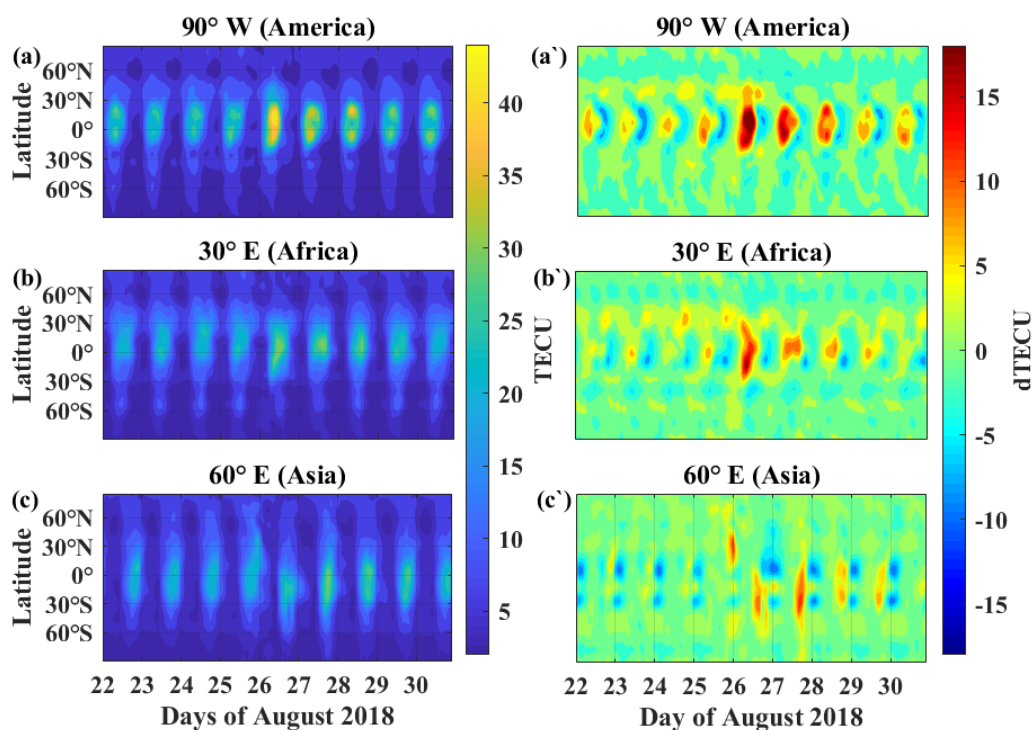
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289 The TEC variations in GIMs for both storms are shown in Figures 7-8. During the storm of 2015,
 290 all 3 American, African, and Asian sectors showed a moderate high-latitude enhancement after the
 291 SCC at the southern latitudes. Then, the American and African sectors showed strong
 292 enhancements at the low-latitude regions above 15 dTECU, whereas the Asian sector showed
 293 depletion of similar magnitude. For this storm, the high-latitude regions showed a clear depletion
 294 during the main phase for all the 3 longitudes. During the main phase of the 2018 storm, vTEC
 295 enhancements were very prominent in the American and African sectors, in comparison to that in
 296 the Asian sector. As compared to the storm of 2015, no clear depletions were seen at any location.



297

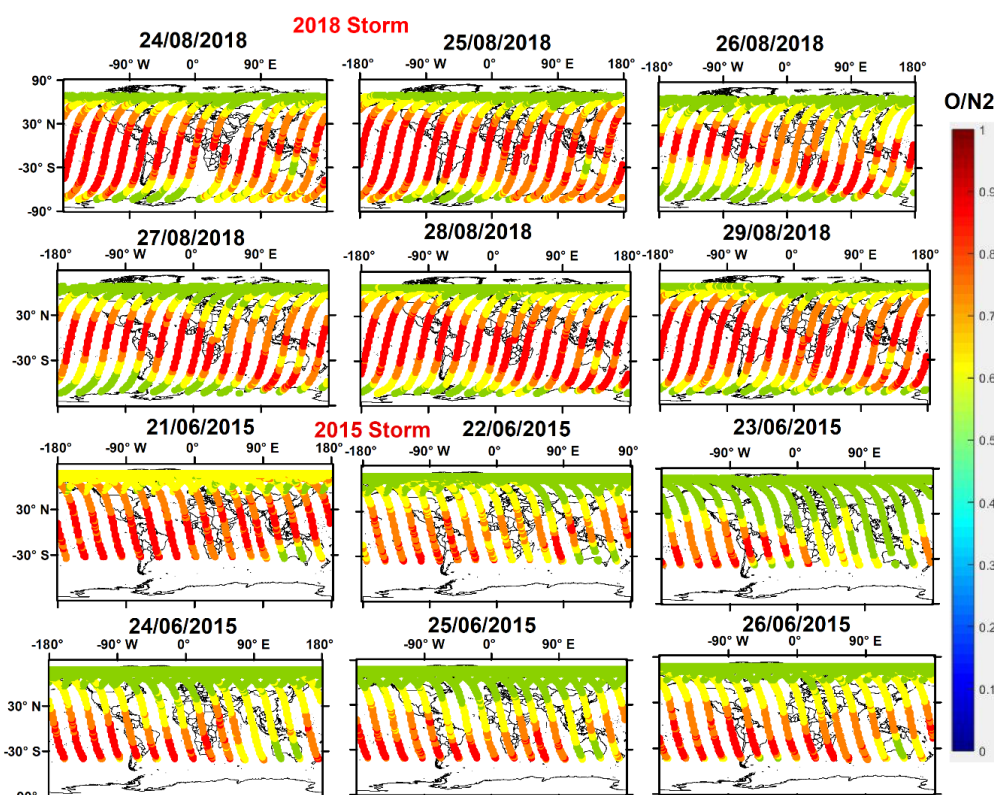
298 **Fig. 7.** GIM TEC maps at different longitudinal sectors during the June 2015 geomagnetic storm
 299 where; a-c) are TEC maps of America, Africa and Asia region, and a'-c') are dTEC maps of
 300 America, Africa and Asia.



301

302 **Fig. 8.** GIM TEC maps response to geomagnetic storm of August 2018 where a-a') TEC and
 303 dTEC maps of America, b-b') TEC and dTEC map of Africa and c-c') TEC and dTEC map of
 304 Asia region

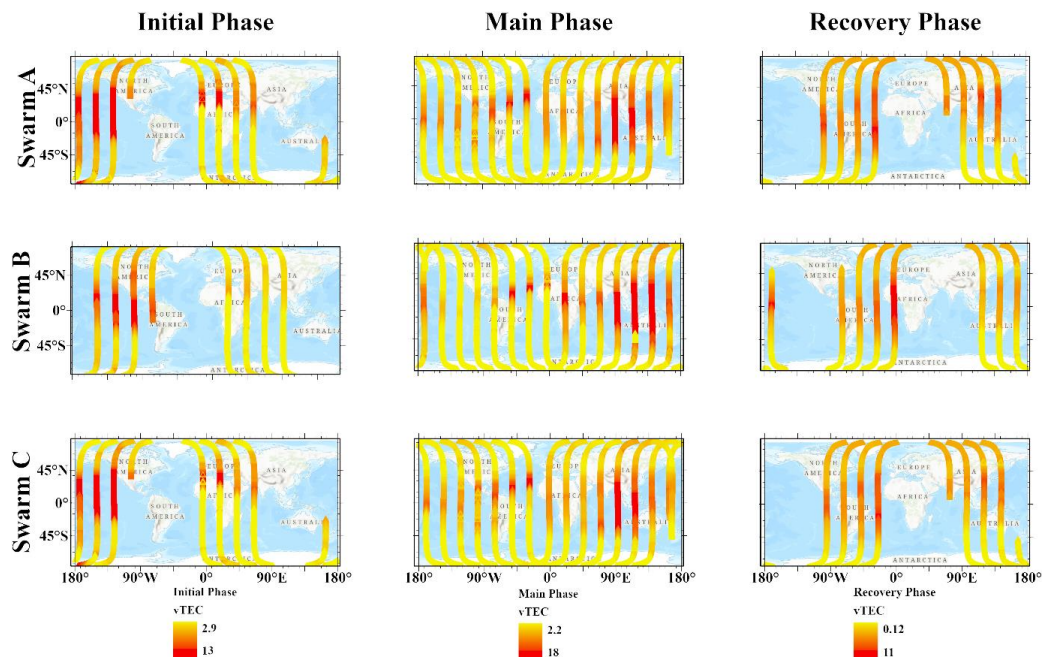
305 Figure 9 shows the O/N2 ratio during the storms of 2015 and 2018. The African sector showed
 306 reductions of O/N2 ratio in the low-and mid-latitudes during the main phase of the 2015 storm.
 307 This resulted in the increment of vTEC in the African region. The Asian, Australia, and Oceania
 308 regions also showed significant enhancements in O/N2 ratio during the main phase of the 2015
 309 geomagnetic storm and it result in vTEC depletion in the above mentioned regions. On the other
 310 hand, we also observe enhancement in O/N2 ratio (depletions in vTEC) in South American and
 311 Asian regions during the main phase of the 2018 geomagnetic storm. There are several reports in
 312 enhancement/depletion in O/N2 ratio (reduction/enrichment in vTEC) in different part of the world
 313 through thermospheric O/N2 variability (Martinis et al. 2005; Buresova et al. 2014; Kassa &
 314 Damite, 2017).



315

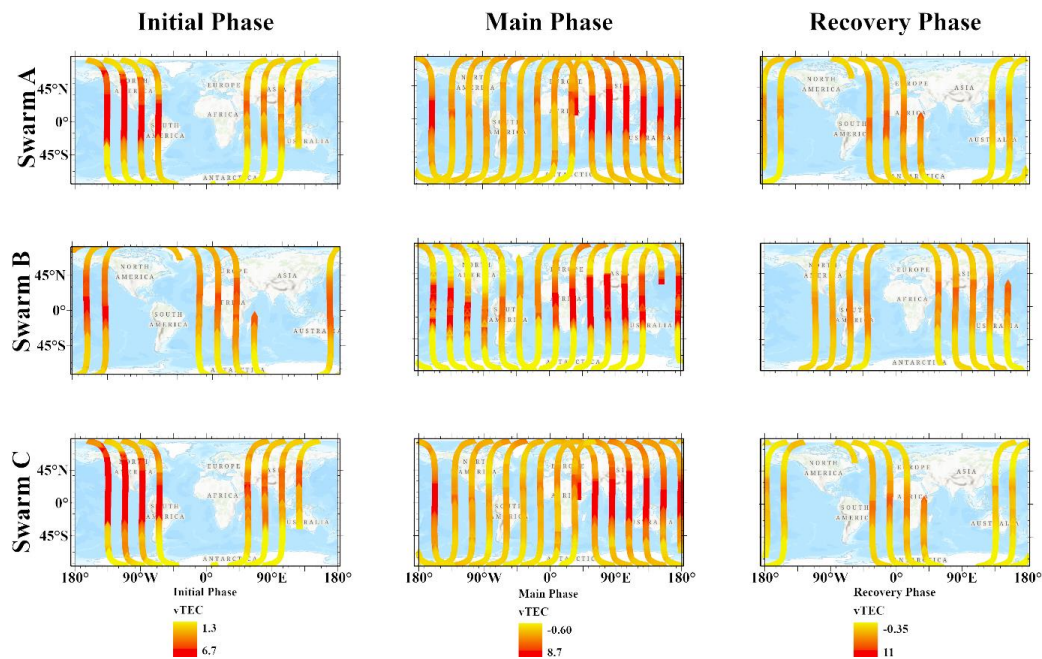
316 **Fig. 9.** The O/N2 ratio from GUVI during the storms of June 2018 and August 2015.

317 The vTEC from Swarm satellites for both the storms is shown in Figures 10-11. Clear
 318 enhancements were seen in the American region at the low-and mid-latitudes during the initial
 319 phase of both storms; no clear variations were observed for the Asian region during the initial
 320 phase of both storms. The low-and mid-latitudes of the Asian and African regions depicted larger
 321 VTEC variations than those in the American sector during the main phase of both storms. During
 322 the recovery phase of both storms, larger variations were observed at the American region than
 323 those at the Asian sector. The VTEC values from Swarm during the main and recovery phases
 324 were different than those from the GNSS stations in Asia, Australia and Russia.



325

326 **Fig. 10.** The VTEC from Swarm during the geomagnetic storm of June 2015.



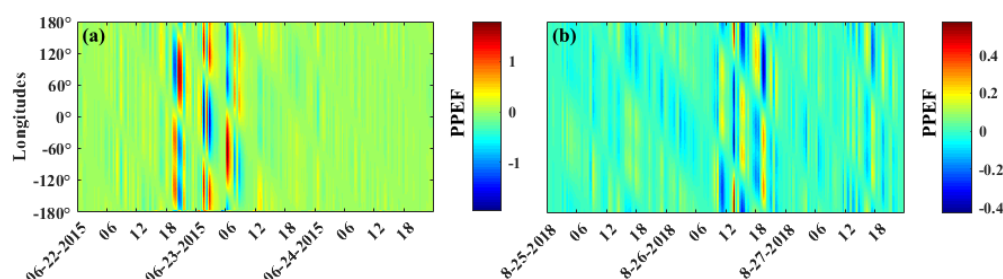
327

328 **Fig. 11.** The VTEC from Swarm during the geomagnetic storm of August 2018.



329 The PPEF variations at the low-and mid-latitude regions during both storms are shown in Figure
 330 12. The PPEF variations during the 2018 storm were smaller than those during the storm of 2015.
 331 This is different from the results obtained through IGS GIMs VTEC (Figures 7 and 8). Moreover,
 332 strong PPEF occurred at all longitudes during the main phase of the storm of 2015, while the PPEF
 333 peak during the 2018 storm occurred in the far East and West. During the main phase of both
 334 storms, stronger PPEF occurred in comparison to that seen during the other phases.

335



336

337 **Fig. 12.** PPEF behavior during geomagnetic storms where a) is June 2015 geomagnetic storm
 338 and b) is geomagnetic storm of August 2018.

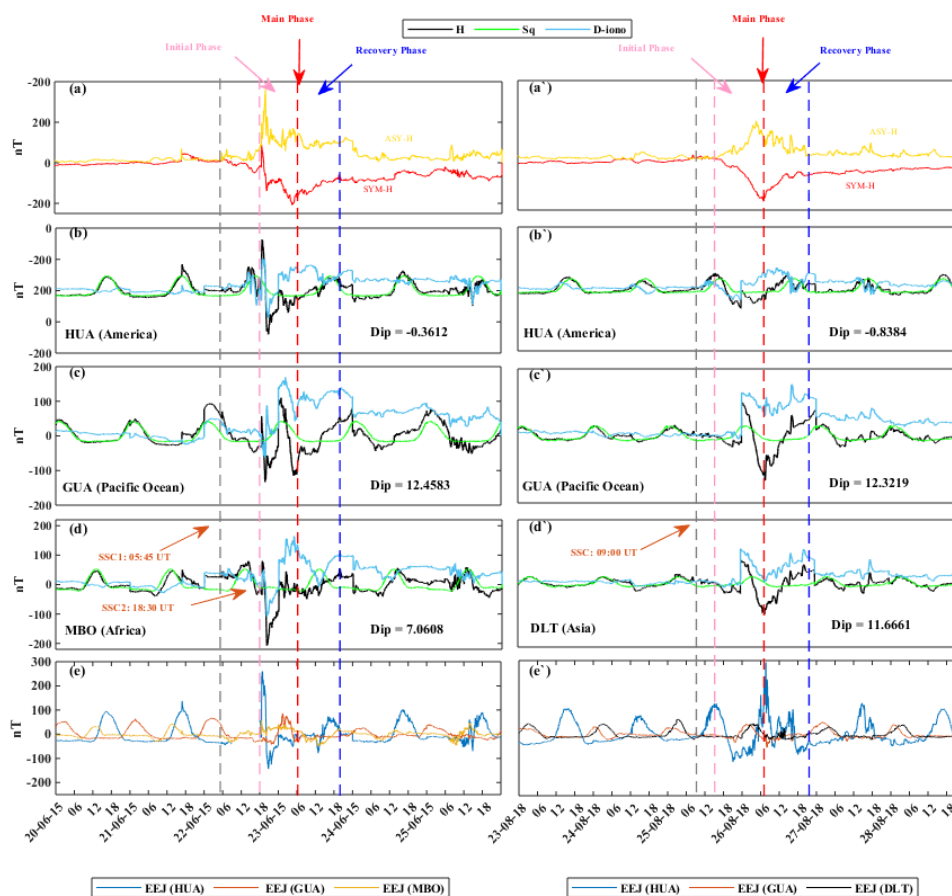
339

340 3.3 Earth's Magnetic Field Variations

341 The variations in the Earth's magnetic field during the storms of June 2015 and August 2018 are
 342 shown in Figure 13. We investigate the variations in the H-component of Earth's magnetic field
 343 and the EEJ estimated from INTERMAGNET stations near the magnetic equator. This shows
 344 significant variations at the SSC events during both storms, followed by a considerable decrease
 345 in Earth horizontal component during the recovery phases. The largest disturbances of the H
 346 component in the American region (HUA station) reached 259.92 nT on 22 June 2015 at 20:49 h
 347 UT. Moreover, on 25 August 2018 at 23:55 h UT the initial phase of the storm reached -123.91
 348 nT. The D_{ion} exhibited a decrease in the initial phase, followed by an increase in the main phase,
 349 this due to H minima during nighttime in the South American region. Two negative peaks in the
 350 H component were observed during the storm of June 2015 in the Pacific region, one during the
 351 beginning of the initial phase, and other during the main phase. Similarly, only one negative peak



was observed in the main phase during the storm of August 2018. The values of D_{ion} exhibited abrupt variations for both storms after each respective SSC, corresponding with the variations in the H component. The MBO station in Africa and the DLT station in Asia showed prominent decreases in the H component for both storms. The lowest values were -207.12 nT for the storm of June 2015 and -107.78 nT for the storm of August 2018. The VTEC variations triggered by D_{ion} were prominent at different longitudes, specifically during the SSC and the main phase of the storm of June 2015. No clear variations were seen in the HUA station during the storm of August 2018.



359

360

361 **Fig. 13.** Magnetic field variability during the storms of June 2015 and August 2018. a and a') have
 362 the variation of SYM-H and ASY-H index, in (b-d) we show the H component in 2015 at HUA,
 363 GUA and MBO stations, in (b'-d') we show the H component in 2018 at HUA, GUA and DLT



stations, and in (e & e⁻) we show the EEJ responses. The SSC is marked with a red arrow. The different phases of the storm are marked with vertical dashed lines.

4. Discussion

The VTEC enhancements during the storms of June 2015 and August 2018 initiated approximately 4 hours after the SSC events at the low-latitude regions in East Asia, South East Asia and Oceania. All the 3 sources of VTEC data used in this study, i.e. GNSS, Swarm, and IGS GIM TEC, have provided similar results with minor differences, specifically between GNSS and IGS GIM TEC, most likely due to local anomalies not well represented by GIM TEC (Lisa et al. 2020). All the VTEC enhancements occurred during the main phase for all 3 datasets. The variations at different geographical coordinates followed the PPEF and thermospheric O/N₂ variations. Moreover, the PPEF enhancements started at the SCC in Asia and Oceania, along with the O/N₂ enhancements leading to clear effects during the main phase at the low-latitude regions (Figs. 9 & 12). These positive enhancements are due to PPEF and the increment of oxygen (Klimenko et al. 2011). On the other side, no prominent enhancements or depletions occurred in the South American sector, most likely due to Dst minimum, along with depletion in the recovery phase due to a drop in O/N₂ ratio (Figs. 4 & 9).

At the mid-latitudes, the Asia-Oceania region exhibited peak values during the main phase of the storms, coinciding with Dst minima. The station from South America exhibited depletions at the night side during the storm of June 2015; the storm of August 2018 lacked this feature. The EIA expansion from equatorial regions to mid-latitude regions was responsible for VTEC enhancements at all longitudes. Both storms analyzed here revealed that D_{ion} and O/N₂ drivers control these fluctuations. In fact, Fuller-Rowell et al. (1994), Mannucci et al. (2005), and Vankadara et al. (2022) presented similar results. The PPEF plays a vital role in VTEC enhancements through plasma diffusion along magnetic field lines, thus creating the fountain effect during the daytime (Mannucci et al. 2005). The depletions seen in VTEC were due to variations in thermospheric composition such as those generated by recombination processes creating N₂. These depletions were observed in the recovery phase of both storms in the low-latitude South American regions (Figs. 4 & 9).

External electric field can penetrate into equator to disturb low and mid latitudes, as they are connected to inner magnetosphere through closed magnetic field lines. External sources should



also be considered, taking into account the fundamental forces that drive the penetration of electric field, such as solar wind drivers. Nishida (1968) compared the north-south oscillation in IMF with the geomagnetic fluctuations, and Jaggi and Wolf (1973) considered PPEF as a temporary failure mechanism of shielding. PPEF can exhibit multiple pulses, as it is the direct consequence of IEF fluctuations (Kelley et al. 1979). Magnetic reconnection is an important parameter for dusk-ward PPEF processes (lasting < 3h), and the dawn-ward IEF shows the opposite behavior, as long IMF Bz oscillates between northward and southward polarity; dawn-ward IEF rarely does. Wei et al. (2010) pointed out that the shielding effect would not fully develop under these circumstances, and would not cancel the PPEF during the short pulse of dusk-ward IEF. Nevertheless, this is not always the case since the transition to the northward IMF Bz component does not necessarily generate over-shielding. However, the reduction in the convective electric field can transit to over-shielding status (Wei et al. 2010). The magnetosphere under sustained pressure due to dense solar winds can suppress the development of electric field shielding during multiple PPEF events. PPEF can exhibit long-duration patterns as long as the magnetic activity is being strengthened under storm conditions (Huang et al. 2005). In this work, PPEF has demonstrated to generate variations in VTEC throughout the globe, except for the South America region, which was more prominent during the storm of June 2015. The max PPEF was confined to only the far East and West regions during the storm of August 2018, depicting clear variations in Oceania and not in the American sector. As the storm commenced, Asia, Oceania, and Russia exhibited VTEC enhancements at the low- and mid-latitudes due to PPEF. Storm time variations at the low- and mid-latitudes were generated by a large fountain effect, creating a stronger EIA. In fact, many researchers (Manucci et al. 2005; Abdu et al. 2007; Sharma et al. 2011; Lu et al. 2013) have reported these effects. The ionosphere exhibited a variable response along different longitudes. This has also been confirmed by different magnitudes of PPEF and satellite data (Figs. 4-8 & 10-12). Fagundes et al. (2016) demonstrated that the influence of PPEF in EIA shows significant longitudinal differences during geomagnetic storms.

During these geomagnetic storms, the Earth's magnetic field observations at different longitudes make possible to comprehend the processes of large-scale ionosphere electric currents. There are 2 main types of disturbances, namely DP2 and D_{dyn}, which are associated with PPEF and DDEF, respectively. D_{dyn} exhibits a more dynamic variation in comparison to DP2, which only lasts for 2 to 3 hours (Nishida et al., 1968; Le and Amory-Mazaudier (2005). During these geomagnetic



425 storms, normal circulation of thermospheric winds are perturbed due to moment transfer and
 426 energy inputs at high latitudes, giving eastward and westward electric field at the nightside and
 427 dayside, respectively (Blanc & Richmond, 1980; Fuller-Rowell et al. 2002). D_{iono} exhibited large
 428 nighttime enhancements at the low-latitude stations. These variations are associated with PRC, as
 429 indicated by ASYM-H (Fig. 13a & 13a'). The anti-Sq signatures observed during the recovery
 430 phase in the magnetic data are due to the orientation of electric fields (Yamazaki & Kosch 2015).
 431 Vankadara et al. (2022) did a similar study, where the authors showed D_{ion} minima at different
 432 Local Solar Time (LST) locations, leading to equatorial plasma bubble developments. Our results
 433 have shown differences in longitude because of magnetospheric convection processes and electric
 434 field penetration (Fejer et al. 2008). In this scheme, all three American regions have shown clear
 435 variations in the initial phases, but none in the main phases of both storms (Figs. 4 - 5, -7 - 8, and
 436 10 - 11). On the other side, Asia, Oceania, and Russia have shown VTEC enhancements during
 437 the main phases (Figs. 4, 5, 7, 8, 10 & 11). Various authors have shown latitudinal and longitudinal
 438 ionosphere responses due to PPEF (Kikuchi et al. 2000; Mene et al. 2011; Kashcheyev et al. 2018).
 439 The EEJ variations at different longitudes are due to the underlining effects of local winds, which
 440 are responsible for EEJ driving (Stening 1985, 1995). In addition, longitudinal differences in EEJ
 441 are caused by the different nature of the propagating diurnal tides, the meridional winds, and the
 442 dynamics of the migratory tides (Lühr et al. 2004; Rabiou et al. 2011). In this study, clear EEJ
 443 enhancement has been observed at the beginning of both the 2015 and 2018 storms. In the
 444 American region (Fig. 13e), EEJ resulted in VTEC variability in the initial phase, but no clear
 445 variability along the main phase. In the Asian region, the EEJ increment has been more prominent
 446 during the main phase (Fig. 13e'), leading to VTEC enhancements in the low-latitude stations (Fig.
 447 4a-4c, 4a'-4c'). Our results demonstrate the existence of longitudinal variability due to EEJ during
 448 storm-time conditions. According to Lühr et al. (2004), dependencies of EEJ strength can be
 449 explained by varying the cross-section area of the longitudinal Cowling channel.

450

451 5. Conclusions

452 The upper atmospheric responses to 22-23 June 2015 and 25-26 August 2018 geomagnetic storms
 453 have been investigated for different regions of the world. The ionospheric variations during the



454 storms are also showed in the context of different drivers at global and regional scales during the
 455 two storms. The main conclusions are as follows:

- 456 • Different regions have exhibited variable patterns of vTEC enhancements/depletions
 457 depending on thermospheric O/N₂ ratio reduction/enrichment. In low latitude, the GNSS
 458 stations of East Asia (HYDE & IISC), South East Asia (COCO & BAKO), and Oceania
 459 (KOUK) have shown vTEC enhancement at the main phases of the storms. On the other
 460 side, the stations in South America (GLPS, KOUR and RIOP) registered no such
 461 enhancements. vTEC enhancement in the Asian and Oceania regions were approximately
 462 double the value as that during quite days. At the mid-latitudes of Oceania, East Asia, and
 463 Russia, the GNSS stations exhibited enhancements during both storms.
- 464 • The Swarm satellites vTEC confirmed the low-and mid-latitude ionospheric irregularities
 465 during main phase of both the storms.
- 466 • The GIM-TEC from IGS has also shown clear agreement with the GNSS-derived vTEC at
 467 most part of world during main phase of both the storms. These ionospheric variations at
 468 low-and mid-latitude regions during main phases of the both the storms are mainly driven
 469 by thermospheric O/N₂ ratio, PPEF and EEJ.
- 470 • The PPEF variations at different longitudes provided different vTEC responses. These
 471 variations were clearly present in the low-and mid-latitude regions of Asia, Africa, Russia,
 472 and Oceania. The southward-northward oscillation of the IMF B_z component drives this
 473 variability along with interactions with Earth's Magnetosphere and solar wind. vTEC
 474 enhancements at different longitudes were mainly attributed to PPEF variability. vTEC
 475 depletions were mainly due to the enriched thermospheric winds composition, as seen by
 476 changes in the O/N₂ density ratio.
- 477 • The Dion from H-component of the Earth's magnetic field has exhibited clear variations
 478 during the 2015 storm as compared to 2018 storm. Moreover, significant EEJ is also noted
 479 in the low-latitude American and African stations during main phase of both the storms,
 480 that induced clear ionospheric variations.

481 **Author Contributions**



RS and MS did analysis and paper writing, MS designed the idea, AA, AH, AMM, NAN helped in paper revision, AH helped in the improvement of figures and paper writing, AC provided writing review and editing. M.A.H., I.K., A.M., E.A.A. reviewed the final draft. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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The TIMED/GUVI data are available at <https://guvitimed.jhuapl.edu/>. The space weather indices are available at the NASA OMNI website <http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. The magnetometer data are available at <https://www.intermagnet.org/>. GNSS vTEC data of multiple stations is available at <http://www.ionolab.org/>. Swarm satellite data is available at <https://vires.services/>. Authors are appreciative of all the above sources for providing valuable datasets.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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