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Frequency variability of standing Alfvén waves excited by fast mode resonances in the outer magnetosphere

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Coupled fast mode resonances (cFMRs) in the outer magnetosphere, between the magnetopause and a turning point, are often invoked to explain
observed discrete frequency field line resonances. We quantify their frequency
variability, applying cFMR theory to a realistic magnetic field model and magnetospheric density profiles observed over almost half a solar cycle. Our cal-

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culations show cFMRs are most likely around dawn, since the plasmaspheric 8 plumes and extended plasmaspheres often found at noon and dusk can pre-9 clude their occurrence. The relative spread (median absolute deviation di-10 vided by the median) in eigenfrequencies is estimated to be 28%, 72% and 11 55% at dawn, noon and dusk respectively, with the latter two chiefly due to 12 density. Finally, at dawn we show that the observed bimodal density distri-13 bution results in bimodal cFMR frequencies, whereby the secondary peaks 14 are consistent with the so-called "CMS" frequencies that have previously been 15 attributed to cFMRs. 16

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1. Introduction

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¹⁷ Ultralow frequency (ULF) waves play a number of key roles within the magnetosphere ¹⁸ such as the transport, acceleration and loss of electrons in the radiation belts [e.g. the ¹⁹ review of *Elkington*, 2006]. One of the earliest known ULF wave modes were field line ²⁰ resonances (FLRs), standing Alfvén waves on field lines fixed at their ionospheric ends ²¹ [Southwood, 1974]. At the resonant field line, position x_r (x, y, z correspond to the radial, ²² azimuthal and field-aligned co-ordinates respectively throughout), they satisfy

$$\left[\frac{\omega}{v_A\left(x_r\right)}\right]^2 - k_z^2 = 0 \tag{1}$$

for angular frequency ω , wavevector component k_z , and local Alfvén speed $v_A = B/\sqrt{\mu_0\rho}$ depending on both magnetic field strength B and plasma mass density ρ . The quantised frequencies of FLRs are often estimated using WKB calculations applied to models i.e.

$$\omega_l(x_r) = \pi l \left[\int \frac{dz}{v_A} \right]^{-1} \tag{2}$$

where $l \in \mathbb{N}$ denotes the field-aligned mode number (FLR harmonic) and the integral is taken between the field line's footpoints. These show good agreement with observed pulsations, though further sophistications have been developed [Singer et al., 1981; Wild et al., 2005; Rankin et al., 2006; Kabin et al., 2007] which yield small but non-negligible corrections (typically ~ 20% or less).

Often standing Alfvén waves are excited over a range of L-shells with continuous frequencies [e.g. *Sarris et al.*, 2010]. However, discrete sets of FLRs are also observed, predominantly in the dawn/morning sector with a secondary peak around dusk [*Baker*]

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et al., 2003; Plaschke et al., 2008]. Samson et al. [1991, 1992] suggested that a set of 34 quasi-steady FLR frequencies, namely {1.3, 1.9, 2.6–2.7, 3.2–3.4} mHz known as "CMS" 35 frequencies, occur at latitudes $\sim 70^{\circ}$ between midnight-mid-morning. While some statis-36 tical studies (of a few hundred events or less) seem to support this hypothesis showing 37 distinct peaks in occurrence distributions [Fenrich et al., 1995; Chisham and Orr, 1997; 38 Mathie et al., 1999; Kokubun, 2013], larger studies (thousands to tens of thousands of 39 events) show little or no clear peaks [Ziesolleck and McDiarmid, 1995; Baker et al., 2003; 40 *Plaschke et al.*, 2008. The significance of quasi-steady frequencies of discrete FLRs is 41 thus unclear. 42

A number of potential mechanisms of exciting discrete frequencies of standing Alfvén 43 waves have been proposed including Kelvin-Helmholtz surface waves [Chen and Haseqawa, 44 1974; Southwood, 1974], direct driving by solar wind dynamic pressure oscillations 45 [Stephenson and Walker, 2002; Claudepierre et al., 2010], and so-called cavity or waveguide 46 modes [Kivelson. et al., 1984; Kivelson and Southwood, 1985]. The latter concern radially 47 standing fast magnetosonic waves, trapped between reflecting magnetospheric boundaries and/or turning points. Many types of fast mode resonance (FMR) are known such as 49 plasmaspheric, virtual, tunnelling and trapped modes [see e.g. Waters et al., 2000], but 50 here we focus only on outer-magnetospheric modes which couple to an FLR on the field 51 line where equation 1 is satisfied. These modes propagate between the magnetopause, 52 position x_{mp} , and a turning point inside the magnetosphere, position $x_t \ge x_r$, satisfying 53 (assuming cold plasma) 54

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$$\left[\frac{\omega}{v_A\left(x_t\right)}\right]^2 - k_y^2 - k_z^2 = 0 \tag{3}$$

WKB solutions (which agree within $\sim 3\%$ with full numerical solutions [*Rickard and Wright*, 1995]) involve radially integrating the phase

$$\Phi(x_r) \equiv \int_{x_t}^{x_{mp}} dx \sqrt{\left[\frac{\omega_l(x_r)}{v_A(x)}\right]^2 - k_y^2 - k_z^2} \tag{4}$$

and finding eigenmodes [Samson et al., 1992, 1995]. The turning point introduces a phase 57 shift (weakly dependent on k_y) of $\pi/2$ [Rickard and Wright, 1994]. Considering the mag-58 netopause as perfectly reflecting (nodal boundary condition), the eigenmodes correspond 59 to $\Phi(x_r) = \pi(n - \frac{1}{4})$ for radial mode numbers $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Applying this theory, Samson 60 et al. [1992] fitted the parameters of an assumed analytical Alfvén speed profile to the 61 CMS frequencies. While this resulted in a reasonable $x_{mp} \sim 15 \,\mathrm{R_E}$, some have questioned 62 the field-line lengths used and large densities ($\gtrsim~25\,{\rm amu\,cm^{-3}})$ required [Harrold and 63 Samson, 1992; Allan and McDiarmid, 1993]. Mann et al. [1999] later showed that the 64 magnetopause can support anti-nodal boundary conditions, with a quarter wave mode 65 fundamental, which might be able to produce such low frequencies. FMRs with these 66 boundary conditions have been demonstrated in global magnetohydrodynamic simula-67 tions [Claudepierre et al., 2009]. 68

The azimuthal wavevector component is often assumed to take the form $k_y = m/x$, where m is the azimuthal mode number [Waters et al., 2000]. m takes discrete values in (closed, axisymmetric) cavity models [Kivelson. et al., 1984], whereas waveguide models consider fast waves propagating towards an open tail whereby m is continuous [Sam-

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⁷³ son et al., 1992]. Models of waveguide dispersion show fairly level eigenfrequencies for ⁷⁴ $|m| \leq 3$ and almost constant azimuthal group velocities $\partial \omega / \partial k_y$ for larger |m| which vary ⁷⁵ only slightly with n [Wright, 1994; Rickard and Wright, 1994, 1995], hence FMRs show ⁷⁶ proportionally less dispersion for higher n. While m is a free parameter in most waveg-⁷⁷ uide models, Mann et al. [1999] demonstrated a possible m selection mechanism for these ⁷⁸ modes.

Few unambiguous spacecraft observations of outer-magnetospheric FMRs had been found until fairly recently, largely due to observational difficulties [*Waters et al.*, 2002; *Hartinger et al.*, 2012]. The overall occurrence of FMRs is unclear: *Hartinger et al.* [2013] state a detection rate of $\sim 1\%$ using strict criteria (only cavity modes, biased towards noon) whereas *Hartinger et al.* [2014] provide evidence that FMR-like events occur $\sim 37-41\%$ of the time.

Since FLRs transfer energy to radiation belt electrons [Mann et al., 2013] and the iono-85 sphere [Hartinger et al., 2015], predicting when, where and why these occur is important. 86 While direct solar wind driving may account for $\sim 32\%$ of events [Viall et al., 2009], such 87 an assessment for these coupled fast mode resonances (cFMRs) has not yet been possible 88 since observational evidence or lack thereof for cFMRs has often involved searching for the 89 (still heavily disputed) CMS frequencies. However, even cFMR proponents acknowledge 90 that the variability of the magnetosphere should affect these frequencies *Samson et al.*, 91 1992; Walker et al., 1992; Mathie et al., 1999]. Models of FMRs typically use either fixed 92 profiles or idealised analytical expressions whereby one parameter is varied [Allan and 93 McDiarmid, 1989; Wright and Rickard, 1995]. It is not clear how realistic such idealised 94

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profiles are and how variable these might be, thus the potential occurrence and variability
in frequency/location of outer-magnetospheric cFMRs is unknown. We therefore set out
to quantify this variability for the first time.

2. Method

In this study, cFMR theory is applied to dawn, noon and dusk only. Due to the disparity in timescales associated with changes in magnetospheric densities (hours to days [*Khazanov*, 2011]) and magnetic fields (several minutes [*Smit*, 1968]), we treat these quantities independently using observed equatorial density profiles over almost half a solar cycle and a realistic magnetic field model.

Electric Field Instrument (EFI) [Bonnell et al., 2008] and Electrostatic Analyzer (ESA) 103 [McFadden et al., 2008a] measurements from the inner three Time History of Events 104 and Macroscale Interactions during Substorms (THEMIS) [Angelopoulos, 2008] probes 105 are used between Feb 2008 – Jun 2013, yielding 5 seasons in each sector. The median 106 magnetic local time (MLT) was calculated for all inbound and outbound magnetosphere 107 crossings (between $3 R_E$ and apogee) and only those crossings with sufficient data coverage 108 (>75%) whose median MLT was within 1 h of a target sector were selected. This resulted 109 in 863 (dawn: $6 \pm 1 \text{ h MLT}$), 809 (noon: $12 \pm 1 \text{ h MLT}$) and 893 (dusk: $18 \pm 1 \text{ h MLT}$) 110 crossings. Excluding magnetosheath and solar wind periods using the method of *Lee and* 111 Angelopoulos [2014], electron density profiles n_e were calculated from the spin-averaged 112 spacecraft potential [McFadden et al., 2008b] and binned by radial distance $(0.1 R_{\rm E} reso-$ 113 lution). A median filter was applied to smooth the profiles but maintain distinct features 114 e.g. the plasmapause. See supporting material for an example. At dawn and dusk since 115

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the THEMIS apogees did not extend far enough, a constant extrapolation to the mag-116 netopause was applied [c.f. Carpenter and Anderson, 1992]. Changing the extrapolation 117 technique affects our calculations by $\sim 10\%$, but has little effect on their relative variabil-118 ity. To arrive at the plasma mass density, we assume fixed ion compositions in each sector 119 using the results of Lee and Angelopoulos [2014] yielding ρ/n_e as 6.8, 2.6 and 4.0 amu cm⁻³ 120 at dawn, noon and dusk respectively. The usual power law form for the density distribu-121 tion along the field lines was assumed, using exponent $\alpha = 2$ [c.f. Denton et al., 2015]. 122 While these fixed parameters do vary in reality, the effect on cFMR frequency variability is 123 small compared to the density and magnetic field. Figure 1d-f displays histograms (shades 124 of blue) of the density profiles in the three sectors as a function of radial distance. These 125 are largely consistent with previous results e.g. the plasmapause can be seen typically 126 between 4–6 R_E [O'Brien and Moldwin, 2003; Liu and Liu, 2014], and higher densities at 127 large radial distances due to either plasmaspheric plumes [Darrouzet et al., 2008; Walsh 12 et al., 2013] or an extended plasmasphere [Carpenter and Anderson, 1992; Tu et al., 2007] 129 are more often observed in the noon and dusk sectors. 130

A model magnetic field is used rather than observed profiles since we require selfconsistent FLR frequencies and equatorial Alfvén speeds. Furthermore, the time taken accumulating each density profile is much longer than the variability timescale of the magnetic field. Due to the large variability in equatorial densities [*Sheeley et al.*, 2001; *Takahashi et al.*, 2010, 2014], as a first instance we apply a fixed T96 magnetic field model [*Tsyganenko*, 1995, 1996] (shown in Figure 1a-c) using the median solar wind conditions taken from the OMNI database over the survey period. Combining T96 with the density

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observations we arrive at Alfvén speed (g-i) and FLR frequency (j-l) profiles, which again are largely consistent with previous observations and models [e.g. *Waters et al.*, 2000; *Archer et al.*, 2013b].

The cFMR theory detailed in equations 1–4 was applied to these profiles for l = 1-3and |m| = 0-10 (0.5 spacing). While in idealised box/cylinder models the fast and Alfvén modes are decoupled for m = 0 [Southwood, 1974], this is not the case in more representative geometries [Radoski, 1971]. We use the quantisation condition

$$\Phi\left(x_r\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}\left(n - \frac{1}{2}\right) \tag{5}$$

whereby odd *n* correspond to modes with an antinode at the magnetopause (e.g. n = 1 is a quarter wave mode [Mann et al., 1999; Claudepierre et al., 2009]) whereas even *n* exhibit nodes [Samson et al., 1992, 1995]. Solving equation 5 yields the resonance locations and eigenfrequencies, denoted $\omega_{l,n}(m)/2\pi$. The calculations assume plasma properties vary slowly with azimuth compared to the azimuthal propagation of the FMR over a bounce period, found to be $\leq 10^{\circ}$, thus are valid in this respect [c.f. Moore et al., 1987].

Since the focus of this study is on variability, we only require that the computed cFMR frequencies are broadly correct since any (small) systematic deviation in absolute values, due to either the WKB approximation or our choice of fixed parameters, will have no effect on the relative variability. Previous studies have indeed shown that the methods used here result in FLR frequencies in good agreement with observations [*Wild et al.*, 2005; *Archer et al.*, 2013a, b]. Throughout this paper the relative spread (or variability) refers to the ratio of median absolute deviation (a robust estimator of scale given by MAD =

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Median_i ($|x_i - \text{Median}_j(x_j)|$) whereby 50% of the data lie between Median±MAD [Huber, 1981]) to the median. This is shown for the density (dotted) and Alfvén speed/FLR frequency (solid) as a function of radial distance in Figure 1m–o.

3. Occurrence

We investigate the possible occurrence of cFMRs (assuming a suitable driver is present 161 at all times) by plotting the fraction of profiles which supported them i.e. a solution to 162 equation 5 existed. This is shown in Figures 2a–c (as a function of n and l for m = 0) and 163 3a-c (as a function of n and m for l=1). It is clear that cFMRs should predominantly 164 occur in the morning sector (e.g. 89% of profiles supported the fundamental mode), being 165 less likely at dusk (65%) and noon (27%). This is in agreement with the occurrence 166 statistics of discrete FLRs [Baker et al., 2003; Plaschke et al., 2008], though of course 167 there are numerous other mechanisms of FLR excitation. 168

In Figure 1d–l, we plot the median (lines) and interquartile ranges (error bars) for those 169 profiles which did (yellow) and did not (red) support a fundamental cFMR. These reveal, 170 in all sectors though most notably at noon, that cFMR are not supported when the density 171 rises immediately earthward of the magnetopause. In the cFMRs under consideration, fast 172 magnetosonic waves only propagate in regions where $v_A(x) < v_A(x_r)$ [Waters et al., 2000]. 173 Indeed, the profiles which do not support cFMR show decreases in the Alfvén speed 174 with distance from the magnetopause due to the density rising faster than the magnetic 175 field. The size of the cavity is restricted to the vicinity of the magnetopause under these 176 circumstances, making cFMRs impossible. Such density rises may be due to an extended 177 plasmasphere, often observed around noon [Tu et al., 2007; Archer et al., 2013a], or the 178

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plasmaspheric plume in the afternoon sector [Darrouzet et al., 2008; Walsh et al., 2013],
thereby explaining the possible occurrence of cFMR with local time.

Figures 2a-c and 3a-c show clear trends in possible cFMR occurrence with the mode 181 numbers, being more likely as l increases but less likely as both |m| and n increase. Again, 182 these can be understood in terms of the theory. For a cFMR to be possible, the radial 183 phase integral (equation 4) must become sufficiently large within the outer-magnetospheric 184 cavity (between the magnetopause and plasmapause) such that a radial eigenmode can 185 form (equation 5). Smaller radial mode numbers n require smaller phase integrals, hence 186 are more likely. Increasing the field-aligned mode number l increases the integrand in the 187 phase integral, thereby making a radial eigenmode more likely. Finally, the azimuthal 188 mode number m decreases the integrand serving to push the resonance point Earthward 189 compared to m = 0. Since the FLR frequency profiles usually exhibit a peak ahead of 190 the plasmapause, this introduces a maximum possible |m| for which cFMRs are possible, 191 which can be seen when looking at specific examples (not shown). 192

4. Frequencies

4.1. Density

Here we assess the variability in cFMR frequencies due to density alone. Figure 2 shows the frequencies (d-f) and resonance locations (g-i) as box plots for m = 0, where horizontal lines display medians across the profiles, boxes indicate interquartile ranges and whiskers show 95% of the data. The eigenfrequencies are broadly within the expected ranges both theoretically [Mann et al., 1999; Claudepierre et al., 2009] and observationally [Baker et al., 2003; Plaschke et al., 2008; Hartinger et al., 2013], being typically of the order of

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a few mHz at dawn/dusk and tens of mHz around noon (due to the smaller cavity size 199 and larger Alfvén speeds). As expected, cFMR frequencies increase with both l and n200 forming an anharmonic series i.e. they are not integer multiples of the fundamental being 201 proportionally more tightly spaced [c.f. Samson et al., 1992]. The resonance locations are 202 at radial distances $\sim 4-10 \,\mathrm{R_E}$ corresponding to magnetic latitudes of $\sim 60-75^\circ$, within 203 the range of observed discrete FLRs on the ground [*Plaschke et al.*, 2008]. These move 204 towards the magnetopause as l increases, because l increases the phase integrand thus the 205 radial quantisation condition is satisfied earlier; and Earthward for increasing n, due to 206 the larger phase integral required. 207

While an indication of variability is apparent via the size of the boxes and whiskers 208 in Figure 2, we quantify the relative spreads over all profiles in the frequency (red) and 209 resonance location (blue) for each mode number, shown in panels j-l. It is clear that the 21 0 variability in resonance location is fairly small in all sectors: $6 \pm 2\%$ (dawn), $14 \pm 3\%$ 211 (noon), $8 \pm 1\%$ (dusk); hence our calculations suggest that the excited FLRs should recur 21 2 at similar distances/latitudes. Our calculated frequencies, however, display much greater 21 3 variability, particularly in the noon $(67 \pm 8\%)$ and dusk $(49 \pm 2\%)$ sectors compared 214 to dawn which exhibits only $18 \pm 1\%$. The level of variability is reflective of the relative 215 spreads in both Alfvén speed and FLR frequency in the outer magnetosphere, as displayed 216 in Figure 1m-o (solid yellow lines for profiles which support cFMR). 217

Figure 3 indicates how the frequencies and resonance locations are altered as a function of |m| i.e. dispersion. Frequencies and cavity sizes are plotted as the ratio to m = 0results, highlighting changes due to |m| alone by removing the inherent variability at

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m = 0. As previously noted, increasing |m| pushes the resonance location Earthward 221 (g-i), which serves to increase the cFMR frequency (d-f). The qualitative form of the 222 dispersion and its proportional decrease with n are similar to previous analytical models 223 [Wright, 1994; Rickard and Wright, 1994, 1995]. Interestingly, there is little spread in the 224 frequency ratios across the profiles (< 10% at noon and < 5% at daewn/dusk) indicating 225 that the proportional dispersion is systematic. While m is a free parameter in our cFMR 226 model, Mann et al. [1999] demonstrated an m selection method. Given the systematic 227 nature of the dispersion, we therefore do not add a contribution to the overall cFMR 228 frequency variability due to the possible range of m. 229

4.2. Magnetic Field

So far we have considered cFMR variability due to the density only, however, changes in the magnetic field may also be important. Since the solar wind dynamic pressure P_{dyn} is the most significant source of magnetic field variability, we repeated our calculations over all density profiles changing this input into T96 by plus/minus one median absolute deviation (calculated over the survey period). This self consistently changes the magnetopause location, magnetic field lines and field strengths.

²³⁶ Changing P_{dyn} has a similarly sized effect on cFMR frequencies in all three sectors ²³⁷ whereby enhanced P_{dyn} results in higher frequencies, due to a now smaller cavity and ²³⁸ higher Alfvén speeds, with the opposite true when decreasing it. This variability due to ²³⁹ the magnetic field is $21 \pm 1\%$ (dawn), $24 \pm 5\%$ (noon) and $21 \pm 2\%$ (dusk). Therefore, at ²⁴⁰ dawn the spread in frequency due to changes in the magnetic field is comparable to that ²⁴¹ of the density, whereas at noon and dusk these effects are small.

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Since we treat densities and magnetic fields independently, we combine these sources of variability to arrive at the overall relative spread in cFMR frequencies. These are found to be 28% (dawn), 72% (noon) and 55% (dusk). For comparison, the relative spread in eigenfrequencies of the proposed eigenmode of the subsolar magnetopause is 25% [Archer and Plaschke, 2015] i.e. similar to the cFMR frequency variability in the dawn sector.

4.3. Dawn

Given that our calculated cFMRs around dawn can potentially occur most often and 247 exhibit the least amount of variability in both frequency and resonance location, this 248 sector warrants further investigation. Figure 4(top) shows the relationshop between the 249 cFMR frequencies for the first three radial eigenmodes (l = 1, m = -1) with the reciprocal 250 square root of the outer-magnetospheric density (at apogee). As one might expect, the 251 cFMR frequencies are found to highly correlate to this quantity and thus the Alfvén 252 speed. The density distribution, shown as both a histogram and kernel density estimate 253 (KDE) [Bowman and Azzalini, 1997] at the top left, is found to be bimodal. KDEs of the 254 cFMR frequencies (same mode numbers as above) are displayed in bold in the bottom 255 panel revealing similarly bimodal distributions. While the main population corresponds 256 to densities $\sim 0.4 \,\mathrm{cm^{-3}}$ and have frequencies $\gtrsim 3 \,\mathrm{mHz}$, the secondary population have 257 larger densities $\sim 3 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-3}$ and thus lower frequencies. Curiously, the resulting secondary 258 peaks for the n = 1-3 cFMR frequencies are similar (within the absolute errors of our 259 calculations) to the first three CMS frequencies, indicated by the grey areas. We find 260 that these secondary peaks in frequency are rather insensitive to the choice of m (lighter 261 colours show KDEs for $-2 \le m \le 0$, unlike the higher frequency primary peak. Finally, 262

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the resonance locations of these cFMRs (not shown) typically correspond to latitudes $\sim 70^{\circ}$, in agreement with the original *Samson et al.* [1991, 1992] observations.

It had been questioned whether cFMR theory could explain such low frequencies [Har-265 rold and Samson, 1992; Allan and McDiarmid, 1993], due to the field-line lengths and 266 large densities used by Samson et al. [1992]. By allowing for antinodal magnetopause 267 boundary conditions, Mann et al. [1999] postulated that mHz FMR eigenfrequencies may 268 be possible. We have shown that these low frequencies may indeed be explained by 269 cFMRs for a small population of observed density profiles applied to a realistic magnetic 270 field model. However, we do not preclude the possibility that other forms of FMR [e.g. 271 Harrold and Samson, 1992; Waters et al., 2000] might also explain similar frequency dis-272 crete FLRs or that they may be excited via other mechanisms e.g. directly by solar wind 273 pressure oscillations [Viall et al., 2009]. 274

5. Conclusions

Due to observational challenges and conflicting results, it has been unclear how often 275 standing Alfvén waves are excited by coupled fast mode resonances (cFMRs) in the outer 276 magnetosphere (between the magnetopause and a turning point) and what their range 277 of frequencies are. Through the use of a realistic magnetic field model and observed 278 magnetospheric density profiles over almost half a solar cycle, we have quantified their 279 possible occurrence and variability in frequency and resonance location for the first time. 280 We find that cFMRs are supported most often in the dawn sector compared to dusk and 281 noon, since the large densities associated with the plasmaspheric plume or an extended 282 plasmasphere in these sectors can preclude cFMR occurrence. This possible occurrence in 283

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our calculations is consistent with the occurrence of observed discrete field line resonances 284 (FLRs) on the ground [Baker et al., 2003; Plaschke et al., 2008], though numerous other 285 mechanisms for their excitation also exist. The computed eigenfrequencies are within the 286 range of previously observed [Baker et al., 2003; Plaschke et al., 2008; Hartinger et al., 287 2013] and theoretical results [Mann et al., 1999; Claudepierre et al., 2009], at typically 288 a few mHz around dawn/dusk and tens of mHz at noon. The variability, however, is 289 found to be much larger in the noon and dusk sectors, chiefly due to the density, whereas 290 magnetic field changes have a comparable contribution around dawn. Overall the relative 291 spread (ratio of median absolute deviation to the median) is estimated to be 28%, 72% and 292 55% at dawn, noon and dusk respectively. Finally, the observed bimodal distribution in 293 outer-magnetospheric density at dawn results in bimodal cFMR frequency distributions, 294 whereby the secondary population have the low "CMS" frequencies often attributed to 295 FMRs [Samson et al., 1992] that have been called into question by some [Harrold and 29 Samson, 1992; Allan and McDiarmid, 1993]. 297

Future work should validate the calculated frequencies and resonance locations against observations both in space and on the ground, taking particular care in unambiguously identifying the ULF mode and driver where possible. Furthermore, by parameterising the collated density profiles in this study it should be possible to ascertain the dependence of cFMR occurrence and frequencies on e.g. the plasmapause position or radial density exponent [Allan and McDiarmid, 1989; Wright and Rickard, 1995] and with solar wind and magnetospheric conditions e.g. P_{dyn} or Kp. This would allow the prediction of FMR

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Figure 1: Profiles as a function of radial distance in the dawn (left), noon (middle) and dusk (right) sectors of equatorial (a-c) magnetic field strength, (d-f) electron number density, (g-i) Alfvén speed, (j-l) fundamental FLR frequency, (m-o) relative spreads in the density (dotted) and speed/frequency (solid). Medians (solid lines) and interquartile ranges (error bars) are shown over all profiles (black), profiles which support a fundamental cFMR (yellow), and profiles which don't (red).

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Figure 2: cFMR results as a function of n (groups) and l (colours) for m = 0 in the dawn (left), noon (middle) and dusk (right) sectors. (a-c) Fraction of cFMRs supported, (d-f) cFMR frequency and (g-i) cavity size as box plots with whiskers indicating 95% of the data, (j-l) relative spreads in the frequency (red) and cavity size (blue).

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Figure 3: cFMR results as a function of n and m for l = 1 in a similar format to Figure 2. In panels d-l ratios to the m = 0 results are shown.

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Figure 4: (Top) Relationship between cFMR frequency (n = 1-3 in blue, green, red) and the reciprocal square root of the outer-magnetospheric density (at apogee) at dawn. A histogram (grey) and kernel density estimate (KDE, black) of the latter is also shown. (Bottom) KDEs of the cFMR frequency distributions. Shaded areas show the CMS frequencies $\pm 5\%$.

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