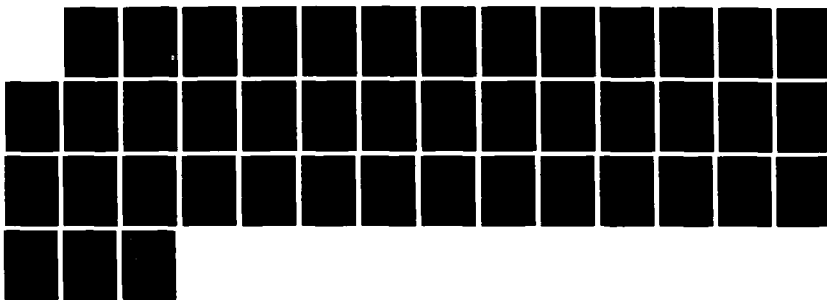
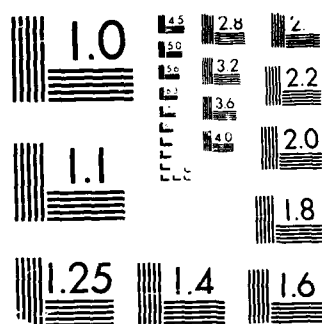


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Field-Aligned Structure of the Storm Time Pc 5 Wave of November 14-15, 1979

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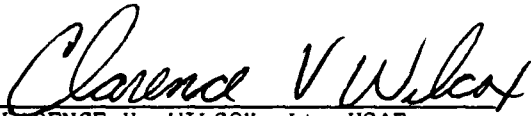
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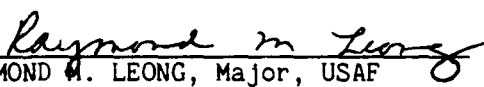
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current plasma is found to give an explanation for the relation between the polarization and the propagation of the wave. However, plasma data available from SCATHA do not support either the drift-mirror instability of Hasegawa or the coupling between a drift-mirror wave and a shear Alfvén wave, as discussed by Walker and coworkers.

1. ... Scattering ...

PREFACE

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1. Introduction

Storm time Pc 5 waves (period = 150-600 s), which perhaps are the lowest-frequency and largest-amplitude among storm time ULF waves, were recognized in the late 60's and have since been the subject of many observational as well as theoretical studies. Early work on this subject can be found in Brown et al. [1968], Sonnerup et al. [1969], Hasegawa [1969], and Lanzerotti et al. [1969].

Recent observations with multiple satellites and ground-based radar established the variation of the amplitude and phase of storm time Pc 5 waves across the ambient magnetic field. The waves are observed to propagate westward with respect to the ground [Walker et al., 1982; Allan et al., 1982] and geostationary satellites [Takahashi et al., 1985a; Lin and Barfield, 1985]. The waves have a large azimuthal wave number ($|m| = 20-100$), and their typical propagation velocity and azimuthal wavelength are 5-50 km/s and 1000-10000 km, respectively. For one case, the radial extent of the wave was observed to be as large as $1.7 R_E$ [Takahashi et al., 1985b]. The oscillation phase of the wave field with radial distance (or with latitude for ground-based observations) is nearly constant [Walker et al., 1982; Takahashi et al., 1985a] or varies much slower than for Pc 5 waves that are externally driven field-line resonance [Allan et al., 1982].

In spite of its importance in theoretically discussing the mechanism for wave excitation [e.g., Southwood, 1976], the field-aligned

structure of storm time Pc 5 waves is much less understood than the azimuthal or radial structure. It is usually assumed that the waves have a standing (rather than propagating) structure along the field line, and there is some evidence to support this assumption in the form of the quadrature phase relation between the mutually orthogonal electric and magnetic field components [Walker et al., 1983; Pokhotelov et al., 1985]. The standing structure of the wave has been usually inferred from observations such as the phase and amplitude relation among the components of the electric and magnetic fields of the wave [Walker et al., 1983; Pokhotelov et al., 1985] or particle flux modulation caused by the wave [Takahashi and Higbie, 1986]. Only rare observations of the nodal structure of storm time Pc 5 waves have been made with spacecraft with varying magnetic latitude [Takahashi et al., 1985b]. Regarding the wavelength along the field line, Nagano and Araki [1983] argued that the waves have a significant amplitude only near the equator. Their argument was based on a statistical study of the magnetic field data from GOES 3 (magnetic latitude = 5°) and GOES 3 (9°). Probably owing to insufficient spatial coverage of the data, these studies led to various standing wave models for storm time Pc 5: a symmetric wave [Walker et al., 1982], an antisymmetric wave [Pokhotelov et al., 1985; Takahashi and Higbie, 1986], and a combination of a symmetric wave and an antisymmetric wave [Walker et al., 1983; Takahashi et al., 1985b].

Hereinafter we define the symmetry of a standing wave in terms of

field line displacement. With this definition, fixed-end, odd-mode (even-mode) standing waves, which have an antinode (node) of field-line displacement at the equator, are symmetric (antisymmetric). Since the transverse component of the perturbed magnetic field is proportional to the tilt of the local field line, a symmetric (antisymmetric) wave has a node (antinode) at the equator for the transverse component. In contrast, since magnetic field compression is inversely proportional to the distance between field lines (for one-dimensional compression), a symmetric (antisymmetric) wave has an antinode (node) at the equator for the compressional component.

In this report, we study the field-aligned structure of a storm time Pc 5 wave using magnetic field data from the four satellites—SCATHA, GOES 2, GOES 3, and GEOS 2—which were located at or near geostationary orbit. We have chosen a Pc 5 wave which occurred on November 14-15, 1979, because the event lasted for longer than 50 hours, and because from previous reports on the same event [Higbie et al., 1982; Takahashi et al., 1985a], we have some knowledge on the propagation characteristics and local time extent of the wave.

In support of a previous study based on energetic particle data [Takahashi and Higbie, 1986], we obtain clear evidence that the wave had an antisymmetric standing structure along the ambient magnetic field line. Furthermore, we demonstrate that the wave length parallel to the field line was only a few earth radii, which is much shorter than the length of the field line itself. These observations should make a considerable impact to

the theory of storm time Pc 5 waves. The organization of this report is as follows. In section 2, experiments and data are described. In Section 3, the data are analyzed. In Section 4, a phenomenological model of a standing wave is presented. In Section 5, we discuss the result of the data analysis in relation to the theories of the propagation and generation of hydromagnetic waves. Section 6 is the conclusion.

2. Experiments and Data

The magnetic field data have been acquired with fluxgate magnetometers. The descriptions of the experiments have been given by Fennell [1982] for SCATHA, by Grubb [1975] for GOES 2 and GOES 3, and by Knott [1982] for GEOS 2. We used 1-min vector magnetic field data, which were obtained by taking running averages of the original high-time-resolution data. We also used data from the plasma experiment on board SCATHA [Fennell, 1982] to determine ion pressure.

We were very fortunate that the four satellites were located at various magnetic latitudes. The geostationary satellites GOES 2, GOES 3, and GEOS 2 were located on the geographic equator at the geographic longitudes of 107°W , 135°W , and 15°E , which correspond to the magnetic latitudes of $\sim 9^{\circ}\text{N}$, $\sim 5^{\circ}\text{N}$, and $\sim 1^{\circ}\text{N}$, if we assume a centered dipole with its north pole directed to 78.3°N and 291.0°E in geographic coordinates. SCATHA had an elliptical orbit with an orbital period of 23.6 hours. The

apogee and perigee were $7.8 R_E$ and $5.3 R_E$, respectively, and the inclination of the orbit was 7.8° . During the course of the November 14-15 event, its magnetic latitude varied between -7° and 0° .

3. Data Analysis

Figure 1 summarizes the Pc 5 activity associated with the geomagnetic storm of November 13-15, 1979. At the top is the hourly D_{st} index, and at the bottom is the local time of the satellites, both plotted as a function of universal time. In the lower panel, the presence of a Pc 5 wave as observed by each spacecraft is indicated by the heavy portion of the orbit traces. The wave lasted at least the 54-hour period between 1800UT of November 13 and 2400UT of November 15. This corresponds to the recovery phase of the geomagnetic storm shown in the upper panel. From 0700UT of November 14 to 0500UT of November 15, the wave was observed over the entire dayside; therefore it deserves the designation of "a global Pc 5 wave" [Higbie et al., 1982]. We chose this 22-hour interval for a detailed study of the spatial structure of the wave.

3.1 Latitudinal variation of phase and amplitude

In Figure 2 we show the SCATHA magnetic field data to demonstrate the continuous wave activity. At the top are the 1-min averages of the magnetic field components B_V , B_D , and B_H , where $\hat{e}_H$ (northward) is

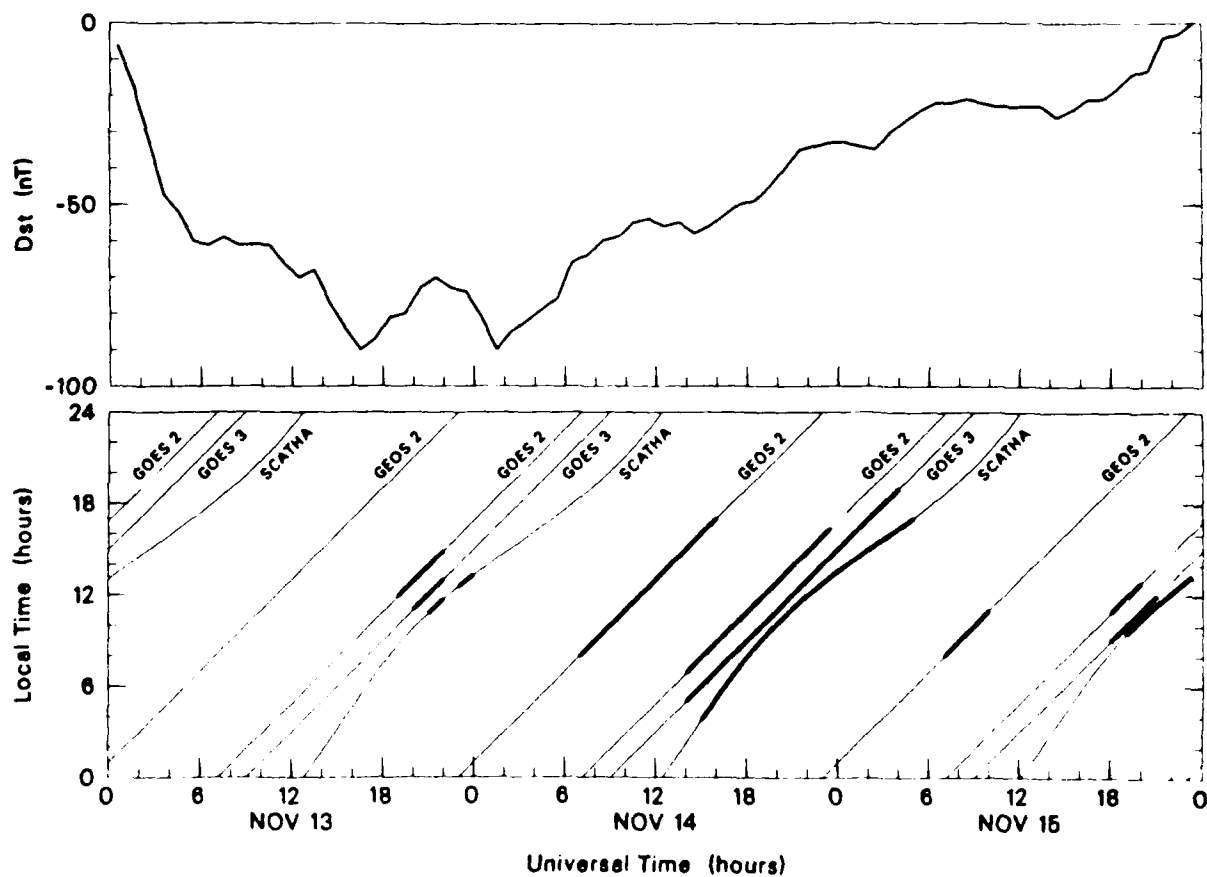


Figure 1. Overall Illustration of Pc 5 Activity (lower panel) and Its Relation to the Ring Current Intensity (upper panel) During the Interval of 13-15 November 1979. In the lower panel, the local time of the four satellites is illustrated as a function of universal time. The heavy portion of the orbit trace means the presence of a Pc 5 wave.

SCATHA Magnetometer, November 14-15, 1979
Dipole VDH Coordinates

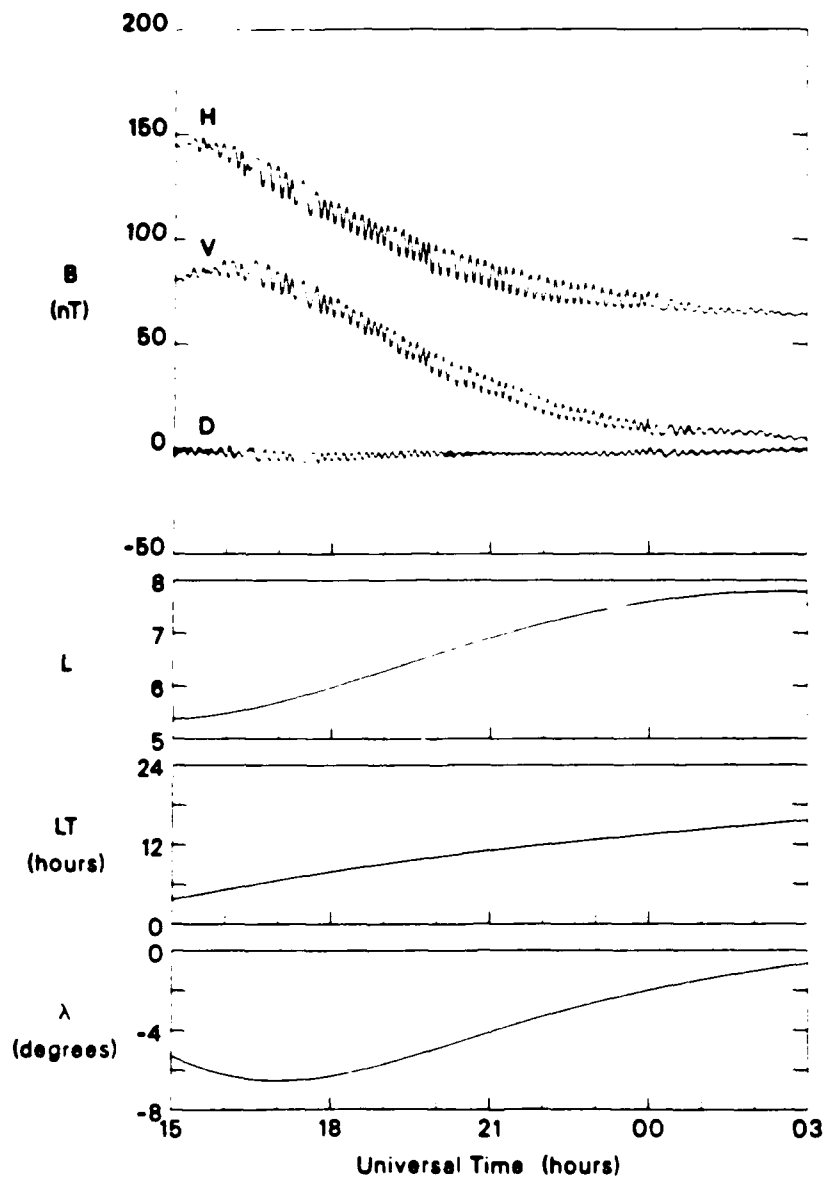


Figure 2. SCATHA Magnetic Field Showing a Continuous Wave Activity for the 12-hr Period (upper panel). The lower three panels show the position of the satellite in terms of magnetic shell parameter (L), local time (LT), and magnetic latitude (λ).

antiparallel to the geomagnetic dipole, $\hat{e}_D$ (eastward) is in the direction of $\hat{e}_H \times \underline{R}_S$, where $\underline{R}_S$ is the radial vector of the satellite with respect to the center of the earth, and $\hat{e}_V$ (outward) = $\hat{e}_D \times \hat{e}_H$ completes a triad. At the bottom are the L value, local time, and the magnetic latitude (λ) of the satellite. We used the centered dipole mentioned above to calculate L and λ .

The wave is present continuously for the 12-hour interval shown. It has an average period of 600 s, and all the three components show an oscillation of the same periodicity. The H component, which has the largest amplitude overall, demonstrates the highly compressional nature of the oscillation. The background field changes smoothly with the combined effects of the varying L and λ .

For the interval of 1900-2300UT, we obtained $\beta_{||} = 0.16-0.21$ and $\beta_{\perp} = 0.23-0.30$ from the SCATHA ion data (17 eV to 300 keV), where β is the ratio of plasma pressure to magnetic field pressure, and the subscripts "||" and " $\perp$ " refer to the components parallel and perpendicular to the ambient magnetic field. These values do not satisfy Hasegawa's [1969] condition for drift-mirror instability

$$1 + \beta_{\perp} \left(1 - \frac{\beta_{\perp}}{\beta_{||}}\right) < 0.$$

The same interval is shown in Figure 3 using an expanded time

SCATHA Magnetometer, November 14-15, 1979
Field Aligned Coordinates

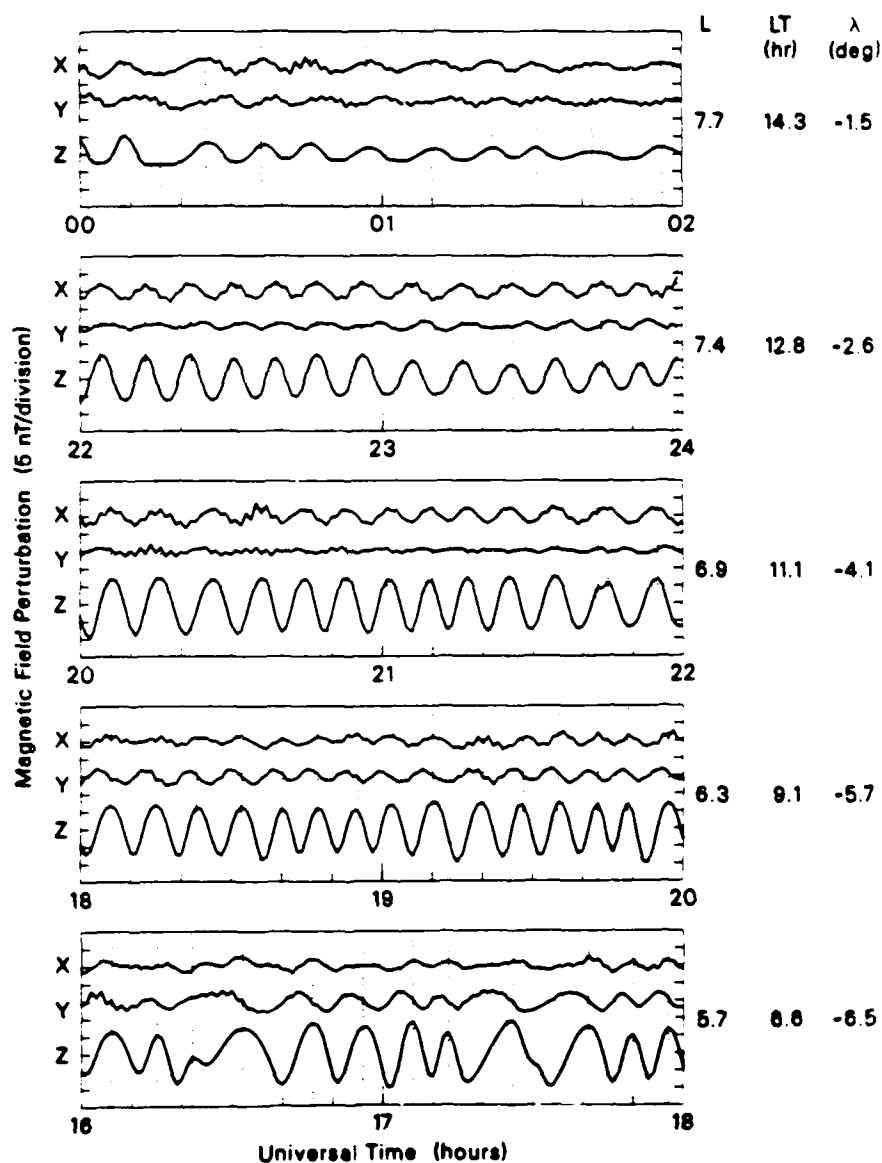


Figure 3. Sequence of SCATHA Magnetic Field Data Presented in the Detrended Field-Aligned Coordinates. The position parameters given at the right of each panel correspond to the center of the 2-hr segment. Vertical dotted lines are drawn to indicate the maxima of b_z .

scale and a field-aligned coordinate system. In this system, $\hat{e}_z$ (northward) is along the ambient field averaged over a 1-hour interval about each 1-min data point, $\hat{e}_y$ (eastward) is parallel to $\hat{e}_z \times \underline{R}_s$, and $\hat{e}_x$ (outward) = $\hat{e}_y \times \hat{e}_z$ completes the triad. For the z component, the trend has been removed by running average. In the text, the perturbation in the field components shall be denoted as b_x , b_y , or b_z hereinafter. We have organized the five 2-hour segments according to the geomagnetic latitude of the satellite, so the time runs from bottom to top. The L value, local time, and λ are given for the center of each 2-hour segment. In Figure 4 we have added the magnetic field data from the three geostationary satellites located at fixed magnetic latitudes. The format is the same as in Figure 3. All the data were taken around noon.

The key features to be noticed in Figure 3 and Figure 4 are the phase and amplitude relations among the field components. For example, b_y leads b_x by 90° at $\lambda = -6.5^\circ$ and -5.7° , b_y has a small amplitude at $\lambda = -4.1^\circ$ so that the relative phase cannot be defined, and at $\lambda = -2.6^\circ$ and 1.2° , b_x leads b_y by 90° . At $\lambda = 4.7^\circ$, b_y again has a very small amplitude. At $\lambda = 9.2^\circ$, b_x has a small amplitude, making it difficult to establish the phase lag. Amplitude and phase variations are also observed for b_z .

Although the wave event lasted very long, it is still possible that the amplitude changed with universal time, local time, or L value, as well as with magnetic latitude. Thus, use of raw amplitude makes the modeling of the field-aligned structure somewhat difficult. For this

**Geostationary Satellite Magnetometer
November 14, 1979
Field Aligned Coordinates**

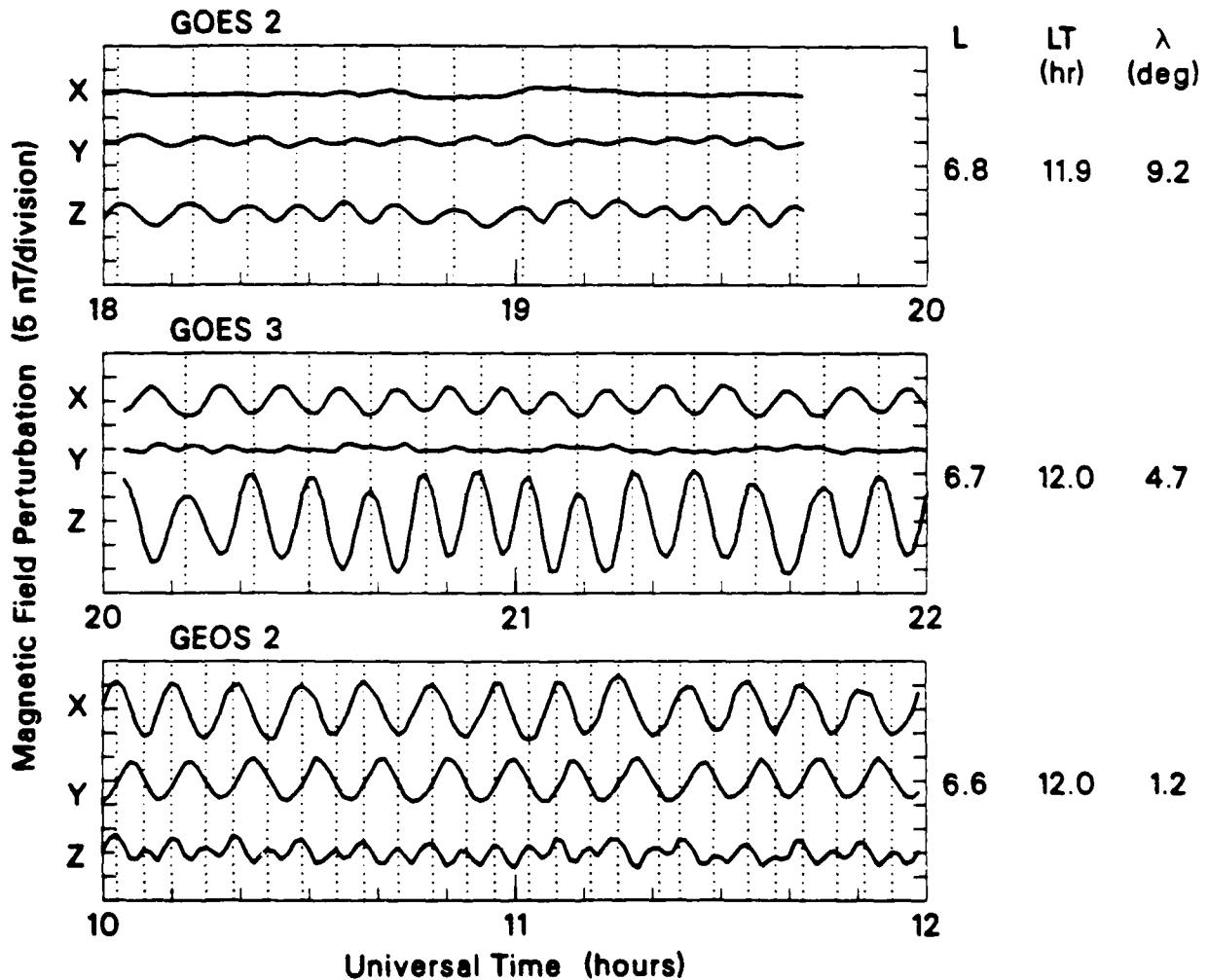


Figure 4. Same as Figure 3, Except for the Satellites

reason we introduced a normalized amplitude

$$\hat{b}_\alpha \equiv \left(\frac{\langle b_\alpha^2 \rangle}{\langle b_x^2 \rangle + \langle b_y^2 \rangle + \langle b_z^2 \rangle} \right)^{1/2}$$

to describe the variation of relative amplitudes among the field components with magnetic latitude. Here $\alpha = x, y, \text{ or } z$, and $\langle b_\alpha^2 \rangle$ is the mean-square amplitude of the magnetic field component obtained by integrating its power spectral density over the frequency range occupied by the wave. The spectral analysis was done on each of the 2-hour segments shown in Figures 3 and 4. In the same spectral analysis, the relative phases among the magnetic field components were also obtained. We denote by $\phi_{\alpha\beta}$ the relative phase of component α with respect to component β .

The normalized amplitude and the relative phase are illustrated in Figure 5 and Figure 6, respectively, as a function of magnetic latitude. The circles are the observational data points, and the curves are given by a model standing wave described below. In Figure 5, it is clear that the transverse components have a maximum amplitude near the magnetic equator and a minimum several degrees off the equator. In contrast, the compressional component has a minimum amplitude near the equator. In Figure 6, it is seen that the relative phase ϕ_{xy} or ϕ_{yz} is either -90° or 90° , and a switching occurs somewhere between $\lambda = -5^\circ$ and -3° . The relative phase ϕ_{zx} is either 0° or 180° , and a switching occurs somewhere between $\lambda =$

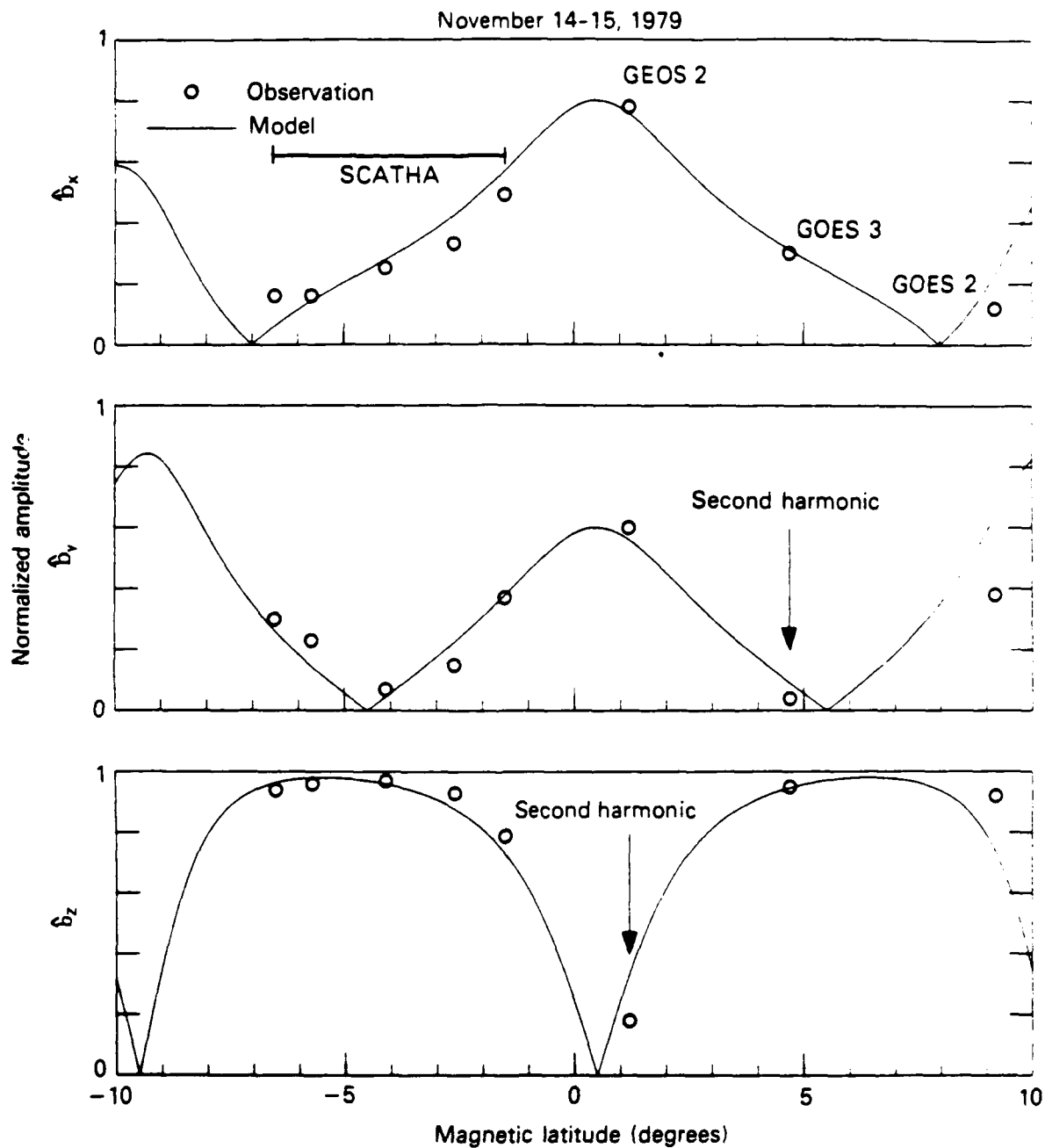


Figure 5. Normalized Amplitude of the Wave as a Function of Magnetic Latitude Given from Observation (circles) and a Model (curves). Spacecraft associated for the data points are indicated in the top panel. The arrows indicate the latitudes where a harmonic was observed. See text for the definition of the normalized amplitude and the model.

Latitude Dependence of Wave Phase Pc 5 Wave of November 14-15, 1979

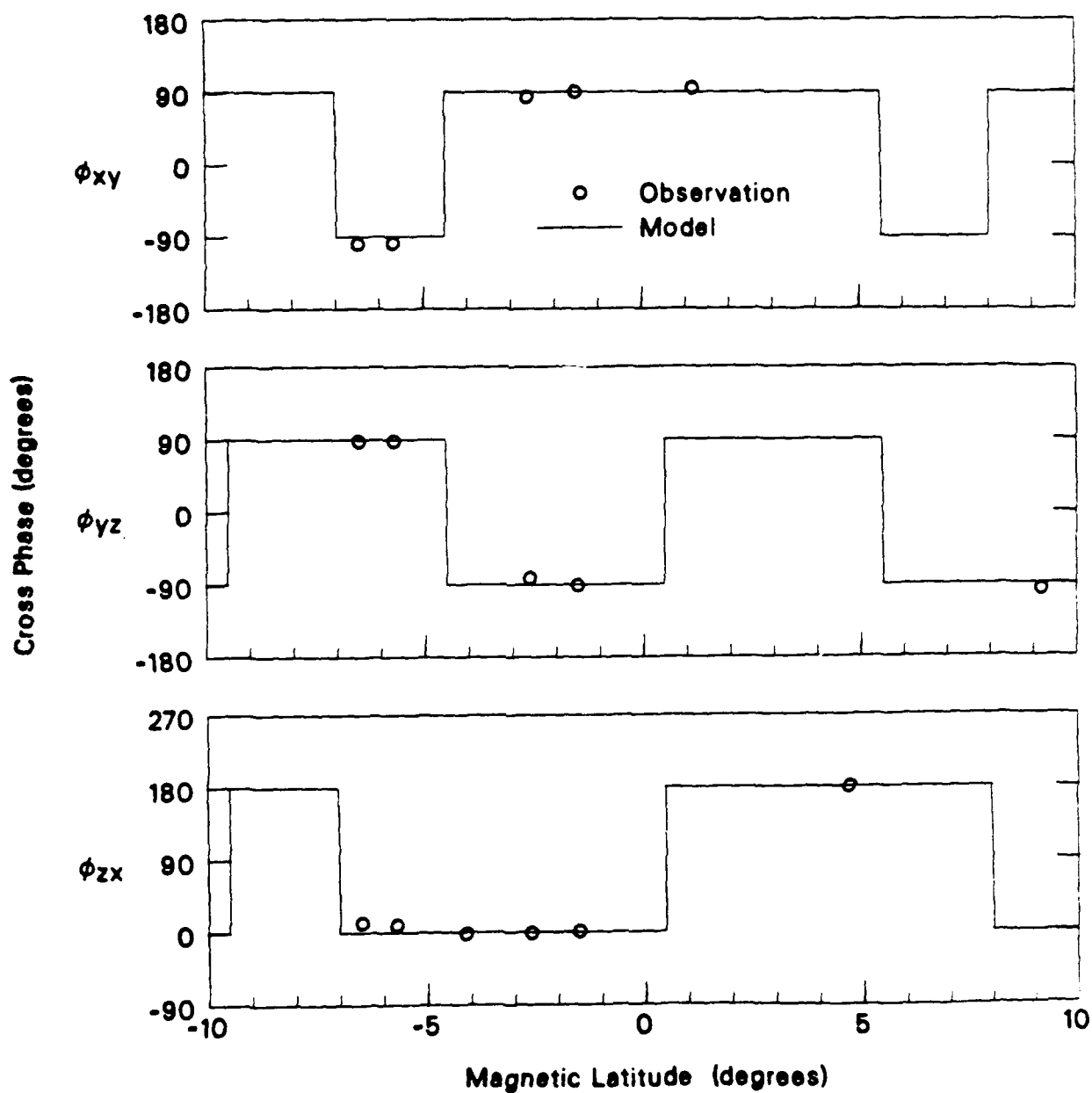


Figure 6. Intercomponent Cross Phase of the Wave Given from Observation (circles) and a Model (lines)

-1° and 4° .

We can argue that only b_y has a clear indication of a node within the latitude range covered by the SCATHA data. Figure 7 illustrates the latitude dependence of the normalized amplitude of the transverse magnetic field components and the phase lag between them. Note that we used only the transverse components for the normalization in order to emphasize the difference between the x and y components. That is, we have defined

$$\hat{b}_\alpha^* \equiv \left(\frac{\langle b_\alpha^2 \rangle}{\langle b_x^2 \rangle + \langle b_y^2 \rangle} \right)^{1/2}, \quad \alpha = x \text{ or } y.$$

Also, we used the mean variance $\langle b_x^2 \rangle$ or $\langle b_y^2 \rangle$ calculated on a cycle-by-cycle basis as an indicator of the amplitude, where the wave cycle was defined as the interval between two successive peaks of b_z . This method allows us to determine the latitude structure of the wave in a fine scale and also to evaluate the degree of data scattering at a given magnetic latitude. The middle panel indicates that b_y has a relative minimum at $\lambda \sim 4^\circ$, and the lower panel indicates that a change in relative phase occurred somewhere between $\lambda = -4.2^\circ$ and $\lambda = -3.3^\circ$. These observations can be taken as resulting from a node of b_y located near -4° . The value of ϕ_{xy} is constant between $\lambda = -6.6^\circ$ and $\lambda = -4.2^\circ$, and also between $\lambda = -3.3^\circ$ and $\lambda = -1.2^\circ$, from which we conclude that there is no node for b_x or b_y in these latitude ranges. This conclusion is further confirmed when we compare the amplitude

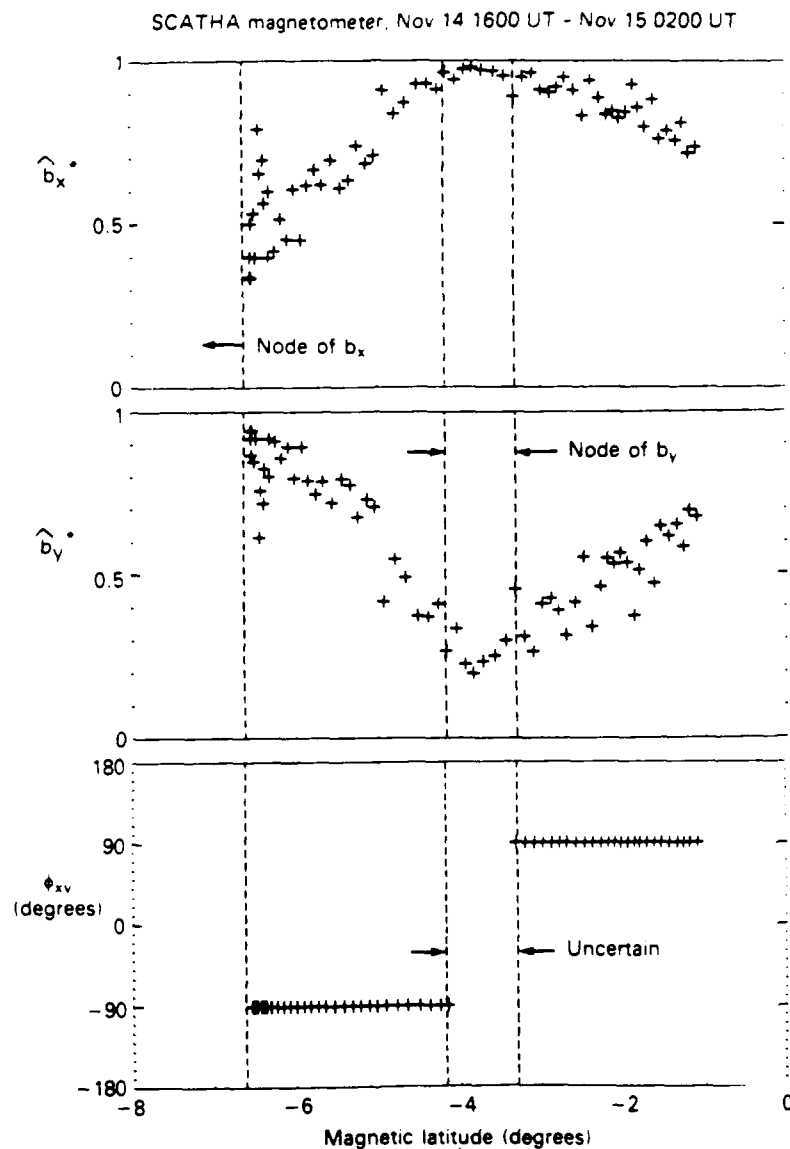


Figure 7. Cycle-by-Cycle Amplitude and Phase of the Transverse Magnetic Field Components. The vertical lines indicate a possible latitudinal range of the nodes of a standing wave. The relative phase ϕ_{xy} was determined by eyeball examination of the time plots of b_x and b_y . Whenever b_x (b_y) led b_y (b_x) by a phase difference smaller than 180° , the value of ϕ_{xy} was set to 90° (-90°).

plots between the two components. The minimum value of $\hat{b}_y^*$, corresponding to a b_y node, is ~ 0.2 , not exactly 0. This can be regarded as the result of noise added to the wave. Assuming that the noise has the same amplitude for b_x , we would expect that $\hat{b}_x^*$ would also reach ~ 0.2 at its node. All the data points for the component shown in the upper panel, however, are greater than 0.3; therefore we conclude that no node of b_x exists between $\lambda = -6.6^\circ$ and $\lambda = -1.2^\circ$.

From an inspection of the GOES 2 data, on the other hand, we can conclude that a node of b_x is located near the GOES 2 latitude of 9.2° . In Figure 2, the overall amplitude of the x component at GOES 2 is almost null. As an exception, the three wave cycles between 1825 and 1845 UT indicate a small but finite amplitude of b_x , and during this period b_x leads b_y by $\sim 90^\circ$, which is the same as the observation near the equator made by SCATHA or GEOS 2. This phase relation can be explained by assuming that a node was located between the equator and GOES 2 for both b_x and b_y , since ϕ_{xy} changes by 180° each time a node is crossed. However, we maintain the view that b_x and b_y have different node latitudes, as was the case with the SCATHA observation. An inspection of the ratio between b_x and b_y in the upper two panels of Figure 3 leads to the conclusion that b_y has a node near GOES 3 (5°), while b_x has a node near GOES 2 (9°).

3.2 Harmonics

An interesting wave form is observed in b_y and b_z . An example is

seen in the b_z trace of the lower panel (GEOS 2) of Figure 4. In this case b_z has an amplitude smaller than the transverse components, but we can see that it oscillates at twice the frequency of b_x and b_y . The b_z wave form is not a simple sinusoid: two consecutive peaks do not have the same height except near 1050UT.

Coleman [1970], who analyzed ATS 1 magnetic field data, was the first to report on this type of wave form. He called it the "rectified" version of b_x . Kokubun [1985] found the same phenomenon in GOES 2 and GOES 3 data and called it a "harmonic." Kokubun speculated that this phenomenon is localized in magnetic latitude, because the harmonic was more often observed at GOES 3 ($\lambda \sim 5^\circ$) than at GOES 2 ($\lambda \sim 9^\circ$).

Our data set from the four satellites clearly demonstrates that Kokubun's speculation is correct: the harmonic b_z oscillation occurred only at $\lambda \sim 1^\circ$ in our case. The persistence of this phenomenon and its stability in latitudinal localization was confirmed by scanning the data for 0600-2400UT of November 15, the interval following the one analyzed above. Only GEOS 2 ($\lambda \sim 1^\circ$), among the four satellites, observed the harmonic.

A careful inspection of the GOES 3 data in Figure 4 (its expanded version is shown in Figure 8) reveals that a similar wave form occurs at $\lambda \sim 5^\circ$ in b_y . Although the wave form is essentially the same as for b_z , in this case it is not appropriate to call b_y the rectified version of any other components because the peaks occur at epochs when b_x and b_z are close

GOES 3 magnetometer, November 14, 1979, field aligned coordinates

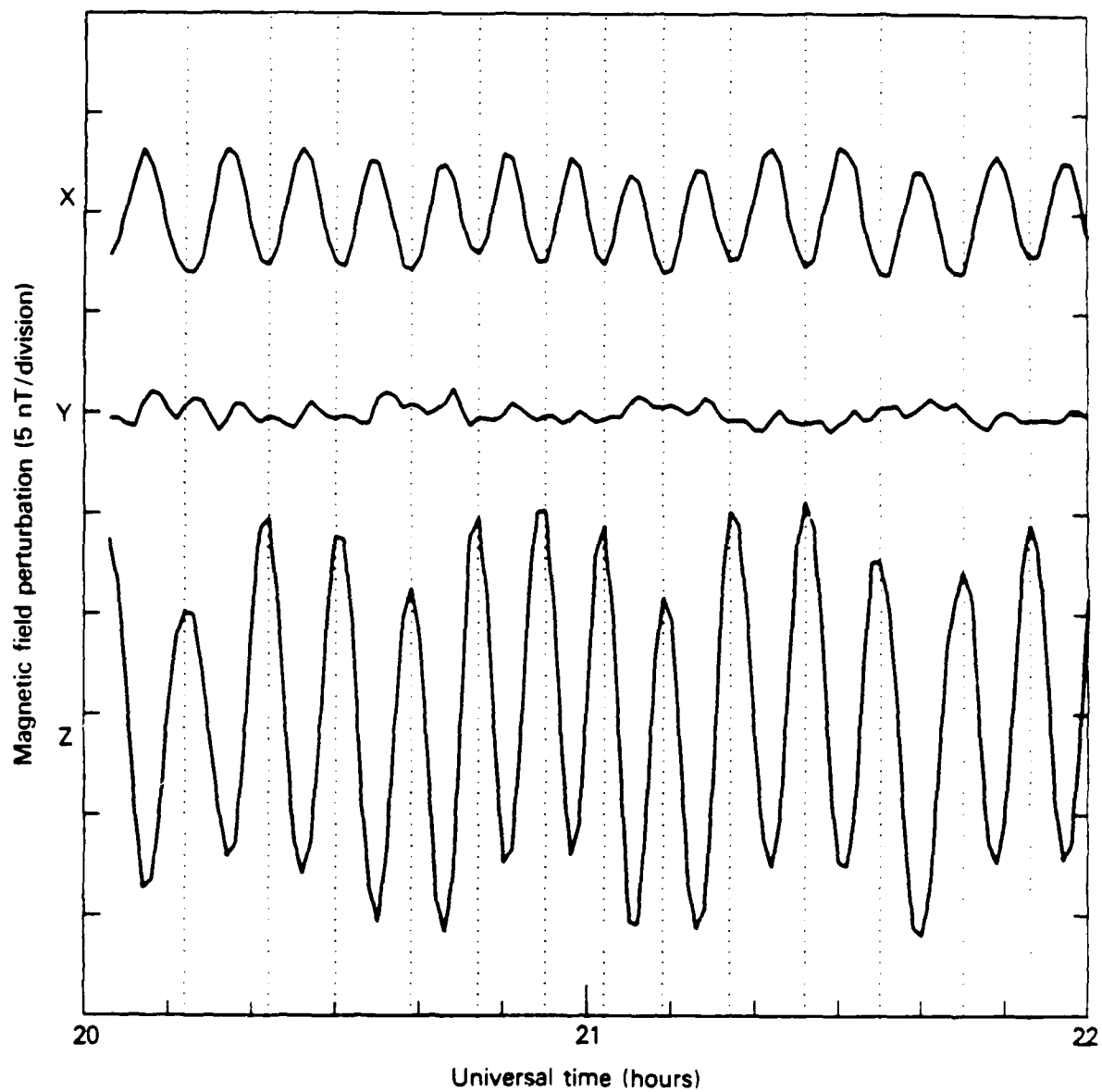


Figure 8. Expanded Version of the GOES 3 Magnetic Field Data Shown in Figure 4. Notice the "harmonic" in the y component.

to zero.

4. Phenomenological Model

A simple phenomenological standing wave model can be constructed to describe the observed latitude dependence of the amplitude and phase of the wave. The model we adopted and show in Figures 5 and 6 has the following form:

$$b_x = \beta_x \cos\{k_z(z-z_0)\} e^{i(k_y y - \omega t)} \quad (1a)$$

$$b_y = i\beta_y \cos\{k'_z(z-z_0)\} e^{i(k_y y - \omega t)} \quad (1b)$$

$$b_z = -\beta_z \sin\{k'_z(z-z_0)\} e^{i(k_y y - \omega t)} \quad (1c)$$

where β_α ($\alpha = x, y, \text{ or } z$), k_z , k'_z , and ω are real and positive. The phase factor $e^{i(k_y y - \omega t)}$ takes into account the observed azimuthal propagation of the wave. According to Takahashi et al. [1985a], who studied the same wave event, $k_y \sim \frac{-2\pi}{0.6} (R_E^{-1})$, where the minus sign means westward propagation. The relative phase among the components at any latitude (i.e., z coordinate) can be derived by taking the real part of (1a)-(1c).

The parameters in (1a)-(1c) are determined by trial and error. A reasonable fit to the data was obtained with $\beta_x : \beta_y : \beta_z = 4 : 3 : 8$, $k_z = \frac{2\pi}{3.5} (R_E^{-1})$, $k'_z = \frac{2\pi}{2.3} (R_E^{-1})$, and $z_0 = 0.085 R_E$, where z_0 accounts for the

apparent offset of the wave node from the nominal magnetic equator. The fitting of the model was done using the 2-hour data points. Although the model has nodes for b_x and b_y at latitudes slightly different than those discussed in section 3 using cycle-by-cycle wave analysis, the important fact that the different components can have different node latitudes is well taken into account. In practice, z_0 is much smaller than the parallel wavelength, so we can regard that the node (antinode) of b_z (b_x and b_y) lies at the equator. This means that the wave has an antisymmetric standing wave structure.

Because we are trying to model the wave over the latitudinal range from -7° to 9° , we can use an approximation $z \sim LR_E \lambda$ to relate the magnetic latitude to distance along the field line. We assumed in Figure 5 and Figure 6 that the relative phase and the normalized amplitude are a function of magnetic latitude only. Thus the corresponding wavelength depends on the L value. The values for k_z , k'_z , and z_0 used above correspond to the geostationary distance $L \sim 6.6$. We should also emphasize that the model (1a)-(1c) probably applies only to the latitudinal range of $\lambda \sim -10^\circ$ to $\lambda \sim 10^\circ$, in which geostationary satellites stay. At present we have no knowledge how the wave structure might change for $|\lambda| \geq 10^\circ$. However, it is obvious because of the inhomogeneity of the ambient magnetic field, we cannot simply assume that the wave field changes with the same wavelength all the way to the ionosphere.

5. Discussion

The observations presented above and summarized in terms of a simple standing wave model have the following physical implications.

5.1. Short parallel wavelength

We have clearly observed nodes for the transverse components at several degrees off the dipole equator. This means that the parallel wave length is only a few earth radii for the components. We have observed only one node for the compressional component, but this is because of the limited latitude coverage of the satellites. It is very likely that the compressional component also has a parallel wavelength of a few earth radii. Such a short parallel wavelength is not consistent with the model in which a compressional wave (drift-mirror mode) is coupled to the fundamental mode of the guided poloidal wave (shear Alfvén mode) as was suggested by Walker et al. [1982]. A fundamental mode has half a wavelength along the geomagnetic field line, which means a wavelength of $30 R_E$ or so at $L \sim 6.6$. In fact, with the wave frequency of 0.002 MHz and the parallel wavelength ($\sim 3 R_E$) obtained above, any shear Alfvén resonance $\omega - k_z V_A = 0$ is not likely, where V_A is the Alfvén velocity. From the frequencies of multiharmonic standing Alfvén waves, the equatorial plasma mass density during the November 14 event has been estimated to be 25 amu/cm^3 [Takahashi et al., 1985a]. For this density, the Alfvén wave must

satisfy the dispersion relation $\omega/k_z = V_A = 400$ km/s at geosynchronous orbit. However, from the ω and k_z of our Pc 5 wave, we find $\omega/k_z = 40$ km/s, which is in great disagreement with the dispersion relation.

5.2 Multiple wavelengths

The two transverse components, b_x and b_y , have nodes at different magnetic latitudes. The same phenomenon was observed by the ISEE-1 and -2 spacecraft by Takahashi et al. [1985b]. They explained the observation by invoking a symmetric wave for b_y and an antisymmetric wave for b_x . With our present observation, we conclude that it is not necessary to assume the symmetric and antisymmetric combination. All the components oscillate in an antisymmetric mode, but the wavelength is component dependent.

Southwood and Kivelson [1986] theoretically demonstrated that a compressional wave and a transverse wave can have different amplitude variations along the field line, provided that the plasma density has a gradient along the field line. Although in their argument a box-model of the magnetosphere and a cold plasma were assumed, the essential ingredient of the theory, the field aligned density gradient, should be generally present in the real magnetosphere; therefore, their theory may apply to our result.

5.3. Polarization

The magnetic field perturbation of the wave has components in the

x, y, and z directions. The relative phase among the magnetic field components, as illustrated in Figure 6, is either 0 , $\pm 90^\circ$, or 180° and switches by 180° as the observing satellites move across the nodes of the wave. Here we demonstrate that these polarization characteristics can be explained in terms of wave propagation in an inhomogeneous medium. What follows is a slight modification to the discussion given by Walker et al. [1982].

In general, the perturbation electric field $\underline{E}$ for a wave having a wave vector $\underline{k}$ satisfies

$$\underline{k} (\underline{k} \cdot \underline{E}) - k^2 \underline{E} + (I + \epsilon) \cdot \underline{E} = 0$$

where ϵ is the dielectric tensor. Walker et al. [1982] derived the expression of ϵ for a wave propagating perpendicular to the gradient of the magnetic field strength in a plasma which is characterized by ion guiding center drift. Using their result, we find that the transverse electric field components E_x and E_y are related as

$$-[(\beta_{\parallel} - \beta_{\perp} - 2)k_z^2 + \frac{2\omega^2}{v_A^2}]E_y + ik_y K(\beta_{\parallel} + \beta_{\perp})E_x = 0. \quad (2)$$

We have neglected electron pressure, which is small in the storm time ring current region. The parameter K , which is real and positive, is equivalent

to the inverse gradient scale length of the magnetic field intensity. Since a local approximation has been made, equation (2) is valid for the case $|k_y| \gg K$, ℓ_x^{-1} , where ℓ_x is the radial scale length of the wave field. For a wave field which varies as $\exp[i(k_y y + k_z z - \omega t)]$, we obtain from Faraday's law

$$-k_z E_y = \frac{\omega}{c} b_x \quad (3a)$$

$$k_z E_x = \frac{\omega}{c} b_y \quad (3b)$$

$$-k_y E_x = \frac{\omega}{c} b_z \quad (3c)$$

where $\partial E_y / \partial x = 0$ is used in the spirit of local approximation. Also we assumed $E_z = 0$.

In the manner described by Walker et al. [1982] we can construct a standing wave by the superposition of two propagating waves. Unlike Walker et al. [1982], who assumed a symmetric mode, we shall assume an antisymmetric mode for the standing wave. In this model, we take that the radial magnetic field perturbation consists of the following two wave components

$$b_x^+ = \frac{1}{2} A e^{i(k_y y + k_z z - \omega t)}$$

and

$$b_x^- = \frac{1}{2} A e^{i(k_y y - k_z z - \omega t)}$$

where A is a constant representing the amplitude of the waves. Omitting the common phase factor $e^{i(k_y y - \omega t)}$, the perturbations in other field components corresponding to the above waves can be obtained from (2) and (3a)-(3b) as

$$b_y^\pm = - \frac{i \alpha k_z^2}{k_y K} b_x^\pm \quad (4a)$$

$$b_z^\pm = \pm \frac{i \alpha k_z}{K} b_x^\pm \quad (4b)$$

where we have defined

$$\alpha \equiv - \frac{-(\beta_{\parallel} - \beta_{\perp} - 2) + \frac{2\omega^2}{V_A^2 k_z^2}}{(\beta_{\parallel} + \beta_{\perp})}$$

Then, the standing wave structure for each component becomes

$$b_x = b_x^+ + b_x^- = A \cos(k_z z) \quad (5a)$$

$$b_y = b_y^+ + b_y^- = - \frac{ia k_z^2}{k_y K} A \cos(k_z z) \quad (5b)$$

$$b_z = b_z^+ + b_z^- = - \frac{\alpha k_z}{K} A \sin(k_z z) . \quad (5c)$$

From the discussion presented above, $k_z^2 \gg \frac{\omega^2}{v_A^2}$ holds for our observation, and from SCATHA plasma experiment, we have $\beta_{\perp} = 0.23-0.30$ and $\beta_{\parallel} = 0.16-0.21$. Those taken into account, we find $\alpha > 0$. Then, taking $k_y < 0$ to be consistent with the observed westward propagation, we find that (5a)-(5c) have the same form as (1a)-(1c) except for the different parallel wavelengths for different components and a small shift of the node from the equator. Thus if we ignore these minor points, the observed phase relations among the components can be explained by the technique of Walker et al. [1982].

Walker et al. associated b_x with a shear Alfvén wave and b_y and b_z with a drift-mirror wave. They argued that the drift-mirror wave propagates at the guiding center drift velocity of ions instead of the diamagnetic drift velocity as was originally discussed by Hasegawa [1969]. This argument has some observational support: our wave propagated westward at a velocity of ~ 10 km/s, the guiding center drift velocity expected for ring current ions with energy of ~ 10 keV. However, the drift-mirror

instability condition was not satisfied, at least at the SCATHA location. Walker et al. further argued that the wave is excited when the coupling condition $\omega = k_y V_d = k_z V_A$ between the drift-mirror wave and the Alfvén wave is satisfied, where V_d is the guiding center drift velocity of ions. As discussed above, this prediction does not match our observation either, as discussed above. It seems that Walker et al.'s theory has a limited success here.

5.4. Antisymmetric standing wave structure

Our Pc 5 wave clearly had an antisymmetric standing wave structure. At present we do not know why this is the case. Drift mirror instability of Hasegawa [1969] or Walker et al. [1982] does not have a mechanism to excite an antisymmetric wave preferentially, because the slab geometry which they assumed does not take into account the presence of plasma and field inhomogeneity in the direction of the ambient magnetic field or the presence of bouncing particles.

In view of bounce-drift resonance excitation of ULF waves in the earth's dipole field [Southwood, 1976], there is an intimate relation between the field-aligned structure of the wave and the type of resonance. On one hand there is drift resonance $\omega - m\omega_d = 0$, which could lead to generation of symmetric standing waves. Here, m is the azimuthal wave number, and ω_d is the drift frequency of a given ion species. This preference for symmetric waves does not allow us to apply the resonance to

our observation, although the wave angular velocity $\omega/m = \omega_d$ predicted by the resonance condition could explain why the wave propagates westward at a velocity (~ 10 km/s) comparable to the guiding center drift velocity of the ring current ions (~ 10 keV).

On the other hand, the drift-bounce resonance $\omega - m\omega_d = \pm\omega_b$ is related to generation of antisymmetric waves, where ω_b is the bounce frequency. Because of the added term on the right-hand side of the equation, this resonance condition does not always imply westward propagation (i.e., $\omega/m < 0$). However, we could estimate the energy of protons which is consistent with the observed values of $\omega \sim 2$ mHz and $m \sim -60$ [Takahashi et al., 1985a]. Using the formula of Hamlin et al. [1961] for particles mirroring near the equator, we find that protons of ~ 0.3 keV or ~ 400 keV can satisfy the resonance condition $\omega - m\omega_d = \pm\omega_b$. Such energy is outside the typical energy range of ring current protons; hence this resonance mechanism contradicts the view that the ultimate energy source for storm time Pc 5 waves is the ring current ions.

5.5 Harmonics

If a bounded plasma has an MHD eigenmode $(\omega, \underline{k})$, its harmonic $(2\omega, 2\underline{k})$ is also an eigenmode. So, a simple way to explain the observed harmonic is to assume a small-amplitude wave with 2ω and $2\underline{k}$. For example, we may have

$$b_y = i\delta_y \sin 2k'_z(z-z_0) e^{2i(k_y y - \omega t)} \quad (6a)$$

$$b_z = -\delta_z \cos 2k'_z(z-z_0) e^{2i(k_y y - \omega t)} \quad (6b)$$

superposed on the wave described by (1a)-(1c), where $\delta_y \ll \beta_y$ and $\delta_z \ll \beta_z$. We assumed that each component of (6a) and (6b) has the symmetry opposite to that of its counterpart in (1b) and (1c). This is necessary in order to have a finite-amplitude harmonic at the nodes of the "fundamental" wave described by (1a)-(1c), but we cannot offer an explanation why this is so.

Such a description is highly phenomenological, and there could be other ways than (6a) and (6b) to describe the observed harmonics [Higuchi et al., 1986; Takahashi et al., 1987]. The questions of whether the harmonic is a general property of storm time Pc 5 waves and whether it has any fundamental importance to the wave excitation mechanism need to be answered by further observational and theoretical work.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion we have presented convincing evidence that the Pc 5 wave of November 14-15, 1979, had an antisymmetric standing wave structure with a parallel wavelength of a few earth radii. Although the event was unusual in that it lasted for such a long period as ~50 hours, we speculate that the structure could be common to other storm time Pc 5 waves.

Previously proposed theories on storm time Pc 5 waves did not take into account an antisymmetric standing wave structure or a short wave length along the ambient field lines. Naturally they fail to give an explanation for our present observation. A new theoretical development seems to be required for the excitation mechanism of storm time Pc 5 waves.

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