

First observations of the disruption of the Earth's foreshock wave field during magnetic clouds

L. Turc¹, O. W. Roberts^{2,3}, M. O. Archer⁴, M. Palmroth^{1,5}, M. Battarbee¹, T.
Brito¹, U. Ganse¹, M. Grandin¹, Y. Pfau-Kempf¹, C. P. Escoubet³, and I.
Dandouras⁶

¹Department of Physics, P.O. Box 68, 00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

²Space Research Institute, Austrian Academy of Sciences, Schmiedlstrasse 6, 8042 Graz, Austria

³Directorate of Science, European Space Research and Technology Centre (ESA/ESTEC), Keplerlaan 1,
2201 AZ Noordwijk, The Netherlands

⁴School of Physics and Astronomy, Queen Mary University of London, Mile End Road, London E1 4NS,
United Kingdom

⁵Finnish Meteorological Institute, P.O. BOX 503, 00101 Helsinki, Finland

⁶IRAP, Université de Toulouse / CNRS / UPS / CNES, 9 Ave. du Colonel Roche, 31400 Toulouse,
France

Key Points:

- When reaching geospace, magnetic clouds modify significantly the properties of the first geophysical region they encounter, the foreshock
- Typical quasi-monochromatic foreshock waves are replaced by a superposition of waves at different periods with a shorter transverse extent
- Multiple field-aligned beams observed during one event suggest a link between the multiple wave periods and the suprathermal ion properties

Corresponding author: Lucile Turc, lucile.turc@helsinki.fi

Abstract

The foreshock, extending upstream of Earth’s bow shock, is a region of intense electromagnetic wave activity and nonlinear phenomena which can have global effects on geospace. It is also the first geophysical region encountered by solar wind disturbances journeying towards Earth. Here, we present the first observations of considerable modifications of the foreshock wave field during extreme events of solar origin called magnetic clouds. Cluster’s multi-spacecraft data reveal that the typical quasi-monochromatic foreshock waves can be completely replaced by a superposition of waves each with shorter correlation lengths. Global numerical simulations further confirm that the foreshock wave field is more intricate and organized at smaller scales. Ion measurements suggest that changes in shock-reflected particle properties may cause these modifications of the wave field. This state of the foreshock is encountered only during extreme events at Earth, but intense magnetic fields are typical close to the Sun or other stars.

Plain Language Summary

Solar storms are giant clouds of particles ejected from the Sun into space during solar eruptions. When solar storms are directed towards Earth, they can cause large disturbances in near-Earth space, for example disrupting communications or damaging spacecraft electronics. Understanding in detail what happens when solar storms reach Earth is crucial to mitigate their effects. Using measurements from the Cluster spacecraft, we investigate how solar storms modify the properties of the very first region of near-Earth space they encounter when journeying towards Earth. This region, called the foreshock, extends ahead of the protective bubble formed by the Earth’s magnetic field, the magnetosphere. The foreshock is home to intense electromagnetic waves, and disturbances in this region can perturb the Earth’s magnetosphere. Our study reveals that solar storms modify profoundly the foreshock, resulting in a more complex wave activity. Global numerical simulations performed with the Vlasiator code confirm our findings. These changes could affect the regions of space closer to Earth, for example in modifying the wave properties or the amount of solar particles entering the Earth’s magnetosphere. This needs to be taken into account to better anticipate the effects of solar storms at Earth.

1 Introduction

Magnetic clouds are strongly-geoeffective solar transients, characterized by an enhanced and smoothly-rotating magnetic field (Huttunen et al., 2005; Yermolaev et al., 2012). Understanding the details of their interaction with near-Earth space is crucial to forecast accurately their space weather effects. On their earthward journey, the first geophysical region that incoming magnetic clouds encounter is the Earth’s foreshock.

The foreshock extends upstream of the quasi-parallel sector of the Earth’s bow shock, where the θ_{Bn} angle between the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) and the shock normal is below $\sim 45^\circ$ (Eastwood, Lucek, et al., 2005). The foreshock is permeated with intense electromagnetic waves, generated through plasma instabilities triggered by shock-reflected particles (Eastwood, Lucek, et al., 2005; Wilson, 2016). Foreshock processes can have global effects on the Earth’s magnetosphere, causing enhanced wave activity down to the Earth’s surface (Bier et al., 2014), or triggering geoeffective fast magnetosheath jets (Plaschke et al., 2018). Changes in the foreshock properties can therefore significantly affect conditions throughout geospace.

The most common waves in the Earth’s ion foreshock are the so-called 30 s waves (Eastwood et al., 2002), quasi-monochromatic magnetic field fluctuations at a period around 30 s, left-handed in the spacecraft frame. Their wavelength is about 1 R_E (1 Earth radius = 6371 km), while their finite transverse extent ranges between 8 and 18 R_E (Archer et al., 2005). Close to the wave vector direction, the wave front is essentially planar over

several R_E , and the overall shape of the waves is approximately an oblate spheroid (Archer et al., 2005). They have been identified as fast magnetosonic waves propagating sunward in the plasma frame, but advected earthward by the faster solar wind flow (Eastwood, Balogh, et al., 2005a). They are excited by backstreaming field-aligned beams (FABs) via the right-hand resonant ion-ion beam instability. The cyclotron resonance condition associated with this mode is:

$$\omega = V_{\text{beam}}k_{\parallel} - \Omega_{\text{ci}} \quad (1)$$

where V_{beam} is the beam velocity and Ω_{ci} the ion gyrofrequency. These waves are generated around the mode interaction point of the cyclotron resonance with the fast magnetosonic branch, which can be approximated here as $\omega = v_A k_{\parallel}$, where v_A is the Alfvén velocity (e.g., Eastwood, Balogh, et al. (2005a)).

In spacecraft measurements, these waves are not observed in conjunction with the FABs that generated them, but with intermediate, gyrating or gyrophase-bunched distributions (Eastwood, Balogh, et al., 2005a; Kempf et al., 2015). Measurements taken shortly before or after observing the foreshock waves have however brought quantitative evidence of a cyclotron resonance between FABs and waves (Eastwood, Lucek, et al., 2005, and references therein). These waves have been extensively studied since their discovery (Greenstadt et al., 1968; Eastwood, Balogh, et al., 2005a, 2005b; Palmroth et al., 2015), and it is well-established that their period depends on the IMF strength and orientation (Takahashi et al., 1984; Le & Russell, 1996).

Even though magnetic clouds are the most geoeffective solar wind disturbances, there are no studies focusing on the foreshock properties during such events. Recent numerical simulations predict that an enhanced IMF strength, as is encountered during magnetic clouds, could strongly affect the foreshock wave properties and their large-scale structuring (Turc et al., 2018). These simulations were however limited to a single set of upstream conditions, warranting a more general observational investigation.

2 Event identification

Observations of foreshock waves during magnetic clouds are rare, as these transients pass by Earth only about 2% of the time (Yermolaev et al., 2012), and Earth-orbiting spacecraft cross the foreshock only sporadically. In the early phase (2001-2005) of the Cluster mission (Escoubet et al., 2001), the spacecraft separations are similar to the wave characteristic sizes (a few hundred kilometers), which allows us to determine accurately the wave properties. Using the catalogue introduced in Turc et al. (2016), we identify events when Cluster observes foreshock waves during a magnetic cloud and divide them into 5-min intervals.

Foreshock fast magnetosonic waves are mostly transverse and propagate at a small angle relative to the magnetic field vector (Eastwood, Balogh, et al., 2005b). Measurements from Cluster’s fluxgate magnetometer (Balogh et al., 1997) are projected onto a frame where one axis is parallel to the mean magnetic field during the 5-min interval and the two others are perpendicular to it, forming a right-handed triplet. Then we perform a wavelet transform on the perpendicular magnetic field components and calculate the wavelet phase difference, to check the wave polarization (Torrence & Compo, 1998). Intervals of steepened waves and discrete wave packets are visually identified and rejected.

In total, we find six magnetic clouds with observations of left-handed foreshock waves (see Table S1 in the supporting information). These observations take place several hours after the passage of the interplanetary shock preceding the magnetic cloud, when near-Earth space is embedded deep within the magnetic cloud, which dictates the upstream conditions for the foreshock to develop. These strongly differ from typical solar wind conditions, in particular due to the clouds’ large IMF strength.

119 3 Results

120 3.1 A more intricate form of wave activity

121 During most events, we find that the foreshock wave field departs significantly from
 122 its usual state. To facilitate the comparison, Figure 1 shows an example of typical fore-
 123 shock waves on 18 February 2003 analyzed in previous studies (Archer et al., 2005; Kis
 124 et al., 2007; Hobara et al., 2007) (left) together with representative observations during
 125 a magnetic cloud on 19 January 2005 (right). In both cases, foreshock waves appear as
 126 large-amplitude magnetic field oscillations, especially in the two perpendicular compo-
 127 nents (panels c-d and i-j). During quiet conditions, the wavelet power spectrum show-
 128 cases a rather narrow band of strong wave power around 30 s (panel e), while during mag-
 129 netic clouds (panel k) high fluctuation power is observed at periods between 5 and 30 s.
 130 The contours highlight where the wave power is strongest, showing that the fluctuations
 131 are left-handed in the spacecraft frame (in blue in the phase difference plot, panel l).

132 Cluster’s relative position in the foreshock can be determined from its measurements
 133 prior to the foreshock waves observations. Before 13:34 UT on 19 January 2005, Clus-
 134 ter was just outside the Earth’s foreshock. The IMF rotation inside the magnetic cloud
 135 results in a progressive change of the θ_{Bn} angle along the field line connecting Cluster
 136 to the bow shock from 60° at 13:30 UT to 40° at 14:00 UT, according to a model bow
 137 shock (Jeřáb et al., 2005). Consequently, the spacecraft probe the outer foreshock, pop-
 138 ulated by FABs, from 13:34 UT, and then the foreshock wave field from 13:42 UT. In
 139 such a configuration, one would expect to observe the usual quasi-monochromatic fast
 140 magnetosonic waves. However, the power spectra of the left-handed foreshock waves dis-
 141 play multiple spectral peaks whose periods vary with time (Figure 1k). This intricate
 142 spectrum is neither associated with right-handed polarization (in red in the phase dif-
 143 ference plot), nor with highly steepened waves.

144 To identify the wave mode, we use two independent methods, multi-spacecraft tim-
 145 ing analysis (Schwartz, 1998) (applied to bandpass filtered data to separate the differ-
 146 ent wave periods) and multipoint signal resonator (MSR) (Narita et al., 2011) (see sup-
 147 porting information). Their results for the first minutes of the data set are given in Ta-
 148 ble S2. The timing analysis yields wave vectors within 30° of the magnetic field. With
 149 the MSR technique, we find that the power distribution in wave vector space maximizes
 150 at two different wave vectors, showing the coexistence of two waves. The orientation of
 151 all wave vectors \mathbf{k} towards $-x$ (i.e. earthward) and the negative wave velocities in the
 152 plasma frame $V_{\text{wave,pl}}$ indicate that the waves propagate sunward in the plasma frame
 153 and are intrinsically right-handed. This rules out 10 s Alfvén waves, intrinsically left-
 154 handed (Eastwood et al., 2003). The Alfvén velocity was about 294 ± 158 km/s dur-
 155 ing this interval, the large uncertainties being due to large density fluctuations, as mea-
 156 sured by the Cluster Ion Spectrometer (CIS) (Rème et al., 2001). The estimated wave
 157 speeds are comparable to the Alfvén velocity, which is close to the fast magnetosonic speed
 158 for large IMF strengths. These properties are all consistent with those of fast magne-
 159 tosonic waves.

160 Both wave analysis techniques therefore consistently identify a superposition of fast
 161 magnetosonic waves at different periods, ranging between 6 and 17 s. These periods, lower
 162 than the usual 30 s, are due to the magnetic cloud’s large IMF strength, here 11 nT, while
 163 its average value at Earth is about 5 nT. The frequency of foreshock fast magnetosonic
 164 waves changes with the IMF strength because their dispersion relation depends on this
 165 parameter, among others (Krauss-Varban et al., 1994). According to the Takahashi et
 166 al. (1984) empirical formula, the wave period should be 17 s under these solar wind con-
 167 ditions, very similar to the 18 s predicted by the Le and Russell (1996) formula, and con-
 168 sistent with the largest periods we observe. However, the lower wave periods are not ac-
 169 counted for by these models.

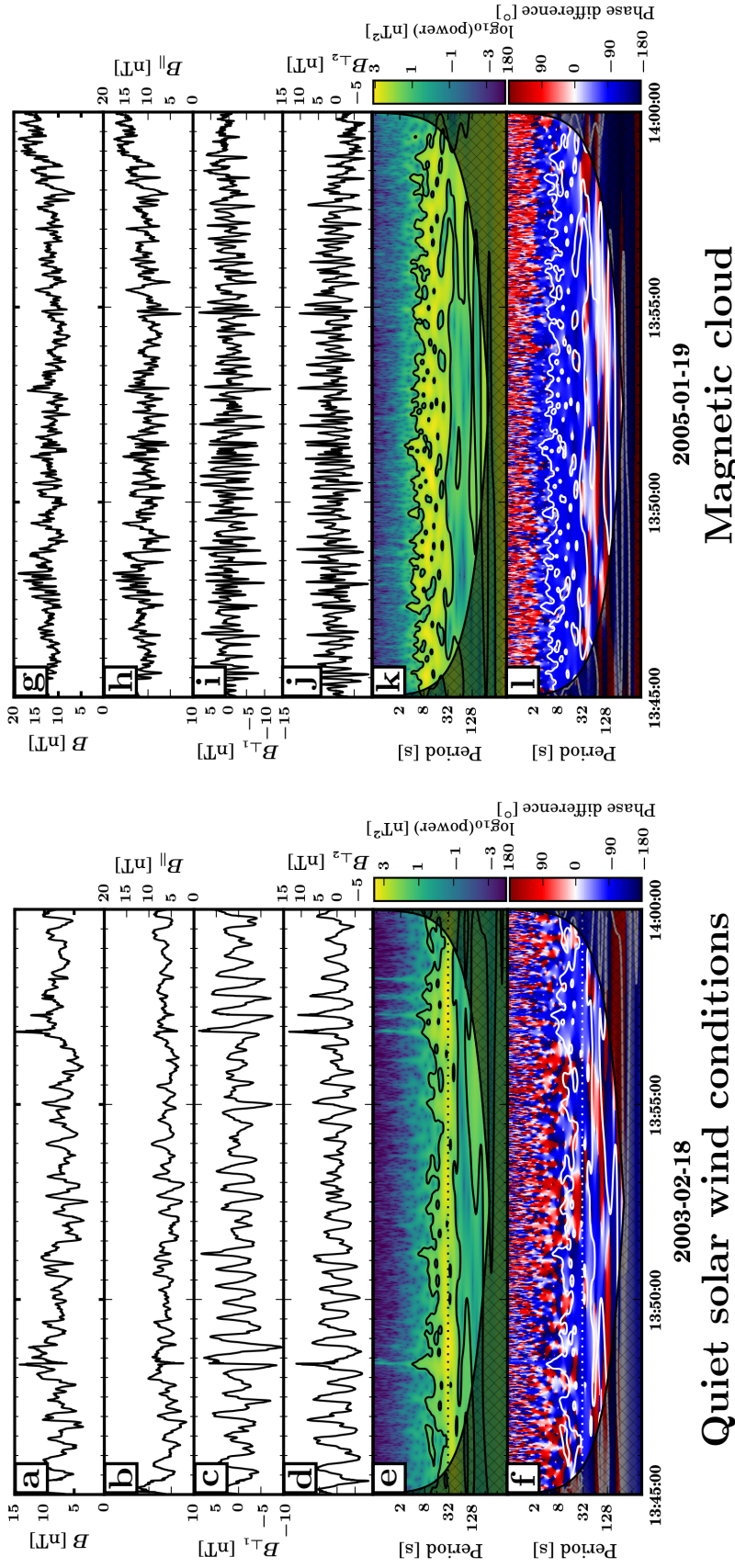


Figure 1. Foreshock waves on 18 February 2003 (left), during quiet solar wind conditions, and on 19 January 2005 (right), during a magnetic cloud. From top to bottom: magnetic field strength and components parallel and perpendicular to the mean magnetic field vector, wavelet power spectrum of $B_{\perp 1}$ and wavelet phase difference between $B_{\perp 1}$ and $B_{\perp 2}$. The dotted lines in panels e-f show the 30 s period. The black (white) contours in panels e and k (f and l) delineate the 95% significance level of the wavelet power spectrum. The hatched areas in panels e-f and k-l show the cone of influence, where edge effects become significant in the wavelet spectrum.

170 Similar intricate wavelet spectra are observed during four out of the six magnetic
 171 clouds under study (see the third column of Table S1). The waves were identified as fast
 172 magnetosonic waves during three of these events (22 January 2004, 19 January 2005 and
 173 22 January 2005). For the last event, the wave mode could not be determined because
 174 of the extremely large IMF strength and solar wind velocity, resulting in the spacecraft
 175 tetrahedron being too large compared to the wavelength, making it impossible to iden-
 176 tify uniquely the wave fronts.

177 The remaining two events display smoother wavelet spectra, as in normal solar wind
 178 conditions. The nature of the waves could not be confirmed during the 28 March 2001
 179 event because of the poor correlation between the spacecraft time series, and of the large
 180 uncertainties in the flow velocity due to the very low density. Both events with smoother
 181 spectra were associated with much larger IMF cone angles (about 45°) than the more
 182 complex spectra (less than 30°), where the cone angle is measured between the IMF vec-
 183 tor and the Sun-Earth line. Larger cone angles result in larger wave periods for a given
 184 IMF strength (Takahashi et al., 1984; Le & Russell, 1996), about 30 s on 23 April 2001.
 185 This suggests that the development of more complex foreshock wave activity is linked
 186 with shorter absolute wave periods.

187 3.2 A possible source for multiple fast magnetosonic waves

188 A recent numerical study also reported a superposition of fast magnetosonic waves
 189 in the foreshock associated with higher IMF strength (Turc et al., 2018). In the simu-
 190 lation, the multiple wave periods were attributed to ion velocity distribution functions
 191 (VDFs) with multiple FABs, instead of the single beam which usually generates quasi-
 192 monochromatic waves.

193 During all intervals under study, the ion VDFs have already evolved into interme-
 194 diate and gyrating distributions when foreshock waves are observed, in agreement with
 195 previous works (e.g., Eastwood, Balogh, et al. (2005a)). Cluster however probed the FAB
 196 region shortly before most of these intervals. We focus here only on those intervals for
 197 which fast magnetosonic waves were reliably identified (23 April 2001, 22 January 2004,
 198 19 January 2005 and 22 January 2005). We checked that the upstream conditions re-
 199 mained essentially steady from the FAB observations to that of the waves, except for the
 200 IMF direction, which causes the foreshock wave field to reach the spacecraft. Based on
 201 the current understanding of foreshock wave generation, we can reasonably assume that
 202 the FABs we observe in the first place are representative of those generating the waves
 203 detected a few minutes later.

204 The upper part of Figure 2 displays representative VDFs recorded by the Hot Ion
 205 Analyzer (HIA) instrument onboard Cluster-1 at 13:41:10 and 13:41:18 UT on 19 Jan-
 206 uary 2005. The left column shows reduced two-dimensional (2D) VDFs in the $(V_{\parallel}, V_{\perp})$
 207 plane (relative to the magnetic field vector), integrated over the second perpendicular
 208 direction. In panels a and b, part of the solar wind population appears in red in the right-
 209 hand side, while backstreaming ions are in the left-hand side. The suprathermal pop-
 210 ulation consists mostly of a FAB, centered at $V_{\parallel} \sim -1500 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. There is no clear ev-
 211 idence of multiple distinct FABs during this event, but a second population is observed
 212 at a non-zero pitch angle, centered around $V_{\perp} \simeq 1000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. Panels c-d show the phase
 213 space density of the suprathermal population along a cut at $V_{\perp} = 0$. The beam shape
 214 is well fitted by a Gaussian (see also Table S3), most likely because the gyrating pop-
 215 ulation is located at about the same V_{\parallel} as the FAB. This second population appears as
 216 a second peak in phase space density on the cuts along V_{\perp} at $V_{\parallel} = V_{\text{beam}}$ (panels e-
 217 f), and remain clearly visible for a range of V_{\parallel} (not shown). The suprathermal popula-
 218 tion is better fitted by a sum of two Gaussians in these cuts (see Table S3), thus con-
 219 firming that the two peaks are well distinct.

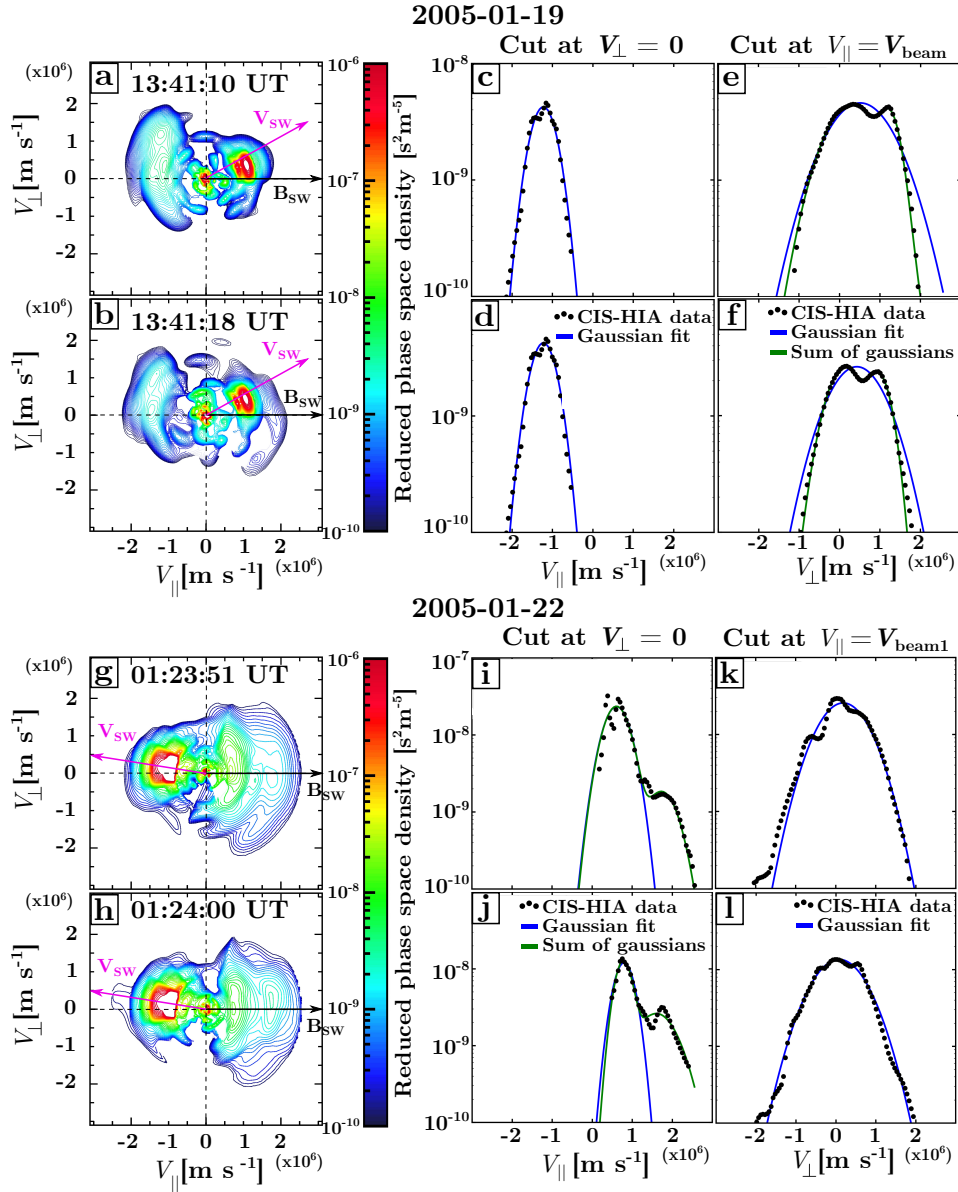


Figure 2. Ion VDFs observed shortly before the foreshock waves. Upper part: 19 January 2005 event. Lower part: 22 January 2005 event. Left column: reduced 2D VDFs, integrated over the second perpendicular velocity direction. Color-coded is the phase space density. The x- and y-axis are along and perpendicular to the magnetic field direction, respectively. Middle and right columns: cuts through the reduced distribution functions shown in the left column, at $V_{\perp} = 0$ (middle) and $V_{\parallel} = V_{\text{beam}}$ (right).

220 During the 23 April 2001 event, typical quasi-monochromatic foreshock waves were
 221 observed, accompanied with typical FABs. During the 22 January 2004 event, a sharp
 222 rotation of the IMF shortly before 12:00 UT causes a rapid motion of the foreshock bound-
 223 ary. Only 2-3 VDFs are recorded when Cluster crosses the FAB region. Given the rapid
 224 motion of the boundary, we cannot draw firm conclusions regarding the FABs during this
 225 event.

226 Finally, the 22 January 2005 event brings clear evidence of multiple FABs (Figure
 227 2, bottom part) similar to those reported by Turc et al. (2018). Because of the differ-
 228 ent IMF orientation, the solar wind population in panels g-h is at negative V_{\parallel} during this
 229 event. The FABs are centered around $V_{\parallel} \sim 700 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and 1700 km s^{-1} , respectively,
 230 and are well fitted by a sum of two Gaussians (panels i-j and Table S3). From these fits
 231 and Gaussian fits along V_{\perp} at $V_{\parallel} = V_{\text{beam1}}$ (panels k-l) and $V_{\parallel} = V_{\text{beam2}}$, we estimate
 232 the temperature anisotropy (ratio of the perpendicular to parallel temperatures) of each
 233 of the beams (see Table S4). They range between 2 and 10, in excellent agreement with
 234 previous observations (Paschmann et al., 1981). The two FABs evolve progressively in
 235 consecutive VDFs for about a minute. At 01:24:00 UT, the higher energy beam reaches
 236 its highest phase space density, peaking at about $4.1 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ s}^2 \text{ m}^{-5}$, only a factor of three
 237 lower than the other beam, at about $1.3 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ s}^2 \text{ m}^{-5}$.

238 To our knowledge, this is the first time that multiple FABs are observed in con-
 239 junction with unusual foreshock wave activity. Spacecraft observations of multiple FABs
 240 have been reported by Meziane et al. (2011), but were associated with typical quasi-monochromatic
 241 waves. The IMF strength was relatively high (9 nT) during the main interval analyzed
 242 in Meziane et al. (2011), but was not associated with a magnetic cloud. The compar-
 243 ison of the cyclotron resonant speed of the waves with that of the FABs revealed that
 244 only the main beam was in cyclotron resonance with the waves (Meziane et al., 2011).

245 The cyclotron resonant speed of the waves, normalized to the solar wind speed, is
 246 calculated as:

$$P_{\text{res}} = \frac{\Omega_{\text{ci}} \cos \theta_{kV}}{\omega_{\text{sc}} \cos \theta_{kB}} \quad (2)$$

247 where ω_{sc} is the wave frequency in the spacecraft frame, and θ_{kV} (θ_{kB}) is the angle be-
 248 tween the wave vector and the solar wind velocity vector (the IMF vector) (Meziane et
 249 al., 2011). We calculate P_{res} for the multiple FABs observed around 01:24 UT on 22 Jan-
 250 uary 2005. We find that the velocity of the lower energy beam normalized with the so-
 251 lar wind speed ranges between 1.8 and 1.9, and that of the higher energy beam between
 252 3.0 and 3.1. This is in excellent agreement with the cyclotron resonant speeds of the waves
 253 observed from 01:32 UT onwards, which are 1.9 and 3.3.

254 3.3 Structuring of the foreshock at smaller scales

255 During magnetic clouds, fast magnetosonic waves have shorter periods, which, in
 256 the plasma rest frame, translates into shorter wavelengths. Another critical parameter
 257 for the structuring of the foreshock wave field is the wave correlation length. This pa-
 258 rameter can be estimated using cross-correlations of measurements from pairs of space-
 259 craft (see Archer et al. (2005) and supporting information). Here, we calculate the wave
 260 correlation length in the plane perpendicular to the wave vector. We divide all our in-
 261 tervals of fast magnetosonic waves into 120-s sections, so that for each interval the wave
 262 period and the upstream parameters remain roughly constant while retaining a sufficient
 263 number of wave periods. We obtain a reliable estimate of the transverse extent of the
 264 waves for 35 intervals, displayed as a histogram in Figure 3a. The transverse extent ranges
 265 between 1 and 10 R_E (average 3.5 R_E ; median 3.2 R_E). This is significantly shorter than
 266 during quiet solar wind conditions (8-18 R_E) (Archer et al., 2005). Moreover, we find
 267 that the transverse extent of the waves is well correlated with the wave period, as ev-
 268 idenced by Figure 3b (correlation coefficient: 0.83), and we checked that this result is
 269 insensitive to the chosen interval length. This correlation implies that the waves retain

270 the same aspect ratio when their wavelength varies, i.e., the ratio of their wavelength over
 271 their transverse extent is roughly constant in the events under study.

272 To get a clearer view of the large-scale structuring of the foreshock, we use two global
 273 simulations performed with the hybrid-Vlasov Vlasiator code (von Alfthan et al., 2014;
 274 Palmroth et al., 2018), already studied in Turc et al. (2018). In both runs, the simula-
 275 tion domain is 2D in real space, describing the equatorial plane of near-Earth space. The
 276 IMF has a 5° cone angle, the solar wind velocity is $\mathbf{V}_{\text{SW}} = (-600, 0, 0) \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and the
 277 ion density $n_{\text{SW}} = 3.3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The IMF strength is set to 5 nT in Run 1, correspond-
 278 ing to regular IMF strength at Earth, and 10 nT in Run 2, comparable to the 19 Janu-
 279 ary 2005 event.

280 The out-of-plane (B_z) component of the magnetic field in the simulation domain
 281 is displayed in panels c (Run 1) and d (Run 2) of Figure 3. For clarity, the regions down-
 282 stream of the bow shock are not shown. Because the foreshock waves are mostly trans-
 283 verse, B_z is a good marker of the foreshock wave field. As can readily be seen from these
 284 plots, the waves are coherent over much larger scales during quiet solar wind conditions.
 285 The plus signs indicate the barycentric positions of triplets of virtual spacecraft, mimic-
 286 ing the Cluster constellation in 2D, where the transverse extent of the waves was esti-
 287 mated reliably. Since the simulation is 2D, only three spacecraft are needed to determine
 288 the wave properties. Magnetic field time series are extracted at each virtual spacecraft
 289 location and we estimate the transverse extent of the waves using the same cross-correlation
 290 technique as in Cluster data, albeit only with three spacecraft. The results of the anal-
 291 ysis are shown as a histogram in panel e. The transverse extent of the waves varies sig-
 292 nificantly depending on the position in the foreshock. We obtain values ranging between
 293 3 and 11 R_E in Run 1 and between 2 and 6 R_E in Run 2, the smallest values being en-
 294 countered closer to the bow shock, especially in Run 1. The average (median) transverse
 295 extent of the waves is 7 (7.4) R_E in Run 1 and 4 (4.3) R_E in Run 2.

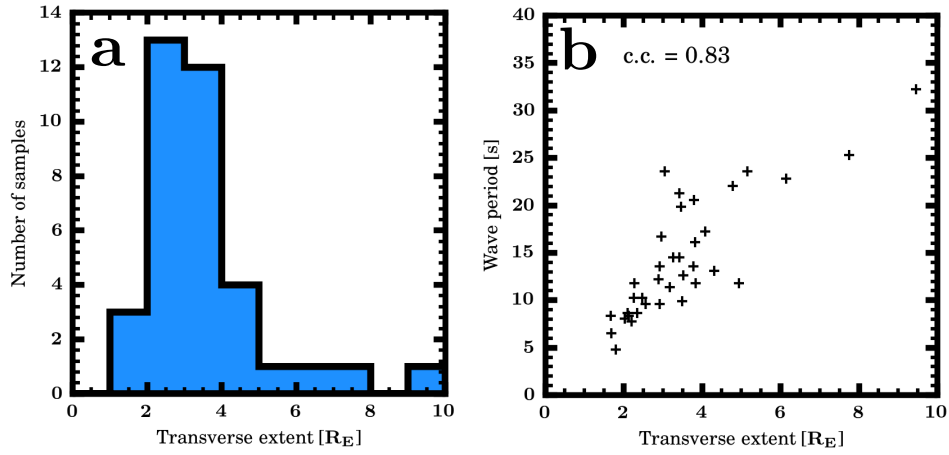
296 These results are in reasonable agreement with Cluster data, supporting the fact
 297 that the simulated foreshock wave field is representative of the actual foreshock. This
 298 suggests that during quiet solar wind conditions, the foreshock wave field is composed
 299 of large-scale coherent waves. When moving closer to the bow shock, their transverse ex-
 300 tent decreases. At large IMF strength, as is the case during magnetic clouds, the cor-
 301 relation length of the waves becomes significantly shorter.

302 4 Discussion and conclusions

303 We have presented the first observations of the Earth's foreshock during magnetic
 304 clouds, revealing that the foreshock develops during such events but its wave properties
 305 are strongly modified due to the unusual upstream conditions dictated by the clouds. Us-
 306 ing multi-spacecraft analysis techniques, we show that the usually quasi-monochromatic
 307 fast magnetosonic waves are replaced by a superposition of waves at different periods.
 308 Their wavelength and their transverse extent are shorter, suggesting that the foreshock
 309 is structured over smaller scales.

310 Atypical ion velocity distribution functions are observed in conjunction with the
 311 unusual wave activity. During one event, we find clear evidence of two distinct FABs in
 312 cyclotron resonance with the waves observed shortly afterwards, consistent with previ-
 313 ous numerical works (Turc et al., 2018). In another, the FAB is accompanied by a sec-
 314 ond suprathermal population at non-zero pitch angle, which might have evolved from
 315 a second FAB, due to gyrophase trapping (Mazelle et al., 2003; Kempf et al., 2015). The
 316 apparent lack of multiple FABs during this event could also be due to the spacecraft con-
 317 nectivity to the bow shock. Using a model bow shock, we estimate that the observed FABs
 318 originate from $\theta_{Bn} \sim 52^\circ$ during this event, and from $\theta_{Bn} \sim 43^\circ$ when multiple FABs
 319 are observed on 19 January 2005 and in the Meziane et al. (2011) event. Local changes

Cluster observations



Vlasiator simulations

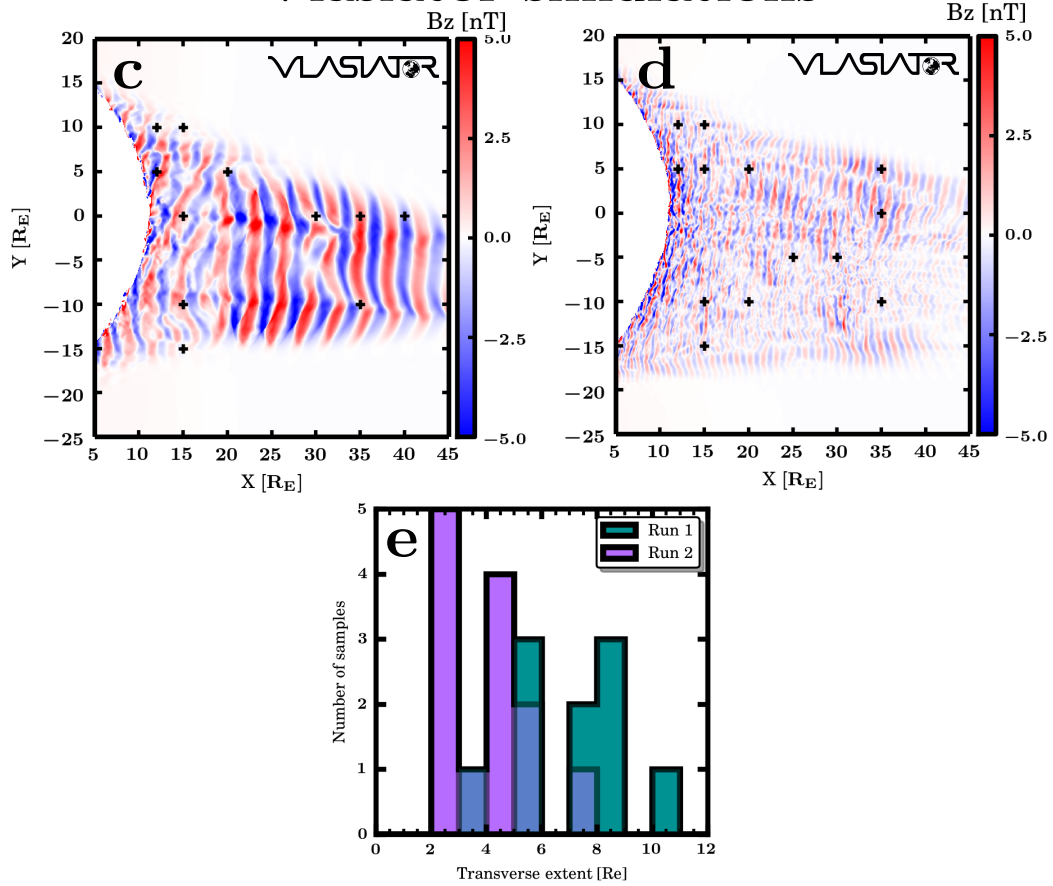


Figure 3. Transverse extent of the foreshock waves. Upper part: Cluster’s observations during magnetic clouds. (a) Distribution of the transverse extent of foreshock waves. (b) Wave period as a function of the transverse extent. Bottom part: global simulations. (c) and (d) Magnetic field B_z component in Runs 1 and 2 at time $t = 500$ s from the beginning of the runs, which illustrate the foreshock wave field. The plus signs indicate the positions of triplets of virtual spacecraft where the transverse extent of the wave fronts was reliably determined. (e) Distribution of the transverse extent of the wave fronts.

of the quasi-perpendicular shock geometry could generate multiple field-aligned beams (Meziane et al., 2011), since their energy depends on the local shock geometry upon their generation (Paschmann et al., 1980). Foreshock processes are a significant source of local shock deformations (Meziane et al., 2011). Therefore, the observations of multiple FABs being more likely at lower θ_{Bn} values, i.e., closer to the foreshock, fits well within this scenario.

We note here that the second beam in the Meziane et al. (2011) event was not associated with intricate wave activity. Its maximum phase space density was about two orders of magnitude lower than that of the first beam, which could explain why it did not trigger additional fast magnetosonic waves. On the contrary, on 22 January 2005, the maximum phase space densities of the two beams only differ by a factor of three, and both beams can thus generate fast magnetosonic waves of comparable amplitudes, as their growth rate increases with increasing beam density (Gary, 1991).

In this work, the wave properties have been determined assuming a linear picture, which remains appropriate here as the spectral peaks of the waves are well-distinct. This allows separation of the different wave modes, as done previously in Hobara et al. (2007). Nonlinear wave analysis may be necessitated in other circumstances where distinct periodicities are not present.

Foreshock waves are known to modulate the shape of the shock front (Burgess, 1995). Therefore, their smaller wavelength and their smaller transverse extent during magnetic clouds could both result in smaller ripples at the shock front, which in turn can affect particle reflection at the quasi-parallel bow shock (Wu et al., 2015) and the formation of magnetosheath high-speed jets (Plaschke et al., 2018).

IMF strengths above 10 nT are relatively uncommon at Earth, but they become typical closer to the Sun. At Mercury’s orbit, the average IMF strength is about 20-30 nT (Korth et al., 2011). The small size of Mercury’s magnetosphere results however in another organization of its foreshock wave field (Le et al., 2013). Outside of our solar system, exoplanets orbiting close to their host stars are immersed in intense magnetic fields, and could thus display similar foreshock properties as presented here.

Acknowledgments

This project has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No 704681. We acknowledge the European Research Council for Starting grant 200141-QuESpace, with which Vlasiator was developed, and Consolidator grant 682068-PRESTISSIMO awarded to further develop Vlasiator and use it for scientific investigations. The work leading to these results has been carried out in the Finnish Centre of Excellence in Research of Sustainable Space (Academy of Finland grant numbers 312351 and 312390). We thank the Cluster Science Archive (CSA) (Laakso et al., 2010) and the CIS and FGM PI teams for providing Cluster data. The CSC - IT Center for Science in Finland is acknowledged for the Pilot run and the Grand Challenge award leading to the results shown here. We thank S. von Althaus for his major contribution in the development of Vlasiator. The left panels of Figure 2 were done with the QSAS science analysis system provided by the United Kingdom Cluster Science Centre (Imperial College London and Queen Mary, University of London) supported by The Science and Technology Facilities Council (STFC).

Data from the Cluster mission is freely available on the CSA. The Vlasiator runs described here take several terabytes of disk space and are kept in storage maintained within the CSC - IT Center for Science. Data presented in this paper can be accessed by following the data policy on the Vlasiator web site.

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