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Statistical analysis of an ionospheric parameter as a base for earthquake prediction

Mei Li1,2,3 and Michel Parrot1

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This paper is related to the use of ionospheric density variations to tentatively predict earthquakes. The results of this statistical analysis are presented as a function of various parameters. The ion density was recorded by the low-altitude satellite DEMETER during more than 6 years, and a search for anomalies was automatically conducted with the complete data set. In a second time, a software checked if each anomaly could correspond to an earthquake. The search was conducted at less than 1500 km from the anomaly positions, and until 15 days after the anomaly time. The earthquakes have been classified depending on their magnitude, depth, and position (below the sea or inland). This attempt to predict earthquakes of course generates a lot of false alarms and wrong detections. Nevertheless, it is shown that the number of good detections increases with the magnitude of the earthquakes. In average the number of perturbations is higher the day of the earthquake, and then smoothly decreases for the days before. Earthquakes below the sea are better detected. There are seismic areas close to the South Atlantic Magnetic Anomaly and at high latitudes where the number of natural perturbations is too important to expect a high number of good detections. Finally, when there are several perturbations corresponding to a single earthquake, it is possible to combine their positions to have a better estimation of the location of the future epicenter. However, uncertainties about the time and the magnitude are large.

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1. Introduction

Satellite experiments due to the vast coverage of the seismic zones of the Earth are especially regarded as suitable means for earthquake (EQ) study. Data recorded by many different satellites have been used in the past to understand the relation between preseismic ionospheric variations and seismic activity (see the review by Parrot [2009]). It was also possible to study the lithosphere-atmosphere-ionosphere coupling using data simultaneously recorded by ground-based experiments. Latest works can be found for example in Liu et al. [2009] and Kon et al. [2011]. Ionospheric perturbations have been also detected prior to the recent powerful Tohoku EQ in Japan [Ouzounov et al., 2011; Heki, 2011; He et al., 2012; Akhoondzadeh, 2012]. As a result of researches during the last 10 years, it has been shown that the ionosphere is sensitive to the seismic effect although its main behavior is dominated by the solar activity.

This is not the scope of this paper but a number of generation mechanisms have been suggested for the explanation of these precursors. The ionospheric density variations can be induced by change of the current in the global electric circuit between the bottom of the ionosphere and the Earth’s surface where electric charges associated with the stressed rocks can appear [Kuo et al., 2011]. Recent hypotheses and modeling can be found for example in monographs [Hayakawa, 2009, 2012], in reviews by Pulinets [2009, 2012], Freund [2011], Pulinets and Ouzounov [2011], and references therein. In recent years, special attention has been drawn to gas release prior to earthquakes [Omori et al., 2007; Pulinets, 2007; Harrison et al., 2010; Baragiola et al., 2011] and atmospheric heating, which can be revealed with infrared experiments onboard satellites [Ouzounov et al., 2007, 2011].

In this paper the total ion density given by the IAP (Instrument Analyseur de Plasma) experiment onboard the DEMETER satellite is used. The DEMETER data are presented in section 2 and, because this paper is an extension of Li and Parrot [2012], the data processing method is only briefly reviewed in section 3. In section 4, new results of the statistical analysis are presented. A comparison with random generated EQs is given in section 5. The spatial-time distribution characteristics of the seismo-ionospheric effect are shown in section 6. To confirm these results, a similar data processing with the electron density is carried out in section 7. Discussion and conclusions are provided in section 8.

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2. The Data

DEMETER was a low-altitude satellite launched in June 2004 onto a polar and circular orbit that measures electromagnetic waves and plasma parameters all around the globe except in the auroral zones [Cussac et al., 2006]. Its initial altitude of ~710 km was lowered to ~660 km at the end of 2005. It was the first satellite that was mainly dedicated to record seismo-electromagnetic effects on the ionosphere. It included six scientific payloads. Each of them offered long-time and continuously high-quality data to allow performing meaningful statistical studies with a much larger number of recorded events in comparison with previous ones [Parrot, 2006].

The experiment IAP gives ion density with a 4 s time resolution and details of this experiment can be found in Berthelier et al. [2006]. As DEMETER went to its end in December 2010, it was possible to investigate the relationship between the ionospheric variations of the total ion density (the sum of H+, He+ and O+) and seismic activities that took place during the satellite’s lifetime.

The electron density data used in this paper were recorded by the ISL (Instrument Sonde de Langmuir) experiment onboard the satellite. The time resolution is 1 s. Details about ISL can be found in Lebreton et al. [2006].

There have been accumulated reports on the ionospheric precursory effects of EQs observed by DEMETER during nighttime. A nonexhaustive list includes Parrot et al. [2006], Ouyang et al. [2008], Zhang et al. [2009a, 2009b], Akhoondzadeh et al. [2010], An et al. [2010], Bankov et al. [2010], He et al. [2010], Sarkar et al. [2011], Ouyang et al. [2011], and Piša et al. [2011]. DEMETER recorded many similar events and another example is given in Figure 1. It corresponds to an EQ occurring on 5 May 2005 at 19:12:21 UT with a magnitude equal to 6.5 and a depth equal to 18 km. Its position was 5.71°N, 82.85°W. From the top to the bottom, the panels show the electron density, the density of the O+ ion, and the earthquake occurrences along the satellite orbit (at the DEMETER altitude the O+ ions are the majority and the O+ ion density is almost equivalent to the total ion density). The bottom panel indicates the satellite closest approach of past and future EQ epicenters that are within 2000 km from the DEMETER orbit. The Y-axis represents the distances D between the epicenters and the satellite, from 750 up to 2000 km. The symbols are filled square for postseismic events, filled triangle for preseismic events. The scale on the right represents the time interval between the EQs and the DEMETER orbit with a graduation from >30 days up to a [0–6 h] interval. The empty symbols have similar significations except that they are related to the magnetically conjugated points of the epicenters (the distance D is then the distance between these magnetically conjugated points of the epicenters and the satellite). The symbol sizes correspond to EQs of magnitude [5–6], [6–7], and [>7]. At 03:40:45 UT the red triangle indicates the closest approach to the epicenter of this EQ and the other smaller red triangle indicates an aftershock. It can be observed that there is an increase of the electron density and of the O+ ion density close to this location. Except the correlation in time and in space between the EQ and the perturbation, there is no way to firmly attribute this ionospheric

Table 1. EQs Considered in the Present Paper for the Ion Density Data Processing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Magnitude Range</th>
<th>Number of EQs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.8 ≤ Mw ≤ 5.0</td>
<td>12057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 ≤ Mw ≤ 6.0</td>
<td>8953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mw ≥ 6.1</td>
<td>853</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
perturbation to precursory effects of this EQ. Then, many cau-
sions have been taken in the study of particular events (see for example Piša et al. [2011]), and statistical analyses of a huge
data set of 6.5 years, and then it is automatically checked if a perturbation could correspond to a
given EQ.

First, the complete set of half-orbit IAP ion density
data, which includes 96,863 nighttime data files with
27,257,933 data points with the same sampling rate, is con-
sidered. This set is used to automatically search perturbation.
Only the perturbations that comply with (i) the
time duration is between 23 and 120 s, (ii) the distance to
the nearest seismic zone is less than or equal to
1500 km (a map of seismic activity zones was constructed using the
list of EQs with $M_w \geq 4.8$ taking place from 1 July 2004 to
31 December 2010), and (iii) $K_p$ index is less than 3 during the
same day where the perturbation appears. This last
requirement eliminates the effect of solar activity on the ion-
sphere, which is considered as one of the main confusing
factors. Huge perturbation amplitudes have been also elimi-
nated because they did not have physical meanings and they
responded to spurious peaks (ion density is also automatically
extracted from IAP raw data). Peak values are
compared to background values. For example in case of increase,
a maximum is first determined. This maximum
being at the time $t_1$, a search is conducted for the two minima,
which are just around $t_1$ (first change of the sign of the deri-
ivative on each side of the maximum). If they occur at $t_1$ ($< t_1$)
and $t_2$ ($> t_1$), the perturbation is kept if $23 \text{ s} < t_2 - t_1 < 120 \text{ s},$
and the background value is determined by values at $t_1$ and
$t_2$. At the end, the perturbation database contains 56,139
events in all. The information for each perturbation includes
peak appearing time, orbit number, location (latitude and
longitude), background value, amplitude, change trend
(increase or decrease; if the amplitude is larger than the back-
ground value, it is increase, if not, it is decrease), and
duration time. In the following we will use the parameter $A$, which is the ratio between an increase or decrease in ampli-
tude of the perturbations and the corresponding background
value. It must be noted that, doing such process, the variation
of the ion density is only considered whatever the real values
of this ion density are. This will prevent problems that may
occur if this ion density is not well determined (wrong absolute
values) or if the satellite altitude changes as it is the case
(nonhomogeneous data base).

Second, the EQ database considered includes 21,863
EQs from 20 August 2004 to 31 December 2010, with $M_w$
$\geq 4.8$ (USGS: http://www.usgs.gov) and they are classified
into three groups in the light of magnitudes $M_w$ (see Table 1).
Table 1 shows that 55.1% of the earthquakes are
with $M_w$ 4.8–5.0, 41.0% with $M_w$ 5.1–6.0, and 3.9% with $M_w$
being larger than or equal to 6.1.

Last, to study the possible influence of the seismic
activity on the ionosphere under different conditions, $D$ is de-

defined as the distance between the location of the perturbation
on the orbit and the epicenter of an EQ, $T$ is the delay time
before an EQ in days, and $d$ is the depth of an EQ. For each
perturbation of the list, we need to check if this perturbation
could correspond or not to one EQ under the limit conditions
mentioned above (selected values of $D$ and $T$). If an EQ is
corresponding to one or to more than one perturbation, we
consider it is a good detection; if not, it is a bad detection.
If a perturbation corresponds to an EQ, it is a right alarm; if
not, it is a false alarm. Preliminary statistical results for dif-
ferent $D$, $T$, and $d$ have been presented in Li and Parrot
[2012] and in this paper we extend the analysis for different $A$
and different positions of the EQs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$M_w$</th>
<th>$A$</th>
<th>$N_p$</th>
<th>$N_p$</th>
<th>$N_p$</th>
<th>$N_p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
<td>5385</td>
<td>16,563</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>4588</td>
<td>16,102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;5%$</td>
<td>4680</td>
<td>12,858</td>
<td>898</td>
<td>4184</td>
<td>12,536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;10%$</td>
<td>4285</td>
<td>10,042</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>3741</td>
<td>9,779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;15%$</td>
<td>3817</td>
<td>8,061</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>3345</td>
<td>7,816</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Ng, $N_p$, and $N_d$ stand for the number of good detections, the number of
right alarms, and the number of perturbations with a decreasing
trend, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$M_w$</th>
<th>$A$</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$s$</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>$s$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>88.1%</td>
<td>51.2%</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>88.0%</td>
<td>72.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;5%$</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>93.0%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>93.0%</td>
<td>67.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;10%$</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>94.9%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>95.2%</td>
<td>62.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;15%$</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>96.4%</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>96.6%</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Same as in Table 2 but the main results are expressed in percentage. The
parameter $r$ is the percentage of good detections for earthquakes, $n$ design-
nates the average number of perturbations for each earthquake detected,
and $s$ is the ratio of the number of right alarms with the trend “increase”
and the total number of right alarms. FA is the percentage of false alarms.
induce several perturbations at different times. Concerning
the number of false alarms, we must take into account the
number of right alarms for EQs with magnitudes larger than
5 in the same conditions (9779 for 5.1 \( \leq M_w \leq 6.0 \) and 2009
for \( M_w \geq 6.1 \)). It means that the real number of false alarms
is 5047. These results are displayed in the third row of
Table 2. We use different ranges for the amplitude \( A \) to try
to increase the number of good detections and to decrease
the number of false alarms. When \( A > 0 \) it means that all per-
turbations are considered, when \( A > 10\% \) it means that we
eliminate the small perturbations that have a ratio between
the perturbation amplitude and the background amplitude
less than 10%. The number of perturbations complying with
the limits is 46,446, 35127, 26877, and 21119 for \( A \) larger
than 0, 5, 10, and 15%, respectively. All the corresponding
results (including the previous ones at the beginning of this
section) are shown in Tables 2 and 3. In these results, \( n \)
designates the average number of perturbations for each EQ
detected, \( r \) is the ratio of the number of detected EQs and that
of EQs, which comply with the limit conditions, \( s \) is the
ratio of the number of right alarms with the trend “increase”
and the total number of right alarms, and \( FA \) is the ratio of
false alarms.

[14] The results in Tables 2 and 3 indicate that, whatever is
the level of perturbations we select, the percentage of good
detections is always increasing with the magnitude, i.e., the
powerful EQs are better detected. In the same way, the aver-
age number of perturbations is also larger for these EQs.
When perturbations with low amplitude are eliminated the
number of good detections decreases whatever is the magni-
itude of the EQs, but oppositely the number of false alarms
also decreases. Then, there is a tendency to say that the am-
plitude of the perturbations is not well related to the magni-
tude of the EQs. To check this, average and median values of
\( A \) have been plotted as a function of the magnitude of the
detected EQs. The result is shown in Figure 2, and it can be
seen that in fact there are larger perturbations for larger EQ
magnitudes as expected. This is not well established because
it is only evident for very large magnitudes. An explanation
is that EQ characteristics other than the magnitude certainly
play a role.

[15] It must be also noticed in Table 3 that, when we only
keep perturbations with large amplitudes, the perturbations
mainly correspond to increase of the density.

[16] Regarding the possible mechanisms of ionospheric
perturbations by EQs, it is evident that they must take the
EQ locations into account. Then, to check if there is an influ-
ence, we have shared the EQ locations in our analysis into
three parts: EQs with inland epicenters, EQs with epicenters
below the sea with a water depth more than 1 km, and EQs
with epicenters close to a coast (depth less than 1 km). The
results are shown in Tables 4 and 5. It can be seen that the
percentage of good detections increases with the magnitude
whatever is the location of the EQs. However, as was already
noticed by Parrot [2012], the percentage of good detections
is larger for EQs occurring below the sea. Furthermore,
EQs taking place near coasts have the lowest percentage of
good detections.

5. Comparison With Random Generated EQs

[17] To check the validity of the results, a comparison has
been carried out with random generated EQs. To obtain ran-
dom generated events, longitudes of all real EQs have been
shifted by 25° to the west, and we have subtracted one month
to their times. This was conducted to try to keep the same
ionospheric conditions because most of the earthquakes are
concentrated around the equator, and it is known that, during
nighttime, natural occurrence of ionospheric perturbations is
also more concentrated around the equator. The one month
shift of time was also to stay at the same season. From this list
of new events, 30 sets of \( N \) events have been randomly
extracted. The number of events \( N \) was chosen equal to
8000 to be close to the number of real EQs with \( M_w \geq 5.8 \) or
or \( M_w = 5.1 – 6.0 \) that we have in Table 1. Then for each of these
30 sets the same data processing as for the real EQs has been
used to estimate 30 times the parameter \( r \) (the ratio between
the detected events and the total number of events). At the
end, the average value of \( r \) for the random selected events
is 42.27 and its variance is 0.15. This value is lower than
the lower value of \( r \) shown in the first raw of Table 3
(44.7% for the EQs with low magnitude).

6. The Spatial-Time Distribution Characteristics
of the Seismo-Ionospheric Effect

[18] On one hand, while one perturbation could be attrib-
uted to a single EQ, we have also found that one EQ can cor-
correspond to more than one perturbation. On the other hand, the
number of false alarms (perturbation with no EQ) is impor-
tant because seismic activity is not the unique factor giving
rise to ionospheric variations. Therefore, it is necessary to
do some statistics about the number of perturbations for each

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( M_w )</th>
<th>( 4.8–5.0 )</th>
<th>( 5.1–6.0 )</th>
<th>( \geq 6.1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land-Sea</td>
<td>( Ne )</td>
<td>( Ng )</td>
<td>( Np )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea</td>
<td>3104</td>
<td>1686</td>
<td>6703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coast</td>
<td>4931</td>
<td>1889</td>
<td>4957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land</td>
<td>4022</td>
<td>1810</td>
<td>4903</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( Ne \) is the number of earthquakes to be detected. Same parameters as
in Table 2.
Table 5. Statistical Results Concerning the Seismo-Ionospheric Influences on the Ion Density for Different Locations of the Earthquakes \( (D = 0–1500 \text{km}, d = 0–1000 \text{km}, T = 0–15 \text{Days}, A > 0)^a \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( M_w )</th>
<th>( 4.8–5.0 )</th>
<th>( 5.1–6.0 )</th>
<th>( \geq 6.1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land-Sea</td>
<td>( r ) 54.3% 4.0 87.3%</td>
<td>( n ) 65.2% 4.7 87.4%</td>
<td>( s ) 85.1% 6.8 85.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea</td>
<td>( r ) 38.3% 2.6 89.2%</td>
<td>( n ) 43.1% 2.7 89.2%</td>
<td>( s ) 69.1% 4.5 90.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coast</td>
<td>( r ) 45.0% 2.7 88.1%</td>
<td>( n ) 49.1% 3.0 88.4%</td>
<td>( s ) 70.6% 4.5 89.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( a \) Same data as in Table 4 but the results are expressed in percentage. Same parameters as in Table 3.

EQ detected. It is natural to classify the 10,595 EQs well detected (Table 2, \( A > 0 \)) into three groups according to the number of their associated perturbations 1–9, 10–19, and more than or equal to 20. The corresponding number of EQs is 10,030 (94.2%), 503 (4.2%), and 62 (0.6%), respectively. Their locations are shown in a global map with different labels (see Figure 3).

[19] From Figure 3, it can be seen that EQs with 1–9 perturbations are in the main global seismic zones, especially plate-boundary interfaces, Circum-Pacific seismic belt, and Chile seismic zone. While there is a little change for the EQs corresponding to 10–19 perturbations, it happens that 62 EQs with more than 19 perturbations lie in the Southern Hemisphere in a very specific area, which is a surprising result. These 62 EQs correspond to 25 EQs with \( 4.8 \leq M_w \leq 5.0 \), 31 with \( 5.1 \leq M_w \leq 6.0 \), and 6 with \( M_w \geq 6.1 \). The \( M_w \) 8.8 Chile EQ that took place on 27 February 2010 is the largest one corresponding to more than 19 perturbations among the six strong EQs in this region. Moreover, it is also the only one with more than 19 perturbations among the 86 EQs with \( M_w \) > 7.0 occurring during the mission. Therefore, it means that the number of perturbations has little relationship with the magnitude of strong EQs. To check this problem, two rectangular areas have been selected in Figure 3: one where we observe a large number of perturbations per EQ, Zone1 with \( \text{latmin} = -70^\circ \), \( \text{latmax} = -45^\circ \), \( \text{longmax} = 150^\circ \text{W} \), \( \text{longmin} = 20^\circ \text{W} \), and another with much less perturbations per EQ, Zone2 with \( \text{latmin} = 0^\circ \), \( \text{latmax} = 30^\circ \), \( \text{longmax} = 90^\circ \text{E} \), \( \text{longmin} = 150^\circ \text{E} \). The corresponding results of the statistics are shown in Table 6. From this table one can see that \( r \), the number of good detections, is much more important in Zone1. Oppositely, \( FA \), the number of false alarms is much lower in Zone2. This means that the number of perturbations not related to the seismic activity is much more important in Zone1. It allows to artificially detect more EQs, but in compensation the number of false alarms is very high. Additional evidence is revealed when the number of perturbations is checked as a function of time before the EQs.

[20] Figure 4 displays the number of perturbations as a function of days before the EQs for different cases. In each panel the results are expressed as a percentage relative to the total number of perturbations. It can be seen that for the two cases All EQ and Zone2, we obtain a variation that is intuitively expected, i.e., the number of perturbations is maximum for days close to the EQ day and smoothly decreases. In the two cases All EQ and Zone2, 64.3% and 77.6% of the perturbations appear one week before the EQs, respectively. It is not the case for the detected EQs with more than 19 perturbations, which mainly correspond to Zone1. This means that the perturbations have a little relation with seismic activity in this area. A possible reason of this increase of natural ionospheric perturbations is given in the next paragraph.

[21] In the equatorial and low midlatitude ionospheric regions, the distribution of plasma is controlled by the coupled processes of plasma diffusion, \( E \times B \) drifts, thermospheric neutral winds, and chemical processes [Horvath and Lovell, 2009]. The daytime (nighttime) \( F \) region plasma is transported by a vertical upward (downward) \( E \times B \) drift, created by

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Figure 3. Distribution of all EQs with good detection corresponding to different number of perturbations. The white, red, and yellow stars are related to EQs with 1–9 perturbations, 10–19 perturbations, and more than 19 perturbations, respectively. Zone1 and Zone2 are indicated with blue rectangles (see text for explanation).
interaction between the ionospheric $E$ field and the geomagnetic $B$ field, over the dip equator, and by field-aligned diffusion on both sides of the dip equator [Hairston et al., 1997; Balan and Bailey, 1995; Balan et al., 1997]. These processes have a tendency to create a plasma distribution symmetric to the dip equator. However, this tendency is interrupted by the meridional and trans-equatorial neutral winds, which move the plasma along the magnetic field lines and produce hemispheric and interhemispheric plasma flows, respectively, and by the accompanying chemical processes [Bailey et al., 1997; Titheridge, 1995; Kil et al., 2006]. Significant longitudinal variations in plasma distribution reflect the corresponding variations of the underlying mechanisms. Major causes of such variations are related to the longitudinal variations in the $B$ field intensity and declination. Field-aligned hemispheric and interhemispheric plasma flows maximize in regions where the meridional and zonal winds have similar components. Their combination maximizes during southern winter in the 300°E–340°E (geographic) longitude sector, over the Atlantic. There, the declination ($D$) is westerly and high (21°), and the field-aligned interhemispheric plasma flows are directed from the northern summer to the southern winter hemisphere [Venkatraman and Heelis, 2000]. However, over the South Atlantic, the total $B$ field intensity is anomalously low $\sim 22.8 \times 10^4$ nT from Trivedi et al. [2005], a phenomenon known as the South Atlantic Magnetic Anomaly (SAMA), that makes the $E \times B$ drift unusually strong, because its magnitude is $E \times B/B^2$ [Kendall and Pickering, 1967]. Furthermore, there are special electrodynamic effects in the SAMA region that can further increase the magnitude of the $E \times B$ drift by increasing the $E$ field. Because of these plasma dynamics, the plasma density is highly variable over the SAMA [Abdu and Batista, 1977]. The $E$ layer conductivity is a maximum, where the magnetic field is a minimum, at the center of the SAMA (310°E, 10°S in geographic coordinates), over south Brazil, and decreases with increasing distance away from that center, toward the African continent. This can result in a westward conductivity gradient over the SAMA (indicated as DS by Abdu et al. [2003]) that can add to the background conductivity gradient, which is also westward directed during the postsunset hours. Thus, this can create a locally high (or modified) conductivity distribution that is a regular feature of the ionosphere over the SAMA [Abdu et al., 2005]. According to their model simulations, this increased conductivity will create a significantly stronger vertical $E \times B$ at the prereversal enhancement over Brazil (east coast of South America) than over Jicamarca (west coast of South America). This, combined with the fact that Zone1 is the seismic zone, which is at the highest geomagnetic latitude, make the number of ionospheric perturbations higher than in another seismic region.

7. Data Processing With the Electron Density

To confirm the results obtained with the ion density variation, the electron density data from ISL have been processed. Normally, the total ion density and the electron density, which are recorded by the two distinct instruments IAP and ISL, must be equal; however, as said in section 3, it is not always the case and it is the reason why we only consider the relative variation of the densities. Figure 1 is a typ-

**Table 7.** EQs Considered for the Electron Density Data Processing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$M_{eq}$</th>
<th>4.8 $\leq M_{eq} &lt; 5.0$</th>
<th>5.1 $\leq M_{eq} &lt; 6.0$</th>
<th>$M_{eq} \geq 6.1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\text{A}$</td>
<td>11686</td>
<td>8616</td>
<td>811</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8.** Statistical Results Concerning Seismo-Ionospheric Influences on the Electron Density ($D = 0$–1500 km, $d = 0$–1000 km, $T = 0$–15 Days)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$M_{eq}$</th>
<th>4.8–5.0</th>
<th>5.1–6.0</th>
<th>$\geq 6.1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\text{A}$</td>
<td>$\text{Ng}$</td>
<td>$\text{Np}$</td>
<td>$\text{Nd}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;0$</td>
<td>3720</td>
<td>9149</td>
<td>1629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The parameters are identical to the parameters of Table 2. Results correspond to the first line of Table 2.
The results are displayed only for $A > 0$, i.e., all perturbations are considered. They are shown in Tables 8 and 9 and they can be compared with the ion density results in Tables 2 and 3. It is observed that:

1. The results are almost similar in the sense that we observe the same variation, i.e., the percentage of perturbations increases with the EQ magnitude as it was with the ion density.

2. The average number of perturbations (the parameter $n$ in the Table 9) also increases with the magnitude.

3. The only one difference is that the number of detected perturbations is not so large. However, this was expected because the peaks in the electron density are not so sharp than the peaks in the ion density (then the number of detected peaks is not so important). This can be observed in Figure 1 and in the numerous events that were published before in relation with the seismic activity (see section 2).

4. Another point to mention is that the percentage of the perturbations with decrease of the electron density is a little bit lower than that of the ion density, which may be related to the fact that the determination of the ion density sometimes does not fit with the values of the electron density.

5. EQs occurring below the sea are better detected.

6. The obtained results are not very good because not all ionospheric perturbations are caused by EQs and the number of false alarms is large. These ionospheric perturbations may be due to other sources, such as solar activity, acoustic gravity waves, travelling ionospheric disturbances, plasma dynamics as explained in section 6, and large meteorological phenomena. It is shown that the number of false alarms can decrease if small perturbations are eliminated, but on the contrary the number of good detections also decreases, which is not really to be desired.

7. The number of wrong detections is also important and can be explained by the fact that the satellite is above a seismic area only a few minutes per day, and that we do not expect continuous perturbations from a given EQ. Thus, possible perturbations could be missed. It is feasible to reduce this number of wrong detections if several satellites are

### Table 9. Statistical Results Concerning Seismo-Ionospheric Influences on the Electron Density ($D = 0–1500$ km, $d = 0–1000$ km, $T=0–15$ Days)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$M_w$</th>
<th>$4.8–5.0$</th>
<th>$5.1–6.0$</th>
<th>$\geq 6.1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A = 0$</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;0</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>82.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Same as in Table 8 but the main results are expressed in percentage. The parameters are identical to the parameters of Table 3. Results correspond to the first line of Table 3.

**Figure 5.** (a) $M_w$ 8.8 Chile EQ in 2010; (b) $M_w$ 6.3 Pacific EQ. The real positions of the EQ epicenters are indicated by a yellow star. The blue triangles show the positions of the EQ epicenters automatically determined from the positions of the ionospheric perturbations indicated by red stars (see text for explanation).
simultaneously used. In the future the ESA (European Space Agency) SWARM mission will have three satellites in the ionosphere, and in China they have a project of several satellites devoted to this topic [Shen et al., 2011].

From a perturbation at a given location, a search for an EQ has been automatically carried out within 1500 km of this point. Then the determination of the EQ epicenter is not accurate, but it can be improved if we consider EQs that are well detected several times. It is possible to use the various locations of the perturbations attributed to a given EQ to have a better estimation of the epicenter position. As an example this was carried out in the cases of the $M_w$ 8.8 Chile EQ that occurred in 2010 [see also Písa et al., 2011] and the $M_w$ 6.3 Pacific EQ that occurred on 19 November 2007. The results are shown in Figure 5, which displays the positions of the perturbations, the position of the epicenter, and the point that is at a minimum distance from all the perturbations. It appears that this point (the blue triangle) is at (74.5°W, 38.7°S) not so far from the real epicenter (the yellow star), which is at (72.9°W, 36.1°S) for the $M_w$ 8.8 Chile EQ (Figure 5a). A similar result is also obtained for the Pacific $M_w$ 6.3 EQ (Figure 5b) showing that the predicted point (the blue triangle) at (179.4°W, 23.2°S) is near the real epicenter (the yellow star) at (178.8°W, 21.2°S). It means that when a cluster of perturbations appears in the ionospheric data set in a given area during a few days, it is possible to approximately locate some events.

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Balan, N., G. J. Bailey, M. A. Abdu, I. S. Batista, and A. K. Vassileva (2010), A similar result is also obtained for the Pacific $M_w$ 6.3 EQ (Figure 5b) showing that the predicted point (the blue triangle) at (179.4°W, 23.2°S) is near the real epicenter (the yellow star) at (178.8°W, 21.2°S). It means that when a cluster of perturbations appears in the ionospheric data set in a given area during a few days, it is possible to approximately locate some events.

References


Akhoundzadeh, M., M. Parrot, and M. R. Sarajdjan (2010), Electron and ion density variations before strong earthquakes ($M$$\geq$6.0) using DEMETER and GPS data, Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci., 10, 7–18.


