MESSENGER Observations of Standing Whistler Waves Upstream of Bow Shock of Mercury

Yang Wang[1,2], Jun Zhong[1,2], James Slavin[3], Hui Zhang [1,2], Lou-Chuang Lee[4,5], Lican Shan[1,2], Yong Wei[1,2], Yongxin Pan[1,2]

[1]Key Laboratory of Earth and Planetary Physics, Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

[2]College of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

[3]Department of Climate and Space Sciences and Engineering, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA

[4]Institute of Earth Sciences, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan

[5]State Key Laboratory of Lunar and Planetary Sciences, Macau University of Science and Technology, Macau, China

Correspondence to: Jun Zhong (j.zhong@mail.iggcas.ac.cn)

Key Points:

- We identify 36 Mercury's bow shock crossings with standing whistler waves during interplanetary coronal mass ejection intervals.
- The amplitude, polarization, and damping length of the standing whistler waves were identified and statistically analyzed.
- These standing whistler waves may be generated by currents in shock, and the shock is not the largest-amplitude circle of the waves.

Abstract

This paper reports on the standing whistler waves upstream of Mercury's quasi-perpendicular bow shock. Using MESSENGER's magnetometer data, 36 wave events were identified during interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICMEs). These elliptic or circular polarized waves were characterized by: (1) a constant phase with respect to the shock, (2) propagation along the normal direction to the shock surface, and (3) rapid damping over a few wave periods. We inferred the speed of Mercury's bow shock as ~31 km/s and a shock width of 1.76 ion inertial length. These events were observed in 20% of the MESSENGER orbits during ICMEs. We conclude that standing whistler wave generations at Mercury are generic to ICME impacts and the low Alfvén Mach number (M_A) collisionless shock, and are not affected by the absolute dimensions of its bow shock. Our results further support the theory that these waves are generated by the current in the shock.

Plain Language Summary

The strength of planetary bow shocks varies with the planet's heliocentric distance from the Sun. Studying the bow shocks of other planets is important for extending our understanding of collisionless-shock physics. In the solar system, the bow shocks of Mercury are unique as they are produced by low Mach numbers and low plasma beta solar wind blowing over a small magnetized body that is 1–2 orders smaller than Earth. The standing whistler waves upstream of the bow shock of Mercury were determined through statistical analyses. Similar to the observations at Earth, these waves were rapidly damping with a proportion of the wave periods; however, the damping distance at the spacecraft frame was considerably shorter at only a few kilometers upstream in the small-scale bow shock of Mercury. The high occurrence rate of standing whistler waves suggests that Mercury's bow shock is a natural plasma laboratory, which can be used to further investigate low M_A planetary shocks during the upcoming BepiColombo mission.

1 Introduction

Whistler waves are common upstream features of planetary bow shocks and are involved in shock formation and particle interactions (Balogh et al., 2013; Oka et al., 2017; Oka et al., 2019). Two types of whistler waves emitting from shock ramps have been previously identified: propagating and phase standing (Russell et al., 1995). The propagation direction of propagating

whistler waves has a small angle with the magnetic field and they propagate far upstream (Russell et al., 2007). They have been widely observed upstream of the bow shock of Earth and are typically called "1 Hz" waves. Furthermore, they are also commonly observed in other planetary shocks, such as those of Mercury, Venus, Mars, and Saturn (Fairfield et al., 1976; Orlowski et al., 1991; Le et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2017; Ruhunusiri et al., 2018). In contrast, phase standing whistler waves are generated when the wave propagation speed equals the component of the solar wind velocity that is normal to the bow shock (Perez et al., 1970). They propagate along the shock-normal direction at a constant phase with respect to the shock ramp and can rapidly damp within a few wave periods. The right-handed wave polarization relative to its average field direction is a key observational feature, when an observer moves upstream to downstream. In contrast, the left-handed wave polarization can be observed when the observer moves in the opposite direction. Standing whistler waves have been rarely observed upstream of the bow shock of the Earth (e.g., Fairfield et al., 1975; Mellott et al., 1984; Farris et al., 1993) as they commonly occur under low M_A conditions, such as during an ICME passage.

Mercury has a miniature and weak bow shock, which is created by the interaction of low Mach number solar wind and a relatively small planetary magnetosphere in the inner hemisphere. The average bow shock subsolar distance has been determined to be only ~2 R_M (radius of Mercury, 1 R_M = 2440 km), which is approximately 1–2 orders smaller than that of the Earth (Winslow et al., 2013). The "1 Hz" whistler waves have been commonly observed upstream of the bow shock of Mercury (Fairfield et al., 1976; Le et al., 2013), in which they propagate along the magnetic field and farther upstream (~30000 km). Although phase standing whistler waves have been observed at Mercury, they have not yet been analyzed (Gedalin et al., 2022).

Due to the nature of close-in orbit, there is higher probability for observing low M_A shocks at Mercury than other planets. The typical M_A at Mercury orbit is ~4-6 (Slavin et al., 1981). Especially, the M_A can be less than 3 during ICMEs (Liu et al., 2005; Sarantos et al., 2009). The ICME impact on Mercury's magnetosphere was first analyzed by Slavin et al. (2014). They showed that Mercury's dayside magnetosphere is highly dynamic and greatly compressed by ICME impacts. The bow shock and magnetopause reconfigurations during the impact of ICMEs deviates greatly from normal conditions (Slavin et al., 2014; Winslow et al., 2015; 2017), and the dayside magnetosphere may even occasionally disappeared (Slavin et al., 2019;

Winslow et al., 2020). MESSENGER orbited Mercury during the maximum of solar cycle 24. Over the four-year mission from February 2011 to April 2015, a total of 69 ICMEs were detected by MESSENGER (Winslow et al. 2015, 2017). We use the 69 ICMEs to study standing whistler waves.

Here we report the MESSENGER observations of the standing whistler wave upstream Mercury's bow shock during ICMEs collated by Winslow et al. (2015, 2017). Among 69 ICMEs, we identified 36 standing whistler wave events corresponding to at least 20% of the orbits. Our results suggest that Mercury is a natural plasma laboratory for the understand the physics of standing whistler waves and low M_A collisionless shocks. It is likely that our understanding of such low Mach number shocks will be greatly advanced by measurements to be collected by the upcoming Bepi-Colombo mission.

2 Case Analysis of Standing Whistler Wave

The dynamics of dayside magnetosphere and magnetotail response to an ICME observed by MESSENGER on November 23, 2011 have been analyzed in detail by Slavin et al. (2014) and Zhong et al. (2020), respectively. This study analyzes its effects on the bow shock. Figures 1a–d show an overview of MESSENGER's bow shock crossings during this ICME. High-resolution magnetic field data (20 vectors s^{-1}) obtained from the magnetometer (MAG; Anderson et al., 2007) were used and displayed in the aberrated Mercury solar magnetic (MSM) coordinates. The MSM coordinate system was centered on the offset internal dipole of Mercury (Anderson et al., 2011), wherein the X-axis was pointed toward the Sun, the Y-axis was pointed in the opposite direction of the orbit motion, and the Z-axis completed the right-handed system. The average radial solar wind speed of 700 km s^{-1} during the ICME was applied to correct for the aberration. The spacecraft crossed the bow shock thrice; the crossings are denoted as inbound crossing 1, outbound crossing, and inbound crossing 2 in Figure 1. The multiple crossings may be attributed to the temporal variations of the upstream solar wind conditions.

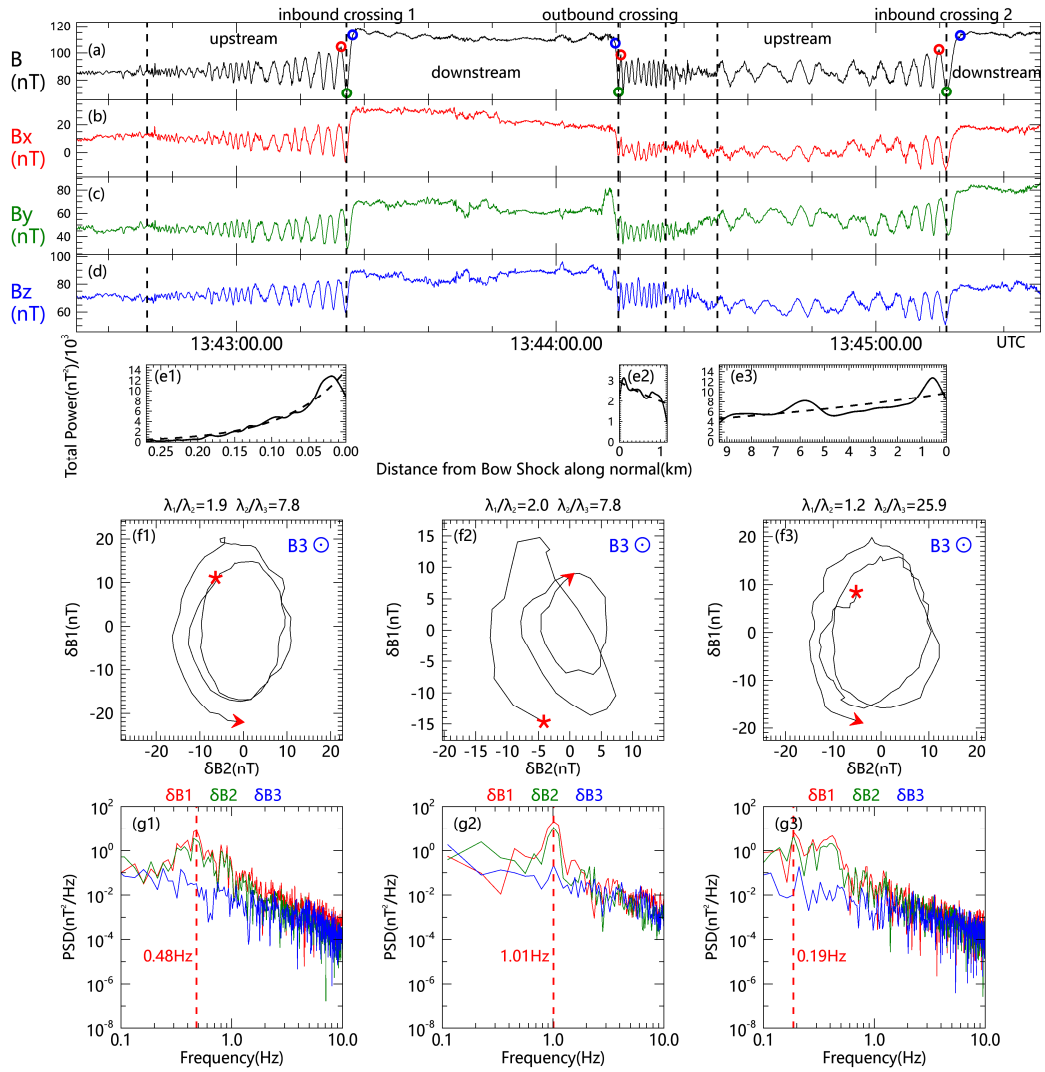

Figure 1. MESSENGER observations of standing whistler waves upstream of the bow shock of Mercury during the ICME on 23 November 2011. **(a)–(d)** Magnetic field strength and its three components in the aberrated MSM coordinate system; the red, green, and blue dots correspond to the peak, wave trough, and end of the shock ramp, respectively. **(e)** Total power as a function of the distance from the bow shock along shock normal. **(f)–(g)** Magnetic field data of the wave in the maximum-intermediate plane and the power spectral density in the minimum variance analysis (MVA) after removing the background magnetic field. The T_{ramp} refers to the interval time between the blue and green dots. The T_{wave} refers to twice the interval time between the red and green dots.

The shock normal was determined using the magnetic coplanarity method (Lepping et al., 1971) that substitutes the average magnetic field upstream and downstream of the shock; it is expressed as $\boldsymbol{n} = \frac{(\boldsymbol{B_1}\times\boldsymbol{B_2})\times(\boldsymbol{B_2}-\boldsymbol{B_1})}{|(\boldsymbol{B_1}\times\boldsymbol{B_2})\times(\boldsymbol{B_2}-\boldsymbol{B_1})|}$. The shock normals for the inbound crossing 1, outbound crossing, and inbound crossing 2 were observed to be very close at (0.56, -0.05, -0.82), (0.71, -

123 0.02, -0.70), and (0.76, -0.06, -0.65), respectively, and their mean upstream magnetic fields were
124 (9.24, 46.57, 72.37), (2.40, 45.41, 71.94), and (1.33, 55.94, 64.86) nT, respectively. The angles
125 between the mean upstream magnetic field $\mathbf{B_{up}}$ and the shock normal **n** were θ_{Bn} = 49.13°,
126 52.23°, and 58.49°, indicating quasi-perpendicular shocks.

127 The accompanying upstream waves are considered key features of these bow shock
128 crossings. The polarizations and vectors of these waves were obtained from the results of the
129 minimum variance analysis (MVA) of the magnetic field within an upstream wave time interval
130 (Sonnerup et al., 1967). Using these, the direction of propagation for an assumed planar wave
131 can be estimated. For inbound crossing 1, the small ratio of the maximum to intermediate
132 eigenvalues λ_1/λ_2 = 1.9 and the large ratio of the intermediate to minimum eigenvalues λ_2/λ_3 =
133 7.8 suggest that the waves had relatively stable elliptic polarizations. The wave vector **k**
134 corresponds to the minimum variance eigenvector $\mathbf{e_3}$ (0.70, -0.11, -0.69), whereas the
135 corresponding mean magnetic field ($\mathbf{B_0}$) is directed out of the maximum-intermediate plane. The
136 hodograms of the magnetic field for several wavelengths in the MVA coordinates are shown in
137 Figure 1f. The gyration of the magnetic field with respect to $\mathbf{B_0}$ indicates that the wave
138 polarization was right-handed in the spacecraft coordinate frame (SCF). The angles between **k**
139 and **n** (θ_{kn}) and **k** and $\mathbf{B_{up}}$ (θ_{kB}) were 11.85° and 55.49°, respectively, wherein the small θ_{kn} and
140 large θ_{kB} suggest that the wave propagated approximately along the shock normal direction
141 rather than the magnetic field.

142 The waves observed during the outbound crossing and inbound crossing 2 were also
143 elliptically polarized (Figures 1f2 and f3), with θ_{kn} = 23.18°, 2.82° and θ_{kB} = 64.17°, 58.14°,
144 respectively. Moreover, the polarization direction of the outbound crossing was opposite to that
145 of the inbound crossing, wherein it was left-handed, which is consistent with the characteristics
146 of standing whistler waves (Fairfield et al., 1975; Mellott et al., 1984).

147 Wavelet analysis was used to calculate the total power at each moment. Figure 1e shows
148 the variations of the total power along **n** in the SCF. The function $P = P_0 e^{-T/T0}$ was fit to the total
149 power. For inbound crossing 1, the damping time (T_0) was 11.17 s, which was 5.32 times the
150 wave period (T_{wave}), indicating rapid damping. The damping distance was 1.83 km along **k** and
151 the normalized wave amplitude ($\delta B_{wave}/B_u$) was 0.40. This rapid damping of waves was also
152 observed during the outbound crossing and inbound crossing 2.

The power spectral density shown in Figure 1e demonstrates that these waves were mainly restricted to the plane perpendicular to $\mathbf{e_3}$, as indicated by the PSD_1, and $PSD_2 \gg PSD_3$ around the wave frequency (f_{sc}) in the SCF. The f_{sc} for the inbound crossing 1, outbound crossing, and inbound crossing 2 were ~0.48, 1.01, and 0.19 Hz, respectively; the different values indicate the change in the relative velocity between the spacecraft and bow shock in the normal direction.

3 Statistical Results and Discussion

3.1 Statistical Results

We use 69 ICMEs (94 orbits) collated by Winslow et al. (2015, 2017) to find bow shock crossings during ICMEs. As standing whistler waves typically occur upstream of the quasi-perpendicular bow shock, the θ_{Bn} was calculated, wherein 486 quasi-perpendicular bow shock crossings ($\theta_{Bn} > 45°$) were identified to select the events. Multiple bow shock crossings are common during inbound or outbound crossings in each orbit owing to the up-and-down displacement of the shocks. MVA was performed on the magnetic field data upstream for each quasi-perpendicular shock crossing under the assumption that the eigenvalues conform to $\lambda_1/\lambda_2 < 2$ and $\lambda_2/\lambda_3 > 7$, which indicate that the waves are elliptically or circularly polarized. In all elliptically polarized waves, 36 perpendicular bow shock crossings with rapid damping were identified, including 20 inbound and 16 outbound crossings. They occurred during 19 orbits, with an orbital occurrence rate of ~20%.

The characteristics of the wave during each event were observed (Supplement Table 1). A statistical analysis indicated the following:

Wave polarization. Right-handed polarization was observed in 16 of the 20 upstream to downstream traversals, whereas left-handed polarization was observed in all 16 downstream to upstream traversals. These polarizations were consistent with the previous theory and observation of standing whistler waves presented by Perez et al. (1970) and Fairfield et al. (1975).

Propagation direction. The calculated θ_{kn} ranged from ~0° to 50°, while the θ_{kB} ranged from ~45° to 90° (Figure 2a). The mean θ_{kn} and θ_{kB} were 17.31° and 69.55°, respectively. These results suggest that the waves were propagating along the shock normal instead of the magnetic

field. These results are also consistent with the observations at Earth (Mellott et al., 1984); however, they are different from the propagating direction of "1 Hz" waves observed at Mercury (Fairfield et al., 1976; Le et al., 2013).

Wave damping. Figure 2b shows the distance from the wave damping to e^{-1} to the ramp on the **n** in the SCF, wherein the amplitudes of most waves damp at e^{-1} within 10 km. This was significantly less than the damping distance of the "1 Hz" wave within ~30000 km at Mercury (Le et al., 2013). The ratio of T_0 and T_{wave} was nearly <10 (Figure 2c). The standing whistler waves on Earth also exhibit this rapid damping, which is <10 times the wave periods (Mellott et al., 1984); hence, the damping mechanism can be considered as Landau damping (Gary et al., 1985).

Wave frequency. The mean frequency of standing whistler waves was 1.67 Hz in the SCF. Here, 70% of the events had a frequency <2 Hz (Figure 2d), suggesting that the standing whistler waves have a lower frequency than the "1 Hz" waves at Mercury (2–3 Hz, Russell, 2007).

Based on the statistical results of these events, it was discovered that its characteristics were similar with those of the standing whistler wave. Meanwhile, other properties (Figures 2e and f) of the waves are described in detail in the Discussion Section.

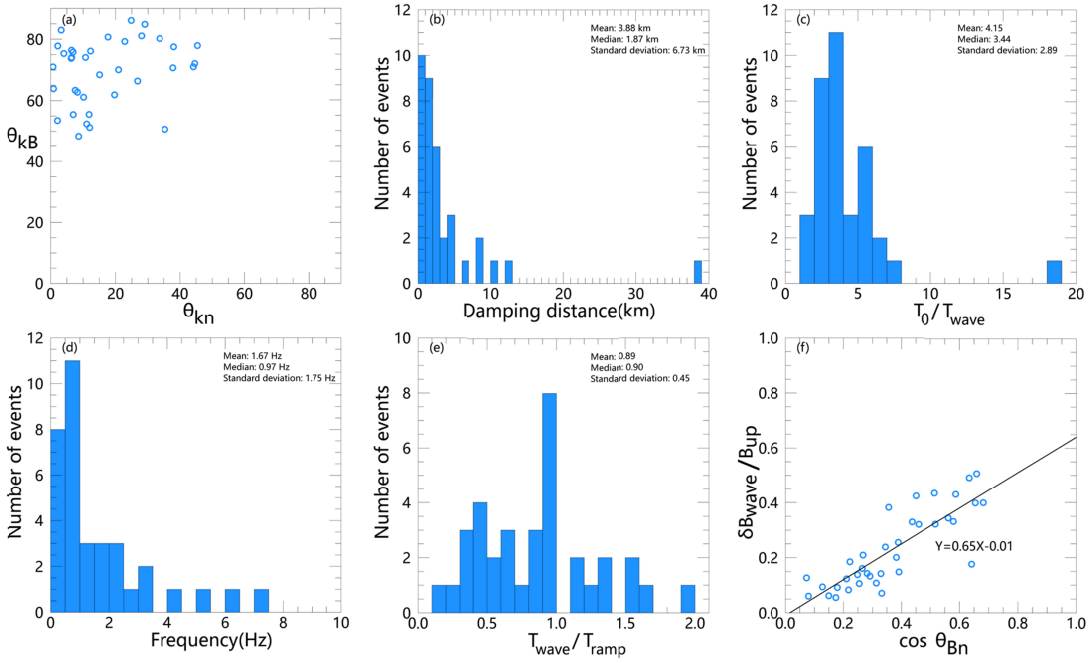

Figure 2. Statistical properties of the standing whistler waves upstream of the bow shock of Mercury. **(a)** Occurrence of events as functions of θ_{kn} and θ_{kB}. **(b)**–**(e)** Distributions of damping distance, T_0/T_{wave}, frequency, and T_{wave}/T_{ramp}. **(f)** Correlation between θ_{Bn} and $\delta B_{wave}/B_{up}$.

Considering that the solar wind beam view of MESSENGER's fast imaging plasma spectrometer was obstructed by the sunshade, the upstream solar wind M_A could not deviate directly. The M_A was approximatively estimated using the following formula: $M_A - 1 = (B_{down}/B_{up} - 1) \sin^2\theta_{Bn}$, which is suitable for low Mach number and low-β shocks. (Balikhin et al., 2008). The magnetic field compression ratio (B_{down}/B_{up}: magnetic field intensity (average value of ~1 min) ratio of downstream to upstream) of all perpendicular bow shock crossings during ICMEs are plotted in Figure 3a, wherein it can be observed that most of the identified wave events (blue) had lower magnetic field compression ratios than the mean ratio during ICMEs. The distributions of the calculated M_A and wave event occurrence rates are plotted in Figure 3b, wherein the occurrence rate can be observed to increase as M_A decreases; 89% of the wave events obtained lower M_A values than the average value during ICMEs. Therefore, these waves have a high likelihood of occurrence under a relatively lower Mach number.

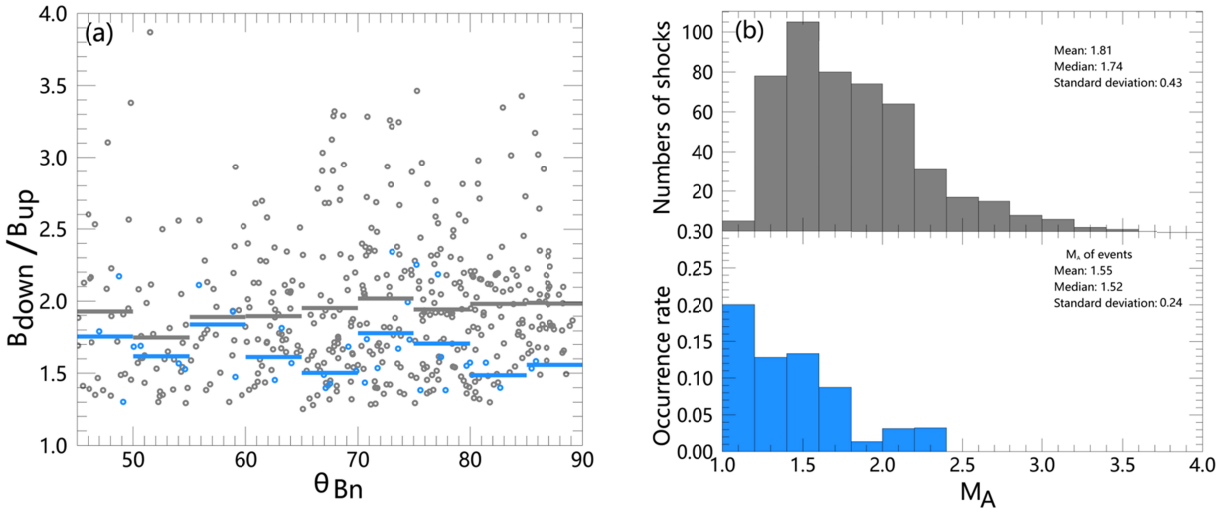

Figure 3. **(a)** Variations of the magnetic field compression ratio with θ_{Bn}. The gray and blue lines represent the average values of all shocks and wave events, respectively. **(b)** Distributions of M_A (top) and events occurrence rates (bottom; Unit : Number of events/Number of shocks in each M_A bin).

3.2 Discussion

On Earth, the theoretical wavelengths of standing whistler waves are consistent with those observed by Mellott et al. (1984). Hence, single spacecraft observations are normally used

to infer the bow shock speed (Fairfield et al., 1975) based on theoretical predictions of the wavelength (Tidman et al., 1971): $\lambda = \frac{2\pi c \cos\theta_{Bn}}{\omega_{pi}(M_A{}^2 - 1)^{1/2}}$, where ω_{pi} is the proton plasma frequency. By applying the typical values from the ICME model at 0.38 AU (Liu et al., 2005), $\omega_{pi} = 10034\, rad/s$, mean $M_A = 1.55$, and mean $\theta_{Bn} = 68°$ of all wave events, the theoretically predicted wavelength of $\lambda =$ ~59 km was calculated. The average T_{wave} was ~1.89 s; hence, the shock speed (λ/T_{wave}) can be inferred as ~31 km/s. Notably, this was slightly less than the shock speed of ~40 km/s estimated through overshoot observations under normal conditions (Masters et al., 2015).

The shock ramp scale was also estimated using the scale relationship between the standing whistler waves and the shock ramps. A shock ramp scale of 53 km was obtained using the formula $\lambda \times T_{ramp}/T_{wave}$ (59 km × 0.89). Considering an ion inertial length (c/ω_{pi}) of 30 km, the width of the ramp was 1.76 c/ω_{pi}. Based on the results of Hobara et al. (2010), the scale can be larger than 1 c/ω_{pi} when M_A is low.

Previous theories have suggested that standing whistler waves are generated by a stable current in the shock ramp, from which the formula for the wave amplitude can be derived (Tidman et al., 1971). This theory suggests that $\delta B_{wave}/B_{up}$ has a positive correlation with $\cos\theta_{BN}$, and this relationship is demonstrated in Figure 2f. The best linear fit produced Y = [0.65±0.15]X - [0.01±0.06], which was also consistent with this theory. Based on the fitted values, the maximum amplitude of the standing whistler wave was approximately 0.8 times the intensity of the background magnetic field.

The shock is hypothesized to be the largest-amplitude circle of the upstream standing whistler wave, wherein its width is half of the wavelength. However, this results in conflicting ratios of the standing whistler wave wavelength to the shock thickness at Earth and interplanetary shock, as some researchers have estimated this ratio to be two (Goncharov et al., 2014) while others have estimated it to be closer to one (Mellott et al., 1984; Farris et al., 1993). In the SCF, the ratio between the period (T_{wave}) of the upstream whistler waves and the shock ramp crossing time (T_{ramp}) can be a good approximation of the shock width to wavelength ratio. Figure 2e shows the T_{wave}/T_{ramp} in the spacecraft frame of the upstream standing whistler waves of Mercury. In cases where T_{wave} was less than $2\times T_{ramp}$, the average ratio of the two was 0.89,

indicating that the initial hypothesis must be reexamined to further determine the scale of the relationship between standing whistler waves and shock ramps.

4 Conclusions

In this study, we reported and statistically analyzed the standing whistler waves upstream of the bow shock of Mercury during ICMEs. These waves occur at lower M_A and propagate along the normal of the bow shock. It was observed that, similar to the waves at Earth, these waves were rapidly damping with few wave periods; however, the damping distance in SCF was significantly shorter, only a few kilometers upstream of the bow shock of Mercury. Our results support that these waves are generated by the current in the shock and that the shock is not the largest-amplitude circle of the waves. Hence, the generation of standing whistler waves was determined to be generic to the low Mach number collisionless shock. Additionally, a high occurrence rate of the standing whistler waves observed during ICMEs suggests that the bow shock of Mercury can be a natural plasma laboratory that can be used to further study low M_A planetary shocks. Considering that BepiColombo will arrive at Mercury in 2025 during the ascending and maximum phases of solar cycle 25, it is expected to encounter a large number of ICMEs. This study provides an understanding of standing whistler wave generation and their underlying physics, which can be used for the upcoming high-resolution BepiColombo observations.

Acknowledgments

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Open Research

The MESSENGER MAG data used in this study are available at NASA's Planetary Data System:

https://pds-ppi.igpp.ucla.edu/search/view/?f=yes&id=pds://PPI/mess-mag-calibrated/data/mso;

The list of the identified standing whistler wave events is available in the supplemental information for the purposes of peer review. The data will eventually be deposited at NSSDC Space Science Article Data Repository (https://sadr-en.nssdc.ac.cn) by the time it is accepted.

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