

Abstract

Satellites with dual-frequency Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSS) receivers can measure integrated electron density, known as slant Total Electron Content (sTEC), between the receiver and transmitter. Precise relative variations of sTEC are achievable using phase measurements on L1 and L2 frequencies, yielding around 0.1 TECU or better. However, CubeSats like Spire LEMUR, with simpler setups and code noise in the order of several meters, face limitations in absolute accuracy. Their relative accuracy, determined by phase observations, remains in the range of 0.1-0.3 TECU. With a substantial number of observations and comprehensive coverage of lines of sight between Low Earth Orbit (LEO) and GNSS satellites, global electron density can be reconstructed from sTEC measurements. Utilizing 27 satellites from various missions, including Swarm, GRACE-FO, Jason-3, Sentinel 1/2/3, COSMIC-2, and Spire CubeSats, a cubic B-spline expansion in magnetic latitude, magnetic local time, and altitude is employed to model the logarithmic electron density. Hourly snapshots of the three-dimensional electron density are generated, adjusting the model parameters through non-linear least-squares based on sTEC observations. Results demonstrate that Spire significantly enhances estimates, showcasing exceptional agreement with in situ observations from Swarm and Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP). The model outperforms contemporary climatological models, such as International Reference Ionosphere (IRI)-2020 and the neural network-based NET model. Validation efforts include comparisons with ground-based slant TEC measurements, space-based vertical TEC from Jason-3 altimetry, and global TEC maps from the Center for Orbit Determination in Europe (CODE) and the German Research Center for Geosciences (GFZ).

1 Introduction

The ionosphere, consisting of weakly ionized plasma, is categorized into layers based on chemical composition. The dynamics of this plasma are primarily influenced by Earth's magnetic field. At higher altitudes, the ionosphere transits into the plasmasphere—a plasma torus with electron densities ranging from 10 to 10^5 e/cm⁻³ (at low L values, i.e., the apex of the magnetic field line in Earth radii), closely linked to the magnetic field lines (Ripoll et al., 2023). Ionized plasma affects radio waves due to its dispersive nature, causing delays in code measurements and advancements in phase measurements, proportional to $1/f^2$ for carrier frequency f . Dual-frequency measurements effectively eliminate more than 90% of the range error through a linear combination, aiding in estimating the integrated electron content (sTEC). Single-frequency users require external assistance for slant TEC information.

Ground-based receiver networks routinely monitor the ionosphere using GNSS. In operational procedures, slant TEC measurements from ground stations are mapped to vertical TEC using a mapping function. Spherical harmonics model the mapped vertical TEC, generating global TEC maps (Schaer, 2011; Brack et al., 2021). These maps assume all contributing electrons are compressed in a thin shell at 350 km to 450 km height, suitable for ground-based observations. However, this assumption falters for Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites, especially CubeSats, where sensitivity to variations in peak height, altitude profile, and spatial gradients is pronounced. Approaches such as ionospheric tomography, data assimilation, and plasmasphere estimation from LEO satellite slant TEC observations address this challenge.

In recent years, the surge in LEO satellites, including science missions like Swarm, Sentinel, GRACE-FO, COSMIC-2, Jason-3, and commercial CubeSats like Spire's LEMUR, equipped with dual-frequency GNSS receivers, has been notable. This study employs 27 LEO satellites, presenting a unique opportunity to directly reconstruct electron density in the topside ionosphere using slant TEC observations. Temporally, the resolution is 1h, with spatial resolution at 3° in magnetic latitude and $0.5h$ in magnetic local time. Altitude is

65 represented by 15 non-uniformly spaced basis functions between 100 km and 500 km, with
 66 restricted variation above 3000 km to GPS altitude ($\tilde{20000}$ km). Despite limited coverage due
 67 to satellite tracks, especially during 3/15 LT, the study demonstrates robust reconstruction.

68 Slant TEC is calculated from observations collected by the Precise Orbit Determination
 69 (POD) antenna on the mentioned satellites. The procedure follows established methodolo-
 70 gies, with receiver code biases adjusted during model estimation. Three-dimensional electron
 71 density maps are computed based on relative slant TEC, validated against in situ measure-
 72 ments from Swarm, DMSP, and GRACE-FO, as well as integral measurements from Jason-3
 73 altimeter and ground-based TEC maps.

74 The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 outlines slant TEC computation methods
 75 and limitations, while Section 3 introduces the three-dimensional model and its estimation.
 76 Section 4 discusses results, emphasizing internal consistency, and Section 5 provides external
 77 validation using Langmuir Probes, Jason-3, and ground stations. Section 6 delves into the
 78 discussion of the results, focusing on small satellites, with Section 7 presenting conclusions.

79 **2 Slant TEC computation**

80 For certain satellite missions, such as Swarm (operational data from ESA, DISC (2017)),
 81 GRACE-FO (provided by GFZ within the TIRO project, Schreiter et al. (2023)), and
 82 COSMIC-2 (provided by UCAR, UCAR (2019)), slant TEC data is already available. To en-
 83 sure consistency across all missions, including identical criteria, methods, and data structure,
 84 slant TEC is computed again for every mission in this study. The processing methodology
 85 agrees with the procedures used in TIRO (Schreiter et al., 2023; Noja et al., 2013) and
 86 UCAR (Yue et al., 2011).

87 Relative slant TEC is derived from dual-frequency code or phase measurements using
 88 the formula:

$$rsTEC = L_1 - L_2 \quad (1)$$

89 The processing is centered on geometry-free linear combinations, $P_4 = P_2 - P_1$ of code
 90 observations, and $L_4 = L_1 - L_2$ of phase observations. The opposite sign accounts for
 91 opposed ionospheric effects in code and phase measurements. Aside from differential code
 92 biases for P_4 and ambiguity parameters and phase biases for L_4 , these are proportional to
 93 slant TEC. Phase observations undergo correction for phase wind-up using nominal attitude
 94 law for GPS satellites (Montenbruck et al., 2015), coupled with attitude information from the
 95 LEO satellites. The formulas from Wu et al. (1992) and Beyerle (2009) are then applied to
 96 compute phase wind-up corrections and subsequently applied to carrier phase measurements.

97 Additionally, the Melbourne-Wuebbena (MW) linear combination is utilized for data
 98 screening:

$$L_{MW} = \frac{1}{f_1 - f_2}(f_1 L_1 - f_2 L_2) - \frac{1}{f_1 + f_2}(f_1 P_1 + f_2 P_2), \quad (2)$$

99 where f_1 and f_2 are the carrier frequencies for L_1 and L_2 . This is employed for screening
 100 purposes, with screening parameters shown in Tab. 1. The input requirements include
 101 the receiver RINEX file, the LEO satellite's attitude, and the LEO orbit provided as SP3
 102 files. GNSS orbits and code biases from the Center for Orbit Determination in Europe
 103 (CODE, (Dach et al., 2020)) are also necessary. The processing begins with loading RINEX
 104 observation data, merging it with orbit and attitude information for both, LEO and GNSS.
 105 Rotations from the inertial frame to the spacecraft body-fixed frame and eventually to the
 106 antenna reference frame are applied (see Tab. 2). Phase wind-up corrections are then
 107 applied to the phase observations. Cleaning involves a combination of MW-based screening
 108 similar to Cai et al. (2013), L4 screening (epoch differences), and checking the completeness
 109 of observation sets (minimum P_1, P_2, L_1, L_2).

Satellite	MW window (s)	max. gap (s)	MW max. std. in window (m)	MW max. jump (m)	max.min. arc length (#obs.)	max. jump L4 (m/s)	max. jump MP LC (m/s)	SNR limit (dB-Hz)
Default	50.5	10.5	0.2	0.43	5	0.5	0.2	23.5
Jason-3	50.5	10.5	0.2	0.43	5	0.5	0.2	-
COSMIC-2	50.5	10.5	0.2	0.43	5	1.0	0.2	23.5
Spire	50.5	10.5	2.0	1.29	5	0.5	5.0	23.5

Table 1. Screening parameters for the different satellite missions used. In the case of Jason-3, the SNR is not reported in the RINEX file. RINEX observation files are sampled to 0.1 Hz in advance.

110 Due to Spire’s relatively large code noise, the Melbourne-Wuebbena based screening is
 111 relaxed for Spire (see Tab. 1). For COSMIC-2, screening based on the geometry-free linear
 112 combination is relaxed due to high signal dynamics when sounding with negative elevations.

113 Observations are corrected for GNSS code biases, and GNSS satellite positions are
 114 interpolated to the observation epochs. Elevation and azimuth in the antenna frame are
 115 computed based on the satellite attitude file. For each code observation, the multipath
 116 linear combination is computed and binned into 1° bins of elevation and azimuth, stacked
 117 over a longer period (here one month) to mitigate noise (Montenbruck & Kroes, 2003).
 118 Multipath corrections are applied to code observations, and code leveling is performed for
 119 each continuous phase arc. A phase arc is considered continuous as long as the ambiguity
 120 parameter is unchanged. This assumption holds under conditions of no tracking gaps,
 121 Melbourne-Wuebbena linear combination having no jumps larger than 43 cm (half cycle)
 122 with 10s boxcar smoothing, and no large jumps in the geometry-free linear combination
 123 (> 0.5 m/s) (see Tab. 1).

124 The Melbourne-Wuebbena linear combination condition is relaxed for Spire satellites
 125 due to large code noise (129 cm instead of 43 cm, with 50-second smoothing). For COSMIC-
 126 2, the third condition is relaxed due to the fast-increasing slant TEC when the elevation
 127 becomes negative ($1m/s$ instead of $0.5m/s$). After code leveling, the receiver-specific P1-P2
 128 bias is estimated using an approach presented by Yue et al. (2011), adjusting the receiver
 129 bias such that simultaneously observed slant TEC observations are equal after applying a
 130 mapping function. The slab-layer mapping function from Foelsche and Kirchengast (2002)
 131 with a slab thickness of 400 km is selected for this study, consistent with DISC (2017).
 132 Note that these leveling approaches are considered initial guesses in this work, and code
 133 leveling depends on code observation quality, with phase observations offering better relative
 134 accuracy.

135 The arc decomposition is stored in the derived TEC file and reused for the model
 136 adjustment.

137 3 Model estimation

138 The model represents the logarithmic electron density (N_e) using cubic B-splines in
 139 magnetic latitude (B^{mlat} , with n_{mlat} basis functions), magnetic local time (B^{mlt} , with n_{mlt}
 140 basis functions), and altitude (B^{alt} , with n_{alt} basis functions):

$$\log_{10} N_e = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{mlat}} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{mlt}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{alt}} B_i^{mlat} \cdot B_j^{mlt} \cdot B_k^{alt}. \quad (3)$$

141 Magnetic latitude and magnetic local time are based on Apex coordinates (Richmond, 1995;
 142 Emmert et al., 2010). The logarithmic representation is chosen because classical approaches

Satellite	Antenna	Antenna	Antenna
	roll (degrees)	pitch (degrees)	yaw (degrees)
Swarm	180	0	180
GRACE-FO	180	0	0
Jason-3	180	-15	0
Sentinel 1	204.9	14.64	0
Sentinel 2	0	-165	0
Sentinel 3	180	0	0
COSMIC-2	180	+/-20	0
Spire	0	0	0

Table 2. Antenna rotations used to rotate from satellite body fixed frame to antenna reference frame. In the case of COSMIC-2 +20 is used for antenna 1 and -20 for antenna 2.

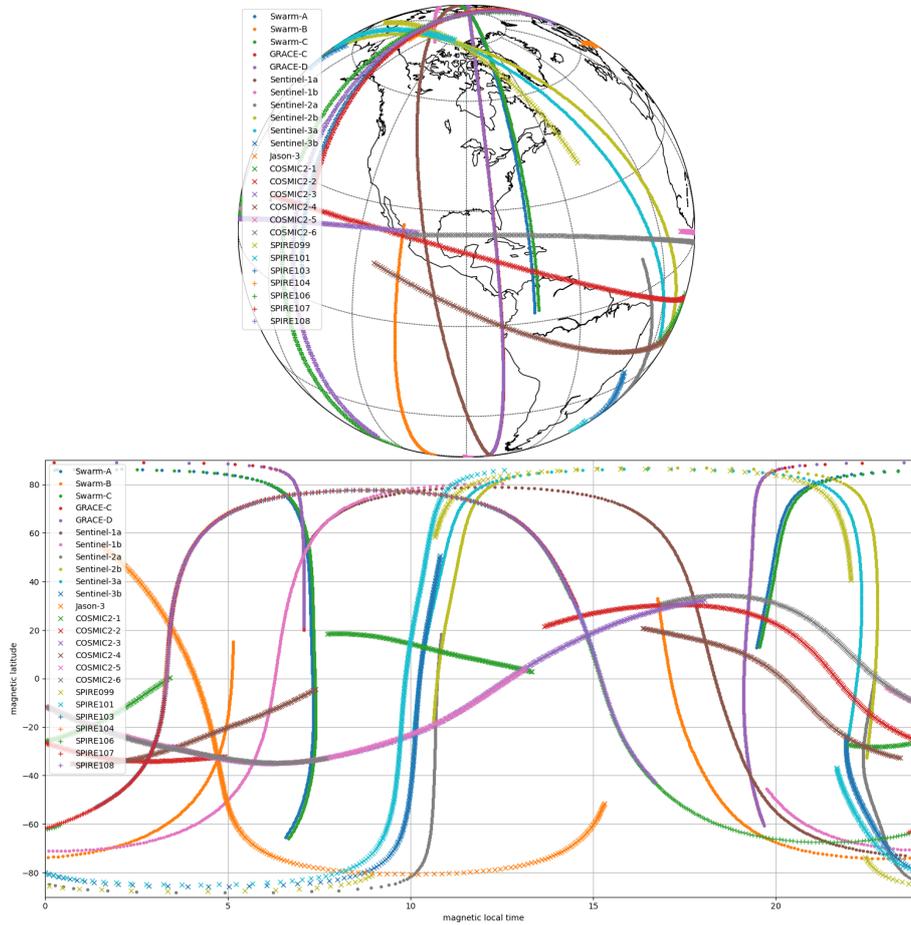


Figure 1. Positions of the LEO satellites used in the geodetic frame (top) and in geomagnetic latitude and local time (bottom). The time span used is just one hour (May, 2 nd, 00:00-01:00 UTC)

143 like Chapman- or Epstein-Layer (or also Varychap) assume linear or quadratic decay in
 144 altitude for the logarithmic electron density (Chapman, 1931; Rawer, 1983; Nsumei et al.,
 145 2012; Smirnov et al., 2023; Prol et al., 2021). The cubic B-splines allow covering linear or
 146 quadratic decay, making them a generalization of layer function assumptions. To capture
 147 higher variability in near-peak altitudes, the knot vector of the B-splines is selected with
 148 smaller spacing between 200 km and 500 km. Larger altitudes, being less well-covered,
 149 have increased spacing. In magnetic latitude, a cubic B-spline basis with equal spacing
 150 and padding at the poles is chosen. In magnetic local time, the B-spline basis has periodic
 151 boundary conditions. The single-dimension basis functions generate a three-dimensional
 152 basis using the tensor product.

153 Integration of electron density along the line of sight is performed using Gauss-Legendre
 154 quadrature. Given most variability in the bottom side, ten support points are computed
 155 along the line of sight below 3000 km. To account for plasmaspheric TEC contribution,
 156 integration from 3000 km to GPS satellite altitude is performed using five support points.
 157 The integration is a linear operator expressed using a matrix L of dimension $(n, 15 \cdot n)$,
 158 where n is the number of slant TEC observations. The logarithmic electron density at the
 159 support points is derived from the model parameters using the design matrix D , with entries
 160 being the values of the basis functions at the support points. Consequently, the dimension
 161 of L is $(15 \cdot n, npar)$ where $npar$ is the number of model parameters.

162 It is important to note that the selection of basis functions significantly impacts com-
 163 putational effort. B-splines are chosen for their compact support, resulting in sparse design
 164 matrix D . This sparsity also holds for matrix L , where only 15 entries deviate from zero in
 165 each row. With y as the vector containing observed sTEC values in TECU and x containing
 166 the model parameters, the minimization problem is written as:

$$167 \quad \|L \cdot \exp(D \cdot x)10^9/10^{16} - y\| \rightarrow \min. \quad (4)$$

168 The factor $10^9/10^{16}$ accounts for the electron density in cm^{-3} and TECU in $10^{16}e/m^2$. As
 169 leveling uncertainty of TEC values is high compared to the relative accuracy of slant TEC,
 170 one offset parameter is added to each continuous phase arc. With O as the matrix linking
 171 offsets to slant TEC observations and x_o containing the offsets (in TECU), the minimization
 172 problem is:

$$173 \quad \|L \cdot \exp(D \cdot x)1e9/1e16 + O \cdot x_o - y\| \rightarrow \min. \quad (5)$$

174 The matrix O is sparse. Some basic functions are not well-observed, especially in polar
 175 regions where the grid in magnetic latitude and magnetic local time is less spaced. To
 176 account for this situation, constraints are weighted with the inverse cosine of magnetic
 177 latitude, suppressing large variations in polar regions. The altitudinal expansion is uncon-
 178 strained. Constraints are applied using Tikhonov regularization:

$$179 \quad \|L \cdot \exp(D \cdot x)1e9/1e16 + O \cdot x_o - y\| + \lambda \|C \cdot x\| \rightarrow \min. \quad (6)$$

180 It is crucial to note that only parameters describing the electron density are constrained,
 181 while estimated offsets remain unconstrained. An initial guess for electron density pa-
 182 rameters is made by estimating x from the IRI-2020 model using the cor2 topside with
 183 plasmasphere extension. The a priori estimate for x_o is 0 (vector) since a rough estimate
 184 is performed in the slant TEC computation. Model adjustment is done using non-linear
 185 least-squares adjustment. The constraining parameter λ is fixed, and selected using the
 186 L-curve criterion.

187 4 Results

188 The electron density is adjusted to make the modeled slant TEC match the observed
 189 slant TEC (excluding arc-wise offsets). The observed slant TEC, modeled TEC, and TEC
 190 extracted from the IRI-2020 model with cor2 topside are shown in Fig. 2. The model
 191 parametrization can reproduce the elevation-dependent characteristics of the measured slant

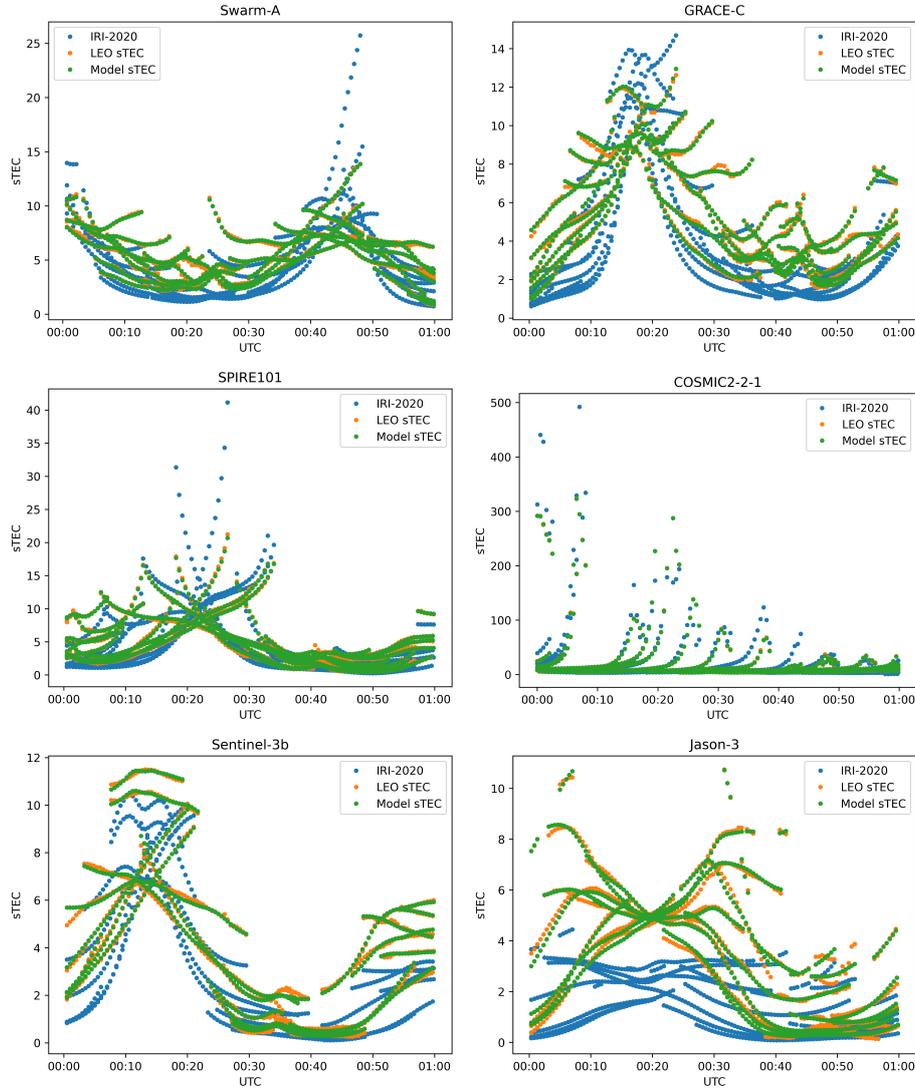


Figure 2. Slant TEC values for Swarm A, GRACE-C, Spire-101, COSMIC-2 (Antenna 1), Sentinel-3B, and Jason-3. The slant TEC values are computed from IRI-2020 using NeQuick as topside (blue), From the model after model adjustment (green), and observed slant TEC with receiver bias adjusted (orange). Large values for COSMIC-2 occur due to occultation measurements.

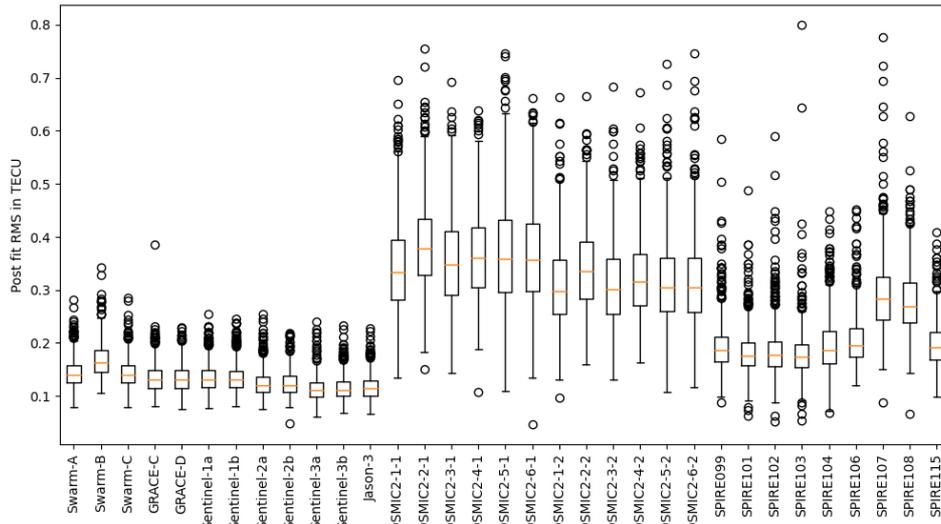


Figure 3. Post-fit RMS for the satellite missions used for the reconstruction. The last number for the COSMIC-2 satellites references the antenna number.

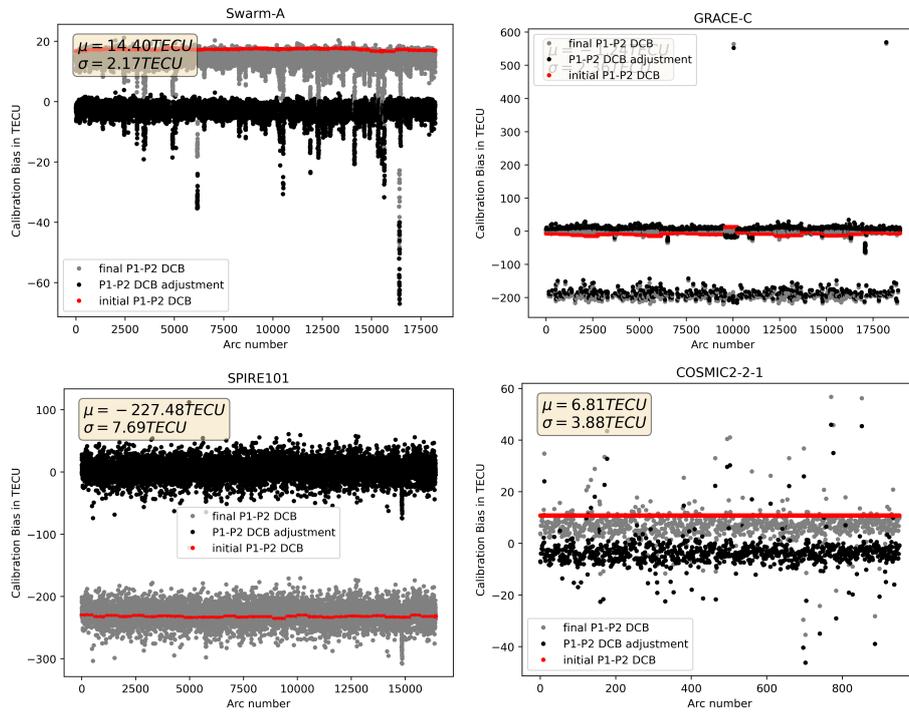


Figure 4. Estimated differential code biases for the receiver for Swarm, GRACE-C, Spire101, and COSMIC-2 (2 Antenna 1).

TEC (i.e., a strong increase with low elevation), and the model TEC values agree with the observed slant TEC within less than 1 TECU. Additionally, the agreement with the IRI-derived TEC is typically within 3 TECU for low-flying satellites like Swarm and GRACE-FO, except at the end of observational arcs coinciding with low elevations. The agreement between sTEC observed by Jason-3 is not as well captured by the IRI-2020 model, indicating a significant underestimation of ionospheric gradients by IRI-2020. This suggests that a generalization of the profile functions could be essential to better describe the transition region between the ionosphere and plasmasphere.

Hourly ionospheric electron density maps are computed for a full month (May 2020). The post-fit Root Mean Square (RMS) between observation and model is approximately between 0.2 and 0.3 TECU (see Fig. 3) and higher for COSMIC-2 due to occultation measurements. Spire satellites lead to higher values due to increased observational noise. Compared to Swarm, the RMS for Spire is about three times higher (consistent with the results from POD, (Arnold et al., 2023)). However, the reconstruction still benefits from the improved observational geometry, as shown in the validation section.

The errors introduced by code leveling are typically in the range of a few TECU. Especially for short observational arcs, this error may become large, and a second uncertainty is the receiver-specific code bias. Both are handled by estimating arc-wise DCBs during the adjustment. Selected DCBs are shown in Fig. 4. For Swarm, the arc-wise DCBs show a scatter of about 2 TECU, as expected. Larger jumps of several hundred TECU are observed for GRACE-FO C, affected by flex-power tracking issues (Schreiter et al., 2023). However, the phase observation seems unaffected. For Spire, a much larger scatter of nearly 8 TECU is seen due to noisier code observations and CubeSat limitations. This noise also indicates that classical code leveling for TEC computation would not exploit the potential of the GNSS receiver. The noise for COSMIC-2, that is likely caused by the occultation measurements and larger signal dynamics, is larger than for Swarm but still much smaller than for Spire.

5 Validation

5.1 Ground-based TEC

The derived electron density is validated against TEC and electron density observations as well as established models. First, we validate against ground-based observations using IGS stations: Zimmerwald in Switzerland (mid-latitude, ZIM200CHE, $46.877^\circ N$, $7.465^\circ E$), Cap Verde in Spain (CPVG00CPV, $16.732^\circ N$, $22.935^\circ W$), Le Lamentin in Martinique (LMMF00MTQ, $14.595^\circ N$, $60.996^\circ W$), and Accra in Ghana (ACRG00GHA, $5.641^\circ N$, $0.207^\circ W$) (near the magnetic equator). The modeled slant TEC is obtained by integrating the model from the lowest modeled altitude (100 km) up to the GPS satellite position. For the bottom side (below 450 km), data mostly rely on COSMIC-2 data and occasionally Spire POD with negative elevations. To mitigate outliers, a Butterworth low-pass filter is applied to the model coefficients. The comparison is performed against the CODE TEC model as a reference.

The observed standard deviation is near 1.5 TECU for Zimmerwald for both the CODE TEC map and the model, with a slight degradation in the model during the afternoon. For Cap Verde, the standard deviations for the model and the TEC map are similar around 2 TECU, in contrast to IRI, which shows significantly higher values up to 6-8 TECU. For Accra, the model leads to smaller standard deviations than the TEC map, with a degradation in the early afternoon, an area not well covered by the satellites. Similar behavior is noticeable for Le Lamentin.

5.2 Vertical TEC from Jason-3 Altimeter

Vertical Total Electron Content (vTEC) derived from altimeter measurements over the oceans is used in this study, specifically from Jason-3. The satellite orbits the Earth with

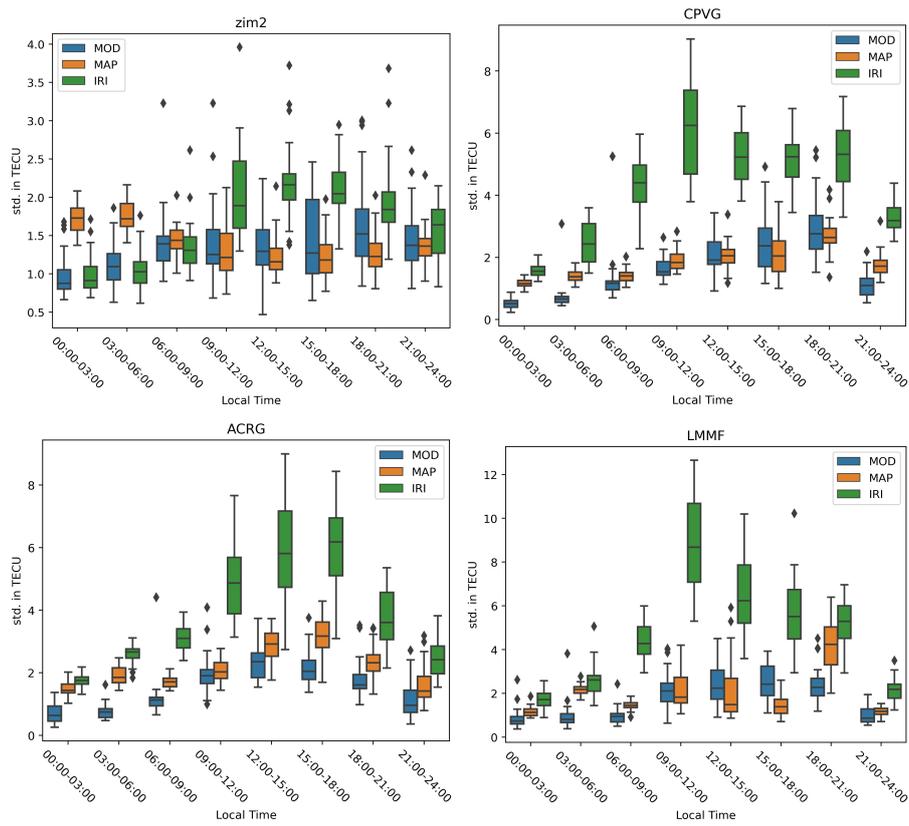


Figure 5. Standard deviation binned in local time for the selected ground stations

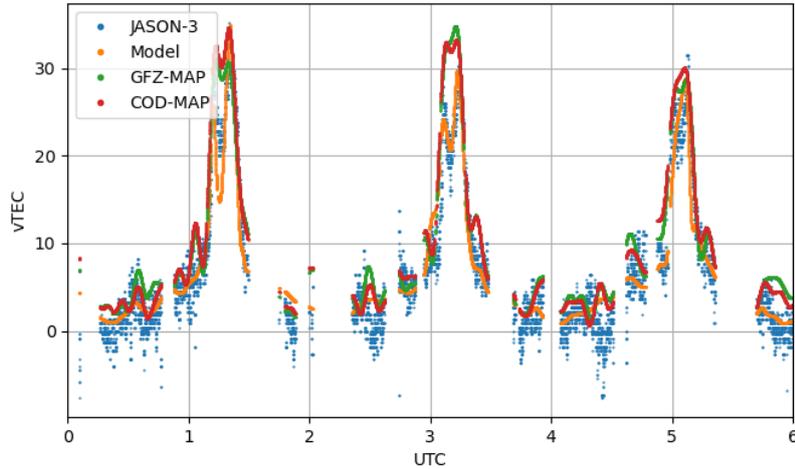


Figure 6. Jason-3 vertical TEC obtained from altimeter compared to vertical TEC computed from the model (orange), GFZ TEC maps (green), and CODE TEC maps (red)

240 an inclination of 66° at an altitude of around 1300 km. Due to the measurement principle
 241 and its altitude, it misses the contribution of the electron density between the satellite
 242 orbit height and GNSS altitude to the vertical TEC between ground and GNSS satellites.
 243 The three-dimensional electron density model is capable of separating the TEC below and
 244 above a given altitude, which is a few TECUs. The comparison in Fig. 6 shows Jason-3
 245 vTEC obtained from altimetry compared to the vertical TEC computed from the model (in
 246 orange), GFZ TEC maps (in green), and CODE TEC maps (in red). The model TEC is
 247 derived through numerical integration from the ground to Jason-3 altitude. The TEC maps
 248 from CODE and GFZ are not scaled to remove the TEC contributions originating from 1300
 249 km upwards.

250 The equatorial double peak is better reproduced using the reconstruction compared to
 251 the TEC maps. The TEC maps use spherical harmonics up to degree/order 15, resulting
 252 in a 12° resolution in latitude, while the B-spline approach is selected with a 3° resolution
 253 in latitude. Over the full day, the Root Mean Square (RMS) between the vertical TEC
 254 from Jason-3 and the model, CODE, and GFZ TEC is 2.46 TECU, 2.72 TECU, and 2.83
 255 TECU, respectively, which is close to the noise level of the Jason-3 TEC observations. If
 256 a boxcar smoothing with a 60-second window is used to mitigate high-frequency scatter
 257 in Jason-3 vTEC, the RMS drops to 2.08 TECU (model), 2.49 TECU (GFZ), and 2.37 TECU
 258 (CODE). In case the electron density is integrated only to Jason-3 altitude (1300 km), the
 259 model RMS increases to 2.24 TECU, treating the TEC maps and the model identically.

260 5.3 Electron Density

261 The electron density is adjusted based on in situ measurements from Swarm and DMSP.
 262 The electron densities from Swarm, which operates at altitudes of 460 km (A/C) and 510
 263 km (B), and from DMSP, which orbits between 850 km and 880 km, are adjusted due to
 264 the observed overestimation of the electron density (Pakhotin et al., 2022; Catapano et al.,
 265 2022). The adjustment is crucial to improve the accuracy of the electron density profiles
 266 derived from the three-dimensional model.

Swarm electron densities are computed from ion admittance, assuming a pure oxygen atmosphere and single-charged ions. The ion density (N_i) is calculated using the formula:

$$N_i = \frac{d_s v_s m_s}{2e^2 \pi r_p^2}, \quad (7)$$

where N_i is the ion density, d_s is the ion admittance, v_s is the plasma ram speed, m_s is the effective ion mass, e is the elementary charge, and r_p is the probe spherical radius. The effective ion mass is considered 16 atomic mass units (AMU) for a pure oxygen atmosphere.

To account for variations in the effective ion mass during nighttime or at higher altitudes (Swarm B), where light ions like He^+ and H^+ contribute, the effective ion mass is adjusted. The adjustment involves extracting the ion composition from the IRI-2020 model, specifically using the ion composition model from Truhlik et al. (2015). The effective electron density extracted from the model (m_{eff}^{mod}) is then used to adjust the electron density obtained from Swarm, multiplying it by $m_{eff}^{mod}/16$. This adjustment is only applied to Swarm as there is no information available on the electron retrieval algorithm from DMSP.

The study includes the use of "in situ" electron density data obtained from the GRACE-FO satellites. While it is noted that the GRACE-FO K-Band instrument provides a smoothed average of the electron density between the two satellites rather than a direct in situ measurement, it serves as a valuable dataset for comparison.

In Fig. 7, a comparison is presented for the period 00:00-04:00 UTC on the 2nd of May 2020, featuring data from Swarm A, Swarm B, DMSP-F18, and GRACE-FO. Notably, the IRI-2020 model exhibits a pronounced overestimation near sunrise, particularly evident in Swarm A. In contrast, both the NET model and the reconstructions show a more accurate representation without the observed overestimation. The same overestimation pattern is seen for GRACE-FO, emphasizing the likelihood of it being a local time-dependent feature.

For Swarm B, where electron density adjustments were applied, all models demonstrated excellent performance. Without adjustment, Swarm B would exhibit a significant peak in electron density on the night side. The reconstructions effectively capture the measurements from DMSP, although IRI and NET fail to capture the peak amplitude, particularly notable in the NET model due to features related to the Epstein layer and the adjustment process based on radio occultations that do not include density values above 800 km.

The overall performance for the full day is summarized in Fig. 8. The reconstructions showcase their ability to capture variations in in situ measured electron densities, with a correlation coefficient of 0.92. When Spire is included in the model generation, the correlation increases to 0.95. Particularly noteworthy is the nearly met correlation for the NET model with Swarm satellites, while for higher flying DMSP satellites, IRI performs better. The Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) analysis indicates that the error in electron density for the derived model is only around 40% of the error in the IRI model. This emphasizes the improved accuracy and performance of the NET model, especially for Swarm, while its effectiveness drops with altitude.

6 Discussion

Apart from classical large scientific satellites, we use also a fleet of CubeSats in this study. The utilization of CubeSats, particularly the Spire satellites in this study, raises two key questions:

1. Benefit of Spire Satellites in Reconstruction:

- The impact of Spire satellites on the reconstruction is assessed through validation results. It is observed that the model, which incorporates Spire data, exhibits an

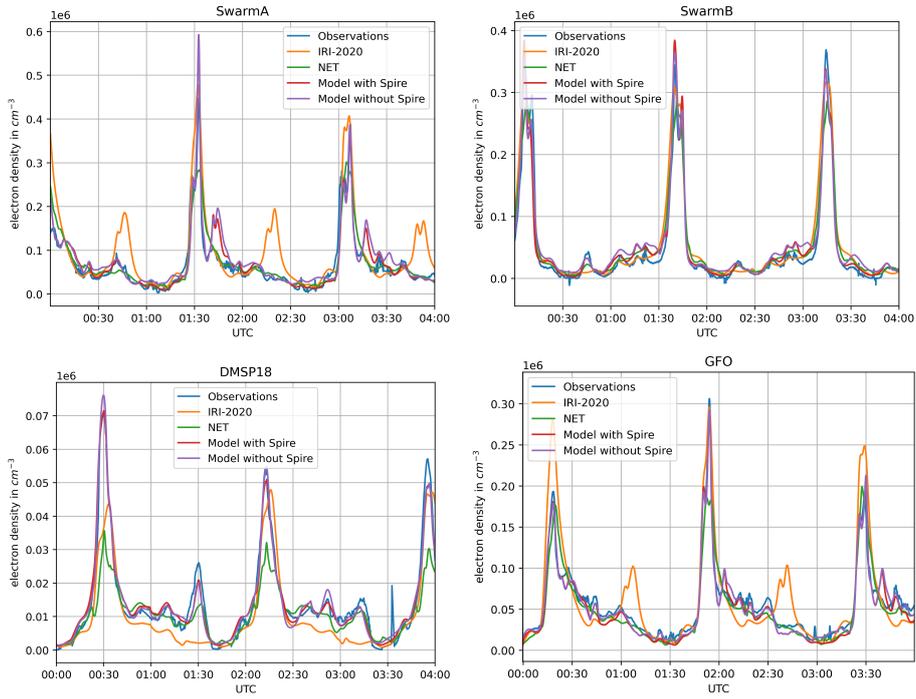


Figure 7. Electron density for Swarm A (top left, 07/19 LT), Swarm B (top right, 05/17 LT), DMSP-F18 (bottom left, 05/17 LT) and GRACE-FO (bottom right, 07/19 LT)

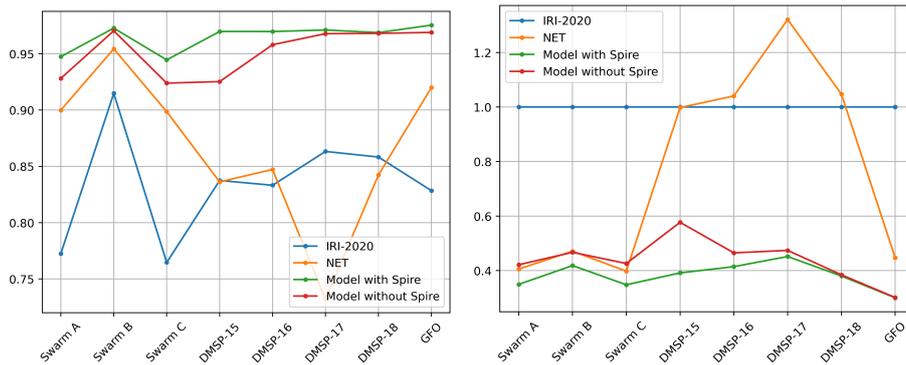


Figure 8. Left: Correlation between observed electron density and modeled electron density for the model with, and without Spire compared with IRI and NET. Right: RMSE relative to IRI-2020 for NET, and the model with and without Spire

313 increase in correlation for all in situ measurements from approximately 0.95 to
 314 0.97. Simultaneously, the error in electron density decreases, measured relative to
 315 IRI, from 0.4 to 0.35. This improvement is attributed to the different local times
 316 covered by Spire satellites, contributing to densification in magnetic local time and
 317 magnetic latitude, thereby enhancing the observation geometry.

318 2. Data Quality of Spire Satellites:

- 319 • The data from Spire satellites is noted to have significantly increased observation
 320 noise compared to other missions. The elevated noise levels are likely a consequence
 321 of the CubeSat design, which may limit the payload. Specifically, the code noise
 322 for Spire is observed to be near 4m, in contrast to the usual 1m observed on other
 323 satellites like Sentinel. The analysis of the standard deviation of arc-wise biases
 324 further supports this, with GRACE-FO having a standard deviation of around 2
 325 TECU, while Spire exhibits a higher value of around 7 TECU. This indicates a 3-4
 326 times larger code noise for Spire.
- 327 • The study also evaluates the phase noise, considering the post-fit RMS of relative
 328 slant TEC. Spire satellites exhibit a post-fit RMS around 0.2 TECU, while Swarm
 329 and GRACE-FO, with similar heights, show a lower post-fit RMS near 0.1 TECU.
 330 Despite the higher noise, the study concludes that the additional observations from
 331 different local times provided by Spire outweigh the impact of larger noise.
- 332 • It is emphasized that the model used in the reconstruction relies on relative varia-
 333 tions in slant TEC based on phase measurements. Although code noise is a concern
 334 for TEC derivation using code leveling techniques, the study suggests that for the
 335 reconstruction, the limiting factor is phase noise, and the amount of additional
 336 observations from other local times compensates for the larger noise from Spire.

337 In summary, while Spire satellites introduce increased observation noise, their inclusion in
 338 the study enhances the overall reconstruction by providing valuable observations from differ-
 339 ent local times. The benefits of densification and improved observation geometry outweigh
 340 the challenges associated with data quality.

341 7 Conclusions

342 The study successfully reconstructs electron density in the topside ionosphere and plas-
 343 masphere using observations from Low Earth Orbit Global Navigation Satellite System
 344 (LEO-GNSS). Key findings and conclusions from the study include:

- 345 1. Agreement with In Situ Measurements: The reconstructed electron density demon-
 346 strates excellent agreement with in situ electron density measurements. The perfor-
 347 mance surpasses that of climatological models such as IRI-2020 and NET.
- 348 2. Validity Range: While the estimation is performed up to 20,000 km, the validity of the
 349 reconstruction is suggested up to 5,000 km. Above this altitude, the contribution to
 350 slant Total Electron Content (TEC) is deemed negligible, and reliable reconstruction
 351 is challenging. Only approximately 1.5 TECU remains above 5,000 km in low and
 352 mid-latitudes around noon.
- 353 3. Global Coverage Limitations: GNSS satellites, with a revolution time of approxi-
 354 mately 11:58 h for GPS, do not provide global coverage similar to LEO satellites
 355 within a 1-hour time window. The study notes limitations in reconstructing high
 356 altitude regimes on a short time scale due to unequal data sampling of LEO satellites
 357 in local time. Future mega constellations may address this limitation.
- 358 4. Comparison to Ground-Based TEC: Comparison with ground-based TEC observa-
 359 tions reveals that the quality of the reconstruction is affected by the unequal data
 360 sampling of LEO satellites in local time. Reasonable agreement within 2 TECU can
 361 be achieved for local times between 00 and 12. However, the Root Mean Square
 362 (RMS) increases to 2.5 TECU in early afternoon local times (between 12 and 24).

- 363 5. Reconstruction over Oceans Using Altimetry Measurements: The study demonstrates
 364 the reliable reconstruction of vertical TEC over oceans using altimeter measurements
 365 from Jason-3 as a reference. The B-spline basis used in the reconstruction provides a
 366 better resolution of the double peak structure near the geomagnetic equator compared
 367 to spherical harmonics used in TEC maps.
- 368 6. Validation with In Situ Electron Density Measurements: In situ electron density
 369 was validated using measurements from Swarm, DMSP, and GRACE-FO. The study
 370 shows a correlation of 0.95 and a nearly 60 % reduction in error compared to the
 371 IRI model. The NET model from A. Smirnov achieves similar quality for altitudes
 372 near 500 km. A significant improvement over NET is observed for DMSP, indicating
 373 valuable information for enhancing climatological models between 700 and 5,000 km.

374 In summary, the study highlights the capability of LEO-GNSS observations for recon-
 375 structing electron density in the topside ionosphere and plasmasphere, providing valuable
 376 insights for improving ionospheric models and understanding variations in electron density
 377 at different altitudes.

378 8 Open Research

379 Swarm GPS observation files, attitude data and orbit information and Langmuir probe
 380 data is obtained from <ftp://swarm-diss.eo.esa.int/>. GRACE-FO GPS observation files,
 381 attitude, orbits, and inter-satellite electron density is obtained from [ftp://isdclftp.gfz-
 382 -potsdam.de/grace/](ftp://isdclftp.gfz-potsdam.de/grace/). Sentinel I/II/II GPS observation files, and orbits are obtained from
 383 <https://dataspace.copernicus.eu/> Jason-3 GPS observations, orbit, and attitude were
 384 provided within the project from AIUB. COSMIC-2 GPS observation files, orbit and at-
 385 titude was obtained via <https://data.cosmic.ucar.edu/gnss-ro/cosmic2> The required
 386 Spire data was provided by ESA within in the frame of an Announcement of Opportu-
 387 nity (project no. 66978). DMSP in situ electron density observation were obtained via
 388 <http://cedar.openmadrigal.org> Altimeter TEC is obtained from TU Munic ([https://
 389 openadb.dgfi.tum.de/en/products/vertical-total-electron-content/](https://openadb.dgfi.tum.de/en/products/vertical-total-electron-content/)) Precise GPS
 390 orbits are obtained from AIUB (Dach et al., 2020). TEC maps generated from ground based
 391 stations were taken from the IGS <ftp://gssc.esa.int/gnss/products/ionex/> and GFZ
 392 <ftp://isdclftp.gfz-potsdam.de/gnss/products/iono/>

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