Rapid Outer Radiation Belt Flux Dropouts and Fast Acceleration during the March 2015 and 2013 Storms: Role of ULF Wave Transport from a Dynamic Outer Boundary

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Abstract

We present simulations of the outer radiation belt electron flux during the March 2015 and March 2013 storms using a radial diffusion model. Despite differences in Dst intensity between the two storms the response of the ultra-relativistic electrons in the outer radiation belt was remarkably similar, both showing a sudden drop in the electron flux followed by a rapid enhancement in the outer belt flux to levels over an order of magnitude higher than those observed during the pre-storm interval. Simulations of the ultra-relativistic electron flux during the March 2015 storm show that outward radial diffusion can explain the flux dropout down to L*=4. However, in order to reproduce the observed flux dropout at L*<4 requires the addition of a loss process characterised by an electron lifetime of around one hour operating below L*^3.5 during the flux dropout interval. Nonetheless, during the pre-storm and recovery phase of both storms the radial diffusion simulation reproduces the observed flux dynamics. For the March 2013 storm the flux dropout across all L-shells is reproduced by outward radial diffusion activity alone. However, during the flux enhancement interval at relativistic energies there is evidence of a growing local peak in the electron phase space density at L*^3.8, consistent with local acceleration such as by VLF chorus waves. Overall the simulation results for both storms can accurately reproduce the observed electron flux only when event specific radial diffusion coefficients are used, instead of the empirical diffusion coefficients derived from ULF wave statistics.

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3	Transport from a Dynamic Outer Boundary
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22	Key points
23	The March 2013 outer radiation belt flux dropout is consistent with fast outward ULF wave
24	radial diffusion to a compressed magnetopause
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26	Outward radial diffusion at high L combined with a loss process occurring on $L < 3.5$ are required
27	to explain the March 2015 flux dropout
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29	Event specific radial diffusion coefficients should be used to simulate outer belt flux dynamics
30	especially during the storm main phase
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49 We present simulations of the outer radiation belt electron flux during the March 2015 and 50 March 2013 storms using a radial diffusion model. Despite differences in Dst intensity between 51 the two storms the response of the ultra-relativistic electrons in the outer radiation belt was 52 remarkably similar, both showing a sudden drop in the electron flux followed by a rapid 53 enhancement in the outer belt flux to levels over an order of magnitude higher than those 54 observed during the pre-storm interval. Simulations of the ultra-relativistic electron flux during 55 the March 2015 storm show that outward radial diffusion can explain the flux dropout down to $L^*=4$. However, in order to reproduce the observed flux dropout at $L^*<4$ requires the addition of 56 a loss process characterised by an electron lifetime of around one hour operating below $L^* \sim 3.5$ 57 58 during the flux dropout interval. Nonetheless, during the pre-storm and recovery phase of both 59 storms the radial diffusion simulation reproduces the observed flux dynamics. For the March 60 2013 storm the flux dropout across all L-shells is reproduced by outward radial diffusion activity 61 alone. However, during the flux enhancement interval at relativistic energies there is evidence of 62 a growing local peak in the electron phase space density at $L^* \sim 3.8$, consistent with local 63 acceleration such as by VLF chorus waves. Overall the simulation results for both storms can 64 accurately reproduce the observed electron flux only when event specific radial diffusion 65 coefficients are used, instead of the empirical diffusion coefficients derived from ULF wave 66 statistics.

67 **1** Introduction

Radial diffusion driven by ultra-low frequency (ULF) waves has long been established as
playing a critical role in controlling the acceleration of electrons in the Earth's outer radiation

belt (Fälthammar , 1966 and Schulz & Lanzerotti, 1974). More recently, outward radial diffusion to the magnetopause has also been shown to be an important loss mechanism of outer radiation belt electrons during geomagnetic storms (Loto'aniu et al., 2010, Turner et al., 2012; and Ozeke et al., 2014a). The radial diffusion coefficients, D_{LL} , which determine how quickly the electrons can be transported radially inward and outward, depend on the ULF wave power spectral density of the electric and magnetic fields in space along the electrons drift path (Fei et al., 2006; and Schulz & Lanzerotti, 1974).

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78 Several different approaches have been used to specify the required ULF wave electric and 79 magnetic field power and derive the radial diffusion coefficients. Brautigam and Albert (2000) 80 used a statistical database of ULF wave power spectral density values based on in-situ and 81 ground-based magnetometer measurements to empirically specify the average radial diffusion 82 coefficient resulting from the induced electric field as a function of Kp (see also, Lanzerotti et 83 al., 1973; and Lanzerotti et al., 1978). Using a much larger database of global ground-based 84 magnetometer measurements, as well as in-situ Time History of Events and Macroscale 85 Interactions during Substorms (THEMIS) (Angelopoulos, 2008) and GOES magnetometer 86 (Singer et al., 1996) ULF wave measurements, Ozeke et al. (2014b) also derived analytic 87 expressions for the average electric and magnetic radial diffusion coefficients as a function of 88 Kp. As shown for example by Ozeke et al. (2014a) and Ozeke et al. (2014b), these statistically 89 derived radial diffusion coefficients can produce outer belt electron flux variations in good 90 agreement with observations over long timescales during geomagnetically quiet times. However, 91 for event specific case studies of individual large geomagnetic storms the radial diffusion 92 coefficients derived directly from the measured ULF waves can be significantly different from

93 those derived from the analytic expressions given in Ozeke et al. (2014b) and Brautigam and 94 Albert (2000), which specify the average D_{LL} value for a given Kp value.

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96 Instead of using the analytic diffusion coefficient based on statistics, an alternate approach to 97 model individual geomagnetic storms is to use a global magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) model to 98 specify the required electric and magnetic fields in space and derive the radial diffusion 99 coefficients from the model ULF wave power spectral density. Z. Li et al. (2017) used this 100 approach to simulate the electron flux in the outer radiation belt during the March 2015 and 101 March 2013 geomagnetic storms, respectively. However, this approach relies on the MHD 102 model accurately reproducing the global spatial distribution and temporal evolution of the 103 electric and magnetic fields as well as their spectral properties, to be able to specify the 104 appropriate radial diffusion coefficients. Huang et al. (2010a,b) showed that the ULF wave radial 105 diffusion transport rates derived using a global MHD model are in general smaller than the 106 transport rates derived directly from observations of the ULF waves.

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In this paper we used 63 ground-based magnetometers in North America, Europe and Asia to specify the global distribution of the ULF wave power spectral density (PSD) on the ground during both the March 2015 and March 2013 geomagnetic storms. These D-component magnetic power values are then mapped from the ground to the azimuthal electric field power in space in the magnetic equatorial plane using the approach discussed in Ozeke et al. (2014a, 2014b, see also, Ozeke et al., 2009). These electric field power spectral density values are then used to determine the electric field radial diffusion coefficients.

116 During the main phase of the March 2015 and March 2013 geomagnetic storms the outer 117 radiation belt electron flux rapidly dropped before subsequently becoming enhanced to levels 118 greater than the pre-storm flux levels, see e.g., Olifer et al. (2018). Here we apply the event 119 specific ULF wave radial diffusion coefficients derived from the ground-based magnetometer 120 measurements to simulate the flux dynamics during the March 2015 and March 2013 121 geomagnetic storms. In this paper we also examine if the observed initial flux dropout during 122 these storms is consistent with the sole action of outward radial diffusion to a compressed magnetopause driven by enhanced ULF waves. 123

124 **2** The March 2013 and 2015 Geomagnetic Storms

125 The March 17 2015 storm was the largest geomagnetic storm of the past 15 years with a 126 minimum Dst value of -223 nT, much lower than the more modest March 17 2013 storm where 127 Dst reached a minimum of -130 nT. Using measurements made by the ACE spacecraft at the L1 128 Lagrangian point from ~12:30 UT on March 17 to 04:30 UT on March 18, Kanekal et al. (2016) 129 present evidence that the March 2015 storm resulted from a Coronal Mass Ejection (CME). The 130 March 17 2013 storm was also caused by a CME and the resulting shock reached the Earth's 131 magnetosphere at ~06:00 UT (see e.g., Baker et al., 2014b). However, unlike the March 2013 132 storm the CME on March 2015 was preceded by an interplanetary shock at 04:00 UT on March 133 17 which produced a small enhancement in the ultra-relativistic electron flux lasting for 134 approximately two minutes from 04:47 UT to 04:49 UT (see, Figure 4 in Kanekal et al., 2016 for 135 details).

137 The March 2015 and March 2013 geomagnetic storms are both characterized by a sudden 138 increase in the Kp index and the solar wind dynamic pressure on March 17, and at the same time 139 a drop in the Dst index and a strongly negative interplanetary magnetic field Bz, as illustrated in 140 Figure 1. These changes in the solar wind and geomagnetic parameters produce a sudden drop in 141 the magnetopause position and the location of the last closed drift shell (LCDS) on March 17, 142 see Figure 1 panels (i) and (j). Note the LCDS is determined for 90° equatorial pitch angle 143 electrons in the Tsyganenko and Sitnov (2005) magnetic field model using the LANLmax and 144 LANLstar algorithms (Yu et al., 2012) from the LANL* neural network (Morley et al., 2013). 145 However, during the storm time interval on March 17 and 18 the LCDS is obtained from the full calculation at a second adiabatic invariant of K=0.05 G^{1/2}Re using the LANLGeoMag software 146 147 library (Henderson et al., 2017). The electron flux rapidly decreases at the same time as the 148 sudden drop in the magnetopause position and the location of the LCDS, and then over the 149 course of several subsequent days increases to over an order of magnitude higher than the pre-150 storm flux. This is shown in the 2.6 MeV energy channel from the Relativistic Electron Proton 151 Telescope (REPT) (Baker et al., 2013) instrument on-board the NASA Van Allen Probes 152 (Spence et al., 2013) in the bottom panels of Figure 1.

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High temporal and spatial resolution electron flux measurements taken by the constellation of
Global Positioning System (GPS) satellites during these two storms presented in Olifer et al.
(2018), show that the timing and extent of the electron flux dropout is closely correlated with the
dynamics of the location of the LCDS consistent with the electron flux data in panels (i) and (e)
of Figure 1. The local pitch angle (P.A.) distribution of the electrons measured by the two Van
Allen Probes during the flux dropout intervals for the March 2015 and March 2013 geomagnetic

160 storms further validate the close connection of the flux dynamics and the LCDS as presented in 161 Figure 2. Note the pitch angle distributions in Figure 2 are only shown at times where the 162 electron flux is above the instrument noise floor. For the 2015 storm during the dropout interval 163 at times earlier than 23:00 UT on March 17 the flux is too low to fully resolve the pitch angle 164 distribution. Consequently, in Figure 2 only data after 23:00 UT is shown for the March 17, 2015 165 storm where the flux is high enough to resolve the pitch angle distribution. Figure 2 shows that 166 for both storms at higher L^* values close to the last closed drift shell the pitch angle distribution 167 shows that the lowest flux occurs at pitch angles close to 90°. This is consistent with outward 168 transport to the magnetopause since the higher P.A. particles drift further outwards on the 169 dayside (see e.g., Sibeck et al. 1987). Similar pitch angle distributions during the flux dropout 170 interval of the March 2013 storm are also presented in Baker et al. (2014b). Overall, this 171 suggests the rapid radiation belt losses observed are related to magnetopause shadowing and we 172 investigate this as well as the subsequent fast radiation belt acceleration below.

173 **3 Modeling Methodology**

In this paper we simulate the dynamics of the outer radiation belt using a ULF wave driven radial
diffusion model, and compare to the dynamics of the outer belt as observed by the Van Allen
Probes. The radial diffusion equation expressed in terms of L-shell is given by equation (1)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = L^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial L} \left[\frac{D_{LL}}{L^2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial L} \right] - \frac{f}{\tau}.$$
 (1)

177 In equation (1) f represents the phase space density of the electrons and it is assumed that the 178 first and second adiabatic invariants, M and J, are conserved (see Schulz & Lanzerotti 1974). The 179 diffusion coefficient and the electron lifetime are represented by D_{LL} and τ respectively. The solutions to equation (1) only give the electron phase density space density, *f*. In order to determine the electron flux at fixed energies as a function of *L* equation (1) is solved for multiple different first adiabatic invariants, *M* (see e.g., Ozeke et al., 2014a; Ozeke et al., 2014b; and Ozeke et al., 2018, for details).

184 3.1 Radial Diffusion Coefficients

185 The radial diffusion coefficient, D_{LL} , is often assumed to be characterized as the sum of the 186 diffusion coefficients due to the uncorrelated azimuthal electric field and the compressional magnetic field perturbations, D_{LL}^E and D_{LL}^B , respectively (see Fei et al., 2006; and Ozeke et al., 187 188 2014b). In practice it is difficult to determine if the electric and magnetic perturbations are correlated or uncorrelated, so that there is some uncertainty as to how the D_{LL}^E and D_{LL}^B values 189 should be combined. Here, in order to resolve this uncertainty we neglect the D_{LL}^B term, since in 190 general $D_{LL}^E \gg D_{LL}^B$ (see Ozeke et al., 2014b; and Tu et al., 2012). However, during the storm 191 main phase Pokhotelov et al., 2016 and Olifer et al., 2019 showed that D_{LL}^B may become an order 192 of magnitude greater than D_{LL}^E . Consequently, in order to investigate the impact of D_{LL}^B we have 193 run radial diffusion simulations with and without an added D_{LL}^B term during the storm main 194 phase. Here we assume that the D_{LL}^B term is an order of magnitude greater than D_{LL}^E , consistent 195 196 with the results presented in Olifer et al. (2019), who showed that at certain L-shells during the main phase of March 2015 storm D_{LL}^B derived from in-situ spacecraft observations of the ULF 197 198 wave compressional magnetic field can be approximately an order of magnitude greater than D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]. Pokhotelov et al. (2016) also showed that during the main phase of the October 2012 199 storm D_{LL}^B can exceed D_{LL}^E . In a dipole magnetic field, the symmetric radial diffusion coefficients 200 due to the electric field perturbations D_{LL}^E can be expressed as 201

$$D_{LL}^{E} = \frac{1}{8B_{E}^{2}R_{E}^{2}}L^{6}\sum_{m}P_{m}^{E}(m\omega_{d})$$
(2)

(see, Fei et al., 2006). Here the constants B_E and R_E represent the equatorial magnetic field strength at the surface of the Earth, and the Earth's radius, respectively. In equation (2) the term $P_m^E(m\omega_d)$ represents the power spectral density (PSD) of the electric field perturbations with azimuthal wave-number, *m*, at wave angular frequency, ω , which satisfy the drift resonance condition given by equation (3)

$$\omega - m\omega_d = 0. \tag{3}$$

Here, ω_d represents the bounce-averaged angular drift frequency of the electron (see Southwood & Kivelson, 1981; and Brizard & Chan, 2001). Since ω_d is a function of the electron's energy and L-shell, in general this introduces an energy and L-shell dependence into the PSD terms $P_m^E(m\omega_d)$ in equation (2). However, the azimuthal electric field PSD obtained observationally from the ground-based magnetometers and mapped to the magnetic equatorial plane shows only a slight dependence on frequency. Here we follow the approach used in Ozeke et al. (2014b) and fit the PSD to a constant so that the resulting D_{LL}^E has no energy dependence.

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In addition, as shown in equation (2), D^E_{LL} also depends on the PSD value as a function of the
azimuthal wavenumber, *m*. However, in order to determine the *m*-value from ground-based
magnetometer measurements requires a coherent ULF wave signal at each frequency and L-shell
to be detected across a range of longitudinally separated stations (see e.g., Chisham & Mann,
1999) which in general does not occur. In order to resolve the uncertainty in the PSD as a
function of *m*-value, we adopt the approach discussed in Ozeke et al. (2014b) and assume that

the magnetometer derived frequency independent equatorial azimuthal electric field PSD, P^{meas} ,

222 is the sum of the PSD's at each individual *m*-value, P_m^E , so that

$$P^{meas} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P_m^E \tag{4}$$

and the values of the power at each *m*-value, P_m^E , do not need to be determined to derive the electric field diffusion coefficient, D_{LL}^E . Note also that only positive wavenumbers satisfy the drift resonance condition and can contribute to the D_{LL}^E , see equations (2) and (3). Hence, here we also assume that only half of the measured ULF waves consist of positive *m*-values. Consequently we have divided our measured wave amplitudes by a factor of 2 to obtain a value for the azimuthal electric field PSD, P^{meas} , which only consists of positive ULF wave *m*-values which contribute to, D_{LL}^E .

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The approach discussed above gives D_{LL}^{E} , derived from the measured ULF wave power at each ground magnetometer station, as a function of dipole *L*. However, the simulations of the electron flux are determined in *L** space. In order to convert D_{LL}^{E} as a function of dipole *L* to *L**, the *L** position of the ground magnetometer stations is determined to give D_{LL}^{E} as a function of *L** at each time step.

236 3.2 Boundary and Initial Conditions

In order to solve the diffusion equation shown in equation (1) the electron phase space density, *f*, must be specified at an inner and outer boundary. For the inner boundary condition, we set $f(L^*=1)=0$, representing assumed loss to the atmosphere. Here the outer boundary condition is set at $L^*=5$. At $L^*=5$ the electron phase space density at fixed first and second adiabatic invariants, M, and ,K, respectively, is derived using the fully relativistic formula presented in Boyd et al.
(2014);

$$f = 3.325 \times 10^{-8} \frac{J}{E(E+2m_o c^2)} \left[\left(\frac{c}{MeVcm}\right)^3 \right].$$
 (5)

Here, *J* is the particle flux at fixed first and second adiabatic invariants in units of cm⁻²sr⁻¹s⁻¹kev⁻¹, derived using the TS04D magnetic field model (Tsyganenko & Sitnov, 2005), and measurements of the electron flux taken with the Magnetic Electron and Ion Spectrometer (MagEIS) (Blake et al., 2013) and the REPT instruments on-board Van Allen Probes A and B. The particle's kinetic energy and rest mass in MeV are represented by E and $m_o c^2$, respectively (see Boyd et al., 2014 Turner & Li, 2008; and Chen et al., 2005, for more details).

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250 Based on measurements of the electron flux taken by the GPS constellations Olifer et al. (2018) 251 show that for the 2015 storm the relativistic electron flux drops on March 17 at ~08:00 UT and 252 begins to recovery on March 18. Similarly, for the 2013 storm the relativistic electron flux also 253 drops on March 17 at ~08:00 UT but begins to recover slightly early at ~15:00 UT on March 17. 254 The flux dropout as observed by the GPS constellation is also consistent with that observed by 255 the Van Allen Probes. For both storms the flux dropout closely follows the drop in the L^* 256 location of the LCDS (see Olifer et al., 2018 Figure 3 and supporting material Figure S1 in Olifer 257 et al., 2018). In order to investigate whether this observed flux dropout can be reproduced by 258 magnetopause shadowing and outward radial diffusion resulting from the last closed drift shell 259 (LCDS) moving inward to $L^* < 5$, we set the outer boundary condition to zero during the time 260 interval when the LCDS is at $L^* < 5$, this time interval is illustrated in supporting material Figure 261 S2. In addition to the boundary conditions an initial condition must also be specified to solve 262 equation (1). Here we simply set the initial electron phase space density at each first adiabatic

invariant to the observed and initially low electron phase space density, as measured by the VanAllen Probes.

265 3.3 Electron Loss

266 The electron lifetimes, τ , in equation (1) are specified using the Orlova et al. (2016) analytic 267 model for the electron lifetimes due to plasmaspheric hiss. Outside the plasmasphere we use the 268 Gu et al. (2012) model to specify the electron lifetimes due to chorus waves. The location of the 269 plasmapause which separates these two loss regimes is determined from March 16 to March 19 270 for both of the 2013 and 2015 storms using the output from the plasmapause test particle 271 simulation presented Goldstein et al. (2014a, 2014b). During the pre-and post-storm intervals the 272 plasmapause location is determined using the empirical O'Brien and Moldwin (2003) model 273 based on the Dst index. The location of the plasmapause during the March 2015 and March 2013 274 storms derived using these different models is illustrated in supporting material Figure S3. 275 Similar to the results shown in Mann et al. (2016), our simulations of the ultra-relativistic (>2 276 MeV) electron flux are only weakly dependent on these electron lifetimes such that, as we show 277 below, the large-scale belt morphology is largely controlled by ULF wave radial diffusion.

278 **4 Results**

279 4.1 Effects of different radial diffusion coefficients

280 In Figure 3 the ULF wave radial diffusion coefficients derived using different approaches during

the March 2015 and 2013 geomagnetic storms are compared. The red and green curves represent

- the empirically defined radial diffusion coefficients as a function of Kp derived by Brautigam
- and Albert (2000) for the electromagnetic diffusion term D_{LL}^{EM} [B & A], and by Ozeke et al.
- 284 (2014b) for the electric diffusion term D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke]. The black curves represent the event specific

radial diffusion coefficients derived from the ground-based magnetometer measurements of the ULF waves, D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]. In general, there is good overall agreement between these estimates for D_{LL} . However, these results show that D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] is usually slightly lower than both D_{LL}^{EM} [B & A] and 2014 D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke] except, during short time intervals where D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] can be greater than both D_{LL}^{EM} [B & A] and 2014 D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke], see panels (e) and (f) in Figure 3.

- 290 4.2 Simulations of March 2013 and 2015 storms
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292 Using the approach outlined in the methodology section, including the effects arising from the 293 time dependence of the outer boundary condition, we simulated the relativistic electron flux 294 during the March 2015 and March 2013 storms with our ULF wave radial diffusion model. 295 Figure 4 illustrates the impact of using different diffusion coefficients on the simulated electron 296 flux during the March 2015 and March 2013 storms. Panels (a-b) and (c-d) shown in Figure 4 297 show the simulated flux derived using empirical expressions for the diffusion coefficients using the specifications from Brautigam and Albert (2000), for D_{LL}^{EM} [B & A] and Ozeke et al. (2014b), 298 for D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke], respectively. The simulated electron flux derived using these empirical diffusion 299 300 coefficients produces flux values which are in general higher than the measured flux; compare for example panels (a-d) with panels (g-h) in Figure 4. However, panels (e) and (f) in Figure 4 301 302 also shows that when event-specific radial diffusion coefficients are derived from the groundbased magnetometers measurements of ULF waves, using D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.], the agreement between the 303 304 simulated and measured 2.6 MeV energy electron flux during both storms is improved. In order 305 to estimate the possible impact of the compressional magnetic field panels (g) and (h) show simulations with an added D_{LL}^B term during the flux dropout intervals. Here we assume that the 306 D_{LL}^B term is an order of magnitude greater than D_{LL}^E , consistent with the results presented in 307

Pokhotelov et al., 2016 and Olifer et al., 2019. Note, that simply adding D_{LL}^E and D_{LL}^B may over-308 309 estimate the rate of diffusion if the electric and magnetic wave fields are correlated, see Fei et al. (2016). Panels (g) and (h) show that when the D_{LL}^B is included the flux during the dropout interval 310 311 is reduced down to $L \sim 3.5$, however for both storms there is an increase in the electron flux at 312 L^{*} <3, this increase in the simulated electron flux at L<3 is also illustrated in Figure 5. In Figure 313 5 the ratio between the simulated and observed flux is plotted to quantify the level of agreement 314 at different L-shells and times. These results clearly illustrate that the empirical diffusion 315 coefficients models over-estimate pre-storm and post storm flux on $L \leq 3.5$ by over 4 orders of 316 magnitude. The agreement between the observed and simulated flux is improved by ~2 orders of magnitude when the event-specific diffusion coefficients are used, with D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] producing a 317 slightly better agreement at $L^* < 3$ compared to the simulated flux produced using D_{LL}^{E+B} [E. S.]. 318 319 For the remainder of the paper, all electron flux simulations are completed using the event specific radial diffusion coefficients, D_{II}^{E} [E. S.] derived from ground-based magnetometer 320 321 measurements of ULF waves. In order to better quantify the agreement between the observed 322 and simulated flux during the March 2015 and 2013 geomagnetic storms, the flux at fixed $L^{*}=4$ 323 is compared directly in Figure 6. The black and blue curves in Figure 6 illustrate the measured 324 and simulated flux, respectively, at energies of 2.1 MeV, 2.6 MeV, 3.4 MeV and 4.2 MeV. In 325 general the observed and simulated electron flux results presented in Figure 6 agree to within an 326 order of magnitude across all energies and times. However, in general at lower energies the 327 simulated electron flux is slightly lower than the observed flux, as illustrated in panels (a) and (b) 328 of Figure 6. Conversely, at higher energies the simulated electron flux is in general slightly 329 larger than the observed flux, as illustrated in panels (g) and (h) of Figure 6. One possible 330 explanation for this slight energy dependent discrepancy between the simulated and observed

331 electron flux is that the azimuthal electric field ULF wave power used to derive the event 332 specific radial diffusion coefficient, D_{II}^{E} [E. S.], has been assumed constant with wave frequency. 333 In general this approximation is reasonable, but during strong geomagnetic storms at L>4 the 334 azimuthal electric field ULF wave power can be slightly higher at lower wave frequencies (see 335 Figure 1 in Ozeke et al. 2014b), which would create slightly greater values for the diffusion 336 coefficients at lower energies than at higher energies. Applying such energy depend radial 337 diffusion coefficients would slightly enhance the simulated flux at lower energies and decrease 338 the simulated flux at higher energies, potentially further improving the agreement between the 339 simulated and observed flux over the range of energies presented in Figure 6.

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341 The model results presented in Figures 4, 5 and 6 clearly show that the observed flux dropout, 342 down to $L^* \ge 4$, is accurately reproduced by our simulations of the March 2015 geomagnetic 343 storm. However, at $L^* \leq 4$ during the dropout interval the simulated flux for the March 2015 344 storm is higher than that which is observed, compare for example panel (e) with panel (i) of Figure 4. Moreover, even increasing D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] by an order of magnitude during the flux dropout 345 interval of the March 2015, to account for the potential impact of diffusion due to D_{LL}^B , did not 346 347 produce enough outward radial transport of the electrons to the magnetopause to reduce the 348 simulated flux below $L^* \leq 3.5$ down to the observed flux values, compare panel (g) with panel (i) 349 of Figure 4. Consequently, at $L^* < 4$ during the flux dropout interval there appears to be some 350 evidence for other electron loss processes which may be occurring. Additional loss processes 351 could be active there and scatter electrons into the atmosphere at $L^* < 4$ during the March 2015 352 storm, such as electron resonance with electro-magnetic ion cyclotron (EMIC) waves (see e.g., 353 Drozdov et al., 2017; Halford et al., 2016; and Ukhorskiy et al., 2010). Alternatively, the

additional loss may also result from resonant wave-particle interactions with small scale size

355 kinetic Alfven waves which are not included in our simulations (see Chaston et al., 2017).

356 Chaston et al. (2017) presented theoretical results indicating that these kinetic Alfven waves may

be able to radially diffuse electrons with energies >100 keV outward to the magnetopause,

358 rapidly depleting the outer belt on the timescale of hours during the storm main phase.

359 Nonetheless, the large-scale morphological agreement between the model and the observed flux

360 is in general quite good for the March 2015 event when simulated with D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.].

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362 For the March 2013 magnetic storm (right column of Figure 4 and Figure 5) there is even better 363 agreement between the simulation results and observations. Significantly, for the March 2013 storm, the simulation results derived using the event-specific radial diffusion coefficient D_{II}^{E} [E. 364 S.] is in excellent agreement with the data; results from both the D_{LL}^{EM} [B&A] and D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke] 365 empirical models as well as for D_{LL}^{E+B} [E. S.] transporting electrons onto lower L^* values than is 366 367 observed. Nonetheless, during the main phase of both storms, there appears to be an under-368 estimate of the fast losses at low L^* values which especially for the March 2015 storm, results in 369 penetration of the electron flux to very low L-shell regions, $L^* < 2.8$, for all representations of 370 D_{LL} . This suggests that especially for the March 2015 storm, that the introduction of additional 371 low L^* losses into the 1-dimensional model might improve the agreement with the flux observed by the Van Allen Probes, we investigate this hypothesis below. 372

373 4.3 March 2015 Storm: Improved Simulation Incorporating Additional Fast Loss 374

In order to investigate if the inclusion of an additional loss process can improve the agreementbetween the simulated and observed flux dynamics of the outer radiation belt we introduce a

377 short period in our simulation during the early storm main phase where we artificially increase 378 the electron loss. This loss is applied by reducing the electron lifetime τ , to a value shorter than 379 that resulting from the empirical models for the electron lifetime due to plasmaspheric hiss and 380 chorus waves included in the simulations presented in the previous section. Specifically, the 381 electron lifetime τ was set to one hour for lower L* regions at L*<3.5 during the observed 382 dropout intervals, from 08 UT on March 17 to 01 UT on March 18 for the 2015 event, and from 383 08 UT to 13 UT on March 17 for the 2013 event, see supporting Figure S2. The impact on the 384 simulated flux of including this short interval of additional fast loss at low L^* values during the 385 March 2015 geomagnetic storm is illustrated in Figure 7. The panels on the left of Figure 7. 386 panels (a), (d), (g), and (j), show the flux measured by the Van Allen Probes at energies of 2.1 MeV, 2.6 MeV, 3.4 MeV and 4.2 MeV respectively. Panels (b), (e), (h) and (k) show the 387 388 corresponding simulated electron flux, without including any additional artificial fast loss. 389 Finally, panels (c), (f), (i) and (l) show the corresponding simulated electron flux when the time 390 interval of 16 hours of fast electron loss characterised by $\tau=1$ hour at L*<3.5 is included. In both 391 simulations (middle and right columns in Figure 7) the outer boundary at $L^{*}=5$ is set to zero 392 between 08 UT on March 17 to 01 UT on March 18, 2015, matching the time interval when the 393 last closed drift shell dropped below $L^{*}=5$, see supporting material Figure S2. Similar results are 394 also produced when the outer boundary is moved inward to $L^{*}=4$ during the flux dropout 395 interval, see supporting material Figure S4. Immediately following the flux dropout interval the 396 simulated electron flux at $L^* \sim 3.25$ is lower than the observed flux, the difference is greater at the 397 lower energies than at higher energies. As discussed previously in section 4.2 this energy 398 dependent difference between the observed and simulated flux could result from the energy 399 independent radial diffusion used in the simulation. Applying energy dependent diffusion

400 coefficients slightly increasing the rate of radial diffusion at the lower energies may improve the
401 agreement between observed and simulated electron flux immediately following the flux dropout
402 interval.

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404 The results in Figure 7 clearly indicate that for the March 2015 storm radial transport to the 405 magnetopause, driven by our event specific diffusion coefficients, alone cannot account for the 406 observed electron flux dropout on low L^* values below $L^* \sim 3.5$. However, including an 407 additional artificial fast electron loss at $L^* < 3.5$ characterized by an electron lifetime of one hour 408 during the flux dropout interval from 08 UT to 24 UT on March 17 for the 2015 geomagnetic 409 storm more accurately reproduces the observed flux as illustrated in Figure 7. Nonetheless, the 410 simulation results presented in Figure 7 show that radial diffusion driven by the event specific 411 ULF waves reproduces both the pre-storm flux dynamics before March 17 as well as flux 412 dynamics during the storm recovery interval after March 18. Moreover, recent analysis of the 413 electron phase space density f during the recovery phase of March 2015 geomagnetic storm also 414 shows that the f profiles as a function of L^* are monotonic in L^* and consistent with that 415 produced by inward radial diffusion from $L^*=5$ driven by ULF waves, see Ozeke et al. (2019). 416

417 4.4 March 2013 Storm: Simulation Without Additional Fast Loss

As shown previously in Figures 4 and 5, for the March 2013 storm the flux dropout at an energy of 2.6 MeV is well reproduced by the action of outward radial diffusion to the magnetopause using D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]; compare for example panel (f) with panel (h) in Figure 4. Our radial diffusion simulations and observations across a broader range of energies, 2.1 MeV, 2.6 MeV, 3.4 MeV and 4.2 MeV using D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.], are presented in Figure 8. Figure 8 shows that the observed flux dynamics at these four energies during the March 2013 geomagnetic storm are well-reproduced

by our radial diffusion simulation when driven by the event specific ULF wave radial diffusion
coefficients. There is no need to include any additional artificial fast electron loss, which might
result from a wave-particle interaction with kinetic Alfven waves causing loss to the
magnetopause (see Chaston et al., 2017), or with EMIC waves causing loss to the atmosphere
(see e.g. Drozdov et al., 2017).

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430 In addition, the simulation results shown in Figure 8 are consistent with the results presented by 431 Engebretson et al. (2018), who showed that during the March 2013 storm no EMIC waves were 432 observed either in space or on the ground which were intense enough inside L < 4 to account for 433 the observed fast flux dropout. However, statistical studies indicate that EMIC waves can occur 434 over a narrow range of L-shells and local times making detection of the waves difficult (see e.g., 435 Usanova et al., 2012; and Saikin et al., 2015). Consequently, it is possible that spatially limited 436 intense EMIC waves occurred during the March 2013 storm on low L-shells but no instruments 437 were present at the exact location of the waves to detect their presence. Moreover, EMIC waves 438 may not be able to account for the flux dropout observed over a wide range of L-shells if waves 439 only occurred over a narrow range of L-shells. ULF wave transport from $L^*=5$ appears to be able 440 to largely reproduce the observed characteristics of the radiation belt. Nonetheless, during the 441 flux enhancement interval after March 18, 2013, the observed flux at $L^* \sim 3.5$ is still slightly more 442 intense than the simulated flux (see Figure 8).

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444 Previous studies of the March 2013 geomagnetic storm have suggested that local acceleration of 445 the outer radiation belt electrons by resonance with chorus waves could have contributed to the 446 flux enhancement during the recovery phase on March 18 and 19 (see e.g., Z. Li et al. 2014; W. 447 Li et al. 2014; Ma et al. 2018; Foster et al. 2014; and Boyd et al., 2014). To investigate the 448 possible role for local acceleration in the March 2013 storm we also examine the profiles of electron phase space density as a function of L^* . The occurrence of growing local peaks in the 449 450 electron phase space density is commonly used to identify regions where a local acceleration 451 mechanism could be active (see e.g., Reeves et al., 2013). Conversely, the absence of growing 452 local peaks could indicate that the inward radial diffusion mechanism may be responsible for the 453 electron acceleration (see e.g., Ozeke et al., 2019). However, as discussed by Green and 454 Kivelson (2004), and more recently by Loridan et al. (2019), inaccuracy in the magnetic field 455 model can result in artificial growing peaks being produced in the electron phase space density 456 profile, or alternatively cause growing peaks to be removed. Consequently, here we examine 457 both the evolution of the electron phase space density profiles as well as comparing the 458 simulated and observed electron flux to determine which acceleration mechanisms may be 459 responsible for the outer radiation belt flux enhancement during the March 2013 storm.

460

461 The results presented in Figure 9 show the evolution of the electron phase space density, f, as a 462 function of L* at a fixed first adiabatic invariant of M=2750 MeV/G and fixed second adiabatic invariant of K=0.17 G^{1/2}Re, during the main phase of the March 2013 storm and the subsequent 463 464 recovery phase. In addition, similar electron phase space density profiles at lower, M=1590 465 MeV/G, and higher, M=3980 MeV/G, first adiabatic invariants are also presented in the 466 supporting material in Figure S5 and S6, respectively. These f values as a function of L^* are 467 derived using the TS04D magnetic field model and use electron flux measurements taken with 468 both the MagEIS and the REPT instruments using the approach outlined in Morley et al. (2013) 469 and Schiller et al. (2017). The phase space density data for the March 2013 event is publicly

available from https://drive.google.com/drive/u/0/folders/0ByNhSbWkAgdfaGt6TnJMcElhUTg.
As mentioned in the acknowledgement this is the data repository for the Geospace Environment
Modeling (GEM) challenge events in 2013 selected by the *Quantitative Assessment of Radiation Belt Modeling* focus group.

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475 The phase space density profiles presented in Figure 9 do show a locally growing peak in f at 476 L^* ~3.8, see panels (i-l) in Figure 9, consistent with the action of local acceleration of the 477 electrons by chorus waves. However, at higher L^* values above $L^*=4$, the f profiles continuously 478 increase with L^* reaching values higher than those which occur at the locally growing peak near 479 $L^*=3.8$, consistent with inward radial diffusion of the electrons from a source at or beyond the 480 outer boundary. Consequently, it is possible that the outer radiation belt flux dynamics at ultra-481 relativistic energies (>2 MeV) during the period of enhancement for the March 2013 storm are 482 caused by the action of inward radial diffusion of electrons and from the action of local 483 acceleration by chorus waves at $L^* \sim 3.8$. The absence of any local acceleration processes in the 484 simulation results presented in Figure 8 would explain why the simulated flux is slightly lower 485 than that which is observed at $L^* \sim 3.8$, see Figure 8.

486

The electron phase space density profiles derived in Boyd et al. (2014), Ma et al. (2018) and W. Li et al. (2014) also indicate that locally growing peaks occurred near $L^*=3.8$ between ~10 UT on March 17 and ~ 05 UT on March 18, consistent with our phase space density profiles presented in Figures 9 (a) to (d) (see also supporting material in panels (a) to (d) of Figures S5 and S6). In addition, Foster et al. (2014) also show that an enhancement in the chorus wave intensity near $L^*\sim$ 4 also occurred on March 17 supporting the hypothesis that these locally

493 growing peaks are due to acceleration by chorus waves. The results presented in Ma et al. 494 (2018), W. Li et al. (2014) and in our Figure 9 (see also Figures S5 and S6 in the supporting 495 material) indicate that the local electron phase space density peak at $L^* \sim 3.8$ does not continue to 496 grow at times later than ~05 UT on March 18. However, our results indicate that at times after 497 ~05 UT on March 18 the electron phase space density further increases across all L-shells greater 498 than $L^* \sim 4$. Moreover, these subsequent increases in the electron phase space density beyond 499 L^* ~4 become progressively greater with increasing L-shell, so that no locally growing peaks 500 occur at $L^* \gtrsim 4$, see Figure 9 panels (e) to (l) (also see the same panels in Figure S5 and S6 in the 501 supporting material). Consequently, this additional enhancement in the electron phase density at 502 times after ~ 05 UT on March 18 is not consistent with the occurrence of growing peaks 503 associated with local acceleration of the electrons inside the apogee of the Van Allen Probes, 504 since the phase space density profile monotonically increases with increasing L^* , beyond L^* ~4. 505

506 However, the additional enhancement in the electron phase space density beyond L^* ~4 could 507 result from a local acceleration mechanism occurring at L^* values higher than the apogee of the 508 Van Allen Probes (see Boyd et al., 2018). Alternatively, the enhancement could result from the 509 inward radial transport of energetic electrons from a plasmasheet source. In order to resolve 510 which process may be responsible for the increase in the electron flux beyond $L^* \sim 4$ and during 511 times after ~05 UT on March 18 would require additional measurements of the electron phase 512 space density beyond the apogee of the Van Allen Probes. Nonetheless, our simulations results 513 presented in Figure 8 clearly indicate that inward transport of the electrons from $L^*=5$ driven by 514 the event specific ULF wave radial diffusion coefficients can accurately reproduce the observed

electron flux dynamics during the March 2013 storm, particularly on the higher L-shells beyondthe location of the growing phase space density peak.

517

518 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

519 In this paper we used a one-dimensional ULF wave radial diffusion model driven by global 520 ground-based magnetometer measurements to simulate the dynamics and acceleration of 521 equatorially mirroring ultra-relativistic electrons during the intense March 2015, and the less 522 intense March 2013, magnetic storm. Despite the difference in storm intensity in terms of Dst 523 and in solar wind parameters between the two March 2015 and March 2013 storms we show that 524 the hour to day timescale response of the ultra-relativistic electrons in the outer radiation belt 525 was remarkably similar. Both events show a self-similar sudden drop in the electron flux 526 followed by a rapid enhancement in the outer belt flux to levels over an order of magnitude 527 higher than those observed during the pre-storm interval. In addition, for both the March 2015 and 2013 storms the measured electron flux dropout occurred at ~08 UT on March 17, see Olifer 528 529 et al. (2018).

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531 During the flux dropout interval, the last closed drift shell (LCDS) moved inward to L^* ~5 and 532 butterfly pitch-angle distributions with a minimum flux near 90° for both storms were observed 533 near the apogee of the Van Allen Probes, consistent with the hypothesis that the flux dropout 534 resulted from magnetopause shadowing and outward ULF wave driven radial diffusion. Turner 535 et al. (2014) also reached a similar conclusion in their analysis of a flux dropout event which 536 occurred in September 2012. In our simulation results, the flux at the outer boundary, defined to 537 be at $L^*=5$, was set to zero during this dropout interval, consistent with magnetopause shadowing, since the measured flux was either at the noise floor of instrument or the probes did not reach $L^*=5$ during the dropout interval (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 as well as supporting material Figure S2). Note that changing the time extent of the dropout interval where the flux at $L^*=5$ was set to zero by +/-2 hours did not significantly affect the simulation results.

542 5.1 March 2015 Storm

543 Radial diffusion simulations of the March 2015 storm showed that outward radial diffusion and 544 magnetopause shadowing could together almost completely explain the observed losses and 545 short-lived flux dropout down to $L^* \sim 4$, as well as the subsequent electron flux recovery and 546 enhancement. However, at $L^* < 4$ the simulated flux was greater than that which was observed 547 suggesting a missing loss process at low L. We show that by including an additional temporally 548 limited period of enhanced artificial loss characterized by an electron lifetime of one hour 549 restricted to $L^* < 3.5$, the observed flux dropout at $L^* < 4$ can be successfully reproduced by our 550 simulation. This additional loss process could result from the resonant wave-particle interaction 551 with EMIC waves causing extra low L^* loss due to pitch-angle scattering the electrons into the 552 atmosphere. In support of this hypothesis Runov et al., (2016) show that EMIC waves where 553 observed by the THEMIS E satellite during the 17 March 2015 storm, which were not detected 554 during the pre-storm interval. Alternatively, the additional loss could also result from the 555 resonant wave-particle interaction with small scale kinetic Alfven waves causing enhanced 556 outward diffusion to the magnetopause depleting the electron flux on the lower L-shells (Chaston 557 et al. 2017). Nonetheless, overall during both the pre-storm and recovery phases the large-scale 558 morphology and dynamics of the outer radiation belt flux at ultra-relativistic energies are well-559 reproduced using the radial diffusion model when driven by event-specific radial diffusion 560 coefficients constrained by the global ULF waves observed by ground-based magnetometers.

562 5.2 March 2013 Storm

563 For the March 2013 storm, the flux dropout across all L-shells is well reproduced by the radial 564 diffusion simulation alone. This indicates that for this storm outward radial diffusion to the 565 magnetopause acting alone can explain the observed flux drop across all L-shells without the 566 need for any other additional loss processes. These radial diffusion simulations of the flux 567 dropout during the March 2013 storm are also consistent with the test particle simulations 568 presented in Sorathia et al. (2018). In addition, the steady inward motion of the observed outer 569 radiation belt flux during the pre-storm interval, before March 17, is also remarkably well-570 reproduced by our radial diffusion simulation. However, during the initial flux recovery interval 571 on March 18 the simulated flux near $L^* \sim 3.8$ is somewhat lower than that which is observed. 572

573 Previous studies have indicated that the flux enhancement during the March 2013 storm could 574 have been related to local acceleration, such as that due to chorus waves (see Z. Li et al., 2014; 575 W. Li et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2018; and Boyd et al., 2014). Boyd et al. (2014) presented evidence 576 of a growing local peak in the electron phase space density, f, at $L^* \sim 4$, consistent with local 577 acceleration by chorus waves. Similarly, W. Li et al. (2014) and Ma et al. (2018) also presented 578 evidence of a growing local peak in f as a function of L^* and also simulated the initial flux 579 recovery interval using a diffusion model included the effects of local acceleration by chorus 580 waves as well as acceleration arising from radial diffusion by ULF waves. The profiles of, f as a 581 function of L* presented in Boyd et al. (2014), W. Li et al. (2014), Ma et al. (2018) and Z. Li et 582 al. (2014) all show that the highest values of the electron phase space density occurred near 583 $L^*\sim4$, the location of a locally growing peak in f, suggesting that local acceleration was the

584	dominant acceleration mechanism. The profiles in <i>f</i> , presented here for the March 2013 storm
585	also show a growing peak near $L^* \sim 3.8$ immediately following the flux dropout interval.
586	However, at later times and at higher L^* values beyond $L^*=4$ the values of the electron phase
587	space density gradually become greater than those at the location of the local peak in the f profile
588	(see our Figure 9). Our results therefore indicate that during this storm that inward radial
589	diffusion by ULF may have played a significant role in the acceleration and flux recovery at
590	$L^* \gtrsim 4$. However local acceleration may also have played an important role in the electron flux
591	dynamics during the initial flux recovery interval on lower L-shells near $L^* \sim 3.8$.
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593	For both the March 2015 and March 2013 storms the simulation results presented in this paper
594	demonstrate that the large-scale morphology and dynamics of the outer electron radiation belt
595	can be successfully modeled with ULF wave radial diffusion. The results further highlight the
596	importance of using radial diffusion coefficients derived from event specific ULF wave
597	measurements, instead of using empirical models for D_{LL} based on ULF wave statistics, in order
598	to accurately simulate the overall flux dynamics in the outer radiation belt.
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853

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868 copy of the phase space density data is also available on the zenodo data repository

869 https://zenodo.org/record/3249418#.XTIQY-tKhEY). The output from the plasmapause test

870	particle simulation used to specify the storm time location of the plasmapause is available from
871	http://enarc.space.swri.edu/PTP/. The LANLGeoMag software library is available
872	at https://www.github.com/drsteve/LANLGeoMag. LANL* neural network was used through
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- 894 Figure 1: Electron flux and selected geomagnetic and solar wind parameters during the
- 895 March 2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) storms. (a),(b) Geomagnetic index, Kp; (c),(d)
- 896 Geomagnetic activity index, Dst; (e),(f) Solar wind dynamic pressure measured at the L1
- 897 point; (g),(h) interplanetary magnetic field Bz component in geocentric solar
- 898 magnetospheric (GSM) coordinates measured at the L1 point; (i),(j) Magnetopause
- 899 location in (R_E), based on Shue et al. (1998) and the *L** (TS04D) location of the last closed
- 900 drift shell; (k),(l) electron flux at an energy of 2.6 MeV as a function of time and L*
- 901 (TS04D) measured by the Van Allen Probes.





906	Figure 2: Panels (a) – (d) show the pitch angle, (P. A.) distributions of the electron flux at
907	an energy of 1.9 MeV measured by Van Allen Probes A (top row) and B (middle row)
908	during the March 2015 (left panels) and March 2013 (right panels) flux dropouts. Over
909	plotted is the L^* location of the probes, illustrated by the black curves. The red curves in
910	panels (e) and (f) show the location of the magnetopause (MP) standoff distance in Re,
911	derived using the Shue et al. (1998) model and the blue curves also show the L^* location of
912	the last closed drift shell (LCDS). Similar results for 1.0 MeV energy electrons are shown in
913	supporting material Figure S1.
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919	Figure 3: Radial diffusion coefficients at $L=4$ and $L=5$ during the March 2015 and March
920	2013 geomagnetic storms. Panels (a) and (b) show the Kp variation during the March 2015
921	(left column) and March 2013 (right column) storms, respectively. The radial diffusion
922	coefficients as a function of Kp based on ULF wave statistics from Brautigam and Albert,
923	(2000), D_{LL}^{E} [B & A], and Ozeke et al., (2014b), D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke], are represented by the red and
924	green curves, respectively. The event specific radial diffusion coefficients derived from
925	ground-based magnetometer measurements, D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] are represented by the black

curves.



931 Figure 4: Comparison between the simulated and observed electron flux at an energy of 2.6 932 MeV as a function of L* derived using the TS04D magnetic field model during the March 933 2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) storms derived using the radial diffusion coefficients 934 presented in Figure 3. Panels (a) and (b) show the simulated electron flux derived using the 935 electromagnetic radial diffusion coefficient formulism from Brautigam and Albert (2000), D_{LL}^{EM} [B & A]. Panels (c) and (d) show the simulated electron flux derived using the electric 936 field radial diffusion coefficients from Ozeke et al. (2014b), D_{LL}^{E} [Ozeke]. Panels (e) and (f) 937 938 show the simulated electron flux derived using event-specific electric field radial diffusion coefficients derived using ground-based magnetometer data, D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]. Panels (g) and (h) 939 show the simulated electron flux derived using D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] with D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] increased by a 940 941 factor of 10 during the flux dropout interval representing enhanced storm time diffusion due to the compressional magnetic field D_{II}^{B} [E. S.], consistent with the results presented in 942 Olifer et al. (2019). Finally, panels (i) and (j) show the electron flux at an energy of 2.6 MeV 943 944 as measured by the REPT instrument on-board the Van Allen Probes.

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- 951 Figure 5: The ratio of the simulated over the observed electron flux values presented in
- 952 Figure 4 during the March 2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) magnetic storms. Red to
- 953 yellow regions indicate L-shells and times where the simulated flux is much greater than
- 954 the observed flux. Similarly, the dark blue regions indicate regions where the simulated
- 955 flux is lower than the observed flux.





959	Figure 6:	Comparison	between the	e observed,	(black curve)), and simulated	, (blue curve),
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- 960 electron flux at *L**=4 and at energies of 2.1, 2.6, 3.4 and 4.2 MeV during the March 2015
- 961 (left) and March 2013 (right) magnetic storms. During both the March 2013 and 2015
- 962 storms, at fixed *L**=4, the simulated (blue curve) and measured (black curves) ultra-
- 963 relativistic electron flux values are in good agreement with each other to within an order of
- 964 magnitude at all energies from 2.1 MeV to 4.2 MeV
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- 973 Figure 7: Comparison between the observed and simulated electron flux at energies of 2.1,
- 974 **2.6, 3.4 and 4.2 MeV as a function of** *L** **using the TS04D magnetic field model during the**
- 975 March 2015 storm. Panels (a), (d), (g), and (j) (left column) show the observed flux. Panels
- 976 (b), (e), (h), and (k) (middle column) show the simulated electron flux using radial diffusion
- 977 coefficients obtained from global ground magnetometer measurements of the ULF wave
- 978 power, D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]. Panels (c), (f), (i), and (l) (right column) show the simulated electron
- 979 flux again using D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.] but with a short time interval of artificial loss with $\tau=1$ hour
- 980 included at $L^* < 3.5$, presenting additional fast loss.



983	Figure 8:	Comparison	between the	observed an	d simulated	electron f	flux at en	ergies of	f 2.1 ,
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- 984 **2.6**, **3.4** and **4.2** MeV as a function of *L** using the TS04D magnetic field model during the
- 985 March 2013 storm. Panels (a), (c), (e), and (g), (left columns) show the observed flux. Panels
- 986 (b), (d), (f), and (h), (right columns) show the simulated electron flux using radial diffusion
- 987 coefficients obtained from global ground magnetometer measurements of the ULF wave
- 988 power, D_{LL}^{E} [E. S.]. As described in the text, the flux at the outer boundary at, $L^{*}=5$, is set to
- 989 zero on March 17 from 8 UT to 24 UT. No additional artificial fast losses are included, see
- 990 text for details.
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- 995 Figure 9: Evolution of the electron phase space density profiles as a function of L^* at
- 996 M=2750 MeV/G and K=0.17 G^{1/2}Re during the March 2013 storm. The red and blue curves
- 997 represent phase space density profiles derived from Van Allan Probes A and B,
- 998 respectively. The start and end times of the out and in bound passes are shown in the
- 999 legend in the format day-hour:minute. Similar plots for M=1590 MeV/G and M=3980
- 1000 MeV/G electrons are shown in the supporting material in Figure S5 and Figure S6,
- 1001 respectively.



[Journal of Geophysical Research-Space]

Supporting Information for

Rapid Outer Radiation Belt Flux Dropouts and Fast Acceleration during the March 2015 and 2013 Storms: The Role of ULF Wave Transport from a Dynamic Outer Boundary

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Contents of this file

Supporting Figures S1, S2, S3, S4, S5 and S6, including a brief explanation of their content as a supplement to the results and conclusions drawn in the main article.

Introduction

Results showing the pitch-angle distribution during the March 2015 and March 2013 flux dropout intervals in the same format as Figure 2 in the main article except for 1.0 MeV energy electrons instead of for 1.9 MeV energy electrons, are presented in supporting Figure S1. Figure S2 shows the time interval where the last closed drift (LCDS) drops below $L^*=5$ during the March 2015 and 2013 storms, indicating that at these times electrons at $L^*>5$ would be lost to the magnetopause. The results presented in Figure S2 are used to specify the times where the outer boundary condition at $L^*=5$ in the simulation results presented in the main article are set to zero. Figure S3 shows the location of the plasmapause used to separate the regions where plasmaspheric hiss loss and chorus loss are applied in the simulations presented in the main article. Figure S4 is the same as Figure 4 in the main article except during the flux dropout interval the outer boundary where the flux is set to zero is moved inward to $L^*=4$. Figures S5 and S6 show the evolution of the electron phase space density in the same format and at the same K-value as shown in Figure 9 in the main article except at first adiabatic invariants of 1590 MeV/G and 3980 MeV/G instead of 2750 MeV/G.



Figure S1: Panels (a) – (d) show the pitch angle, P. A. distributions of the 1.0 MeV electron flux measured by the Van Allan Probes during the March 2015 (left panels) and March 2013 (right panels) flux dropouts. The red curves in panels (e) and (f) show the location of the magnetopause MP, derived using the Shue et al. (1998) model, the blue curves show the location of the last close drift shell LCDS.



Figure S2: Hourly averaged L^* values of the last closed drift shells (LCDS) during the March 2015 (a) and March 2013 (b) geomagnetic storms. The LCDS was derived at K=0.05 G^{1/2}Re using the TS04 Tsyganenko and Sitnov (2005) model and the LANLGeoMag software library (Henderson et al., 2017). The time intervals highlighted in red indicates the times where the LCDS dropped below L^* of 5, the location of the outer boundary condition used for the simulations presented Figures 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 in the main article. At these times the outer boundary condition used in the simulations was set to zero, representing electron loss to the magnetopause.



Figure S3: L-shell location of the plasmapause during the March 2015 (a) and March 2013 (b) storms derived using the empirical O'Brien and Moldwin (2003) model as a function of the Dst index and the plasmapause test particle (PTP) simulation output presented in Goldstein et al. (2014a, 2014b).



Figure S4: Comparison between the simulated and observed electron flux in the same format as Figure 4 in the main article. Here the during the dropout intervals the electron flux is set to zero at all energies and L-shells down to $L^*=4$.



Figure S5: Evolution of the electron phase space density profiles at M=1590 MeV/G and K=0.17 G^{1/2}Re during the March 2013 storm. The red and blue curves represent PSD profiles derived from Van Allan Probes A and B. The start and end times of the out and in bound passes are shown in the legend in the format day-hour:minute.



Figure S6: Evolution of the electron phase space density profiles at M=3980 MeV/G and K=0.17 G^{1/2}Re during the March 2013 storm. The red and blue curves represent PSD profiles derived from Van Allan Probes A and B. The start and end times of the out and in bound passes are shown in the legend in the format day-hour:minute.