

# Resolving Magnetopause Shadowing Using Multi-Mission Measurements of Phase Space Density

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## Abstract

Loss mechanisms act independently or in unison to drive rapid loss of electrons in the radiation belts. Electrons may be lost by precipitation into the Earth's atmosphere, or through the magnetopause into interplanetary space; a process known as magnetopause shadowing. Whilst magnetopause shadowing is known to produce dropouts in electron flux, it is unclear if shadowing continues to remove particles in tandem with electron acceleration processes, limiting the overall flux increase. We investigated the contribution of shadowing to overall radiation belt fluxes throughout a geomagnetic storm starting on the 7 September 2017. We use new, multi-spacecraft phase space density calculations to decipher electron dynamics during each storm phase and identify features of magnetopause shadowing during both the net-loss and the net-acceleration storm phases. We also highlight two distinct types of shadowing; 'direct', where electrons are lost as their orbit intersects the magnetopause, and 'indirect', where electrons are lost through ULF wave driven radial transport towards the magnetopause boundary.

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## Key Points:

- Multi-point phase space density measurements resolve changes in relativistic electron flux on sub-hour timescales.
- We observed magnetopause shadowing loss and localized electron acceleration during the September 2017 geomagnetic storm.
- ‘Direct’ and ‘indirect’ magnetopause shadowing processes identified during both the net-loss and net-acceleration phases of the storm.

**Abstract**

Loss mechanisms act independently or in unison to drive rapid loss of electrons in the radiation belts. Electrons may be lost by precipitation into the Earth's atmosphere, or through the magnetopause into interplanetary space – a process known as magnetopause shadowing. Whilst magnetopause shadowing is known to produce dropouts in electron flux, it is unclear if shadowing continues to remove particles in tandem with electron acceleration processes, limiting the overall flux increase. We investigated the contribution of shadowing to overall radiation belt fluxes throughout a geomagnetic storm starting on the 7 September 2017. We use new, multi-spacecraft phase space density calculations to decipher electron dynamics during each storm phase and identify features of magnetopause shadowing during both the net-loss and the net-acceleration storm phases. We also highlight two distinct types of shadowing; 'direct', where electrons are lost as their orbit intersects the magnetopause, and 'indirect', where electrons are lost through ULF wave driven radial transport towards the magnetopause boundary.

**Plain Language Summary**

Charged particles with extremely high energies are trapped by Earth's geomagnetic field. These particles form rings around Earth called the Van Allen radiation belts, which vary in intensity. This radiation poses a risk to satellites orbiting Earth, so it is important to understand how changes in geomagnetic conditions produce variations in the radiation belt intensity. In this work we take measurements of electron radiation from many satellites to observe electron 'dropouts', where nearly the entire radiation belt is lost in a matter of hours. We found that it is necessary to use multi-mission measurements to make observations of dropouts because a dropout may occur quicker than a single satellite can traverse the radiation belt. In early September 2017, we observed that movements of the geomagnetic outer boundary, the magnetopause, was responsible for removing electrons, combined with diffusive processes. This agreed with the predictions by previous studies. We further observed that the magnetopause continued to remove electrons from the belt whilst electrons were simultaneously accelerated by fluctuations in the geomagnetic field. This is significant because electrons may be removed from the belt soon after they were created, limiting the overall growth of the radiation belt whilst the magnetopause was compressed.

## 1 Introduction

The outer radiation belt is a ring of relativistic electrons which are trapped by Earth's magnetosphere, surrounding the Earth at distances from  $\sim 3$  to 8 Earth Radii above Earth's surface. This population of particles has a range of energies between hundreds of keV to tens of MeV (Mauk et al., 2013), which can pose a hazard to the operation of satellites which lie within the belt (e.g., Baker et al., 1994; Wrenn, 1995; Wrenn et al., 2002). Most of the time, the outer belt is slowly varying, however, during geomagnetic storms the particle flux in the outer belt by change by orders of magnitude in a matter of hours to days (e.g. Baker et al., 1994; Morley et al., 2010). Furthermore, a geomagnetic storm may result in a net-increase, decrease, or no response in radiation belt flux (Reeves et al., 2003). Continuously competing acceleration and loss mechanisms, which act to create or remove relativistic electrons from the magnetosphere, determine the net flux of electrons in the outer belt.

Acceleration of electrons can occur via gyro-resonant wave-particle interactions between 100's of keV 'seed' electrons and very low frequency (VLF) whistler mode waves (Baker et al., 1998; Horne et al., 2005; Meredith et al., 2002; Summers et al., 1998). Particles may also be

energized by drift-resonant wave particle interactions with ultralow frequency (ULF) waves (e.g., Elkington et al., 1999; Mann et al., 2013), or by ULF driven inwards radial diffusion (e.g., Fälthammar, 1965; Jaynes et al., 2015). This inward diffusion of electrons results in betatron acceleration which energizes electrons. Similarly, electrons are decelerated if they are transported outwards via radial diffusion. If the ring current is enhanced, electrons may also be adiabatically transported outwards, and decelerated (Dessler & Karplus, 1961; McIlwain, 1966).

Loss mechanisms act independently or in unison to remove electrons from the radiation belts. Electrons are either lost by precipitation into the atmosphere, induced by wave-particle interactions resulting in pitch-angle scattering (e.g., Miyoshi et al., 2008; Rae et al., 2018; Rodger et al., 2015; Thorne & Kennel, 1971), or through the magnetopause into interplanetary space. The latter process is called magnetopause shadowing, and electrons are either lost directly to the compressed magnetopause intersecting drift paths (direct shadowing) (Green et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2008; Li et al., 1997; Saito et al., 2010) or indirectly if electrons are transported towards the magnetopause boundary and subsequently lost (Brautigam & Albert, 2000; Loto'aniu et al., 2010; Morley et al., 2010; Rodger et al., 2019; Shprits et al., 2006; Turner et al., 2012).

Geomagnetic storms produce highly variable electron fluxes because both acceleration and loss mechanisms are enhanced, acting in separate locations and on a variety of timescales. It is understood that the radiation belts have a two-step response to geomagnetic storms; a net-loss phase when the radiation belt flux decreases overall during storm onset, followed by a net-acceleration phase where radiation flux increases overall (Murphy et al., 2018). Electrons are usually lost from the belts before lower energy electrons are accelerated because of the way in which the magnetosphere responds to solar wind structures which drive geomagnetic storms. At storm onset, the magnetopause is often compressed by shock structures in the solar wind (e.g. Dmitriev et al., 2014; Sibeck et al., 1989), resulting in some loss of electrons via magnetopause shadowing. If the compression is large enough, losses due to shadowing are extreme, and the entire outer radiation belt may suddenly decrease by orders of magnitude over a timescale of hours; this is referred to as a dropout (e.g. Borovsky et al., 2009; Onsager et al., 2002). Dropouts are important precursors to the latter net-acceleration phase as they remove both the existing radiation electrons and seed electrons, which limits the number of particles accelerated from this lower energy population (Bingham et al., 2018). The resulting net-loss period may extend into main phase of the geomagnetic storm, then acceleration mechanisms begin to increase the overall

electron flux. The net-acceleration phase is delayed compared to the net-loss phase because the timescales of wave driven acceleration and/or ULF driven diffusion is slower (hours to days) (Baker et al., 1994; Boyd et al., 2014; Elkington et al., 2003; Horne et al., 2005; Reeves et al., 2013). It is not known whether magnetopause shadowing continues to contribute to the overall flux during the net-acceleration phase.

Because of the fast nature of shadowing, it is extremely hard to study the characteristics of dropout events in detail. So far, magnetopause shadowing observations include identifications of simultaneously compressed magnetopause and a net-decrease in electron flux (e.g., Morley et al., 2010; Rodger et al., 2019) and/or measurements of butterfly pitch angle distributions near the compressed magnetopause (e.g., Kang et al., 2018; Ozeke et al., 2020; Tu et al., 2019). Such pitch angle distributions are an observational feature of shadowing since equatorial bouncing particles (with a high pitch angle) drift to higher radial distances at the magnetopause nose than high latitude bouncing particles (with low pitch angles), therefore high pitch angle electrons are preferentially lost to the magnetopause (Sibeck et al., 1987).

It is thought that magnetopause shadowing will have specific characteristics identifiable in phase space density (PSD) (Green & Kivelson, 2004; Loto'aniu et al., 2010; Turner et al., 2012). The collective dynamics of the radiation belts are often determined by using measurements of PSD, transformed into adiabatic invariant space  $\mu$ ,  $K$ , and  $L^*$ . Radiation belt studies have notably used PSD to distinguish localized internal sources of high energy electrons (e.g. Boyd et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2006; Green & Kivelson, 2004; Miyoshi et al., 2003; Selesnick & Blake, 2000) from radial diffusion of an external source (e.g. Degeling, 2008; Jaynes et al., 2018; Ozeke et al., 2019).

In order to discern the physical processes occurring during storm times, Turner et al. (2012) presented a schematic of PSD evolution, as a function of  $L^*$ , during a direct magnetopause shadowing event that results in a dropout (Figure 3, Turner et al., 2012). There is an initial 'high pressure' phase during storm onset where the outer boundary of the radiation belt is compressed such that a significant amount of the PSD distribution is lost to interplanetary space. When the pressure relaxes during the main storm phase, the magnetopause expands and there is a peak in PSD at the minimum radial distance which the magnetopause reached during the compression, and a strong negative gradient in PSD towards the expanded magnetopause.

Over time, ULF wave activity during the main phase of the storm will rapidly diffuse the remaining particles down any radial gradients in the PSD profile, resulting in a decrease in the  $L^*$  location of peak PSD, and a decrease in PSD at all  $L^*$  compared to the pre-storm distribution. Furthermore, in Figure 1 of Loto'aniu et al. (2010), the authors presented another scenario where a combined negative phase space density gradient and enhanced ULF wave activity will lead to indirect magnetopause shadowing.

Whilst PSD has been used to analyze electron dropouts (e.g., Ma et al., 2020; Shprits et al., 2012; Turner et al., 2013; Xiang et al., 2017; Zou et al., 2020), the stages of magnetopause shadowing described by Turner et al. (2012) has not yet been explicitly identified using PSD measurements. This is because dropouts occur on such fast timescales that it is difficult to measure complete PSD profiles in  $L^*$  on the timescales necessary for this observation with single or even dual spacecraft in geostationary transfer orbits. In this study we investigate the dynamics of PSD during the early September 2017 geomagnetic storm using a new multi-spacecraft dataset of PSD measurements that covers  $L^* = 1.5$  to 9. By using a multi-satellite dataset, we can measure PSD with high enough temporal and spatial resolution to investigate whether the Turner et al. (2012) description of a magnetopause shadowing event is accurate.

## 2 Data

### 2.1 Phase Space Density Measurements

In this paper, we primarily use Phase Space Density (PSD) to characterize the radiation belt response to a geomagnetic storm from 7-10 September 2017. PSD describes the kinematical state of radiation belt electrons using three coordinates of position, and the three components of canonical momentum (Schulz and Lanzerotti, 1974). Since the number of electrons in the radiation belt is sufficiently large and energetic, we can describe gyration, bounce, and drift motions in terms of three adiabatic invariants of motion, namely  $\mu$ ,  $K$ , and  $L^*$  (Roederer, 1970). In this formalism we consider only the phase-averaged motion of particles, reducing the problem to a three-dimensional approximation of the system. We then consider the density of electrons in this phase space, the PSD.

The benefit of using an invariant PSD is that non-adiabatic processes are easily identified by any changes to the PSD distribution; that is, the PSD distribution does not change if only adiabatic changes are occurring to the system (following Liouville's theorem). Furthermore, the PSD distribution in  $L^*$  is an important characteristic when interpreting indirect magnetopause shadowing processes because the PSD gradient in  $L^*$  determines the rate of particle diffusion towards this outer boundary.

The electron PSD is here defined in units of  $(\text{c}/\text{cm}/\text{MeV})^3$ , following the Committee on Space Research (COSPAR) Panel on Radiation Belt Environment Modelling (PRBEM) recommendations. For each spacecraft and instrument, the adiabatic invariants  $\mu$ ,  $K$ , and  $L^*$  (Roederer, 1970) are computed using the International Radiation Belt Models (IRBEM) library (Boscher, 2013), the International Geomagnetic Reference Field (IGRF) internal field model, and the semi-empirical Tsyganenko 2001 storm (T01s) external magnetic field model (Tsyganenko et al., 2003). Through the September 2017 storm we use PSD measurements from;

- Van Allen Probes MagEIS (Magnetic Electron Ion Spectrometer) and REPT (Relativistic Electron-Proton Telescope) instruments (Mauk et al., 2013; Blake et al., 2012; Baker et al., 2013),



- THEMIS ESA (Electrostatic Analyzer) and SST (Solid State Telescope) instruments (Angelopoulos, 2009; Angelopoulos et al., 2008; McFadden et al., 2008),
- MMS FEEPS (Fly's Eye Electron Proton Spectrometer) instrument (Blake et al., 2016; Burch et al., 2016),
- GOES MAGED (Magnetospheric Electron Detector) and EPEAD (Energetic Proton, Electron, and Alpha Detector) (GOES N Series Data Book, 2010; Hanser, 2011; Rodriguez et al., 2014),
- GPS (Global Positioning System) Navstar Satellite CXD (Combined X-Ray Dosimeter) (Tuszewski et al., 2004).

Each instrument is cross calibrated with the Van Allen Probe B MagEIS measurements.

Rather than interpolating PSD observations to find PSD for specific  $\mu$  and  $K$ , as is traditionally practiced, in this study we use PSD measurements which lie within a specified range of  $\mu$  and  $K$  to represent a specific population of electrons. For  $\mu$  we use a range of  $\pm 2.5\%$ ; e.g., for a specified  $\mu$  of 400 MeV/G, the range is 390 - 410 MeV/G. The range of  $K$  used is  $\pm 25\%$ ; e.g., for a specified  $K$  0.1 G0.5RE, the range is 0.75 to 1.25 G0.5RE. A relatively large range of  $K$  was chosen in order to maximize the PSD data available in each distribution across all  $L^*$ , whilst a small  $\mu$  range was chosen to limit any overlap between measurements taken by different energy channel ranges for different satellites.

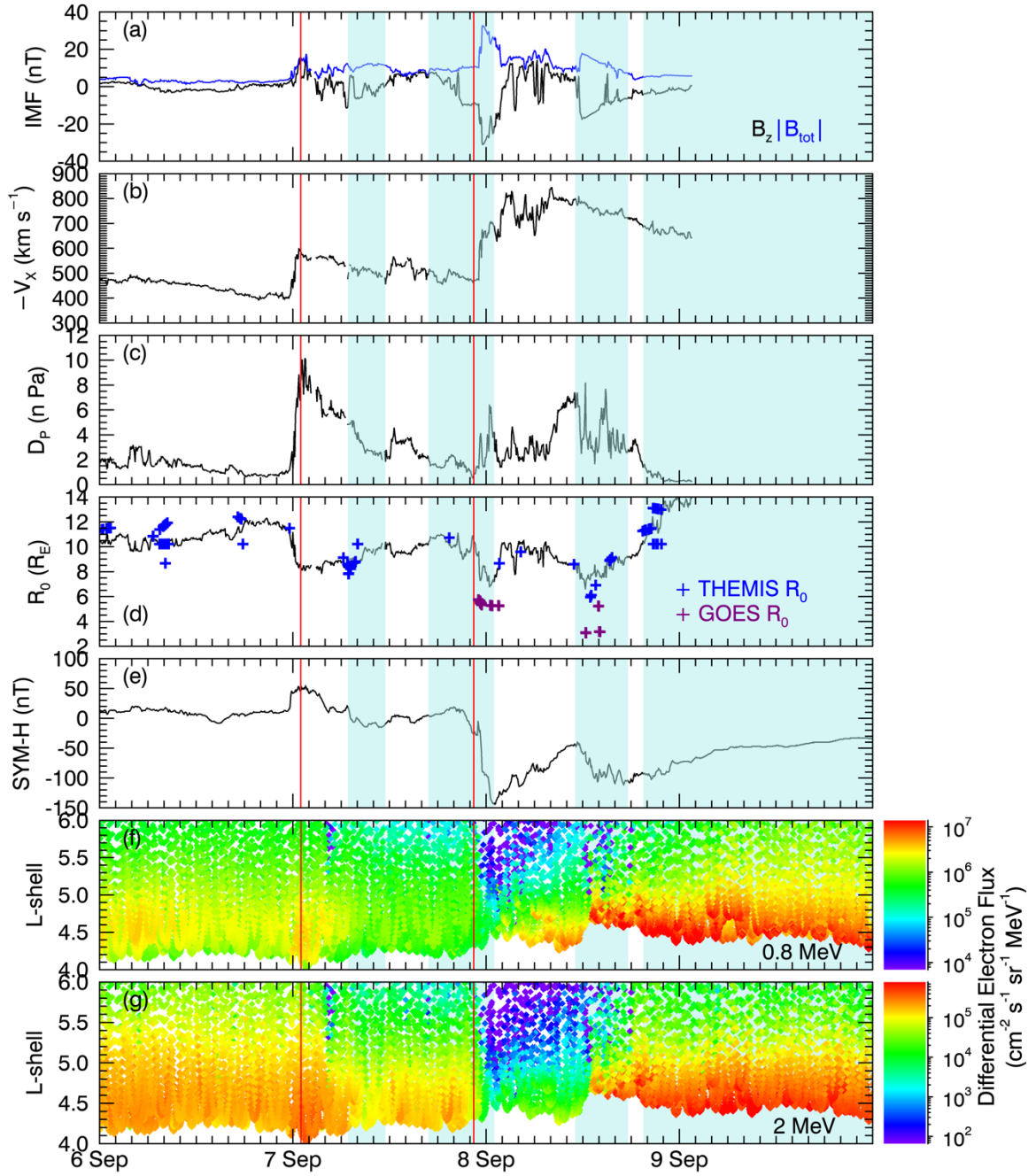
## 2.2 Parameterisation of the Outer Boundary

In this study we use both measurements of the magnetopause and calculations of the last closed drift shell (LCDS) when considering the outer boundary of the radiation belts. We calculate the LCDS numerically as the maximum  $L^*$  at which an electron with a given pitch angle follows a closed drift path in the T01s external magnetic field model, where there is a single magnetic minima along a field line. The magnetopause location is represented by the Shue et al. (1998) magnetopause model, and by measurements of the magnetopause location taken by the THEMIS and GOES spacecraft. We supplement the Shue et al. (1998) model with magnetopause measurements as it has been shown that

statistical models may not reflect event specific behavior of the magnetopause location during dynamic magnetopause compressions (Staples et al., 2020). To identify THEMIS magnetopause crossings, magnetic and plasma measurements are taken from the Fluxgate magnetometer (Auster et al., 2008) and the Electrostatic Analyzer (McFadden et al., 2008). For GOES 13 and 15 magnetopause crossings, magnetic field data from the flux gate magnetometers was used (Singer et al., 1996).

### 2.3 Solar Wind Data

Solar wind data and geomagnetic indices used are provided by the NASA/Goddard Space Flight Centers OMNI data set through Coordinated Data Analysis Web (CDAWeb; <https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). Solar wind measurements in this dataset are taken by the ACE, Wind, IMP 8, and Geotail missions, and are propagated to the bow shock nose. The SYM-H index, calculated in a similar manner to Dst index by ground based midlatitude magnetometer stations, is used to indicate geomagnetic activity (Iyemori, 1990; Iyemori et al., 2010; Wanliss et al., 2006). All data used from CDAWeb has 5-minute resolution.

216 **3 Results**

217

218 **Figure 1.** The solar wind and magnetospheric conditions for the 6 - 10 September 2017; (a) total  
 219 IMF (blue) and the north-south component of IMF  $B_z$  (black); (b) solar wind speed; (c) solar  
 220 wind dynamic pressure; (d) subsolar standoff distance of the magnetopause, calculated by the  
 221 Shue et al. (1998) model (black line), and equivalent subsolar standoff distance measured by

THEMIS (blue) and GOES (purple) spacecraft according to Staples et al. (2020); (e) SYM-H index; differential electron flux as a function of L shell, measured by GPS satellites at (f) 0.8 MeV and (g) 2 MeV. Interplanetary shocks are indicated by red lines and blue shaded areas show when there are CME ejecta as stated by Shen et al., (2018).

Figure 1 shows a summary of solar wind, interplanetary magnetic field (IMF), magnetospheric parameters, and radiation belt electron flux between the 6 - 10 of September 2017. During the time period there is a complex sequence of interacting interplanetary shocks and coronal mass ejecta (CME) (Scolini et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2018; Werner et al., 2019) which drives an equally complex magnetospheric and radiation belt response. The times of the interplanetary shocks and CME ejecta classified by Shen et al. (2018) are displayed by the red lines and blue shaded areas respectively. Measurements of electron flux at 0.8 MeV and 2 MeV energies are taken by the combined X-ray dosimeter on board LANL GPS Navstar satellites (Tuszewski et al., 2004). As the orbits of GPS satellites are highly inclined, measurements of flux at L shells  $\gtrsim 5.5$  are taken at high magnetic latitudes where fewer electrons complete their bounce orbit, and therefore flux decreases rapidly with L shell.

The arrival of the first interplanetary shock is indicated by an increase in solar wind speed (Figure 1b) and dynamic pressure (Figure 1c) by 200 kms-1 and 9 nPa respectively, and an increase in IMF strength by 15 nT (Figure 1a). At 01:00 UT on 7 September 2017, the increased dynamic pressure resulted in a compression of the magnetopause from 11.5 RE to 8 RE (Figure 1d), and an increase in SYM-H index from  $\sim 10$  nT to 50 nT (Figure 1e) as magnetopause currents are enhanced by the increased solar wind number density (not shown). Both 0.8 MeV and 2 MeV flux increased by a factor of  $\sim 2$  at all L shells  $< 5$  (figure f-g). When SYM-H index returned to the pre-storm value of  $\sim 10$  nT, so did electron flux at both energies.

The first CME ejecta arrived at 06:50 UT 7 September, accompanied by an IMF BZ rotation, increasing from -10 nT to 9 nT then decreasing to  $-8$  nT (Figure 1a), and there is an overall decrease in solar wind velocity and dynamic pressure (Figures 1b & 1c respectively). There is no significant change in SYM-H as it returned to  $\sim 0$  nT prior to the first ejecta (Figure 1e). The magnetopause began to expand outwards from 8 RE to 10 RE, with THEMIS measuring the equivalent subsolar magnetopause between 8 and 10 Re during this period (Figure 1d).

Electron flux decreased by a factor of  $\sim 4$  compared to the pre-storm flux, for both energies, and at all L shells (Figure 1f-g).

The second CME arrived at 16:50 UT 7 September and lasted until 01:00 UT 8 September. A second interplanetary shock which (was associated with the third CME) was propagating within this second CME ejecta, and arrived at 22:28 UT 7 September. When the second CME ejecta arrived at 16:50 UT 7 September, solar wind speed and pressure continued to decrease gradually (Figure 1b & c respectively), and IMF BZ decreased from 8 nT to  $-10$  nT (Figure 1a). Interestingly, the magnetopause did not change location significantly (Figure 1d), there was no geomagnetic activity (Figure 1e), and no change to electron fluxes (Figure 1f-g). However, when the interplanetary shock arrived, IMF field strength suddenly increased from 10 nT to  $\sim 35$  nT and BZ decreased further from  $-10$  nT to  $-32$  nT. Solar wind speed increased from 500  $\text{kms}^{-1}$  to 700  $\text{kms}^{-1}$ , and dynamic pressure increased from 1 nPa to 4 nPa. The magnetopause was compressed within geostationary orbit ( $\sim 6.6$  RE) where there were multiple magnetopause crossings by GOES 13. The Shue et al. (1998) magnetopause model calculated a minimum standoff distance of 7 RE, whereas the equivalent standoff distance calculated for the GOES magnetopause crossings is 5.5 RE. The SYM-H index decreased from 0 nT to a minimum of  $-142$  nT following the shock. The 0.8 MeV electron flux decreased by a factor of  $\sim 100$  across L shells  $> 5$  and  $\sim 10$  for L shells  $< 5$ . Similarly, 2 MeV electron flux also decreased following the interplanetary shock, but by a factor of  $\sim 1000$  for L shells  $> 5$  and a factor of  $\sim 100$  at L shells  $< 5$ . At both energies, this dropout in flux started at the highest L shells first, followed by the lower L shells over a 3-hour time period.

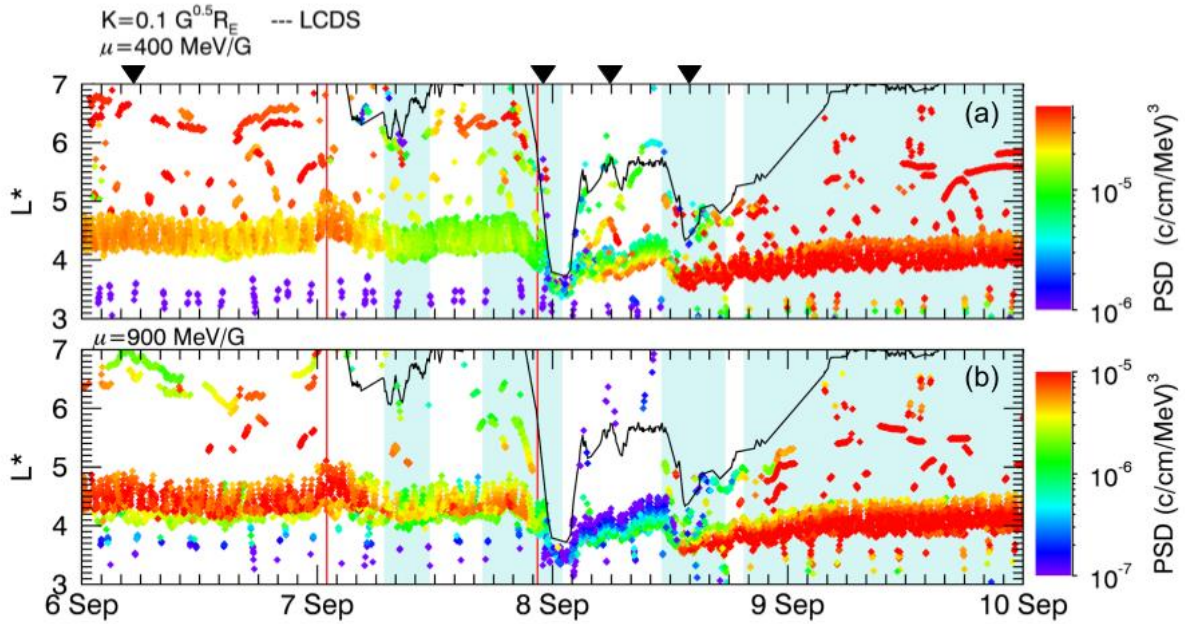
Following the second CME ejecta solar wind speed remains high at 800  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (Figure 1b), whilst dynamic pressure fluctuated, increasing from 1 nPa to 6 nPa (Figure 1c). IMF BZ also fluctuated rapidly between  $-10$  nT and 10 nT (Figure 1a). SYM-H began to increase (Figure 1e), indicating that the start of the storm recovery phase. The magnetopause expanded outwards to  $\sim 10$  RE, as measured by THEMIS (Figure 1d). Electron flux increased across both energies; 0.8 MeV flux increased by a factor of  $\gtrsim 10$ , first limited to L shells  $< 4.5$  but slowly expanding to all L shells prior to the third CME arrival (Figure 1f). The 2 MeV electrons showed a similar increase in flux, though the rate of increase was slower (Figure 1g).

281       The third CME ejecta arrived on 8 September at 11:05 UT and lasted until 17:38 UT.  
282       Solar wind speed remained high at 800 kms<sup>-1</sup>, decreasing to 700 km/s through the ejecta (Figure  
283       1b), and solar wind pressure fluctuated rapidly between 2 and 8 nPa (Figure 1c). IMF strength  
284       suddenly increased by 8 nT, and BZ rapidly decreased to  $-10$  nT, both field strength and BZ  
285       slowly returned to  $\sim 0$  nT by the end of the CME (Figure 1a). SYM-H index decreased from  $-50$   
286       nT to a minimum of  $-120$  nT (Figure 1e). The magnetopause was compressed within GEO orbit,  
287       as measured by GOES 13 and 15 magnetopause crossings (Figure 1f). The Shue et al. (1998)  
288       model is compressed to 7 RE at the subsolar point, and the equivalent subsolar magnetopause  
289       calculated from GOES 13 crossing was 5.5 RE, and 3 RE for GOES 15. In actuality, the  
290       magnetopause is not compressed to this level at the subsolar point as Van Allen Probe A is at  
291       apogee near noon at this time and does not cross the magnetopause. Simultaneous to the  
292       compression of the magnetopause, there is a sudden increase in flux for L shells  $< 5$ ; the 0.8  
293       MeV increased by a factor of  $\sim 10$  and 2 MeV flux increased by a factor of  $\sim 100$  (Figure 1f-g).  
294       At L shells  $> 5$  there is some reduction in flux, at both energies, compared to the flux at the  
295       beginning of the third CME.

296       The fourth CME ejecta arrived at 19:30 UT 8 September and continued until 00:00 UT  
297       11 September. Solar wind conditions are no longer recorded in the 5-minute resolution OMNI-  
298       database during this period (Figure 1a-c). The magnetopause expanded to 13.5 RE, as measured  
299       by THEMIS on 8 September (Figure 1d). For the remainder of the time period, electron flux at  
300       both energies, and all L shells, continued to increase to values  $\sim 10$  times greater than the pre-  
301       storm flux (Figure 1f-g). The SYM-H index slowly increased during the recovery phase of the  
302       storm (Figure 1e).

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**Figure 2.** Phase Space Density shown as a function of  $L^*$  over time as measured by multiple spacecraft for 6 - 10 September 2017; panels show PSD values where  $K=0.1 G0.5 R_E$  and  $\mu$  is (a) 400 MeV/G; (b) 900 MeV/G. Interplanetary shocks are indicated by red lines, and blue shaded areas show when there are CME ejecta as stated by Shen et al. (2018). The LCDS for  $K = 0.1 G0.5 R_E$  is overplotted in the black solid line on all three panels. The black triangles indicate the time periods depicted in Figure 3.

Figure 2 shows PSD of electrons measured by Van Allen Probes, THEMIS, MMS, GOES, and GPS. The evolution of PSD where  $K=0.1 G0.5 R_E$  and  $\mu$  is 400 MeV/G and 900 MeV/G (panels a and b respectively) is shown as a function of  $L^*$ . As with Figure 1, solar wind features are indicated by the red lines (interplanetary shocks) and blue shaded regions (CME ejecta).

At the beginning of 6 September, PSD increased rapidly with increasing  $L^*$  up to  $L^* = 4$  for  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G, or  $L^* = 4.2$  for  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G, then increased more slowly with  $L^*$  beyond that. PSD where  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G increased from  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $\sim 1.2 \times 10^{-5}$  (c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup> at  $3 < L^* < 4$ . At  $L^* > 4$ , PSD slowly increased with increasing  $L^*$  from  $\sim 1.2 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $1.3 \times 10^{-5}$

(c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup>. PSD at  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G increased rapidly from  $\sim 1.0 \times 10^{-7}$  to  $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$  (c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup> between  $3 < L^* < 4.2$ , PSD was approximately constant between  $4.2 < L^* < 5$ , and at  $L^* > 6$  PSD was between  $1.4 \times 10^{-6}$  and  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  (c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup>, indicating that PSD decreased at high  $L^*$ . The LCDS was beyond  $L^*$  of 7, so was not plotted for this time period.

When the first interplanetary shock reached the magnetosphere, the location of spacecraft measurements in  $L^*$  increased briefly, this indicated that drift paths of electrons moved Earthwards with respect to spacecraft orbits (Figure 2; red line). There were no large changes to the PSD distribution in  $L^*$  for  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G, however the PSD of the 400 MeV/G population doubled. As  $L^*$  returned to the pre-shock location, the increased PSD returned to the level prior to the interplanetary shock arrival. Simultaneously the LCDS moved inwards to  $6.3 L^*$ .

When the first CME ejecta reached the magnetosphere at 06:50 UT on 07 September, the LCDS moved inwards to  $L^* \sim 6$ . PSD decreased across all  $\mu$ , though these decreases in PSD were not uniform across  $L^*$  and energies. PSD of the  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G population decreased by half between  $4 < L^* < 5$ , and by a factor of  $\sim 3$  at  $L^* > 5$ . PSD of electrons with  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G decreased by a factor of  $\sim 5$  between  $4 < L^* < 5$  and decreased by a factor of  $\sim 3$  between  $3 < L^* < 5$ .

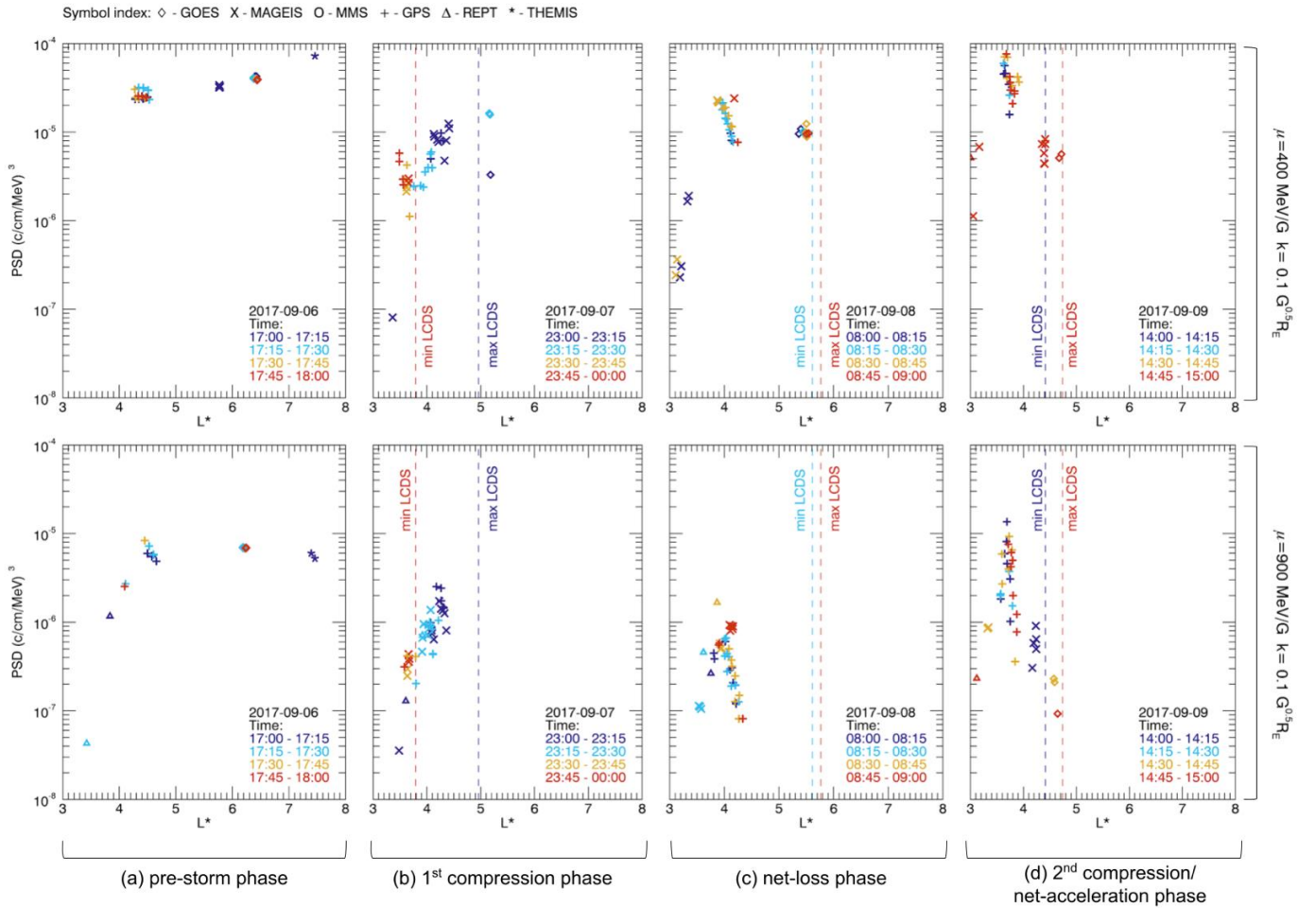
The second interplanetary shock arrived during the third CME ejecta. In response, the LCDS was compressed to  $L^* = 3.8$  for 2 hours. The PSD at  $L^* > 3.8$  could therefore not be expressed in adiabatic coordinates during this time, so we assume these particles no longer followed closed drift paths. At locations within the LCDS, the location of spacecraft measurements in  $L^*$  decreased. PSD at a given  $L^*$  did not change significantly for  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G during this time period. PSD where  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G increased by a factor of  $\sim 2$  at  $L^* > 3.2$  compared to corresponding measurements prior to the compression.

During the interval between the second and third CME ejecta, the LCDS expanded to higher  $L^*$  of  $\sim 5.5$ . In tandem, the location of spacecraft measurements in  $L^*$  moved outwards (so electron drift paths move inwards with respect to spacecraft orbits). Initially there was little to no change in PSD for  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G at a given  $L^*$ , then PSD increased by a factor of 10 over the interval for  $L^* \sim 4$ . At both  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G, PSD decreased by a factor of 10 compared to PSD prior interplanetary shock arrived. Through the remainder of the interval PSD increased



by a factor of  $\sim 10$  at  $L^* \sim 4$ . Note that for both  $\mu$ , the latter increase in PSD is limited to  $L^* \sim 4$ , and PSD at  $L^* > 4$  did not increase.

Upon the arrival of the third CME ejecta, the LCDS was compressed a second time to  $L^* = 4.4$ . Simultaneously, PSD at both  $\mu$  increased by a factor of 10 at  $L^* = 3.6$ , and PSD decreased with increasing  $L^*$ . As the LCDS began to expand outwards in  $L^*$ , PSD began to increase at all  $L^*$ . When the fourth CME ejecta arrived, the LCDS continued to expand to higher  $L^*$ , and PSD universally increased at all  $L^*$  and  $\mu$  plotted.



**Figure 3:** PSD profiles in  $L^*$  for  $\mu$  of 400 MeV/G (top row) and 900 MeV/G (bottom row) with  $K = 0.1$  G0.5RE. Each column (a-d) shows a single hour time period through different phases of the storm. Symbol colors indicate when measurements were taken within the hour period. Dotted lines show the minimum and maximum  $L^*$  of the LCDS.

In order to evaluate whether the Turner et al. (2012) representation of magnetopause shadowing in PSD profiles is accurate for this storm, we selected four different 1-hour time periods throughout the September 2017 storm and created PSD profiles in  $L^*$ , shown in Figure 4. We selected time periods by considering the phase of the storm (i.e., pre storm, net-loss, or net-acceleration), the data availability of PSD measurements, and whether there were coinciding magnetopause measurements to define the outer boundary. The four time periods correspond to (a) pre-storm, (b) first compressive phase, (b) net-loss phase, and (c) second compressive/net-acceleration phase. Within the hour time periods 15-minute intervals are identified by symbol color so that changes to PSD and the LCDS within the hour can be identified. To give the four 1-hour time periods in the context of the storm as a whole, the time intervals are indicated by black triangles in Figure 2.

Prior to the arrival of the first interplanetary shock, Figure 3a shows PSD at both  $\mu$  increased rapidly between  $3 < L^* < 4.2$ . Where  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G, PSD continued to increase with increasing  $L^*$ , reaching maximum measurement of  $1.8 \times 10^{-5}$  (c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup> at  $L^* = 7.4$ . Where  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G the maximum measured PSD was  $1.0 \times 10^{-5}$  (c/cm/MeV)<sup>3</sup> at  $L^* = 4.2$ , and PSD decreased slightly with increasing  $L^*$ . During this period, the LCDS was located at  $L^* > 8$ .

During the first compression phase (Figure 3b) the LCDS was located at  $L^* = 5 L$  at the beginning of the hour, then is further compressed to  $L^* = 3.8$  by the end of the interval. PSD profiles at all  $\mu$  show a clear difference between the first half hour of the interval and the latter half. In the first half hour, PSD at all  $\mu$  values had a positive gradient with increasing  $L^*$ , and PSD was measured at a maximum near the maximum LCDS for the interval. In the latter half hour PSD measurements are limited to  $L^* < 3.8$ . For  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G, PSD was measured within the minimum LCDS and was similar to the first half hour. PSD where  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G was also measured within the minimum LCDS but increased by a factor  $> 2$  through the half hour.

During the net-loss phase (Figure 3c) the LCDS was located at  $L^* \sim 5.7$  and remained there throughout the interval. Measurements taken through the hour were co-located indicating no substantial changes in PSD profiles through the interval. For both  $\mu$ , the PSD peaked at  $L^* = 3.8$ , which was the location of minimum LCDS during the compressive phase. PSD had also increased by a factor of 10 or more for  $L^* < 3.8$ . At  $L^* > 3.8$ , PSD where  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G PSD had a negative gradient with increasing  $L^*$  until  $L^* = 4.2$ , and PSD measurements taken by GOES at  $L^* = 5.5$  were similar values to those at  $L^* = 4.2$ . PSD where  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G had a strong negative gradient with increasing  $L^* > 3.8$ . PSD distributions presented during this net-loss phase are characteristic of direct electron losses at  $L^* > 3.8$ , and subsequent radial diffusion after the magnetopause expanded.

During the secondary compression phase (Figure 3d) the LCDS was compressed at  $L^* = 4.4$  towards the beginning of the phase and expanded slightly to  $L^* = 4.8$  by the end of the hour. PSD measurements taken throughout the hour were the constant for a given  $L^*$ , showing that there were no substantial changes to PSD within the hour. For both  $\mu$  there were peaks in PSD at  $L^* = 3.7$  with an increased PSD compared all previous intervals (Figure 3a-c). PSD at  $L^* < 3.7$  also increased by a factor  $\geq 10$  compared to the previous net-loss interval (Figure 3c) at both  $\mu$ . This growing peak in PSD, and increased PSD at lower  $L^*$ , indicates localized electron acceleration processes occurring at  $L^* = 3.7$ , with radial diffusion of electrons away from this location. PSD at  $L^* > 3.7$  shows that there was a strong negative gradient as PSD decreased rapidly with increasing  $L^*$  for both  $\mu$ . PSD at these higher  $L^*$  largely did not change compared to the previous net-loss interval, though there were few measurements for comparison at common  $L^*$  between the two intervals. At  $L^* > 4$  PSD universally decreased during the second compression compared to the pre-storm phase; for  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G, PSD was up to 10 times less than the pre-storm interval, for  $\mu = 900$  MeV/G PSD was up to 1000 times less than the pre-storm interval. In other words, despite the fact that the secondary compression phase lies within the acceleration phase of this geomagnetic storm, losses at  $L^* > 4$  mean that the PSD was not replenished to its pre-storm values.

## 4 Discussion

We presented an overview of the outer electron radiation belt response to a sequence of interacting CMEs and interplanetary shocks propagating through the solar wind in early September 2017. We used multi-mission, multi-spacecraft observations of both electron flux and phase space density to evaluate the role of magnetopause shadowing in producing changes to electron flux during this event.

Between 7 - 10 September there were two interplanetary shocks and four separate CME ejecta propagating through the solar wind. As the solar wind characteristics of this event have already been studied in detail (e.g., Scolini et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2018; Werner et al., 2019), we do not analyze these in detail, instead focusing on the relativistic electron response to these drivers. There was a complex response in electron flux at 0.8 MeV and/or 2.0 MeV energies corresponding to each interplanetary shock or CME ejecta. Most of these flux changes corresponded to changes in measurements of phase space density, indicating that the electron flux response to solar wind driving were largely due to non-adiabatic processes.

Not all changes in electron flux were due to non-adiabatic processes. Specifically, in response to the second interplanetary shock arrival, flux measured by GPS satellites decreased by orders of magnitude at all L shells. Corresponding PSD measurements showed that, whilst electrons were irreversibly lost at high  $L^*$  where drift paths were intersected by the LCDS, there were initially no changes to PSD measured below  $L^* = 3.8$ . Instead, the location in  $L^*$  at which GPS satellites were measuring PSD changed, i.e., electron drift paths had moved radially outwards with respect to GPS orbits. Therefore, GPS satellites measured a different part of the PSD distribution, which appeared as a decrease in the measured electron flux on all L-shells. This shows why it is important to consider electron measurements in adiabatic coordinates, rather than flux alone.

We presented profiles of PSD in  $L^*$  at four 1-hour time intervals in Figure 3, chosen to correspond to the four intervals depicted in Figure 2 of Turner et al. (2012). The first interval (Figure 3a) at 17:00 – 18:00 UT on 6 September showed the pre-storm distribution of PSD which constantly increased with increasing  $L^*$  ( $\mu = 400$  MeV/G) or reached a peak PSD at  $L^* = 4.2$  ( $\mu = 900$  MeV/G). The second interval (Figure 3b) showed PSD profiles during a high-pressure

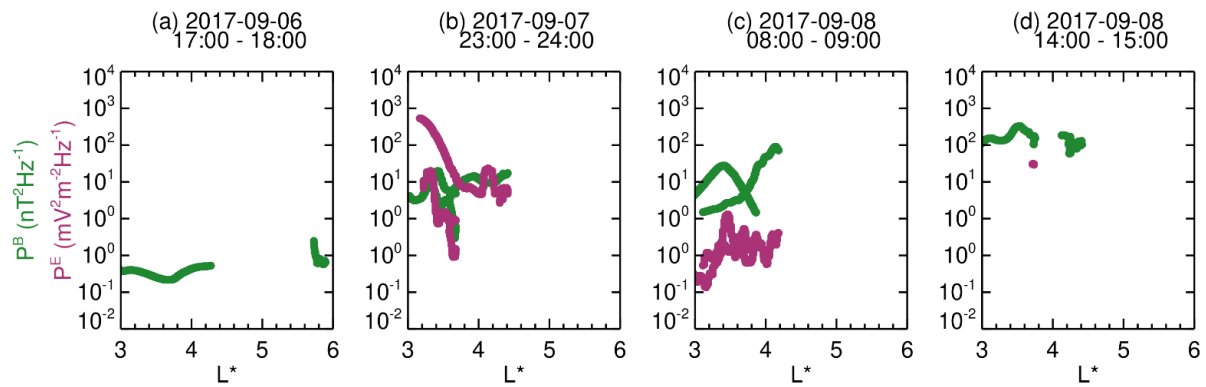
phase at 23:00 UT 7 September to 00:00 UT 8 September, during which the magnetopause was measured by geostationary satellites. The LCDS was compressed from  $L^* = 5$  to  $L^* = 3.8$  during the hour. When the evolution of PSD within the hour was considered, we observed large scale changes to PSD as the LCDS is compressed. Electrons outside of the LCDS are no longer trapped and PSD within the LCDS in the latter half of the hour is distinctly different the pervious half hour for  $\mu = 400$  MeV/G. If we were to assume that the PSD did not change within an hour timescale, then these observations would be interpreted as false peaks or troughs in the PSD. These false peaks and troughs are produced by the dynamics of the system rather than non-adiabatic acceleration or loss processes. The third time period (Figure 3c) at 08:00 – 09:00 UT 8 September corresponded to the net-loss phase during the storm main phase. The magnetopause and LCDS had expanded outwards and there were dropouts in both electron flux at all  $L$ , and PSD at  $L^* > 3.8$ . PSD profiles at all  $\mu$  peaked at  $L^* = 3.8$ , had increased slightly at  $L^* < 3.8$ , and had decreased by orders of magnitude at  $L^* > 3.8$ . This was consistent with electron loss due to direct magnetopause shadowing, followed by a redistribution of electrons via radial diffusion. The first three intervals (Figure 3a-c) correspond remarkably well to the PSD dynamics discussed by Turner et al. (2012), despite the complexity of the external solar drivers during our chosen case study.

The fourth interval (Figure 3d) does not correspond directly to the schematic in the Turner et al. (2012) study but instead corresponds to a secondary compression of the magnetosphere during the net acceleration phase between 14:00 – 15:00 UT 8 September. During this hour the magnetopause was compressed within geostationary orbit, and the LCDS was compressed to  $L^* = 4.4$ . At all  $\mu$  PSD increased for all  $L^*$ , and there was a clear growing peak in PSD at  $L^* = 3.7$  compared to the previous time period, with strong PSD gradients across  $L^*$ . This is characteristic of a localized non-adiabatic acceleration process, likely due to resonant VLF wave-particle interactions, combined with radial diffusion redistributing electrons down PSD gradients (inwards for  $L^* < 3.7$  and outwards for  $L^* > 3.7$ ), thus increasing PSD at any given  $L^*$ . Furthermore, we note characteristics which suggest indirect magnetopause shadowing; strong negative gradients in PSD towards the compressed LCDS means that radial diffusion will transport particles towards the LCDS, where they will be subsequently lost. This final interval (Figure 3d) corresponds well to the PSD dynamics during indirect magnetopause shadowing discussed by Loto'aniu et al. (2010).

In order to understand how radial diffusion will have acted upon the electron populations shown in Figure 3, we use Van Allen Probe electric and magnetic field measurements to analyze power of field fluctuations. We used in-situ magnetic field observations from the Van Allen probe EMFISIS instrument (Kletzing et al., 2013) and electric field observations from the EFW instruments (Wygant et al., 2013). The magnetic and electric field measurements had a time resolution of 4 seconds. The background magnetic and electric fields were identified by taking a running average over a 20-minute sliding window, and the background fields were then subtracted from the instantaneous measurement. To identify fluctuations, the residual field observations were transformed into a magnetic field-aligned coordinate system, defined by the background magnetic field unit vector (parallel component), the geocentric position vector (azimuthal component), and the poloidal direction. In this transformed coordinate system, the parallel magnetic field perturbation and azimuthal electric field perturbation were selected to estimate the associated power spectral densities using a Morlet wavelet transform. The power spectral density was limited to a frequency range of 1-15 mHz (corresponding to the ULF wave band (Jacobs et al., 1964) and an L-range of  $3 < L < 7.5$  as field perturbations cannot be reliably distinguished from the changing background field near orbital perigee.

Figure 4 shows the power spectral density of the magnetic field PB (green) and electric field PE (pink) as a function of  $L^*$  for the 4 previously specified 1-hour time periods. Magnetic power spectral density is substantially enhanced at an increasing rate through the geomagnetic storm (Figure 4, panels b - d) compared to the pre-storm time period (Figure 4a). Due to data gaps in electric field measurements (associated with spacecraft charging and eclipse events), the number of electric field power spectral density measurements is variable throughout the storm, making it difficult to make comparisons between the four intervals (e.g., Figures 4 a&d). However, during the first compressive phase (Figure 4b), PE appears high with comparable, or greater, magnitudes to PB for corresponding  $L^*$ . During the net-loss phase (Figure 4c), PE decreased compared to the previous compressive phase, and was less than PB at all  $L^*$ . During the second compressive phase (Figure 4d), there was only one measurement of PE at  $L^*=3.7$ , which was increased compared to the previous net loss phase (Figure 4c). Some of the differences between the way in which PE evolved through the intervals compared to PB may be due to changes in substorm activity affecting electric potential measured by the Van Allen Probes. Auroral geomagnetic indices (not shown) indicate enhanced substorm activity during this

interval, which will produce fluctuations in electric potential in the magnetosphere, and thus contribute towards the power spectral density of the electric field. It is therefore highly likely that PE was enhanced during interval (d) in a similar manner to interval (b). Irrespective of this, the overall rate of diffusion of the electrons is dependent on both the sum of the magnetic field and electric potential fluctuations and the PSD gradient in  $L^*$ . Therefore, we conclude that outwards radial diffusion was enhanced for both intervals (c) and (d) as both periods have enhanced power spectral densities, and sharp PSD gradients in  $L^*$ .



**Figure 4:** Estimated magnetic field (green) and electric field (purple) power spectral densities for (a) 17 - 18 UT 6th Sept, (b) 23 UT 7th - 00 UT 8th, (c) 08 - 09 UT 8th, and (d) 14 - 15 UT 8th. Each panel shows the power spectral density, summed over a frequency range of 1 to 15 mHz, plotted as a function of the  $L^*$  value. Observations from both Probe A and Probe B are included.

Unfortunately, without knowing the number of particles accelerated during the local acceleration, we cannot measure the number of particles lost via indirect shadowing to evaluate the respective contributions of indirect and indirect shadowing to overall electron loss. The contributions of each mechanism could instead be estimated by replicating this event with a

Finally, we acknowledge possible limitations to this work, specifically the magnetic field model used as it is known to influence calculations of the adiabatic invariants and LCDS (e.g., Albert et al., 2018). The T01s model was chosen for this work due to its suitability during

geomagnetic storm conditions, but different magnetic field models may yield different results. Furthermore, the LCDS may be calculated by either considering Shabansky drift orbits as closed drift paths, whereas other calculations consider these bifurcating orbits as open (Öztürk & Wolf, 2007; Shabansky, 1971). In this work, we have used the last non-bifurcated drift shell as the LCDS, which could give an underestimation of the outer boundary to trapped electrons if these electrons following bifurcated orbits return to the radiation belts following the compression.

## 5 Summary

We used multi-point electron phase space density measurements with unprecedented temporal and spatial resolution to analyze magnetopause shadowing in the outer radiation belt during the early September 2017 geomagnetic storm. The September 2017 storm is driven by a set of complex solar wind features, due to four interacting CMEs, with an equally complex radiation belt response.

Analysis of PSD demonstrated the capabilities of multi-spacecraft measurements to identify and isolate energization and loss processes with extremely high spatial and temporal resolution:

- By comparing PSD to flux measurements we identified adiabatic transport of electrons during the event, highlighting the importance of considering adiabatic coordinates to interpret flux changes during geomagnetic storms.
- The event exhibited both similarities and differences to the Turner et al. (2012) description of an electron flux dropout. Whereas the first compression of the magnetopause showed the expected PSD responses to direct shadowing, local acceleration and additional shadowing by subsequent solar wind structures led to deviations from the Turner et al. (2012) predictions.
- We highlighted the importance of indirect magnetopause shadowing on radiation belt dynamics. Analysis of PSD and ULF wave activity showed signatures of indirect magnetopause shadowing, as described by Loto'aniu et al. (2010).



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