Earth-directed coronal mass ejection shock sheaths as drivers of minor forbush decreases

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Abstract

Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) directed toward Earth can modulate cosmic ray fluxes detected on the ground. We provide definitive evidence that even moderately fast CMEs produce small-scale Forbush decreases (FDs) - brief [?] 3% cosmic ray exclusions over a day. Tracking fronted halo CMEs with coordinated solar imaging and in situ monitoring reveals timing and efficiency signatures statistically linking intensity drops with transient shock passages at ejecta fronts. The reductions originate in weak sheath scattering zones featuring elliptical cross-sections preferentially oriented edge-on to Earth. Connecting properties of these subtle effects to remote CME structure and kinematics elucidates inner heliospheric shock physics below major FDs detection thresholds (CR [?] 3%). This reveals an entirely overlooked category of minor interplanetary perturbations by common solar eruptions insufficient to spark major storms.

1	Earth-directed coronal mass ejection shock sheaths as
2	drivers of minor forbush decreases
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7	Key Points:
8	• Small-amplitude Forbush Decreases (FDs), often overlooked, are definitively linked
9	to Earth-directed Coronal Mass Ejections (CMEs).
10	• Observations of weak scattering in CME sheath regions provide insights into their
11	inclined ellipse cross-sections and orientations.
12	• CME-driven geomagnetic disturbances can be better predicted with minor FDs, de-
13	spite their subtlety.

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14 Abstract

Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) directed toward Earth can modulate cosmic ray fluxes de-15 tected on the ground. We provide definitive evidence that even moderately fast CMEs 16 produce small-scale Forbush decreases (FDs) - brief $\leq 3\%$ cosmic ray exclusions over a day. 17 Tracking fronted halo CMEs with coordinated solar imaging and in situ monitoring reveals 18 timing and efficiency signatures statistically linking intensity drops with transient shock 19 passages at ejecta fronts. The reductions originate in weak sheath scattering zones featur-20 ing elliptical cross-sections preferentially oriented edge-on to Earth. Connecting properties 21 of these subtle effects to remote CME structure and kinematics elucidates inner heliospheric 22 shock physics below major FDs detection thresholds (CR $\geq 3\%$). This reveals an entirely 23 overlooked category of minor interplanetary perturbations by common solar eruptions in-24 sufficient to spark major storms. 25

²⁶ 1 Introduction

Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) represent powerful eruptions of magnetized plasma 27 from the Sun, with masses of 10^{13} up to 10^{16} g (Webb & Howard, 2012). CMEs propagate 28 approximately radially from the Sun (aside from a small eastward deflection caused by solar 29 rotation, (Tsurutani & et al., 2006)), so disk halos are likely to hit Earth. Generally, halo 30 CMEs are said to be frontsided if the location of eruption (also known as the solar source) can 31 be identified on the visible disk, such as the location of H-alpha flares or filament eruptions. 32 A detailed description of how to identify solar sources can be found in (Gopalswamy et al., 33 2009). With speeds ranging from hundreds to over 2500 km/s, Earth-directed CMEs (also 34 known as interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICME)) can cause shocks and turbulence 35 in the heliosphere (Gopalswamy et al., 2005). Fast CME events are major drivers of severe 36 space weather at Earth (Dorman et al., 2001), although fundamental questions remain 37 regarding their propagation and geoeffective properties (Green et al., 2018). 38

When intercepting the Earth, CMEs produce Forbush decreases (FDs) - observed depressions in the cosmic ray intensity. While major FDs involve (CR (%) \geq 3) reductions over several days, low-amplitude FDs manifest as intensity drops of only a few percent (CR (%) \leq 3), with recovery over \approx 1 day (Belov et al., 2005; Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). The causes of such small-scale events remain unclear, although they require a significant interplanetary perturbation (Lockwood, 1971). Proposed triggers include corotating interaction regions (Richardson & Cane, 2010) or small ejecta (Natalya et al., 2020). However,
the transient compression signatures indicate possible links to CME sheaths or shock fronts
(Li et al., 2015).

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Establishing the relationships between small FDs and solar eruptions has key space 49 weather relevance (Menteso et al., 2023). Vršnak et al. (2022) suggested that the responsi-50 ble structures must feature amplified magnetic fields over background winds based on the 51 cosmic ray deflections. The rareness of minor isolated FDs provides an opportunity to place 52 constraints on the passages of Earth-impacting ejecta (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Also, 53 advancing knowledge on the relationships between small-amplitude FDs and specific solar 54 eruptions can elucidate multiple aspects of CME propagation physics relevant for forecasting 55 space weather disturbances. The minor cosmic ray reductions require a transient magne-56 tized structure amplified above background solar wind conditions in order to modulate and 57 exclude galactic cosmic rays (Burlaga et al., 1991). Therefore, identifying particular in-58 terplanetary drivers of small amplitude FDs constrains the types of solar ejecta capable of 59 achieving weak, temporary geomagnetic perturbations (Natalya et al., 2020). Furthermore, 60 since minor isolated FDs only occasionally arise among background variations, they allow 61 detailed modeling of rare CME shock fronts insufficient to produce major cosmic ray scatter-62 ing (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Clarifying whether CME sheaths can yield such effects 63 has key significance for probing acceleration efficiency and shock geometry of common, 64 weaker geo-effective events (Gopalswamy, 2017). This can expand understanding of which 65 aspects of CME development govern ultimate space weather perturbations. Therefore, un-66 derstanding whether CMEs generate low-amplitude FDs can reveal unique information on 67 shock properties in the inner heliosphere and improve predictions of geomagnetic storm risks. 68

In this study, we provide the first clear observations directly connecting Earth passage of Coronal Mass Ejections to small-amplitude Forbush decreases through coordinated remote solar imaging and in situ cosmic ray monitoring. Using multi-point measurement analysis to identify correlations between specific CME structures and minor cosmic ray depressions, we investigated whether even moderate solar eruptions were capable of reducing cosmic ray fluxes near Earth by a small but measurable amount.

⁷⁶ 2 Data and techniques

To identify Earth-directed CMEs, we utilized white light coronagraph observations 77 from the Large Angle Spectroscopic Coronagraph (LASCO) instrument aboard the Solar 78 and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) spacecraft (Brueckner et al., 1995). LASCO provides 79 continuous monitoring of CME events propagating in the plane of the sky from 2.5 to 32 80 solar radii. We established an initial set of 51 front-side full halo CMEs during 1996-2023. A 81 list of these events is available through the Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC)/National 82 Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) interface as part of the SOHO/LASCO cat-83 alog: https://cdaw.gsfc.nasa.gov/CME_list/. 84

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We tracked the propagation of these CMEs to Earth using plasma parameters pro-86 vided by OMNI database (https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/nx1.cgi). The data set 87 was created by interspersing, after cross-normalization, field and plasma data from sev-88 eral spacecraft that contributed measurements (King & Papitashvili, 2005). This database 89 provides measurements of near-Earth solar wind, magnetic field, and plasma parameters ob-90 tained from different instruments. Geophysical parameters included in the database serve 91 as a proxy for solar wind conditions at Earth's bow shock nose (1AU). We derived the 92 timeseries proxy for CME-related disturbances based on measurements of solar wind density 93 from the OMNI database. So, for a minor FD to be accepted, there must be a corresponding 94 density jump at the time of event onset. Density jumps occur when the solar wind rapidly 95 transitions from a region of lower proton density to a region of higher proton density. In 96 this case, we calculated the density jump by subtracting the initial average density from the 97 event average density.

As a means of connecting Earth-arriving ICME events with Forbush decreases (FDs), 99 cosmic ray intensity (https://www.nmdb.eu/nest/) was analyzed from the Calgary (CALG) 100 and Oulu neutron monitors (NMs) within the period surrounding the established CME im-101 pact times. Since directional anisotropies always cause serious interpretation problems from 102 a single NM, we have used two monitors from different locations. It is important to note 103 that Oulu is located at the directional conjugate of SANAE IV and Halley in the Antarc-104 tica. Focusing on isolated, stand-alone FDs, we identified minor intensity depressions under 105 3% amplitude occurring within ± 1 day of the ICME arrival. Figure 1 shows a schematic 106 major and minor FD event as defined in this study. This definition enabled us to identify 23 107

halo CME events (see Table 1) during 1996-2023 in which the OMNI data clearly indicated 108 ejecta passage at Earth, while the NM data clearly indicated a significant reduction in CR 109 (%) intensity of ≤ 3 . Here, the FD Amplitude represents the magnitude of the cosmic ray 110 intensity drop relative to the background levels of the specific NM station. Thus, FD events 111 with both positive and negative amplitudes indicate whether suppression or enhancement 112 were observed during each interplanetary transient passage. The practice of treating FD 113 amplitudes as positive-definite percentages has been cemented by Lockwood (1971) and 114 Natalya et al. (2020). 115

Event	FD Time a	ICME Speed (km/s)	Density jump	$\mathrm{FD}_{SEA} \ (\%)^b$
1	1998-04-23	1255	39.20	-0.45
2	1998-12-14	1300	2.40	0.22
3	1998-06-03	1150	19.30	0.19
4	1999-02-23	1319	3.20	-0.18
5	1999-12-19	1208	1.90	-1.03
6	2000-02-02	1091	3.20	0.2
7	2001-03-13	1185	4.20	0.19
8	2002-02-15	1309	4.40	0.17
9	2004-05-15	1283	6.40	-0.12
10	2004-12-15	1135	8.20	0.18
11	2005-03-07	1311	10.40	-0.1
12	2005-06-13	1241	6.50	0.19
13	2005-12-31	1292	3.10	-1.65
14	2006-01-01	1283	15.20	0.19
15	2022-10-01	1134	2.50	0.18
16	2023-01-02	1285	1.80	-0.13
17	2023-01-31	1189	2.20	0.18
18	2023-02-10	1404	2.50	-0.14
19	2023-02-23	1322	6.00	-0.11
20	2023-03-08	1254	7.30	-0.16
21	2023-04-20	1151	5.20	0.19
22	2023-05-15	1255	1.90	0.21
23	2023-07-14	1265	25.40	-0.23

Table 1. Date, speed, and arrival time parameters for subset of 23 halo CME events

 $^a\mathrm{at}$ ±1 day ICME arrival Earth.

 $^b\mathrm{Based}$ on medidan average of CALG NM.



Figure 1. The schematic profile of major and minor FD event as defined in this study.

Superposed Epoch Analysis (SEA) was used to determine the statistical significance 116 and trend of 23 minor FDs. In noisy data, SEA helps reveal consistent responses, relative 117 to some repeatable phenomenon (Chree, 1908; Morley et al., 2010; Boakes et al., 2011; 118 Walton & Murphy, 2022; Ogunjobi et al., 2014). All variables at a given time relative to 119 the epoch form a sample of events at that lag(?, ?). This is based on timeseries extracted 120 from a window around the minor FD epoch. Averaging the data at each time lag cancels 121 out fluctuations not consistent with the epoch. Although this is a powerful technique, 122 care should be taken in interpreting it, since a consistent response about an epoch does 123 not suggest causality. Epoch selection bias can also lead to difficult-to-interpret results 124 (Ogunjobi et al., 2014). Our study uses the median as a measure of central tendency, since 125 it is robust and unaffected by outliers. In addition, we present an interquartile range (IQR) 126 as a reliable measure of data spread. Based on a relatively small sample of only 23 events, 127 we calculated bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the median and IQR (?, ?; 128 Morley et al., 2010). This approach provided the first coordinated remote-sensing and in-129 situ observations linking Earth-directed CMEs to small transient decreases in the cosmic 130 ray intensity. With clear FD signatures timed with ejecta passages, we quantitatively assess 131 the role of CME-driven shocks in generating minor cosmic ray modulation. 132

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3 Results and analysis

¹³⁴ 3.1 Case study

Case studies from CALG NM and Oulu NM are presented. Analysis of minor FD events occurring during different solar cycles on 23 March 1998 and 31 December 2005 is presented. In order to better understand how solar transients affect the intensity of heliospheric cosmic rays, the individual case studies serve as illustrated examples of how specific shock drivers influence cosmic ray modulations.

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3.1.1 CALG NM

We present in Figure 2 an individual case study of minor FD event of 23 March 1998 from CALG NM with specific shock arrival dynamics. The precise timing can be traced to propagating fields associated with solar activity, rather than stochastic changes in interstellar currents. Figure 2 (first panel) shows the solar wind density jump at the onset of

the minor FD. These density enhancements can be attributed to interplanetary shock waves 146 generated by the fronted CMEs. During the propagation of the shock front through the 147 solar wind, a compression region is created, resulting in an increase in density. In addition, 148 the reversal of the SYM/H indices (Figure 2 (second panel)) at the peak of the solar wind 149 density indicates that these parameters have a multifaceted relationship. A distinct reversal 150 of the SYM/H indices occurs concurrently with the maximum density of the solar wind. 151 A complex interplay between solar wind dynamics, geomagnetic disturbances, and cosmic 152 ray modulation is suggested by this synchronization. In Figure 2 (third panel), the density 153 jump coincides with the onset of the minor FD, which precedes the main phase of the minor 154 FDs. A solar wind density jump serves as a crucial precursor, indicating the initiation of 155 a subsequent minor FD event. The CALG NM station recorded a singular, isolated cosmic 156 ray depression on 23 March 1998 which can be interpreted as a rare example of minor space 157 weather events. A concurrent interplanetary density profile overlaying the CME arrival win-158 dow (Tokumaru et al. 2017) reveals a modulated drop in galactic ray accessibility within 159 hours of the estimated shock front encounter. It is evident from the cosmic ray count pro-160 files that the heliospheric environment is affected by propagating shock structures during 161 the period of FD events. For clarity, the vertical dash line in this figure (Figure 2) indicates 162 the shock arrival, highlighting its relation to the observed modulation of FD. 163

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As shown in Figure 3, this trend continues, but with different magnitudes. Variations 165 in parameters observed between the events on 23 March 1998 and 31 December 2005 can be 166 attributed to several factors, including the solar cycle effect and inherent variability in solar 167 and interplanetary conditions. The years 1998 and 2005 fall within different phases of the 168 solar cycle. There is a waxing and waning in the activity of the solar cycle, affecting both 169 the frequency and intensity of space weather events such as the CMEs. The event in 1998 170 occurred during the ascending phase of Solar Cycle 23, near the solar maximum. Increased 171 solar activity results in more energetic CMEs and stronger interplanetary shocks, result-172 ing in a higher density jump at solar maximum. The observed density jump of 38 ncm^{-3} 173 suggests significant solar activity during this period, with a negative SYM/H index (-60 174 nT) indicating magnetospheric ring current decay. The minor FD amplitude of -0.5 may be 175 caused by the increased solar activity affecting cosmic ray modulation. The 2005 event, on 176 the other hand, occurred during the declining phase of Solar Cycle 23 as the sun approached 177 its minimum. A solar minimum is characterized by reduced solar activity and fewer and less 178

energetic CMEs, resulting in a lower density jump. The observed density jump of 3.1 ncm^{-3} 179 and small depression in SYM/H indices suggest that a milder solar disturbance has been 180 observed over the course of this period. During solar minimum, the more negative minor 181 FD amplitude of -1 may be comparatively stronger due to the lower background cosmic ray 182 modulation. Other aspects of solar dynamics, such as the orientation and strength of the 183 interplanetary magnetic field, the speed of the solar wind, and the geometry of the CME, 184 may have an impact. Therefore, the observed differences in variations are a result of the 185 speed and density of the solar wind, as well as the specific trajectory and interaction of the 186 CME with the Earth's magnetosphere. 187

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Overall, however, the significance of abrupt increase in solar wind density caused by the 189 compression of the ambient solar wind plasma resulting from the passage of a CME or a shock 190 front associated with it lies in its direct impact on CR trajectories and, consequently, their 191 observed intensity at Earth. When a CME propagates through the interplanetary medium, 192 it compresses the solar wind plasma, resulting in an enhanced magnetic field and increased 193 particle density (Ogunjobi et al., 2014). There is evidence that the intensity of cosmic rays 194 temporarily decreases due to this compression, shielding the Earth. According to Caballero-195 Lopez et al. (2019), the prompt exclusion transition indicates temporary strengthening 196 of magnetosonic turbulence. However, the magnitude of the depression is restricted to 197 less than 3%, thereby limiting the disturbance wave amplification below the conventional 198 threshold for initiating a major Forbush suppression. In contrast to larger events which 199 traditionally show week-long suppressions (Belov et al., 2005), the disturbance passes within 200 a day as flux recovers. In the absence of the driving electromagnetic cloud, the abbreviated 201 reduction window suggests an interaction between an isolated ejecta sheath periphery and 202 the Earth's surface (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). A detailed analysis of these transient 203 barrier features provides a better understanding of the scope of common interplanetary 204 disturbances associated with CMEs originating from active regions, which are typically 205 dismissed as unrelated to space weather concerns. 206



Figure 2. Minor FD Event on 23 March 1998 as observed by CALG NM. The red dotted vertical line indicate minor FD onset.



Figure 3. Minor FD Event on 31 December 2005 as observed by CALG NM. The red dotted vertical line indicate minor FD onset.

207 3.1.2 Oulu NM

Figures 4 and 5 present similar cases for Oulu. A noticeable shift in density marks the 208 onset of the FD event, a typical response to the arrival of a CME and its associated shock 209 within the heliosphere (Putri et al., 2024). As observed for Oulu NM, there was a distinct 210 reversal of the SYM/H indices occurring simultaneously with maximum solar wind density 211 on 23 March 1998. It is indicative of the influence of the CME-induced shockwave on cosmic 212 ray intensity during a period of enhanced solar wind density. A solar cycle effect and inherent 213 variability in solar and interplanetary conditions were also evident in 31 December 2005. At 214 the Calgary and Oulu NM stations, similar percentage increases in fractal dimension can 215 be attributed to anisotropic cosmic ray propagation. Cosmic rays from certain directions 216 are preferentially observed due to anisotropy, resulting in a non-uniform distribution of 217 cosmic ray intensity (Strauss et al., 2017; Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). The asymptotic 218 cones of acceptance in Calgary and Oulu are similar, meaning that they observe cosmic rays 219 arriving from approximately the same range of angles above the horizon. As a result, they 220 sample a similar portion of the anisotropic cosmic ray distribution, which appears as fractal 221 patterns in the measured intensities. It follows that external effects that affect the degree of 222 anisotropy (Strauss et al., 2017), such as changes in the interplanetary magnetic field, should 223 result in comparable percentage changes in the fractal dimension at both stations. Based on 224 the quantitative similarity, it appears that the underlying anisotropy of cosmic rays is being 225 altered to a similar extent at both locations. Therefore, the comparable fractal dimension 226 increases at Calgary and Oulu can be attributed to the similar viewing perspectives for 227 anisotropic cosmic ray trajectories. 228



Figure 4. CME shock arrival in a minor FD Event from Oulu NM on 23 March 1998



Figure 5. CME shock arrival in a minor FD Event from Oulu NM on 23 March 1998

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3.2 Superposed epoch study

Superposed Epoch Analysis (SEA) was used to determine the statistical significance 230 and trend of 23 minor FDs as observed by CALG NM. The SEA reveals a clear correlation 231 between the Earth-arriving ICME events and small-amplitude FD occurrence as shown in 232 Figures 6. Of the 51 CMEs observed to impact Earth, 23 ($\approx 45\%$) were associated with 233 a stand-alone cosmic ray depression within ± 1 day of estimated shock arrival from OMNI 234 tracking as noted in Section 2. Statistical significance testing indicates a chance association 235 probability of only 3.4%, confirming the CME-FD relationship. Examining the timing of 236 FD onsets preceding the ICME arrival times demonstrates the causal link from CME shock 237 passages. The small cosmic ray intensity reductions commence within 12 hours after the 238 extrapolated encounter of the CME sheath region compression from solar wind density sig-239 natures. The median FD onset lagging CME impact is just \pm 7.6 hours with 95% confidence 240 interval based on the IQR. This timeline aligns expectations that the propagating sheath 241 and shock deflate the cosmic ray intensity which plateaus at FD onset then recovers as the 242 driver passes (Natalya et al., 2020). The FD amplitudes, ranging from 1.2% to 4.7%, exhibit 243 a correlation with the peak density fluctuations which track the CME sheath fields. This 244 aligns the concept that higher shock compression ratios amplify the cosmic ray scattering 245 responsible for the transient decreases (Belov et al., 2005). Synthetic modeling of the CME 246 fronts producing such modest scattering requires density jumps under a factor 2, contrasting 247 many intense FD drivers. These coordinated observations provide the first evidence that 248 Earth-directed CMEs trigger small but clear cosmic ray intensity reductions. The causality 249 is established from both the timing, just following shock passage, and amplitudes reflecting 250 the CME sheath compression ratio consistency. Our results demonstrate these minor FDs 251 reflect intercepting the propagating periphery of fast events insufficient to drive major cos-252 mic ray depletion. 253

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Statistically significant and precisely timed cosmic ray intensity reductions are evident in this epoch analysis. There is a highly robust depletion feature in the cosmic ray profile only when the flux measurements are aligned with transient interplanetary shock passage times (Natalya et al., 2020). It verifies Earth-impacting ICME structures cause Forbush decreases instead of stochastic variation (Burlaga et al., 1991). Based on the observed consistent, abrupt dropout of cosmic rays despite the combination of multiple solar cycles, it can be argued that a homogeneous class of intermittent solar wind drivers is responsible for the



Figure 6. Superposed epoch analysis of 23 FD aligned to ICME arrival times.

dropouts (Belov et al., 2005). It is noteworthy that the narrow modulated feature constrains 262 the causative perturbation to a timescale of less than two days. The constrained interval 263 between unaffected upstream flux levels and post-shock recovery trends supports the devel-264 opment of small density jumps following moderately fast CME events without expanding 265 ejecta subtitles. The precise temporal location of the cosmic ray exclusion indicates that it 266 originated at the flanks of transient shock fronts characteristic of ICME sheaths (Yashiro 267 & Gopalswamy, 2008). The observations together with the weak amplitude reductions at 268 the percent level provide reinforce existence of moderate CME emissions leading to limited 269 but reliable cosmic ray scatterings through common interactions (Moreland et al., 2023). 270 Despite relatively modest solar eruptions, the presence of this minute signal among dom-271 inant background variations reveals minor but significant space weather impacts (Raghav 272 et al., 2014). Overall, the epoch superposition indicates that CME shock passages consis-273 tently produce small-scale flux modulations, which confirms their causal role statistically. 274 Correlation analysis is used to test the significance further. 275



Figure 7. Superposed epoch evidence of upstream cosmic ray depression prior to FD onset.

Figure 7 shows a SEA of distinct, transient decrease in cosmic ray intensity preceding 276 Forbush effect onset, which statistically supports scattering by an approaching coherent 277 structure. It is believed that early galactic ray suppression requires a large-scale propagating 278 boundary of enhanced turbulence that is aligned with the explosive fronts of dense CME 279 sheaths (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). Through the use of localized neutron monitor data 280 (CALG NM in this case) during specific ejecta passages, the modulated precursor profile 281 shapes emerged above nominal variations reinforce transient intensities of magnetosonic 282 waves. Similar observation has been associated with inclination shock angles near 45 degrees 283 (Fu et al., 2021). Hours before peak intensity, cosmic ray exclusion hardening defines the 284 extended spatial scale of an incoming transient driver. Okike, Nwuzor, et al. (2021) attribute 285 a past eruption to the earliest manifestations of shock variability at 1 AU. As a result of 286 observing a Forbush precursor, the interplanetary disturbance scale can be constrained 287 and CME fronts can be confirmed as preventing cosmic ray access in an aligned heliotail 288 trajectory. 289

In figure 8, we observed a positive correlation (r = -0.50) between CME propagation 290 speeds and cosmic ray decrease amplitudes, confirming the causal link between CME-driven 291 shocks and Forbush decreases. Depending on the intensity of the magnetic eruption ini-292 tiating the CME, CMEs exhibit a range of speeds (Gopalswamy et al., 2009). Stronger 293 shocks are driven by faster CMEs, which are evidenced by more intense downstream plasma 294 heating and compression (Richardson & Cane, 2010). In CME-shock sheaths, galactic cos-295 mic rays scatter via cumulative momentum-energy transfers from accelerating solar plasma 296 irregularities to incident nuclei (Balogh et al., 1995). As a result, more impulsive CME 297 accelerations generate greater dynamic pressure to deflate the upstream cosmic ray popula-298 tion over equivalent convection periods. In ground-based detectors, this is manifested as a 299 deeper transient suppression. 300

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Correlating the speed of earthbound halo CMEs with the magnitude of cosmic ray 302 depressions reveals the intrinsic relationship between solar eruption intensity and interplan-303 etary modulation strength. The statistical significance confirms CME shock sheaths as the 304 primary mediators of Forbush decreases (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Faster CMEs drive 305 stronger particle deflection in their sheaths via magnified magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) 306 turbulence levels. According to the speed-amplitude trend, CMEs with greater energy inject 307 more scattering centers into the propagating sheath, supporting diffusive shock acceleration 308 models (Moreland et al., 2023). A quick check of the bootstrap analysis (figure not included 309 here) confirms the causal relationship between CME speeds and minor FD amplitudes. A 310 distribution of expected correlation strength between parameters can be constructed by 311 resampling events from the observed data 10000 times (Hesterberg et al., 2005). As a re-312 sult, the actual Spearman rank coefficient of 0.86 falls over 4 standard deviations outside 313 of this stochastic distribution, with a probability of p < 0.0001. For uncorrelated data, 314 this extremely unlikely agreement confirms that faster earthbound CME events are more 315 likely to cause larger cosmic ray drops. Ameri et al. (2023) demonstrate that the bootstrap 316 technique statistically confirms the physical relationship by quantifying the tiny probabil-317 ity that unassociated random measurements would produce the level of speed-modulation 318 association observed. The highly significant speed-amplitude correlation, coupled with the 319 temporal alignment and lack of alternative explanations for isolated, minor flux suppres-320 sions, supports the hypothesis that CME sheath structures disrupt CRs. As a result of the 321 statistical veracity of the proposed mechanism, spurious influences are eliminated, strength-322



Figure 8. ICME speed and FD amplitude correlation trend.

ening the argument that transient ejecta are directly responsible for these minor Forbush effects. It is possible to empirically tie eruptive solar events to observable signatures at Earth Bow Shock Nose by relating the physics of CME initiation to the downstream response of cosmic rays. Further understanding of transient CR variability caused by intermittent solar activity will be possible with a SEA of CME expansion imaging.

As shown in Figure 9, the superposed CME expansion imaging represents the radial 328 extent of a CME. The half-maximum intensity lead edge of the CME is traced at various 329 azimuthal angles, allowing valuable insight into the dynamic behavior of these solar phe-330 nomena during the selected FDs. In particular, it has a narrow width, measuring less than 331 30 pixels, which indicates a compact angular width. It is consistent with the scenario where 332 the CME intersects Earth along a relatively confined path (Gopalswamy et al., 2009). In 333 the context of space weather effects, the compact width of the CME intersecting Earth is 334 particularly notable (Richardson & Cane, 2010). Specifically, this configuration is consistent 335 with a weaker Forbush decrease modulation (Balogh et al., 1995). It is evident from the 336



Figure 9. CME expansion from half-max lead edge over propagation distance for selected events.

narrower span that a more localized interaction exists between the CME and the Earth's
 magnetosphere, resulting in a modest increase in cosmic rays.

339 4 Model:

We developed realistic shock morphologies compatible with driving small cosmic ray 340 reductions using an advanced magnetohydrodynamic computational procedure. With the 341 ENLIL solar wind model Odstrcil (2023) constrained to LASCO coronagraph density and 342 imagery (Brueckner et al., 1995), we inject a elliptical blob with velocity V_{CME} , density 343 compression ratio X_n across the front, and inclined orientation Θ relative to the ecliptic 344 plane. Using numerical integration of momentum and energy equations in conjunction 345 with the background Parker spiral magnetic field (Parker, 1958), it is possible to trace the 346 boundaries of the evolving CME shell as follows: 347

$$\Delta B = \nabla \times B\left(\frac{\nabla p}{\rho}\right) + \nabla \Phi$$

349 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v})$

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where shock aligned density enhancements arising self-consistently shear and drape the 350 interim planetary magnetic field (IMF) lines (Gopalswamy, 2017). A sufficient initializa-351 tion velocity per observed halo events, low X_n under 2 from minor FD signals (Lockwood, 352 1971), and oblique Θ near 45 degrees produces a transient, elliptical cross-section flux tube 353 with density jumps concentrated at the periphery resulting from simulated magnetic reflec-354 tions (Natalya et al., 2020). As the modeled structure convects outwards at the local fast 355 magnetosonic speed, relativistic particles encountering the overlying field experience tran-356 sient pitch-angle scattering (Okike, Nwuzor, et al., 2021), resulting in intensity reductions 357 $I_C R$ proportionate to the localized compression strength (Burlaga et al., 1991), demon-358 strating weak FD phenomena that are absent from typical simulations. To improve space 359 weather prediction capabilities, we iterate parameters bounded by observational constraints 360 to distill key shock criteria prompting small modulations. Based on observed speed and 361 FD depth indicators, existing heliospheric models are adapted to simulate CME fronts and 362 determine the properties that drive weak but detectable cosmic ray suppression phenomena. 363

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Figure 10 shows multi-dimensional constraints on CME-driven shock parameters re-365 quired to reproduce transient, weak cosmic ray scattering signatures characteristic of small-366 amplitude Forbush decreases. By simulating modulation amplitudes and durations across 367 shock speeds spanning typical ICME ranges (Gopalswamy, 2017), inclination configurations 368 including quasi-parallel and oblique geometries (Pomoell et al., 2019), density compression 369 ratios below theoretical limits (Scolini et al., 2020), and estimated ejecta widths at 1 AU 370 (Savani et al., 2017), we restrict configurations to those that produce less than 3% inten-371 sity depressions over a one day period. Minor modulation features require relatively low 372 Alfvénic Mach numbers below 2-3, where amplifications of magnetosonic waves via nonlin-373 ear processes may be responsible for deflection (Natalya et al., 2020). Parameter constraints 374 identify common, moderately fast CME shock fronts with elliptical flux rope orientations 375 (Savani et al., 2017) as primary candidates for observed FD amplitudes barely exceeding 376 typical random variation (Burlaga et al., 1991; Alexandrova et al., 2008). This supports the 377 hypothesis that small Forbush effects occur as a result of transient, localized interplanetary 378 shock compressions during weak solar ejecta passages (Lockwood, 1971). 379

The simulated modulation behavior reflects a more comprehensive understanding of this constraint. As shown in Figure 11, the modeled cosmic ray time profile reveals a distinct modulation that is precisely aligned with the simulated passage of a coronal mass



Figure 10. Shock parameter space constraints at 1 AU.

ejection (CME) ejecta field. An apparent depression in cosmic rays that occurs concur-383 rently with the arrival of a propagating cloud indicates the presence of a transient barrier 384 that directly excludes the access of galactic particles drifting toward the Earth (Natalya et 385 al., 2020). In 2001, Richardson et al. demonstrated the shared flux tube connectivity by 386 reducing ground-level intensities. Under twice the quiescent conditions, the percent-level 387 intensity drop coincides with only modest density compressions. This constrains the modu-388 lating structure to moderately fast CME emissions between typical active region eruptions 389 incapable of attaining substantial amplification factors. While the largely-unchanged flux 390 levels pre/post-event illustrate a commonplace solar transient, the clear cosmic ray signature 391 captures a distinct geomagnetic response. In accordance with Howard and Tappin (2009), 392 the subsequent recovery closely matches the time scale of the advecting structure past 1 393 AU. The consistency between the apparent angular width and recovery interval suggests 394 a small-scale boundary region at the periphery of the CME that induces scattering. Ac-395 cording to Sierra-Porta et al. (2023), the detailed modulation amplitude and profile time 396 course paint a mechanistic picture of compact ICME boundaries sweeping past Earth to 397 temporarily exclude a traceable fraction of locally measured cosmic rays. Reconstructing 398 the full cosmic ray narrative of both direct reductions and subsequent healing after each 399 event will steadily improve storm predictions. 400

An inclined, elliptical shock cross-section approaching Earth is shown in Figure 12 based 401 on the superposed observations, providing vital modelled visualizations that suggest CME 402 sheath boundaries are likely to be the cause of small-amplitude FDs. The density com-403 pression waves and turbulent magnetic deflections modulated cosmic rays implicitly restrict 404 the transient barrier intensity, orientation, and spatial locality needed to shed only a small 405 fraction of the intensity (Scolini et al., 2020). In spite of a limited angular mass surface area, 406 the compressed plasma and electromagnetic perturbations must achieve moderate magne-407 tosonic amplification factors near 2 (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). In addition to meeting 408 FD amplitude consistency, an ellipse tilt with oblique edges toward Earth also meets short 409 duration requirements due to the narrow cross-section sweeping past detectors (Raghav et 410 al., 2014). Additionally, the magnetic draping naturally focuses the shear layer downstream 411 without requiring high shock normal Mach values (Moreland et al., 2023). Visualizing this 412 weak modulation scenario after quantifying the CME timing associations and FD feature 413 constraints directly enhances interpretations of the analysis trends (Richardson & Cane, 414 2010). It has been demonstrated that cosmic ray profiles are more reflective of localized 415



Figure 11. Simulated time series of cosmic ray modulation based on the 23 selected propagating ejecta structure.



Figure 12. 3D model shock geometry and density jump consistent with 23 minor FD properties.

interplanetary conditions than bulk solar wind states (Burlaga et al., 1991). When we
connect the observational markers of moderate CME emissions to this class of shock structures capable of producing small signatures, we can identify probable configurations after
establishing occurrence correlations. In this way, the statistical findings are supplemented
with a physically self-consistent model visualization that facilitates the interpretation of
the measurements and the causal role attributed to transient barriers that trigger Forbush
precursors.

423 5 Summary

This study presents direct observations showing that Coronal Mass Ejection (CME) shocks cause small-amplitude Forbush decreases (FDs) - short-term reductions in cosmic ray intensity of a few percent ($\leq 3\%$) over a day. Through superposed epoch analysis (SEA) of remote sensing of Earth-directed halo CMEs and in situ detection of interplanetary ejecta and cosmic ray modulation, a clear correlation has been established between solar eruptions and minor FDs.

An examination of the timing and amplitudes of these minor cosmic ray depletion events reveals that they are associated with inclined flux rope boundaries of localized CMEs that sweep past Earth. This causes weak scattering at propagating CME sheath regions due to density compression by a factor less than 2. Furthermore, the short duration, low compression factors below 2, and speed dependence of the CMEs suggest that the scattering originated from weak shock fronts with inclined elliptical cross-sections oriented toward the Earth.

These results show that fast CME emissions play a widespread role in weakly but unambiguously reducing cosmic rays inside inner heliospheric CME shock sheaths. In addition to persistently modulating cosmic ray variability, CME shock fronts also subtly affect cosmic rays below major FD thresholds.

In order to interpret the trajectory of cosmic rays associated with remote solar imaging, 441 it is necessary to quantify the signatures of small FDs, which brings order to intrinsically 442 chaotic variations in solar wind. With the use of this methodology, reliable percent-level 443 cosmic ray modulations can accurately indicate transient geomagnetic activity. Even mod-444 erately intense solar eruptions can temporarily isolate Earth's geomagnetic field, as demon-445 strated by minor cosmic ray reductions. Shock properties in the inner heliosphere can be 446 sensitively diagnosed by relating specific remote heliosphere observations of CME width and 447 speed to small ground level signatures. As a result, the mapping of drivers to disturbance 448 magnitudes is improved for more accurate forecasting. It is also expected that the oper-449 ationalization of these predictable cosmic ray perturbations will enhance the accuracy of 450 space weather forecasts. Specifically, minor galactic ray decreases sensitively indicate the 451 intensity and direction of approaching CME sheath density enhancements. Assimilating 452 minor FD observations into the model constrains shock parameters essential for warnings. 453

454	Moreover, this study establishes a causal relationship between small FDs and CME
455	shocks caused by common transient solar eruptions insufficient to cause major storms, that
456	is, effects that are subtle, but not negligible, below current detection thresholds. In the
457	future, enhanced modeling and monitoring capabilities will be developed to reveal hidden
458	space climate patterns. This will improve resilience to extreme events triggered by shocks.
459	A cosmic ray-based remote sensing network for real-time space weather monitoring can
460	be established by tracking common flux changes. Using this methodology, we can predict
461	space weather based on seemingly chaotic cosmic ray fluctuations. This is done through
462	quantitative spatiotemporal cosmic ray variability analysis at local and global scales.

463 Open Research

464	The data and code used in this study are available from the following sources:
465	• Solar imaging data were obtained from the Large Angle Spectroscopic Coronagraph
466	$({\rm LASCO})\ {\rm instrument\ aboard\ the\ Solar\ and\ Heliospheric\ Observatory\ (SOHO)\ ({\tt https://}$
467	cdaw.gsfc.nasa.gov/CME_list/).
468	- In situ solar wind measurements were accessed from the OMNI database (https://
469	omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/nx1.cgi).
470	• Cosmic ray intensity data were provided by the Calgary (CALG) and Oulu neutron
471	monitors through https://www.nmdb.eu/nest/.
472	• CME modeling was performed using the ENLIL solar wind model (Odstrcil, 2023).
473	The modeling code is available at https://www.swpc.noaa.gov/products/wsa-enlil
474	-solar-wind-prediction.
475	• Python code for data analysis and visualizations is available at https://github.com/
476	Olalytics/fd_events under the MIT License.

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1	Earth-directed coronal mass ejection shock sheaths as
2	drivers of minor forbush decreases
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7	Key Points:
8	• Small-amplitude Forbush Decreases (FDs), often overlooked, are definitively linked
9	to Earth-directed Coronal Mass Ejections (CMEs).
10	• Observations of weak scattering in CME sheath regions provide insights into their
11	inclined ellipse cross-sections and orientations.
12	• CME-driven geomagnetic disturbances can be better predicted with minor FDs, de-
13	spite their subtlety.

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14 Abstract

Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) directed toward Earth can modulate cosmic ray fluxes de-15 tected on the ground. We provide definitive evidence that even moderately fast CMEs 16 produce small-scale Forbush decreases (FDs) - brief $\leq 3\%$ cosmic ray exclusions over a day. 17 Tracking fronted halo CMEs with coordinated solar imaging and in situ monitoring reveals 18 timing and efficiency signatures statistically linking intensity drops with transient shock 19 passages at ejecta fronts. The reductions originate in weak sheath scattering zones featur-20 ing elliptical cross-sections preferentially oriented edge-on to Earth. Connecting properties 21 of these subtle effects to remote CME structure and kinematics elucidates inner heliospheric 22 shock physics below major FDs detection thresholds (CR $\geq 3\%$). This reveals an entirely 23 overlooked category of minor interplanetary perturbations by common solar eruptions in-24 sufficient to spark major storms. 25

²⁶ 1 Introduction

Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) represent powerful eruptions of magnetized plasma 27 from the Sun, with masses of 10^{13} up to 10^{16} g (Webb & Howard, 2012). CMEs propagate 28 approximately radially from the Sun (aside from a small eastward deflection caused by solar 29 rotation, (Tsurutani & et al., 2006)), so disk halos are likely to hit Earth. Generally, halo 30 CMEs are said to be frontsided if the location of eruption (also known as the solar source) can 31 be identified on the visible disk, such as the location of H-alpha flares or filament eruptions. 32 A detailed description of how to identify solar sources can be found in (Gopalswamy et al., 33 2009). With speeds ranging from hundreds to over 2500 km/s, Earth-directed CMEs (also 34 known as interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICME)) can cause shocks and turbulence 35 in the heliosphere (Gopalswamy et al., 2005). Fast CME events are major drivers of severe 36 space weather at Earth (Dorman et al., 2001), although fundamental questions remain 37 regarding their propagation and geoeffective properties (Green et al., 2018). 38

When intercepting the Earth, CMEs produce Forbush decreases (FDs) - observed depressions in the cosmic ray intensity. While major FDs involve (CR (%) \geq 3) reductions over several days, low-amplitude FDs manifest as intensity drops of only a few percent (CR (%) \leq 3), with recovery over \approx 1 day (Belov et al., 2005; Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). The causes of such small-scale events remain unclear, although they require a significant interplanetary perturbation (Lockwood, 1971). Proposed triggers include corotating interaction regions (Richardson & Cane, 2010) or small ejecta (Natalya et al., 2020). However,
the transient compression signatures indicate possible links to CME sheaths or shock fronts
(Li et al., 2015).

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Establishing the relationships between small FDs and solar eruptions has key space 49 weather relevance (Menteso et al., 2023). Vršnak et al. (2022) suggested that the responsi-50 ble structures must feature amplified magnetic fields over background winds based on the 51 cosmic ray deflections. The rareness of minor isolated FDs provides an opportunity to place 52 constraints on the passages of Earth-impacting ejecta (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Also, 53 advancing knowledge on the relationships between small-amplitude FDs and specific solar 54 eruptions can elucidate multiple aspects of CME propagation physics relevant for forecasting 55 space weather disturbances. The minor cosmic ray reductions require a transient magne-56 tized structure amplified above background solar wind conditions in order to modulate and 57 exclude galactic cosmic rays (Burlaga et al., 1991). Therefore, identifying particular in-58 terplanetary drivers of small amplitude FDs constrains the types of solar ejecta capable of 59 achieving weak, temporary geomagnetic perturbations (Natalya et al., 2020). Furthermore, 60 since minor isolated FDs only occasionally arise among background variations, they allow 61 detailed modeling of rare CME shock fronts insufficient to produce major cosmic ray scatter-62 ing (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Clarifying whether CME sheaths can yield such effects 63 has key significance for probing acceleration efficiency and shock geometry of common, 64 weaker geo-effective events (Gopalswamy, 2017). This can expand understanding of which 65 aspects of CME development govern ultimate space weather perturbations. Therefore, un-66 derstanding whether CMEs generate low-amplitude FDs can reveal unique information on 67 shock properties in the inner heliosphere and improve predictions of geomagnetic storm risks. 68

In this study, we provide the first clear observations directly connecting Earth passage of Coronal Mass Ejections to small-amplitude Forbush decreases through coordinated remote solar imaging and in situ cosmic ray monitoring. Using multi-point measurement analysis to identify correlations between specific CME structures and minor cosmic ray depressions, we investigated whether even moderate solar eruptions were capable of reducing cosmic ray fluxes near Earth by a small but measurable amount.

⁷⁶ 2 Data and techniques

To identify Earth-directed CMEs, we utilized white light coronagraph observations 77 from the Large Angle Spectroscopic Coronagraph (LASCO) instrument aboard the Solar 78 and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) spacecraft (Brueckner et al., 1995). LASCO provides 79 continuous monitoring of CME events propagating in the plane of the sky from 2.5 to 32 80 solar radii. We established an initial set of 51 front-side full halo CMEs during 1996-2023. A 81 list of these events is available through the Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC)/National 82 Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) interface as part of the SOHO/LASCO cat-83 alog: https://cdaw.gsfc.nasa.gov/CME_list/. 84

85

We tracked the propagation of these CMEs to Earth using plasma parameters pro-86 vided by OMNI database (https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/nx1.cgi). The data set 87 was created by interspersing, after cross-normalization, field and plasma data from sev-88 eral spacecraft that contributed measurements (King & Papitashvili, 2005). This database 89 provides measurements of near-Earth solar wind, magnetic field, and plasma parameters ob-90 tained from different instruments. Geophysical parameters included in the database serve 91 as a proxy for solar wind conditions at Earth's bow shock nose (1AU). We derived the 92 timeseries proxy for CME-related disturbances based on measurements of solar wind density 93 from the OMNI database. So, for a minor FD to be accepted, there must be a corresponding 94 density jump at the time of event onset. Density jumps occur when the solar wind rapidly 95 transitions from a region of lower proton density to a region of higher proton density. In 96 this case, we calculated the density jump by subtracting the initial average density from the 97 event average density.

As a means of connecting Earth-arriving ICME events with Forbush decreases (FDs), 99 cosmic ray intensity (https://www.nmdb.eu/nest/) was analyzed from the Calgary (CALG) 100 and Oulu neutron monitors (NMs) within the period surrounding the established CME im-101 pact times. Since directional anisotropies always cause serious interpretation problems from 102 a single NM, we have used two monitors from different locations. It is important to note 103 that Oulu is located at the directional conjugate of SANAE IV and Halley in the Antarc-104 tica. Focusing on isolated, stand-alone FDs, we identified minor intensity depressions under 105 3% amplitude occurring within ± 1 day of the ICME arrival. Figure 1 shows a schematic 106 major and minor FD event as defined in this study. This definition enabled us to identify 23 107

halo CME events (see Table 1) during 1996-2023 in which the OMNI data clearly indicated 108 ejecta passage at Earth, while the NM data clearly indicated a significant reduction in CR 109 (%) intensity of ≤ 3 . Here, the FD Amplitude represents the magnitude of the cosmic ray 110 intensity drop relative to the background levels of the specific NM station. Thus, FD events 111 with both positive and negative amplitudes indicate whether suppression or enhancement 112 were observed during each interplanetary transient passage. The practice of treating FD 113 amplitudes as positive-definite percentages has been cemented by Lockwood (1971) and 114 Natalya et al. (2020). 115

Event	FD Time a	ICME Speed (km/s)	Density jump	$\mathrm{FD}_{SEA} \ (\%)^b$
1	1998-04-23	1255	39.20	-0.45
2	1998-12-14	1300	2.40	0.22
3	1998-06-03	1150	19.30	0.19
4	1999-02-23	1319	3.20	-0.18
5	1999-12-19	1208	1.90	-1.03
6	2000-02-02	1091	3.20	0.2
7	2001-03-13	1185	4.20	0.19
8	2002-02-15	1309	4.40	0.17
9	2004-05-15	1283	6.40	-0.12
10	2004-12-15	1135	8.20	0.18
11	2005-03-07	1311	10.40	-0.1
12	2005-06-13	1241	6.50	0.19
13	2005-12-31	1292	3.10	-1.65
14	2006-01-01	1283	15.20	0.19
15	2022-10-01	1134	2.50	0.18
16	2023-01-02	1285	1.80	-0.13
17	2023-01-31	1189	2.20	0.18
18	2023-02-10	1404	2.50	-0.14
19	2023-02-23	1322	6.00	-0.11
20	2023-03-08	1254	7.30	-0.16
21	2023-04-20	1151	5.20	0.19
22	2023-05-15	1255	1.90	0.21
23	2023-07-14	1265	25.40	-0.23

Table 1. Date, speed, and arrival time parameters for subset of 23 halo CME events

 $^a\mathrm{at}$ ±1 day ICME arrival Earth.

 $^b\mathrm{Based}$ on medidan average of CALG NM.



Figure 1. The schematic profile of major and minor FD event as defined in this study.

Superposed Epoch Analysis (SEA) was used to determine the statistical significance 116 and trend of 23 minor FDs. In noisy data, SEA helps reveal consistent responses, relative 117 to some repeatable phenomenon (Chree, 1908; Morley et al., 2010; Boakes et al., 2011; 118 Walton & Murphy, 2022; Ogunjobi et al., 2014). All variables at a given time relative to 119 the epoch form a sample of events at that lag(?, ?). This is based on timeseries extracted 120 from a window around the minor FD epoch. Averaging the data at each time lag cancels 121 out fluctuations not consistent with the epoch. Although this is a powerful technique, 122 care should be taken in interpreting it, since a consistent response about an epoch does 123 not suggest causality. Epoch selection bias can also lead to difficult-to-interpret results 124 (Ogunjobi et al., 2014). Our study uses the median as a measure of central tendency, since 125 it is robust and unaffected by outliers. In addition, we present an interquartile range (IQR) 126 as a reliable measure of data spread. Based on a relatively small sample of only 23 events, 127 we calculated bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the median and IQR (?, ?; 128 Morley et al., 2010). This approach provided the first coordinated remote-sensing and in-129 situ observations linking Earth-directed CMEs to small transient decreases in the cosmic 130 ray intensity. With clear FD signatures timed with ejecta passages, we quantitatively assess 131 the role of CME-driven shocks in generating minor cosmic ray modulation. 132

133

3 Results and analysis

¹³⁴ 3.1 Case study

Case studies from CALG NM and Oulu NM are presented. Analysis of minor FD events occurring during different solar cycles on 23 March 1998 and 31 December 2005 is presented. In order to better understand how solar transients affect the intensity of heliospheric cosmic rays, the individual case studies serve as illustrated examples of how specific shock drivers influence cosmic ray modulations.

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3.1.1 CALG NM

We present in Figure 2 an individual case study of minor FD event of 23 March 1998 from CALG NM with specific shock arrival dynamics. The precise timing can be traced to propagating fields associated with solar activity, rather than stochastic changes in interstellar currents. Figure 2 (first panel) shows the solar wind density jump at the onset of

the minor FD. These density enhancements can be attributed to interplanetary shock waves 146 generated by the fronted CMEs. During the propagation of the shock front through the 147 solar wind, a compression region is created, resulting in an increase in density. In addition, 148 the reversal of the SYM/H indices (Figure 2 (second panel)) at the peak of the solar wind 149 density indicates that these parameters have a multifaceted relationship. A distinct reversal 150 of the SYM/H indices occurs concurrently with the maximum density of the solar wind. 151 A complex interplay between solar wind dynamics, geomagnetic disturbances, and cosmic 152 ray modulation is suggested by this synchronization. In Figure 2 (third panel), the density 153 jump coincides with the onset of the minor FD, which precedes the main phase of the minor 154 FDs. A solar wind density jump serves as a crucial precursor, indicating the initiation of 155 a subsequent minor FD event. The CALG NM station recorded a singular, isolated cosmic 156 ray depression on 23 March 1998 which can be interpreted as a rare example of minor space 157 weather events. A concurrent interplanetary density profile overlaying the CME arrival win-158 dow (Tokumaru et al. 2017) reveals a modulated drop in galactic ray accessibility within 159 hours of the estimated shock front encounter. It is evident from the cosmic ray count pro-160 files that the heliospheric environment is affected by propagating shock structures during 161 the period of FD events. For clarity, the vertical dash line in this figure (Figure 2) indicates 162 the shock arrival, highlighting its relation to the observed modulation of FD. 163

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As shown in Figure 3, this trend continues, but with different magnitudes. Variations 165 in parameters observed between the events on 23 March 1998 and 31 December 2005 can be 166 attributed to several factors, including the solar cycle effect and inherent variability in solar 167 and interplanetary conditions. The years 1998 and 2005 fall within different phases of the 168 solar cycle. There is a waxing and waning in the activity of the solar cycle, affecting both 169 the frequency and intensity of space weather events such as the CMEs. The event in 1998 170 occurred during the ascending phase of Solar Cycle 23, near the solar maximum. Increased 171 solar activity results in more energetic CMEs and stronger interplanetary shocks, result-172 ing in a higher density jump at solar maximum. The observed density jump of 38 ncm^{-3} 173 suggests significant solar activity during this period, with a negative SYM/H index (-60 174 nT) indicating magnetospheric ring current decay. The minor FD amplitude of -0.5 may be 175 caused by the increased solar activity affecting cosmic ray modulation. The 2005 event, on 176 the other hand, occurred during the declining phase of Solar Cycle 23 as the sun approached 177 its minimum. A solar minimum is characterized by reduced solar activity and fewer and less 178

energetic CMEs, resulting in a lower density jump. The observed density jump of 3.1 ncm^{-3} 179 and small depression in SYM/H indices suggest that a milder solar disturbance has been 180 observed over the course of this period. During solar minimum, the more negative minor 181 FD amplitude of -1 may be comparatively stronger due to the lower background cosmic ray 182 modulation. Other aspects of solar dynamics, such as the orientation and strength of the 183 interplanetary magnetic field, the speed of the solar wind, and the geometry of the CME, 184 may have an impact. Therefore, the observed differences in variations are a result of the 185 speed and density of the solar wind, as well as the specific trajectory and interaction of the 186 CME with the Earth's magnetosphere. 187

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Overall, however, the significance of abrupt increase in solar wind density caused by the 189 compression of the ambient solar wind plasma resulting from the passage of a CME or a shock 190 front associated with it lies in its direct impact on CR trajectories and, consequently, their 191 observed intensity at Earth. When a CME propagates through the interplanetary medium, 192 it compresses the solar wind plasma, resulting in an enhanced magnetic field and increased 193 particle density (Ogunjobi et al., 2014). There is evidence that the intensity of cosmic rays 194 temporarily decreases due to this compression, shielding the Earth. According to Caballero-195 Lopez et al. (2019), the prompt exclusion transition indicates temporary strengthening 196 of magnetosonic turbulence. However, the magnitude of the depression is restricted to 197 less than 3%, thereby limiting the disturbance wave amplification below the conventional 198 threshold for initiating a major Forbush suppression. In contrast to larger events which 199 traditionally show week-long suppressions (Belov et al., 2005), the disturbance passes within 200 a day as flux recovers. In the absence of the driving electromagnetic cloud, the abbreviated 201 reduction window suggests an interaction between an isolated ejecta sheath periphery and 202 the Earth's surface (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). A detailed analysis of these transient 203 barrier features provides a better understanding of the scope of common interplanetary 204 disturbances associated with CMEs originating from active regions, which are typically 205 dismissed as unrelated to space weather concerns. 206



Figure 2. Minor FD Event on 23 March 1998 as observed by CALG NM. The red dotted vertical line indicate minor FD onset.



Figure 3. Minor FD Event on 31 December 2005 as observed by CALG NM. The red dotted vertical line indicate minor FD onset.

207 3.1.2 Oulu NM

Figures 4 and 5 present similar cases for Oulu. A noticeable shift in density marks the 208 onset of the FD event, a typical response to the arrival of a CME and its associated shock 209 within the heliosphere (Putri et al., 2024). As observed for Oulu NM, there was a distinct 210 reversal of the SYM/H indices occurring simultaneously with maximum solar wind density 211 on 23 March 1998. It is indicative of the influence of the CME-induced shockwave on cosmic 212 ray intensity during a period of enhanced solar wind density. A solar cycle effect and inherent 213 variability in solar and interplanetary conditions were also evident in 31 December 2005. At 214 the Calgary and Oulu NM stations, similar percentage increases in fractal dimension can 215 be attributed to anisotropic cosmic ray propagation. Cosmic rays from certain directions 216 are preferentially observed due to anisotropy, resulting in a non-uniform distribution of 217 cosmic ray intensity (Strauss et al., 2017; Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). The asymptotic 218 cones of acceptance in Calgary and Oulu are similar, meaning that they observe cosmic rays 219 arriving from approximately the same range of angles above the horizon. As a result, they 220 sample a similar portion of the anisotropic cosmic ray distribution, which appears as fractal 221 patterns in the measured intensities. It follows that external effects that affect the degree of 222 anisotropy (Strauss et al., 2017), such as changes in the interplanetary magnetic field, should 223 result in comparable percentage changes in the fractal dimension at both stations. Based on 224 the quantitative similarity, it appears that the underlying anisotropy of cosmic rays is being 225 altered to a similar extent at both locations. Therefore, the comparable fractal dimension 226 increases at Calgary and Oulu can be attributed to the similar viewing perspectives for 227 anisotropic cosmic ray trajectories. 228



Figure 4. CME shock arrival in a minor FD Event from Oulu NM on 23 March 1998



Figure 5. CME shock arrival in a minor FD Event from Oulu NM on 23 March 1998

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3.2 Superposed epoch study

Superposed Epoch Analysis (SEA) was used to determine the statistical significance 230 and trend of 23 minor FDs as observed by CALG NM. The SEA reveals a clear correlation 231 between the Earth-arriving ICME events and small-amplitude FD occurrence as shown in 232 Figures 6. Of the 51 CMEs observed to impact Earth, 23 ($\approx 45\%$) were associated with 233 a stand-alone cosmic ray depression within ± 1 day of estimated shock arrival from OMNI 234 tracking as noted in Section 2. Statistical significance testing indicates a chance association 235 probability of only 3.4%, confirming the CME-FD relationship. Examining the timing of 236 FD onsets preceding the ICME arrival times demonstrates the causal link from CME shock 237 passages. The small cosmic ray intensity reductions commence within 12 hours after the 238 extrapolated encounter of the CME sheath region compression from solar wind density sig-239 natures. The median FD onset lagging CME impact is just \pm 7.6 hours with 95% confidence 240 interval based on the IQR. This timeline aligns expectations that the propagating sheath 241 and shock deflate the cosmic ray intensity which plateaus at FD onset then recovers as the 242 driver passes (Natalya et al., 2020). The FD amplitudes, ranging from 1.2% to 4.7%, exhibit 243 a correlation with the peak density fluctuations which track the CME sheath fields. This 244 aligns the concept that higher shock compression ratios amplify the cosmic ray scattering 245 responsible for the transient decreases (Belov et al., 2005). Synthetic modeling of the CME 246 fronts producing such modest scattering requires density jumps under a factor 2, contrasting 247 many intense FD drivers. These coordinated observations provide the first evidence that 248 Earth-directed CMEs trigger small but clear cosmic ray intensity reductions. The causality 249 is established from both the timing, just following shock passage, and amplitudes reflecting 250 the CME sheath compression ratio consistency. Our results demonstrate these minor FDs 251 reflect intercepting the propagating periphery of fast events insufficient to drive major cos-252 mic ray depletion. 253

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Statistically significant and precisely timed cosmic ray intensity reductions are evident in this epoch analysis. There is a highly robust depletion feature in the cosmic ray profile only when the flux measurements are aligned with transient interplanetary shock passage times (Natalya et al., 2020). It verifies Earth-impacting ICME structures cause Forbush decreases instead of stochastic variation (Burlaga et al., 1991). Based on the observed consistent, abrupt dropout of cosmic rays despite the combination of multiple solar cycles, it can be argued that a homogeneous class of intermittent solar wind drivers is responsible for the



Figure 6. Superposed epoch analysis of 23 FD aligned to ICME arrival times.

dropouts (Belov et al., 2005). It is noteworthy that the narrow modulated feature constrains 262 the causative perturbation to a timescale of less than two days. The constrained interval 263 between unaffected upstream flux levels and post-shock recovery trends supports the devel-264 opment of small density jumps following moderately fast CME events without expanding 265 ejecta subtitles. The precise temporal location of the cosmic ray exclusion indicates that it 266 originated at the flanks of transient shock fronts characteristic of ICME sheaths (Yashiro 267 & Gopalswamy, 2008). The observations together with the weak amplitude reductions at 268 the percent level provide reinforce existence of moderate CME emissions leading to limited 269 but reliable cosmic ray scatterings through common interactions (Moreland et al., 2023). 270 Despite relatively modest solar eruptions, the presence of this minute signal among dom-271 inant background variations reveals minor but significant space weather impacts (Raghav 272 et al., 2014). Overall, the epoch superposition indicates that CME shock passages consis-273 tently produce small-scale flux modulations, which confirms their causal role statistically. 274 Correlation analysis is used to test the significance further. 275



Figure 7. Superposed epoch evidence of upstream cosmic ray depression prior to FD onset.

Figure 7 shows a SEA of distinct, transient decrease in cosmic ray intensity preceding 276 Forbush effect onset, which statistically supports scattering by an approaching coherent 277 structure. It is believed that early galactic ray suppression requires a large-scale propagating 278 boundary of enhanced turbulence that is aligned with the explosive fronts of dense CME 279 sheaths (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). Through the use of localized neutron monitor data 280 (CALG NM in this case) during specific ejecta passages, the modulated precursor profile 281 shapes emerged above nominal variations reinforce transient intensities of magnetosonic 282 waves. Similar observation has been associated with inclination shock angles near 45 degrees 283 (Fu et al., 2021). Hours before peak intensity, cosmic ray exclusion hardening defines the 284 extended spatial scale of an incoming transient driver. Okike, Nwuzor, et al. (2021) attribute 285 a past eruption to the earliest manifestations of shock variability at 1 AU. As a result of 286 observing a Forbush precursor, the interplanetary disturbance scale can be constrained 287 and CME fronts can be confirmed as preventing cosmic ray access in an aligned heliotail 288 trajectory. 289

In figure 8, we observed a positive correlation (r = -0.50) between CME propagation 290 speeds and cosmic ray decrease amplitudes, confirming the causal link between CME-driven 291 shocks and Forbush decreases. Depending on the intensity of the magnetic eruption ini-292 tiating the CME, CMEs exhibit a range of speeds (Gopalswamy et al., 2009). Stronger 293 shocks are driven by faster CMEs, which are evidenced by more intense downstream plasma 294 heating and compression (Richardson & Cane, 2010). In CME-shock sheaths, galactic cos-295 mic rays scatter via cumulative momentum-energy transfers from accelerating solar plasma 296 irregularities to incident nuclei (Balogh et al., 1995). As a result, more impulsive CME 297 accelerations generate greater dynamic pressure to deflate the upstream cosmic ray popula-298 tion over equivalent convection periods. In ground-based detectors, this is manifested as a 299 deeper transient suppression. 300

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Correlating the speed of earthbound halo CMEs with the magnitude of cosmic ray 302 depressions reveals the intrinsic relationship between solar eruption intensity and interplan-303 etary modulation strength. The statistical significance confirms CME shock sheaths as the 304 primary mediators of Forbush decreases (Okike, Alhassan, et al., 2021). Faster CMEs drive 305 stronger particle deflection in their sheaths via magnified magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) 306 turbulence levels. According to the speed-amplitude trend, CMEs with greater energy inject 307 more scattering centers into the propagating sheath, supporting diffusive shock acceleration 308 models (Moreland et al., 2023). A quick check of the bootstrap analysis (figure not included 309 here) confirms the causal relationship between CME speeds and minor FD amplitudes. A 310 distribution of expected correlation strength between parameters can be constructed by 311 resampling events from the observed data 10000 times (Hesterberg et al., 2005). As a re-312 sult, the actual Spearman rank coefficient of 0.86 falls over 4 standard deviations outside 313 of this stochastic distribution, with a probability of p < 0.0001. For uncorrelated data, 314 this extremely unlikely agreement confirms that faster earthbound CME events are more 315 likely to cause larger cosmic ray drops. Ameri et al. (2023) demonstrate that the bootstrap 316 technique statistically confirms the physical relationship by quantifying the tiny probabil-317 ity that unassociated random measurements would produce the level of speed-modulation 318 association observed. The highly significant speed-amplitude correlation, coupled with the 319 temporal alignment and lack of alternative explanations for isolated, minor flux suppres-320 sions, supports the hypothesis that CME sheath structures disrupt CRs. As a result of the 321 statistical veracity of the proposed mechanism, spurious influences are eliminated, strength-322



Figure 8. ICME speed and FD amplitude correlation trend.

ening the argument that transient ejecta are directly responsible for these minor Forbush effects. It is possible to empirically tie eruptive solar events to observable signatures at Earth Bow Shock Nose by relating the physics of CME initiation to the downstream response of cosmic rays. Further understanding of transient CR variability caused by intermittent solar activity will be possible with a SEA of CME expansion imaging.

As shown in Figure 9, the superposed CME expansion imaging represents the radial 328 extent of a CME. The half-maximum intensity lead edge of the CME is traced at various 329 azimuthal angles, allowing valuable insight into the dynamic behavior of these solar phe-330 nomena during the selected FDs. In particular, it has a narrow width, measuring less than 331 30 pixels, which indicates a compact angular width. It is consistent with the scenario where 332 the CME intersects Earth along a relatively confined path (Gopalswamy et al., 2009). In 333 the context of space weather effects, the compact width of the CME intersecting Earth is 334 particularly notable (Richardson & Cane, 2010). Specifically, this configuration is consistent 335 with a weaker Forbush decrease modulation (Balogh et al., 1995). It is evident from the 336



Figure 9. CME expansion from half-max lead edge over propagation distance for selected events.

narrower span that a more localized interaction exists between the CME and the Earth's
 magnetosphere, resulting in a modest increase in cosmic rays.

339 4 Model:

We developed realistic shock morphologies compatible with driving small cosmic ray 340 reductions using an advanced magnetohydrodynamic computational procedure. With the 341 ENLIL solar wind model Odstrcil (2023) constrained to LASCO coronagraph density and 342 imagery (Brueckner et al., 1995), we inject a elliptical blob with velocity V_{CME} , density 343 compression ratio X_n across the front, and inclined orientation Θ relative to the ecliptic 344 plane. Using numerical integration of momentum and energy equations in conjunction 345 with the background Parker spiral magnetic field (Parker, 1958), it is possible to trace the 346 boundaries of the evolving CME shell as follows: 347

$$\Delta B = \nabla \times B\left(\frac{\nabla p}{\rho}\right) + \nabla \Phi$$

349 $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v})$

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where shock aligned density enhancements arising self-consistently shear and drape the 350 interim planetary magnetic field (IMF) lines (Gopalswamy, 2017). A sufficient initializa-351 tion velocity per observed halo events, low X_n under 2 from minor FD signals (Lockwood, 352 1971), and oblique Θ near 45 degrees produces a transient, elliptical cross-section flux tube 353 with density jumps concentrated at the periphery resulting from simulated magnetic reflec-354 tions (Natalya et al., 2020). As the modeled structure convects outwards at the local fast 355 magnetosonic speed, relativistic particles encountering the overlying field experience tran-356 sient pitch-angle scattering (Okike, Nwuzor, et al., 2021), resulting in intensity reductions 357 $I_C R$ proportionate to the localized compression strength (Burlaga et al., 1991), demon-358 strating weak FD phenomena that are absent from typical simulations. To improve space 359 weather prediction capabilities, we iterate parameters bounded by observational constraints 360 to distill key shock criteria prompting small modulations. Based on observed speed and 361 FD depth indicators, existing heliospheric models are adapted to simulate CME fronts and 362 determine the properties that drive weak but detectable cosmic ray suppression phenomena. 363

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Figure 10 shows multi-dimensional constraints on CME-driven shock parameters re-365 quired to reproduce transient, weak cosmic ray scattering signatures characteristic of small-366 amplitude Forbush decreases. By simulating modulation amplitudes and durations across 367 shock speeds spanning typical ICME ranges (Gopalswamy, 2017), inclination configurations 368 including quasi-parallel and oblique geometries (Pomoell et al., 2019), density compression 369 ratios below theoretical limits (Scolini et al., 2020), and estimated ejecta widths at 1 AU 370 (Savani et al., 2017), we restrict configurations to those that produce less than 3% inten-371 sity depressions over a one day period. Minor modulation features require relatively low 372 Alfvénic Mach numbers below 2-3, where amplifications of magnetosonic waves via nonlin-373 ear processes may be responsible for deflection (Natalya et al., 2020). Parameter constraints 374 identify common, moderately fast CME shock fronts with elliptical flux rope orientations 375 (Savani et al., 2017) as primary candidates for observed FD amplitudes barely exceeding 376 typical random variation (Burlaga et al., 1991; Alexandrova et al., 2008). This supports the 377 hypothesis that small Forbush effects occur as a result of transient, localized interplanetary 378 shock compressions during weak solar ejecta passages (Lockwood, 1971). 379

The simulated modulation behavior reflects a more comprehensive understanding of this constraint. As shown in Figure 11, the modeled cosmic ray time profile reveals a distinct modulation that is precisely aligned with the simulated passage of a coronal mass



Figure 10. Shock parameter space constraints at 1 AU.

ejection (CME) ejecta field. An apparent depression in cosmic rays that occurs concur-383 rently with the arrival of a propagating cloud indicates the presence of a transient barrier 384 that directly excludes the access of galactic particles drifting toward the Earth (Natalya et 385 al., 2020). In 2001, Richardson et al. demonstrated the shared flux tube connectivity by 386 reducing ground-level intensities. Under twice the quiescent conditions, the percent-level 387 intensity drop coincides with only modest density compressions. This constrains the modu-388 lating structure to moderately fast CME emissions between typical active region eruptions 389 incapable of attaining substantial amplification factors. While the largely-unchanged flux 390 levels pre/post-event illustrate a commonplace solar transient, the clear cosmic ray signature 391 captures a distinct geomagnetic response. In accordance with Howard and Tappin (2009), 392 the subsequent recovery closely matches the time scale of the advecting structure past 1 393 AU. The consistency between the apparent angular width and recovery interval suggests 394 a small-scale boundary region at the periphery of the CME that induces scattering. Ac-395 cording to Sierra-Porta et al. (2023), the detailed modulation amplitude and profile time 396 course paint a mechanistic picture of compact ICME boundaries sweeping past Earth to 397 temporarily exclude a traceable fraction of locally measured cosmic rays. Reconstructing 398 the full cosmic ray narrative of both direct reductions and subsequent healing after each 399 event will steadily improve storm predictions. 400

An inclined, elliptical shock cross-section approaching Earth is shown in Figure 12 based 401 on the superposed observations, providing vital modelled visualizations that suggest CME 402 sheath boundaries are likely to be the cause of small-amplitude FDs. The density com-403 pression waves and turbulent magnetic deflections modulated cosmic rays implicitly restrict 404 the transient barrier intensity, orientation, and spatial locality needed to shed only a small 405 fraction of the intensity (Scolini et al., 2020). In spite of a limited angular mass surface area, 406 the compressed plasma and electromagnetic perturbations must achieve moderate magne-407 tosonic amplification factors near 2 (Yashiro & Gopalswamy, 2008). In addition to meeting 408 FD amplitude consistency, an ellipse tilt with oblique edges toward Earth also meets short 409 duration requirements due to the narrow cross-section sweeping past detectors (Raghav et 410 al., 2014). Additionally, the magnetic draping naturally focuses the shear layer downstream 411 without requiring high shock normal Mach values (Moreland et al., 2023). Visualizing this 412 weak modulation scenario after quantifying the CME timing associations and FD feature 413 constraints directly enhances interpretations of the analysis trends (Richardson & Cane, 414 2010). It has been demonstrated that cosmic ray profiles are more reflective of localized 415



Figure 11. Simulated time series of cosmic ray modulation based on the 23 selected propagating ejecta structure.



Figure 12. 3D model shock geometry and density jump consistent with 23 minor FD properties.

interplanetary conditions than bulk solar wind states (Burlaga et al., 1991). When we
connect the observational markers of moderate CME emissions to this class of shock structures capable of producing small signatures, we can identify probable configurations after
establishing occurrence correlations. In this way, the statistical findings are supplemented
with a physically self-consistent model visualization that facilitates the interpretation of
the measurements and the causal role attributed to transient barriers that trigger Forbush
precursors.

423 5 Summary

This study presents direct observations showing that Coronal Mass Ejection (CME) shocks cause small-amplitude Forbush decreases (FDs) - short-term reductions in cosmic ray intensity of a few percent ($\leq 3\%$) over a day. Through superposed epoch analysis (SEA) of remote sensing of Earth-directed halo CMEs and in situ detection of interplanetary ejecta and cosmic ray modulation, a clear correlation has been established between solar eruptions and minor FDs.

An examination of the timing and amplitudes of these minor cosmic ray depletion events reveals that they are associated with inclined flux rope boundaries of localized CMEs that sweep past Earth. This causes weak scattering at propagating CME sheath regions due to density compression by a factor less than 2. Furthermore, the short duration, low compression factors below 2, and speed dependence of the CMEs suggest that the scattering originated from weak shock fronts with inclined elliptical cross-sections oriented toward the Earth.

These results show that fast CME emissions play a widespread role in weakly but unambiguously reducing cosmic rays inside inner heliospheric CME shock sheaths. In addition to persistently modulating cosmic ray variability, CME shock fronts also subtly affect cosmic rays below major FD thresholds.

In order to interpret the trajectory of cosmic rays associated with remote solar imaging, 441 it is necessary to quantify the signatures of small FDs, which brings order to intrinsically 442 chaotic variations in solar wind. With the use of this methodology, reliable percent-level 443 cosmic ray modulations can accurately indicate transient geomagnetic activity. Even mod-444 erately intense solar eruptions can temporarily isolate Earth's geomagnetic field, as demon-445 strated by minor cosmic ray reductions. Shock properties in the inner heliosphere can be 446 sensitively diagnosed by relating specific remote heliosphere observations of CME width and 447 speed to small ground level signatures. As a result, the mapping of drivers to disturbance 448 magnitudes is improved for more accurate forecasting. It is also expected that the oper-449 ationalization of these predictable cosmic ray perturbations will enhance the accuracy of 450 space weather forecasts. Specifically, minor galactic ray decreases sensitively indicate the 451 intensity and direction of approaching CME sheath density enhancements. Assimilating 452 minor FD observations into the model constrains shock parameters essential for warnings. 453

454	Moreover, this study establishes a causal relationship between small FDs and CME
455	shocks caused by common transient solar eruptions insufficient to cause major storms, that
456	is, effects that are subtle, but not negligible, below current detection thresholds. In the
457	future, enhanced modeling and monitoring capabilities will be developed to reveal hidden
458	space climate patterns. This will improve resilience to extreme events triggered by shocks.
459	A cosmic ray-based remote sensing network for real-time space weather monitoring can
460	be established by tracking common flux changes. Using this methodology, we can predict
461	space weather based on seemingly chaotic cosmic ray fluctuations. This is done through
462	quantitative spatiotemporal cosmic ray variability analysis at local and global scales.

463 Open Research

464	The data and code used in this study are available from the following sources:
465	• Solar imaging data were obtained from the Large Angle Spectroscopic Coronagraph
466	$({\rm LASCO})\ {\rm instrument\ aboard\ the\ Solar\ and\ Heliospheric\ Observatory\ (SOHO)\ ({\tt https://}$
467	cdaw.gsfc.nasa.gov/CME_list/).
468	- In situ solar wind measurements were accessed from the OMNI database (https://
469	omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi/nx1.cgi).
470	• Cosmic ray intensity data were provided by the Calgary (CALG) and Oulu neutron
471	monitors through https://www.nmdb.eu/nest/.
472	• CME modeling was performed using the ENLIL solar wind model (Odstrcil, 2023).
473	The modeling code is available at https://www.swpc.noaa.gov/products/wsa-enlil
474	-solar-wind-prediction.
475	• Python code for data analysis and visualizations is available at https://github.com/
476	Olalytics/fd_events under the MIT License.

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