

1 A Test of Energetic Particle Precipitation Models Using Simultaneous Incoherent Scatter Radar
2 and Van Allen Probes Observations

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12 **Key points**

- 13 • Comparison between observed and modeled density for electron precipitation due to
14 wave-particle interactions in the magnetosphere
- 15 • Comparison verifies the validity of D-region electron density predicted by pitch-angle
16 diffusion models of wave-particle interaction
- 17 • Observed electron profiles are obtained with an incoherent scatter radar mode especially
18 designed to optimize measurements in the D-region

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Quantification of energetic electron precipitation caused by wave-particle interactions is
22 fundamentally important to understand the cycle of particle energization and loss of the radiation
23 belts. One important way to determine how well the wave-particle interaction models predict
24 losses through pitch-angle scattering into the atmospheric loss cone is the direct comparison
25 between the ionization altitude profiles expected in the atmosphere due to the precipitating fluxes
26 and the ionization profiles actually measured with incoherent scatter radars. This paper reports
27 such a comparison using a forward propagation of loss-cone electron fluxes, calculated with the
28 electron pitch angle diffusion model applied to Van Allen Probes measurements, coupled with
29 the Boulder Electron Radiation to Ionization (BERI) model, which propagates the fluxes into the
30 atmosphere. The density profiles measured with the Poker Flat Incoherent Scatter Radar
31 operating in modes especially designed to optimize measurements in the D-region, show
32 multiple instances of quantitative agreement with predicted density profiles from precipitation of
33 electrons caused by wave-particle interactions in the inner magnetosphere. There are two
34 several-minute long intervals of close prediction-observation approximation in the 65-93 km
35 altitude range. These results indicate that the whistler wave-electron interactions models are
36 realistic and produce precipitation fluxes of electrons with energies between 10 keV to >100 keV
37 that are consistent with observations.

38 **Plain language summary**

39 Establishing how electromagnetic waves in the magnetosphere push high-energy electrons into a
40 funnel directed toward Earth along magnetic field lines is a critically important step to predict
41 how electrons are lost into the atmosphere during geomagnetic storms.

42 Wave-electron interaction models predict the number of electrons that are funneled toward Earth
43 from a set of in-situ spacecraft measurements. As the electrons hurl into the upper atmosphere,
44 ionization models predict how many electrons would be released by the neutral atmosphere due
45 to the bombardment from funneled electrons. Electron density measurements with a radar
46 especially tuned to optimize detection of electron densities in the upper atmosphere can be
47 compared to predicted electron densities to determine the validity of the electron loss models.

48 This paper reports a comparison for an interval of time when a Van Allen Probe spacecraft is
49 measuring the waves and electrons at a location that would guarantee that the electrons would
50 fall near the radar's location in Poker Flat, Alaska. The comparison shows that the models
51 considered predict the correct number of electrons in multiple instances, thus establishing an
52 important step in verifying the validity of the models of electron loss during geomagnetic storms.

53

54 1. Introduction

55 One of the most important and challenging issues in radiation belt physics at the present time is
56 understanding the balance between acceleration of electrons up to relativistic energies and losses
57 out of the system. The precipitation of energetic electrons from the radiation belts into the
58 atmosphere is one of the most important loss mechanisms. It acts as a regulator of radiation belt
59 energy fluxes and, when penetrating into the atmosphere, causes compositional changes to the
60 lower thermosphere, mesosphere and upper stratosphere (e.g., Turunen et al., 2009; Millan et al.,
61 2013).

62 Current theories of particle precipitation assume that energetic particles in the magnetosphere
63 precipitate into the atmosphere after undergoing pitch-angle scattering into the loss cone due to
64 interactions with plasma waves near the geomagnetic equator (e.g., Thorne, 2010; Millan and
65 Thorne, 2007; Millan et al., 2013). Several plasma waves are known to be able to scatter electrons
66 into the atmospheric loss cone through pitch angle diffusion. Three wave modes are considered
67 to be particularly dominant in driving this scattering, namely extremely-low- to very-low
68 frequency (ELF/VLF) whistler-mode chorus, ELF/VLF plasmaspheric hiss and electromagnetic
69 ion-cyclotron (EMIC) waves (e.g., Millan and Thorne, 2007). Whistler-mode chorus waves are
70 discrete whistler emissions observed outside the plasmasphere in the frequency range between
71 the lower hybrid and the electron cyclotron frequencies, $f_{LHR} - f_{ce}$ (~ 100 Hz–10 kHz), where f_{ce} and
72 f_{LHR} are equatorial electron gyrofrequency and the lower hybrid resonance frequency, respectively.
73 Waves generated at the equator pitch-angle scatter 0.1-1 keV electrons that generate diffuse aurora
74 (Thorne et al., 2010) and $\gtrsim 10$ keV electrons that generate pulsating aurora (Nishimura et al.,
75 2010). Waves propagating to higher latitude pitch-angle scatter electrons with ~ 100 keV to 1 MeV
76 energies (Lorentzen et al., 2001; Horne and Thorne, 2003). Chorus waves are thus expected to

77 cause electron precipitation over a wide range of energies (Ma et al., 2020). Plasmaspheric hiss is a
78 broadband ELF (100 Hz-few kHz) whistler mode emission occurring mostly in the high-density
79 plasmasphere and drainage plumes (Thorne et al., 1973). EMIC waves can occur in three distinct
80 bands: hydrogen band between the He⁺ and H⁺ gyrofrequencies, helium band between the O⁺ and
81 He⁺ gyrofrequencies, and oxygen band below the O⁺ gyrofrequency. EMIC waves are theorized to
82 efficiently scatter relativistic electrons into the loss-cone through Doppler-shifted resonances
83 (Albert, 2003; Summers and Thorne, 2003). The importance of EMIC waves as a scattering source
84 of outer radiation belt relativistic electrons has been demonstrated although the scattering
85 efficiency could strongly depend on the modeling parameters (e.g., *Zhang et al.*, 2016; *Ross et al.*,
86 2020).

87 Experimental verification of the electron atmospheric loss has been focused on correlative
88 studies using particle and optical measurements from the ground, or particle measurements at
89 low-altitude orbit, and in-situ measurements of waves and particles in the inner magnetosphere.
90 Several case studies have revealed a close correlation between electron precipitation, visualized
91 using measurements from ground-based optical cameras, and chorus waves, measured near the
92 inner-magnetosphere equator (Nishimura et al., 2010; Kasahara et al., 2018; Ozaki et al., 2019).
93 Other studies have established correlation between low-altitude spacecraft observations of
94 electron precipitation and observations of chorus waves near the equator (Lorentzen et al., 2001;
95 Breneman et al., 2017). Studies coordinating ground-based riometers or balloon-mounted X-ray
96 detectors with spacecraft observations have established correlation between chorus waves and
97 Bremsstrahlung X-ray emissions in the upper atmosphere (Rosenberg et al., 1971; Millan et al.,
98 2013). Observations of microbursts with low-orbiting spacecraft, coincident with chorus

99 observations near the equator have demonstrated a direct link between relativistic electron
100 microbursts and chorus waves (Mozer et al., 2018; Breneman et al., 2017).

101 EISCAT Tromso Incoherent scatter radar (ISR) measurements of density in the lower ionosphere,
102 coordinated with Van Allen Probes measurements of waves and particles were carried out by
103 Miyoshi et al. (2015) to determine whether there is a correlation between the chorus-induced loss-
104 cone flux of electrons near the equatorial inner magnetosphere and the electron density observed in
105 the ionospheric D- and E-regions, between ~68 km and ~190 km. Qualitative similarity between
106 the electron energy spectra in the energy range between ~10 of keV and ~100 keV, inferred from
107 ISR observations averaged over a 22-minute interval, and the averaged spectra observed with Van
108 Allen Probe-A suggests that the magnetospheric electron population fills the loss-cone under the
109 strong-diffusion limit. Similarity between the same ISR-inferred energy spectra and the spectra
110 predicted by the by a test-particle simulation scaled to match Van Allen Probe's particle
111 measurements at the launch point, suggests that whistler chorus is responsible for the observed
112 lower-energy portion of the energy spectra of precipitating electrons.

113 This communication presents the first direct quantitative comparison between the ISR-measured
114 electron density profiles and the electron density profiles predicted by a forward electron transport
115 model that propagates the loss-cone flux, launched by the whistler-electron interaction near the
116 magnetospheric equator, from the topside ionosphere down to the D-region. The wave-particle
117 interaction that predicts the topside precipitating flux is calculated by applying the UCLA wave-
118 particle Full Diffusion Code to Van Allen Probe particle and wave measurements. The density
119 measurements were made with an incoherent scatter radar mode optimized for the estimation of
120 spectra in the collision-dominated D-region ionosphere, capable of measurements with sub-
121 kilometer spatial resolution and ~1-minute temporal resolution.

122 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the three-step method of analysis. Section
123 3 describes the characteristics of the storm event where the conjunction develops. Section 4
124 describes the results of the comparison between observed and predicted density profiles. Section
125 5 discusses the implications of the comparisons.

126

127 2. Method of Analysis

128 The comparison of PFISR-observed profiles with predicted profiles in each conjunction interval
129 is achieved with a three-step procedure. The first step is the calculation of loss-cone electron flux
130 using the UCLA wave-particle Full Diffusion Code, propagated to the ionosphere at 500 km. The
131 second step is the calculation of the electron density produced by the precipitating flux as a
132 function of altitude using the Boulder Electron Radiation to Ionization (BERI) model. In the final
133 step the electron density altitude profiles observed with the Poker Flat ISR (PFISR) are
134 compared with the electron density profiles predicted with the BERI model.

135 **Electron Precipitation Modeling.** In the first step, we use the Van Allen Probes observations
136 and quasi-linear theory to model the electron loss-cone fluxes driven by whistler mode chorus
137 waves near the equatorial magnetosphere. The Helium Oxygen Proton Electron (HOPE) plasma
138 spectrometer (Funsten et al., 2013) and the Magnetic Electron Ion Spectrometer (MagEIS) (Blake
139 et al., 2013) instruments measure the electron fluxes at 15 eV – 50 keV energies and $\sim 4.5^\circ - 90^\circ$
140 pitch angles, and the fluxes at 33 keV – 4 MeV energies and $\sim 8^\circ - 90^\circ$ pitch angles, respectively.
141 The Electric and Magnetic Field Instrument Suite (EMFISIS) instrument (Kletzing et al., 2013)
142 measures the wave electric field and magnetic field intensities and background magnetic fields.
143 The double-probe electric field instrument obtains two data components perpendicular to the spin
144 axis of the satellite and one component parallel to the spin axis, ranging in frequency from DC to

145 400 kHz. The magnetometer data has two frequency regimes: the fluxgate, which has frequency
146 coverage from DC to 32 Hz, and the triaxial search coil, which can cover frequencies up to 12
147 kHz. Both magnetometers are in the same frame of reference as the electric field instruments.
148 The whistler-mode waves are measured by the Waveform Receiver (WFR) at frequencies from
149 ~10 Hz to 12 kHz. The wave polarization properties are provided through the Singular Value
150 Decomposition method, including the wave normal angle, ellipticity, planarity, and degree of
151 polarization. The total electron density is inferred by identifying the upper hybrid resonance
152 frequency line measured by the High Frequency Receiver (Kurth et al., 2015). We automatically
153 select the whistler mode waves by requiring the wave ellipticity to be higher than 0.7 and degree
154 of polarization to be higher than 0.7. During the event analyzed in this paper, the quasi-parallel
155 and oblique wave components are selected by requiring the wave normal angle to be smaller and
156 higher than 45° , respectively, to account for the different properties of the two groups of chorus
157 waves.

158 The bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients are calculated using the UCLA Full Diffusion Code
159 (Ni et al., 2008, 2011), at each time of the whistler mode wave observation by Van Allen Probes.
160 The wave frequency spectrum is obtained from the selected chorus wave intensities. The Van
161 Allen Probes observation of background magnetic field and total electron density are used in the
162 diffusion coefficients calculations. We assume that the wave normal angle distribution follows a
163 Gaussian function, i.e., proportional to $\exp\left(-\left(\frac{\tan\theta - \tan\theta_m}{\tan\theta_w}\right)^2\right)$, where $\theta_{min} \leq \theta \leq \theta_{max}$, at the
164 latitude range from equator to the maximum latitude λ_{max} . For quasi-parallel propagating chorus
165 waves, we assume that $\theta_m = 0^\circ$, $\theta_w = 30^\circ$, $\theta_{min} = 0^\circ$, $\theta_{max} = 45^\circ$, and $\lambda_{max} = 30^\circ$; for oblique
166 chorus waves, we assume $\theta_m = 65^\circ$, $\theta_w = 30^\circ$, $\theta_{min} = 45^\circ$, $\theta_{max} = 75^\circ$, and $\lambda_{max} = 10^\circ$. Ten
167 orders of harmonic resonances and Landau resonance are considered ($-10 \leq N \leq 10$, where N is

168 the harmonic number). We also consider the electron scattering due to Coulomb collision with
 169 atmospheric molecules and charged particles (*Abel and Thorne, 1998*).

170 Assuming a quasi-equilibrium pitch angle distribution of electrons, the ratio between the average
 171 electron flux inside the loss cone and the flux just outside the loss cone ($\chi(E) = J_{prec}/J_{out}$) can
 172 be estimated using the bounce-averaged pitch angle diffusion coefficient at the loss cone
 173 ($\langle D_{\alpha\alpha} \rangle_{LC}$) and the strong diffusion rate ($D_{SD} = 2 \cdot \alpha_{LC}^2 / \tau_B$) as:

$$174 \quad \chi(E) = \frac{2 \int_0^1 I_0[Z_0 \cdot \tau] \cdot \tau \cdot d\tau}{I_0[Z_0]}, \quad (1)$$

175 where $Z_0 = \sqrt{D_{SD} / \langle D_{\alpha\alpha} \rangle_{LC}}$, α_{LC} is the pitch angle at the bounce loss cone, τ_B is the bounce
 176 period, I_0 is the modified Bessel function of the first kind, and τ is an integration variable. The
 177 ratio $\chi(E)$ is defined as the loss cone filling index after *Ni et al. (2014)*. The energy spectrum of
 178 precipitating electron flux (J_{prec}) is obtained using the loss cone filling index and the flux just
 179 outside the loss-cone (J_{out}) obtained from observation. The characteristic precipitating energy E_c
 180 is calculated as:

$$181 \quad E_c = \frac{\int_{E_{min}}^{E_{max}} J_{prec} \cdot E \cdot dE}{\int_{E_{min}}^{E_{max}} J_{prec} \cdot dE}. \quad (2)$$

182 The total precipitating energy flux at the ionosphere is

$$183 \quad Q = \pi \int_{E_{min}}^{E_{max}} J_{prec} \cdot E \cdot dE, \quad (3)$$

184 following *Liang et al. (2011)* and *Clark et al. (2018)*. The modeled average precipitating flux of
 185 electrons (J_{prec}) is mapped to 500 km altitude. We assume an isotropic electron pitch angle
 186 distribution within the pitch angle of loss cone, due to the large pitch angle diffusion coefficients
 187 induced by intense whistler mode wave scattering and Coulomb collision. The pitch angle

188 scattering rate due to Coulomb collision inside the loss cone is larger or comparable to the strong
189 diffusion limit at energies below tens of keV at $L = 6$. Ma et al. (2021) has shown the
190 consistency between the calculated J_{prec} and results from Fokker Planck simulation, after a quasi-
191 equilibrium state of electron pitch angle distribution is formed near the loss cone.

192 **Ionization Modeling.** The second step of the procedure is to determine the ionization profiles in
193 the E- and D-region caused by fluxes and spectra of loss-cone electrons propagated from the
194 VAP location along the magnetic field to 500 km altitude. The energy and pitch angle
195 distribution of precipitation fluxes determined from the first step are used to calculate the
196 ionization production using the Boulder Electron Radiation to Ionization (BERI) model (Xu et
197 al., 2020). This model is largely based on a lookup table of atmospheric ionization production by
198 monoenergetic electrons with energies between 3 keV and 33 MeV, and pitch angles between 0°
199 and 90° . This lookup table was developed using physics-based Monte Carlo simulations
200 (Lehtinen et al., 1999), and allows rapid and accurate specification of ionization production by
201 arbitrary precipitation energy and pitch angle distribution in any atmospheric condition. The
202 mass density profile of background atmosphere is calculated using the NRLMSISE-00 model
203 (Picone et al., 2002) for the date, latitude and longitude of PFISR measurements.

204 After obtaining the ionization production using the BERI model, we simulate the electron density
205 change at altitudes below 150 km using the Glukhov, Pasko, and Inan (GPI) chemistry model.
206 The GPI model is a five-species model that includes electrons, heavy and light positive ions, and
207 heavy and light negative ions (Lehtinen and Inan, 2007). This model has been extensively used
208 in studies related to D-region electron density changes due to transient luminous events or
209 radiation belt precipitation (e.g., Marshall et al., 2019). Although simplified using five species,
210 this model, in general, provides consistent results with the Sodankylä Ion Chemistry (SIC) model

211 (Marshall et al., 2019). The background ionosphere used in GPI simulation is calculated using
212 the International Reference Ionosphere (IRI) model (Bilitza, 2001), at the date, latitude, and
213 longitude of PFISR measurements.

214 **PFISR-BERI Comparison.** The third step is the direct comparison between the electron density
215 profiles inferred with the transport model and the E- and the D-region electron density profiles
216 measured with the Incoherent Scatter Radar located at the Poker Flat Research Range (65.13° N,
217 147.47° W). PFISR is a remotely operated, phased-array radar with pulse-to-pulse steering
218 capability (Nicolls et al., 2007; Heinselman and Nicolls, 2008). During expected VAP-PFISR
219 conjunction events, the radar is operated in modes optimized for the estimation of spectra in the
220 collision-dominated D-region ionosphere. The spectrum in this regime can be represented as a
221 Lorentzian distribution with increasing spectral width and amplitude as a function of altitude
222 (Dougherty and Farley, 1963; Mathews, 1978; Nicolls et al., 2010). For typical D-region
223 parameters the spectral width of this type of distribution is between tens and hundreds of Hz,
224 which is much narrower than kHz bandwidths in the E- and F-region. The narrow bandwidth,
225 which corresponds to a long decorrelation in the time domain, combined with the proximity of
226 the ionospheric target region (~50-100 km) makes possible the application of pulse-to-pulse
227 radar processing schemes. The observations reported here use a 13 baud, 10 μ s baud barker code
228 oversampled at 5 μ s (750 m spatial resolution). The experiment uses a 2 ms inter-pulse period
229 (IPP), meaning the pulse-to-pulse spectra have a Nyquist limit of 250 Hz, and spectra are
230 processed using zero-padded periodograms of 128 pulses (3.9 Hz spectral resolution). The ion-
231 line ISR spectrum can only be observed when the radar's Bragg wavelength is long compared to
232 the electron Debye length, and for PFISR operating frequency of 449.3 MHz and a typical D-
233 region electron temperature of 200 K this limit is encountered at densities of $\sim 3 \times 10^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. In

234 practice PFISR does not have sufficient sensitivity to detect densities down to the Debye length
235 limit, and the detection limit varies between 10^3 cm^{-3} and 10^4 cm^{-3} depending on the spectral
236 width and target range, with narrower-bandwidth and shorter-range targets being easier to detect.
237 Above ~ 90 km altitude, frequency aliasing prevents estimation of the spectrum using pulse-to-
238 pulse processing, but the total scattered power can still be measured. The D-region mode used
239 for this study uses four beam positions: vertical, magnetic-field-aligned, and two outrigger beams
240 pointed northwest and east-north-east, respectively. The magnetic-field-aligned beam
241 measurements are used in the present comparisons because the orientation of this beam is closest
242 to the foot-point of both Van Allen Probes' orbits at the time of the conjunction.

243

244 **3. VAP-PFISR Conjunction of May 8, 2018**

245 The event of interest involves a conjunction between PFISR and both Van Allen Probes in the
246 pre-dawn sector. During the entire conjunction both Van Allen Probes were near their respective
247 orbit apogee and remained in close proximity to each other, with Probe-B sampling the same L-
248 shell and similar MLT approximately 30 minutes ahead of Probe-A during 1400-1600 UT
249 (Figure 1). The radar's location projects to a magnetospheric equatorial location of $L \sim 5.3$, ~ 6.2
250 R_e or ~ 6.9 , depending on the application of the T89, T02 or T96 Tsyganenko magnetic field
251 models respectively (Tsyganenko, 1989, 1996, 2002) for the moderate storm conditions observed
252 on May 8, 2018 (3 nPa dynamic pressure, 600 km/s solar wind speed, Dst = -30 nT, Kp = 2).
253 Depending on the mapping used, the radar location's projection is either $\sim 1 R_e$ closer to Earth or
254 $\sim 0.5 R_e$ farther from Earth than the apogee of the Van Allen Probes ($L \sim 6.4$). The closest
255 proximity between the probes' foot-points and PFISR's field-aligned beam at 100 km altitude is
256 ~ 300 km, achieved at 1430 UT for VAP-B, and ~ 350 km at 1445 UT for VAP-A. However, the

257 situation reverses after ~1445 UT when VAP-B's foot-point starts to have a broader separation
 258 from PFISR than VAP-A.
 259 The conjunction occurred during a storm caused by a high-speed solar stream and started with a
 260 sudden impulse at 1030 UT on May 5 (Figure 2). The storm continued for several days, during
 261 which the solar wind speed stayed at ~600 km/s. The SuperMAG Ring current (SMR) index
 262 reached a minimum of -65 nT at the beginning of May 6 and multiple recurring westward
 263 electrojet intensifications with SML < -500 nT. The PFISR-VAP conjunction interval occurred
 264 during the storm recovery and was embedded in an interval of westward electrojet intensification
 265 with a minimum SML (lower envelope of the SuperMAG Auroral Electrojet index) value of -800
 266 nT (Figure 3).

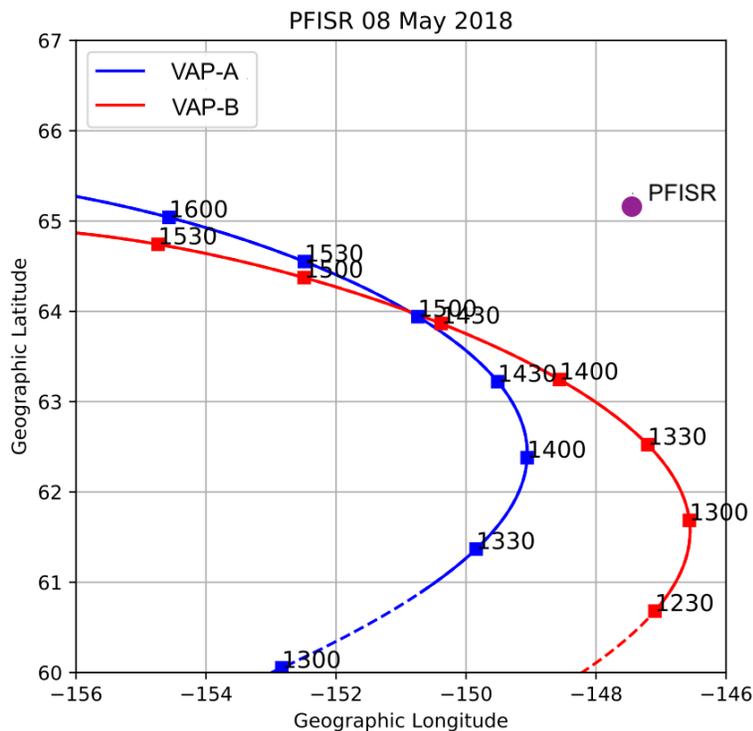


Figure 1. Track of VAP orbits' foot-points relative to PFISR vertical beam at 100 km altitude in geographic coordinates.

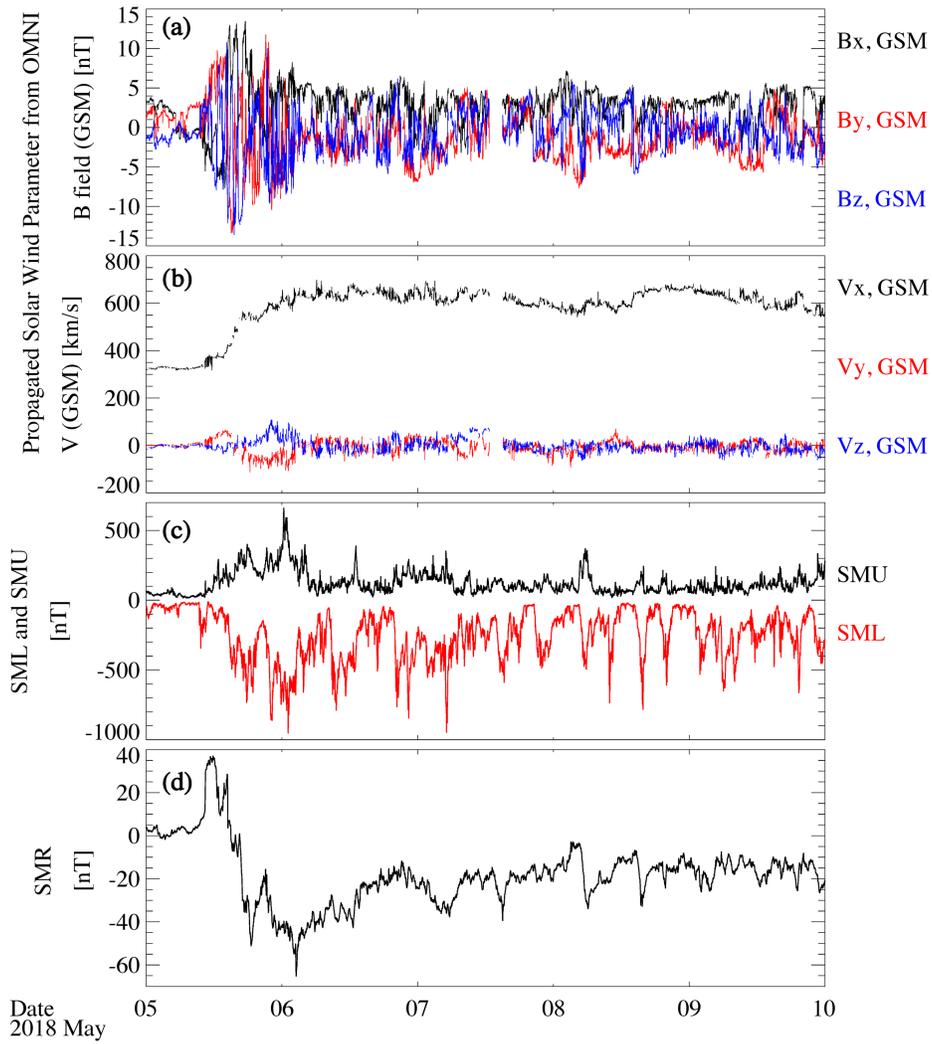


Figure 2. Interplanetary magnetic field (a), solar wind parameters (b), SME U/L indices (c) and SMR index (d) during the high-speed streamer storm that started on 5 May, 2018.

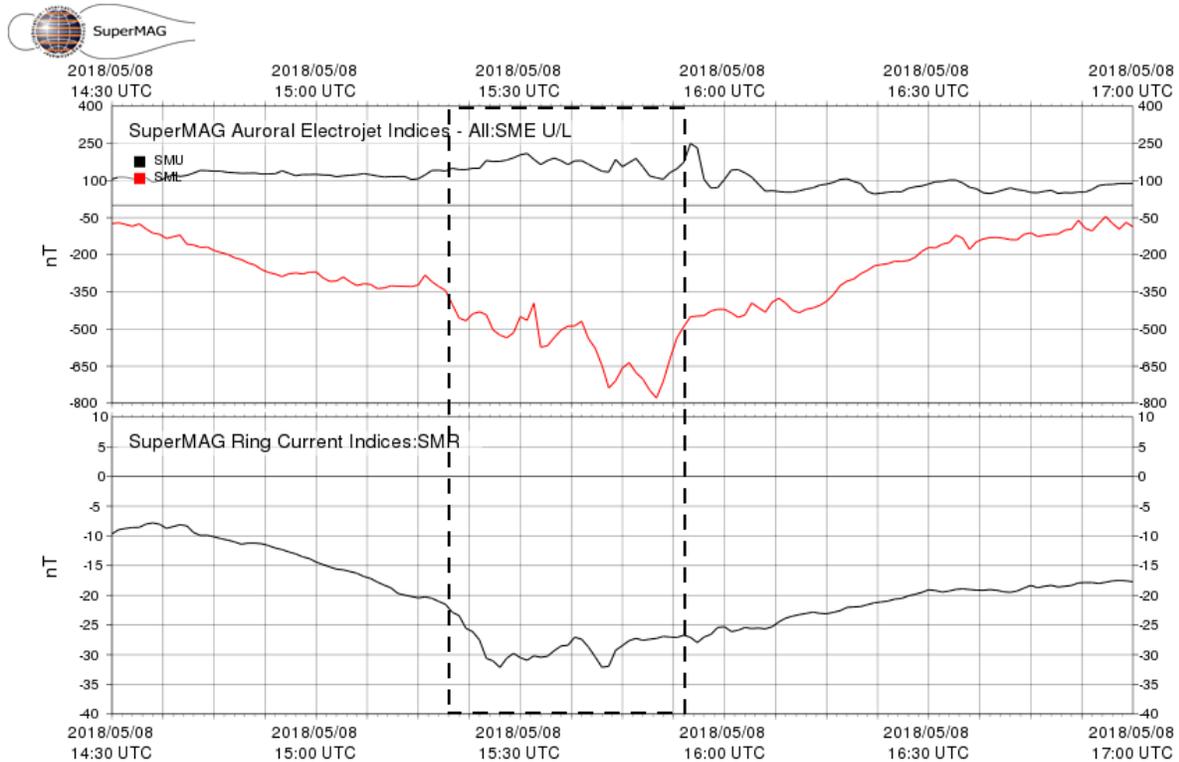


Figure 3. SME U/L indices (top panel) and SMR index for the PFISR-VAP conjunction period of 8 May, 2018. The dashed box indicates the span of the PFISR-VAP conjunction interval analyzed.

269

270 The Van Allen Probes were located outside the plasmapause as indicated by the low total
 271 electron densities ($1\text{--}3\text{ cm}^{-3}$) observed during 1430 – 1700 UT (Figures 4a and 4h). Figures 4b
 272 and 4i show that the chorus waves observed by both VAP spacecraft are very similar to each
 273 other. Whistler wave activity in the frequency range from 200 Hz to approximately 2 kHz was
 274 observed between 1510 UT and 1640 UT on both spacecraft. The wave power is concentrated in
 275 two bands. One at approximately 1 kHz, which is below one half the equatorial electron
 276 cyclotron frequency at VAP’s location, and another that starts at 300 Hz and shifts to higher
 277 frequency until it merges with the first band toward 1555 UT. The chorus waves are quasi-field-

278 aligned with wave normal angles mostly below 30° (Figures 4c and 4j), except for an oblique
279 wave burst observed during 1525 – 1540 UT at ~ 1 kHz. For the quasi-parallel propagating
280 chorus waves, we selected the most intense chorus wave power that is expected to effectively
281 precipitate electrons by requiring the wave ellipticity to be higher than 0.7, degree of polarization
282 higher than 0.7, wave normal angle lower than 45° , and wave intensity larger than 10^{-8} nT²/Hz.
283 The oblique propagating chorus waves were selected using the same criteria except for requiring
284 the wave normal angle higher than 45° . The largest amplitude of chorus waves reached above 10
285 pT over all but a few minutes, and peaks above 100 pT intermittently over several minutes, in the
286 interval between 1520 UT and 1555 UT for both spacecraft (Figures 4d and 4k). This interval is
287 the focus of the comparison between predicted and observed electron density profiles.
288 The pitch angle diffusion coefficients of electrons (Figures 4e and 4l) are calculated using the
289 observed chorus wave frequency spectra. Since the intense chorus waves with small wave
290 normal angles are observed at $\sim 10^\circ$ magnetic latitude, we assumed that the latitude range of
291 quasi-parallel propagating chorus waves is between the equator and 30° . The latitude range of
292 oblique chorus waves is assumed to be between the equator and 10° . The bounce-averaged
293 diffusion coefficients reach ~ 0.1 s⁻¹ when chorus waves are strong, exceeding the strong
294 diffusion limit near the energies of electron cyclotron resonance (e.g., ~ 50 -100 keV energy
295 during 1530-1540 UT observed by Probe A).
296 The energy spectrograms of electron fluxes (Figures 4f and 4m) show significant flux
297 enhancement with clear energy dispersion at 20 – 200 keV energies, indicating an electron
298 injection event occurring simultaneously with chorus wave intensification. The energy spectrum
299 of precipitating electron flux (Figures 4g and 4n) is modeled using the observed electron flux and
300 the diffusion coefficients at the loss cone pitch angle. The most significant electron precipitation

301 is modeled during 1520 – 1555 UT, and the energy of precipitation varies with the wave
 302 frequency. In general, the chorus waves at ~ 1 kHz cause the electron precipitation at $\sim 20 - 40$
 303 keV energies, and the waves at $\sim 300 - 600$ Hz cause the precipitation at $\sim 60 - 200$ keV energies.

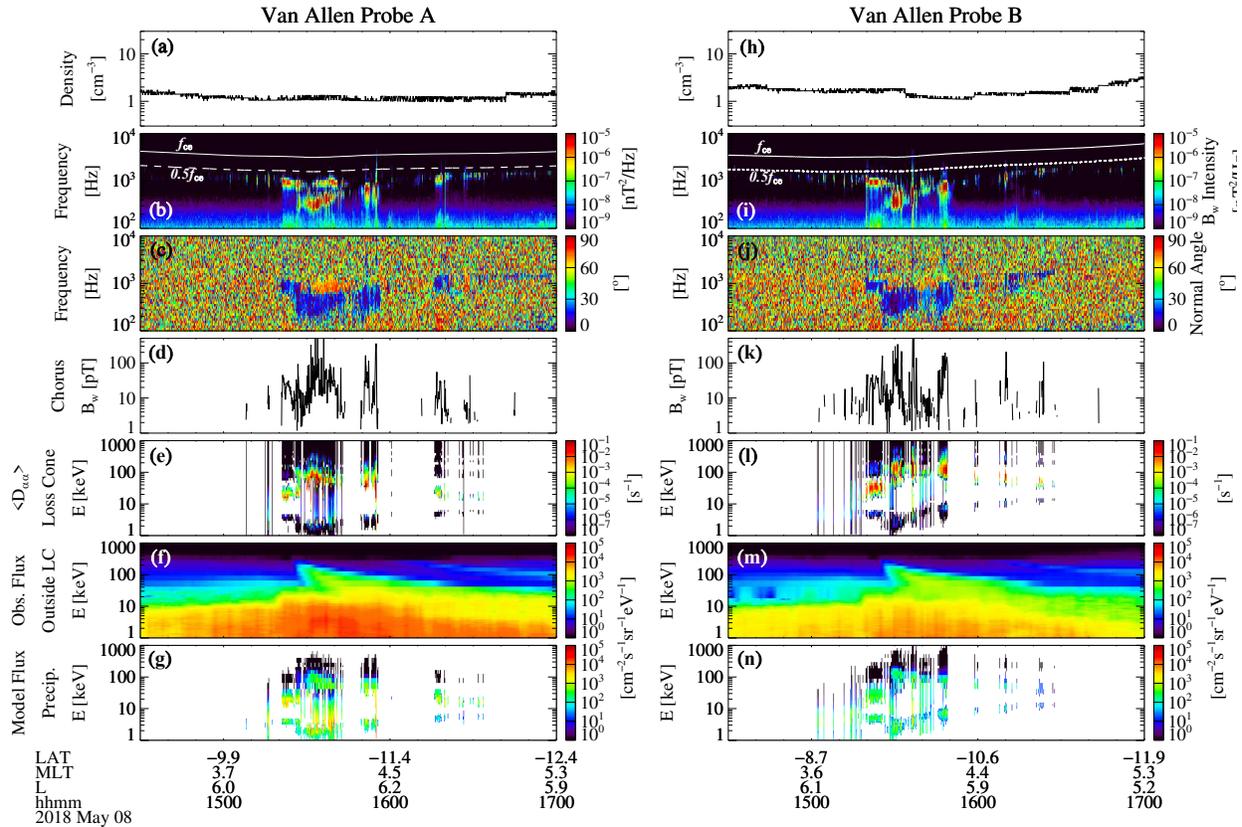


Figure 4. VAP-A measurements of (a) total electron density inferred from the upper hybrid line in the HFR spectrogram, (b) magnetic field power spectra with white solid and dashed lines representing equatorial electron gyrofrequency (f_{ce}) and $0.5f_{ce}$, (c) wave normal angle, (d) chorus wave amplitude, (e) pitch angle diffusion coefficients at the equatorial pitch angle of the bounce loss cone in the 1-1,000 keV energy range, (f) electron flux in the 1-1,000 keV energy range using HOPE below 30 keV and MagEIS above 30 keV, (g) modeled precipitating electron flux from 1-1,000 keV using the UCLA full diffusion code. (h-n) VAP-B particle and wave measurements and the diffusion modeling results for the same time interval and format.

305 4. PFISR-UCLA-BERI Comparisons

306 Figure 5 shows a comparison between the estimated electron density (N_e) at altitude h obtained
307 from fitting the PFISR spectra (top panel) and the N_e predicted from the UCLA-BERI forward
308 propagation for VAP-A (bottom panel), in the entire conjunction interval.

309 Figure 5 (top) shows the estimated electron density obtained from fitting the PFISR spectra. In
310 the collision dominated D-region the incoherent scatter spectrum becomes Lorentzian with a
311 spectral width that is inversely proportional to the ion-neutral collision frequency [Nicolls et al.
312 2010]. The spectra become exponentially narrower with decreasing altitude, which enables easier
313 detection of low electron densities at lower altitudes. The fitting procedure uses a Levenberg-
314 Marquardt nonlinear least squares algorithm to estimate four parameters for each altitude:
315 electron density (N_e), line-of-sight Doppler velocity (V_D), spectral width (γ), and the noise level
316 (N). The procedure fits all altitudes simultaneously, and the noise levels are regularized to be
317 close to an a priori measured noise from long ranges. Fitting for the noise level allows the
318 algorithm to compensate for small range-dependent noise contributions in the radar, range-
319 aliased F-region returns, and broad-band interference. Furthermore, the algorithm uses the full
320 covariance matrix of the calculated spectrum and propagates that covariance into the a-posteriori
321 error estimates of the fitted parameters. After fitting the incoherent scatter spectra we filter the
322 results based on heuristic acceptance criteria that indicate genuine detections of a Lorentzian IS
323 spectrum. We accept points where $N_e > 2\sigma_{N_e}$ and $\gamma > 1\sigma_\gamma$, where σ_{N_e} and σ_γ are the a-posteriori
324 errors of the electron density and spectral width, respectively. The first criterion rejects points
325 that are too small to be statistically significant compared to zero electron density, and the second
326 criterion rejects fits with extremely small spectral widths where the algorithm has likely
327 converged to a local minimum and fit a single point in the digital frequency domain, which is a

328 common problem when fitting Lorentzian spectra to noise-like data. The white regions in Figure
329 5 (top) where the fit results have been rejected indicate regions where the electron density is too
330 small for PFISR to reasonably detect.

331 A visual comparison between PFISR observations and UCLA-BERI models' prediction shows
332 the same trends in the properties of the precipitation region. The energetic electron precipitation,
333 characterized by N_e distributions reaching below 80 km altitude, is seen at the onset of energetic
334 precipitation, at 1526 UT, and a nearly monotonic tapering off to lower precipitation energies
335 thereon until 1630 UT, when precipitation occurs above the 93 km upper limit of the PFISR D-
336 region mode.

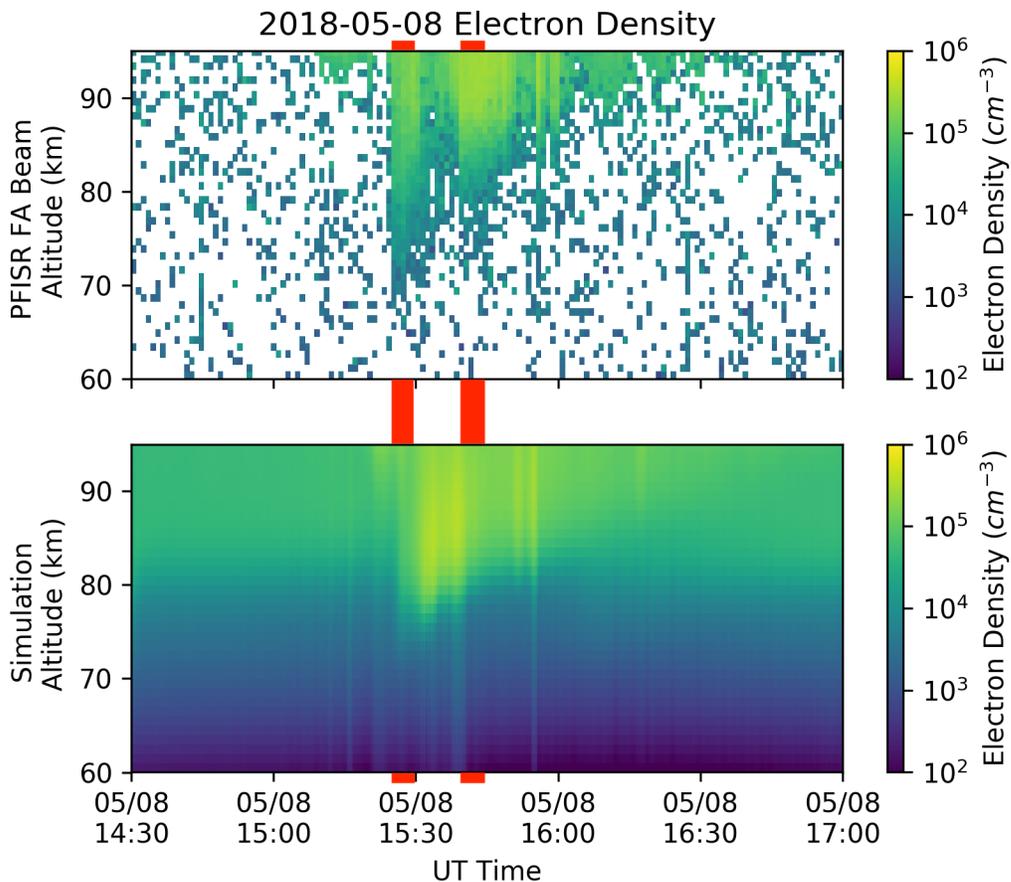


Figure 5. Altitude profiles of electron density measured with the field-aligned PFISR beam (top panel) and UCLA-BERI-modeled altitude profiles (bottom panel) during the PFISR-VAP-A conjunction period of 8 May, 2018. The left-side set of red bars indicates the time interval with PFISR-BERI-UCLA comparisons in Figure 6. The right-side set of bars is the time interval for comparisons in Figure 8.

337

338 A direct model-data comparison for the first two $N_e(h)$ 1-minute profiles bracketing the 1526 UT
339 onset of energetic precipitation is shown in Figure 6. Every PFISR 1-minute averaged $N_e(h)$
340 profile in the conjunction is compared with consecutive 1-minute averaged $N_e(h)$ UCLA-BERI
341 profiles encompassing ten minutes before and after the PFISR profile until the closest agreement
342 is found for the height range $80 \text{ km} < h < 93 \text{ km}$ and the height range $54 \text{ km} < h < 80 \text{ km}$. The
343 ten-minute criterion allows for a 500 m/s convection in the ionosphere to transport the electron
344 precipitation region the 300 km distance that separates the foot-point of VAP-A from the PFISR
345 field-aligned beam. The boundary separating the two altitude regimes is chosen because above
346 80 km the plasma is dominated by electrons and simple positive ions, but below 80 km the
347 composition transitions to mostly positive cluster ions and negative ions, with free electrons
348 becoming a minor species (Glukhov, 1992; Lehtinen and Inan, 2007). Since the 80 km altitude is
349 the peak ionization altitude for 100 keV precipitating electrons (e.g., Xu et al., 2018), it can also be
350 used to separate the high-energy population from the lower energy plasma sheet electron
351 population, which precipitates at higher altitudes.

352 For the PFISR profile starting at 1525:23 UT (Figure 6, top left panel), the UCLA-BERI's results
353 that show best agreement down to 76 km are at 1526:48 UT, after applying model-data
354 comparison between the 1-minute PFISR integration and every 1-minute model- predicted

355 profile in the ± 10 -minute window. The agreement degrades for the higher energy precipitation,
356 corresponding to altitudes between 70 and 76 km. The measured density is ~ 4.5 times as large as
357 the expected density at 71 km for VAP-A. The high-energy model-data discrepancy is
358 significantly reduced for the 1527:25 PFISR profile and its best agreement from the models'
359 results of 1527:18 UT (Figure 6, top right panel). The discrepancy is reduced to a layer between
360 71 and 74 km. The observed density is ~ 3 times the predicted density at 72 km.

361 Subsequent modeled 1-minute profiles maintain good approximation to observations. The
362 1528:26 UT PFISR profile (Figure 6 bottom left panel) is best approximated by the modeled
363 precipitation from 1526:48 UT between 68 km and 82 km. But in the 82-93 km altitude layer the
364 observed N_e is larger than the model-predicted N_e . It is as much as $\sim 58\%$ larger at 87 km for
365 VAP-A. The discrepancy is reduced to $\sim 48\%$ and to the 84-88 km altitude layer in the next 1-
366 minute profile (Figure 7, bottom right panel), although the profile approximation is slightly
367 degraded below ~ 74 km.

368

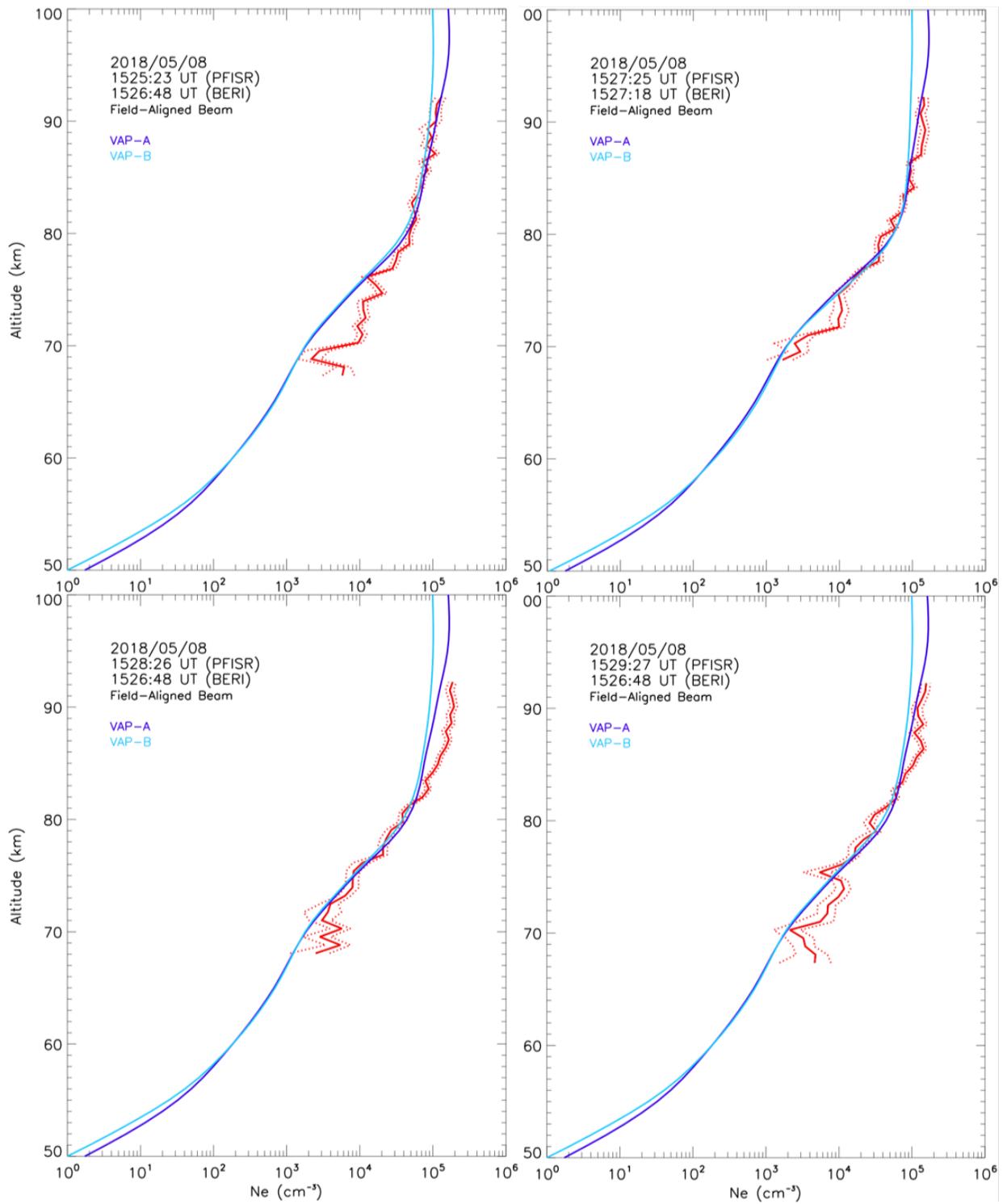


Figure 6. Altitude profiles of electron density measured with the field-aligned PFISR beam (red line) at 1525:23 UT (left top panel), 1527:25 UT (right top panel), 1528:26 UT (bottom

left panel), and 1529:27 UT. UCLA-BERI-modeled altitude profile for VAP-A (dark blue) and VAP-B (light blue) at the start of the energetic particle precipitation interval. Red dotted lines indicate one standard deviation above and below the observed $N_e(h)$.

369

370 The model-data discrepancy becomes more pronounced for all subsequent altitude profiles

371 between 1529:42 UT and 1537:34 UT, with PFISR-measured densities significantly smaller than

372 predicted for all sampled altitudes, as shown in Figure 5. In that interval PFISR is inside a region

373 of depleted electron density while both VAP spacecraft are in a region that generates an electron

374 density peak at ~ 83 km that is not reproduced by any of the PFISR N_e profiles measured within

375 the sliding ± 10 -minute window that would fit any convection delays or drift front geometries.

376 The predicted density shows an intense peak between $\sim 2 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $\sim 4 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ over an

377 altitude between ~ 83 and ~ 85 km which is not reproduced in the PFISR measurements during the

378 entire density depletion period. Figure 7 shows the UCLA-BERI-predicted density profile at

379 1536:34 UT, with a peak altitude of 85 km and a density of $3.5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The observed density

380 is lower at every measured altitude (becoming over one order of magnitude smaller at 85 km)

381 and the density peak is at least 7 km higher.

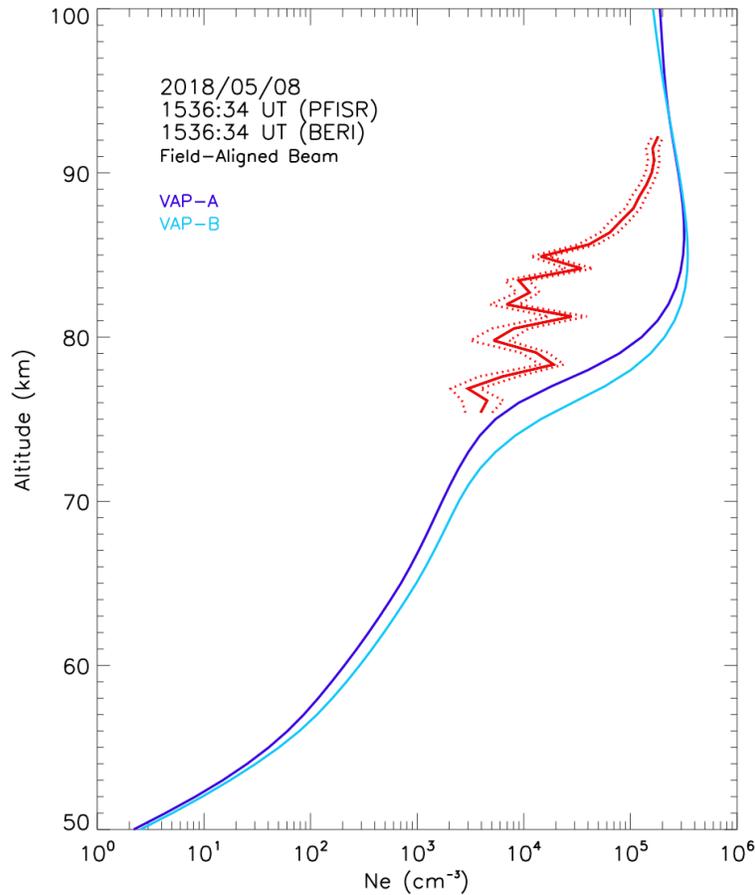


Figure 7. Altitude profiles of electron density measured with the field-aligned PFISR beam (red line) at 1539:36 UT (left panel) and 1536:34 UT, and UCLA-BERI-modeled altitude profile for VAP-A (dark blue) and VAP-B (light blue). Red dotted lines indicate one standard deviation above and below the observed $N_e(h)$.

382

383 Model-observation agreement becomes stronger after 1537:34 UT and remains so for the
 384 remainder of the observation period. At 1539:36 UT, for instance, the PFISR-observed profile
 385 matches UCLA-BERI-predicted profile below 80 km and above 85 km (Figure 8, left panel). For
 386 the intermediate altitudes the observed density shows a deficit of ~50-60% near the peak of the
 387 profile. However, subsequent profiles show a close model-observation agreement over a wider
 388 range of altitudes, as can be seen in the 1544:38 UT comparison (Figure 8, right panel), where

389 the good fit extends between 71 km and 93 km, with the exception of a 77-80 km altitude layer
 390 where PFISR-measured density is 1.5 times smaller than the modeled density, and an 88-93 km
 391 layer, where PFISR-measured density is 35% larger than the modeled density.
 392

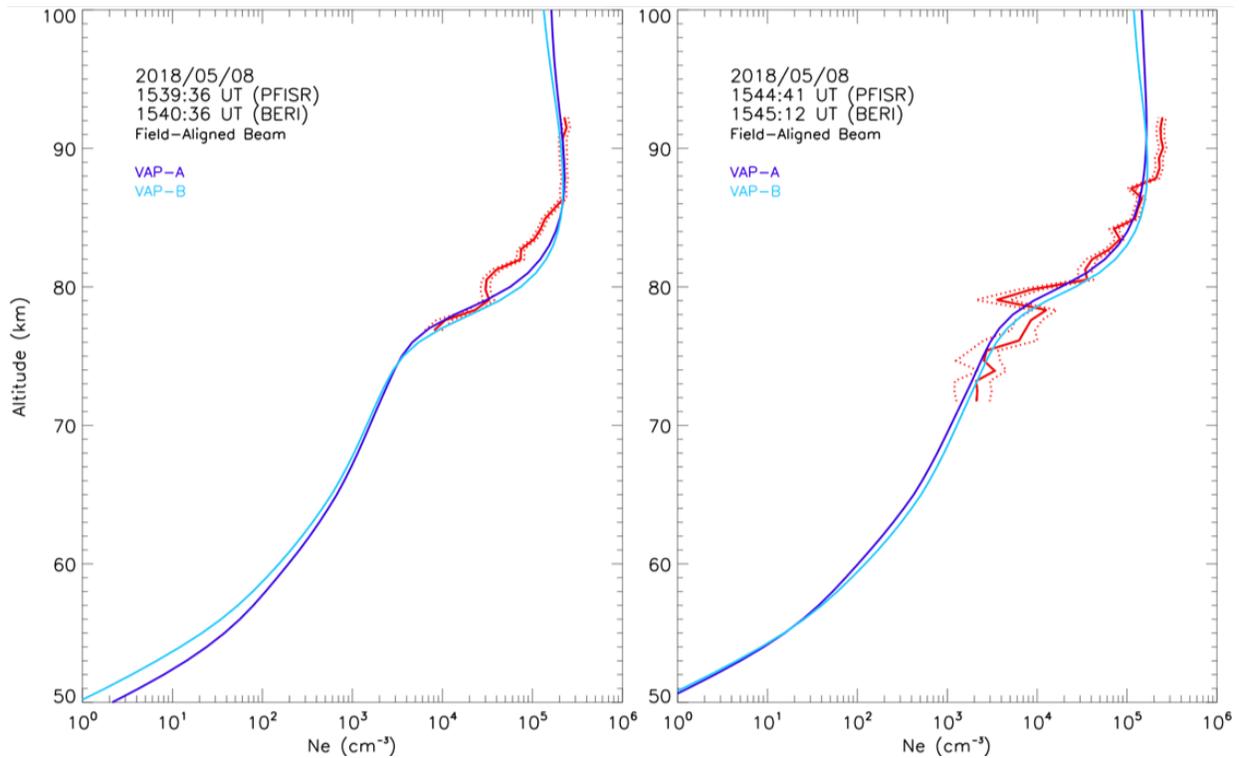


Figure 8. Altitude profiles of electron density measured with the field-aligned PFISR beam (red line) at 1539:36 UT (left panel) and 1544:41 UT, and UCLA-BERI-modeled altitude profile for VAP-A (dark blue) and VAP-B (light blue). Red dotted lines indicate one standard deviation above and below the observed $N_e(h)$.

393

394 5. Discussion and Conclusion

395 This communication reports the first direct comparison between the ionization altitude profiles
 396 expected in the atmosphere due to energetic electron precipitation and the ionization profiles
 397 measured with incoherent scatter radars. The comparison is performed using a forward

398 propagation of loss-cone electron fluxes, calculated with the UCLA wave-particle model applied
399 to Van Allen Probes measurements, into the topside ionosphere and transported into the
400 atmosphere with the BERI model.

401 The principal result of the prediction-observation comparison is that density profiles measured
402 with PFISR show multiple instances of quantitative agreement with predicted density profiles
403 from precipitation of electrons caused by whistler wave-electron interactions in the inner
404 magnetosphere.

405 There are two intervals between ~ 1524 UT (the onset time of high-energy electron precipitation
406 commences) and ~ 1550 UT (the time when precipitation recedes above the upper boundary of
407 sensitivity of the PFISR D-region mode) where close approximations of UCLA-BERI-predicted
408 electron density profiles and PFISR-measured density profiles are apparent in the entire altitude
409 regime between ~ 65 km and ~ 93 km, indicating that the rates of diffusion into the loss-cone
410 predicted by the UCLA Full Diffusion Code produce the necessary amount of flux for all
411 energies between several tens to several hundreds of keV to match the ionization profiles
412 observed at those altitudes by PFISR. Good model-observation agreement is apparent despite the
413 assumptions embedded in the models and the spatial separation between the field-of-view of the
414 field-aligned PFISR beam and the ionospheric projections of the Van Allen Probes' locations at
415 the time of the observations. There are several intervals in the observation period that show a
416 close prediction-observation agreement over nearly the entire range of altitudes sampled (see
417 bottom panels of Figures 6, 7 and 8) indicating that the diffusion of local electrons into the loss-
418 cone caused by interaction with upper and lower band whistler chorus causes sufficient flux to
419 explain the D-region electron density enhancements observed. However, there are other
420 instances where better approximations are possible above 80 km or below 80 km but not

421 simultaneously. This discrepancy indicates that the low-frequency whistler bands, responsible for
422 scattering electrons with higher energy, and the high-frequency bands, responsible for lower
423 energy precipitation, have a different duration and or different characteristic spatial scales.

424 Although UCLA-BERI-calculated density profiles undergo changes at various altitudes, the
425 evolution of profiles calculated for VAP-A is replicated for VAP-B with better than 20%
426 approximation in most altitudes and times and no more than 50% difference in the cases of
427 largest difference at altitude above ~80 km. The close proximity of the in-situ wave and particle
428 properties observed by both VAP spacecraft, which translates into similarity of N_e profiles
429 calculated from the precipitating electrons, show that the spacecraft are embedded in the same
430 magnetospheric region and that the region has a spatial coherence of at least 1574 km, which is
431 the in-situ separation between the two Van Allen Probes at 1550 UT. This distance is within the
432 ~5000 km coherent scale size estimated for pulsating aurora (Nishimura et al., 2011) and
433 approximately one order of magnitude smaller than the separation between either probe and the
434 projection of PFISR into the magnetic equator using T96 magnetic field tracing. The
435 corresponding inter-spacecraft separation in the ionosphere (130 km) is between two and three
436 times smaller than the separation between PFISR's field-aligned beam and the foot-point of
437 VAP-A (290 km) and VAP-B (390 km), respectively, with PFISR's location always north of
438 either spacecraft's location. The distance between the radar's beam and either spacecraft foot-
439 point is 3-4 times the size of the coherent scale size projected to the ionosphere.

440 The relatively large separation between either spacecraft and the projection of PFISR's flux tube
441 is thus the likely reason for the lack of reasonable model-data agreement in the interval between
442 1529:42 UT and 1537:34 UT. Observed density is consistently lower than the predicted density
443 in that interval. A plausible reason for the brief discrepancy during this time and quantitative

444 approximation for the rest of the observation period is that, since PFISR's field-of-view is
445 embedded in an ionospheric region northward of the foot-point of both Van Allen Probes, it
446 likely maps to the tailward edge of the precipitation region where the Van Allen Probes are
447 embedded or it maps to a different pulsating region. The instances of close model-data
448 agreement indicate that, despite the spatial separation, PFISR may be measuring the effects of
449 the whistler-electron interaction at the edge of the precipitation region that is being sampled by
450 the Van Allen Probes. When the region's boundary moves earthward because of a temporal or
451 spatial shift of the precipitation region, PFISR's flux tube migrates to the lower density region
452 just outside. If PFISR is instead measuring the effects of an entirely separate region, then the
453 close model-data approximation indicates that the wave properties at two adjacent pulsating
454 regions are very similar.

455

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461 <https://amisr.com/amisr/links/data-access/>. Van Allen Probes wave and particle data are available
462 through the Van Allen Probes Science Gateway <https://rbspgway.jhuapl.edu/>. Results from the
463 UCLA diffusion code are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.16942696>. Results
464 from the BERI Monte Carlo simulations are available at 10.5281/zenodo.5651509.

465

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