1 2	What fraction of the outer radiation belt relativistic electron flux at L≈3-4.5 was lost to the atmosphere during the dropout event of the St Patrick's Day storm of 2015?
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21	Key Points:
22	• A dropout event during the 2015 St. Patrick's Day storm is examined to find the electron
23	flux lost to the atmosphere
24	• Clear perturbations in VLF signal amplitude and phase are seen at L \approx 3-4.5 at the time of
25	the dropout event
26	• Less than~0.5% of the relativistic flux lost at L \approx 4 during the dropout was due to
27	precipitation into the atmosphere
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29 Abstract

30 Observations of relativistic energetic electron fluxes in the outer radiation belt can show 31 dropouts, i.e., sudden electron flux depletions during the main phase of a geomagnetic storm. 32 Many recent studies show that these dropouts typically involve a true loss of particles i.e. nonadiabatic losses in nature. Precipitation into the atmosphere of relativistic electrons driven into 33 34 the bounce loss cone, through wave particle interactions, is envisaged as one of the primary loss 35 mechanisms. Such precipitation can be studied using ground based observations such as VLF narrow-band radio waves, due to the deposition of energy into the lower ionospheric D-region, 36 37 thereby modifying the sub-ionospheric waveguide. The present study focuses on the dropout event observed during the St. Patrick's Day storm of March 2015. Perturbations lasting several 38 hours were observed in the received VLF amplitude and phase of the NAA transmitter signal 39 measured at Seattle and Edmonton, and the NML transmitter signal received at St. John's and 40 Edmonton. All these L≈3-4.5 paths were located on the night-side of the Earth during dropout 41 phase of the storm. Observations of relativistic electron characteristics from Van Allen Probes, 42 and ionospheric perturbation characterization from VLF radio waves, are used to calculate that 43 during the time interval of the dropout event <0.5% of the relativistic fluxes involved in the 44 dropout event were lost to the atmosphere. This leads to the conclusion that relativistic electron 45 precipitation was not the major contributor to the observed dropout event at L \approx 4 that occurred 46 during the St. Patrick's Day storm of March 2015. 47

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50 Key words: Radiation belt dropout, VLF transmitter, Radiation belts, Relativistic electron loss

51 1. Introduction

52 The radiation belts are formed as a consequence of trapping of charged particles by 53 Earth's magnetic field. Populated by energetic electrons and protons, these belts are distributed 54 in two distinct toroidal zones known as, 'inner' and 'outer' belts, separated by a slot region. The relatively stable inner belt is centred on $L\approx 1.4$ and extends up to about $L\approx 2$ with electrons having 55 56 characteristic energy levels of a few tens of keV. The dynamic outer belt is centred on $L\approx4$ and 57 extends from $L\approx 3$ to 6 with electrons having characteristic energies of 100's of keV to a few MeV. The slot region ($L\approx 2-2.5$) is thought to be the result of energetic electron precipitation 58 59 losses through wave-particle interactions (Lyons and Thorne, 1973; Kivelson and Russell, 1995). 60 Though radiation belt physics have been studied from the beginning of the Space Era, the launch of NASA's Van Allen Probes mission gained much attention as it was dedicated to develop 61 62 much deeper understanding of radiation belt structure and dynamics (Mauk et al., 2012). Since their launch in 2012, the Van Allen Probes have provided the most comprehensive in-situ 63 64 measurements to date.

The structure and variability of electron fluxes in the outer radiation belt is believed to be 65 controlled by the competition between source and loss processes (Millan and Thorne, 2007), 66 which can alter greatly during intense geomagnetic activity (Ukhorskiy et al., 2006; Bortnik et 67 al., 2006; Turner et al., 2014; Herrera et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). However, the net increase 68 or decrease of outer belt electron flux is decided by a delicate balance between particle 69 acceleration and loss (Reeves et al, 2003). These source, loss, and transport processes show 70 temporal and spatial variations depending upon the complex plasma conditions that are driven by 71 the solar wind and the interplanetary magnetic field. The radiation belt source process is often 72 manifested by the acceleration of electrons in the outer belt. This acceleration can sometimes be 73

provided by inward radial diffusion (Schulz and Lanzerotti, 1974). It is also proposed that when ~100 keV electrons interact with whistler-mode chorus waves they can be accelerated to ~MeV energies (Summers et al., 1998; Horne and Thorne, 1998; Miyoshi et al., 2003; Horne et al., 2005; Li et al., 2007; Reeves et al., 2013; Thorne et al., 2013; Boyd et al., 2014). On the other hand, the loss of energetic electrons is typically attributed to three possible mechanisms: (i) adiabatic motion (ii) magnetopause shadowing and (iii) precipitation into the atmosphere (Green et al., 2004).

The adiabatic electron losses are reversible in a sense that the particles are redistributed radially to conserve three adiabatic invariants (Dessler and Karplus, 1960; McIlwain, 1966). The increased ring current intensity during storm main phase decreases the magnetic flux, due to which the electrons are compelled to decelerate and move outward in order to conserve the first and third adiabatic invariants respectively (Ukhorskiy et al., 2006; Boynton et al., 2016). This energetic electron flux returns to approximately the same location and energy once the ring current recovers after the storm (Kim and Chan, 1997).

Losses to the outer boundary, i.e., the magnetopause, can occur when the magnetopause is displaced inward by increased solar wind pressure during a geomagnetic storm. Due to this, the electrons find themselves on open drift shells and can be lost to interplanetary space (Bortnik et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2008; Herrera et al., 2016). This effect is known as 'magnetopause shadowing' (West et al., 1973).

93 Precipitation into the atmosphere can occur through resonant wave-particle interactions 94 which decrease the electron's pitch angle. A variety of plasma waves have been identified, 95 depending upon the region, time and energy of the particles, that drive pitch angle scattering into 96 the drift and bounce loss cone (Bortnik et al., 2006). This includes electromagnetic ion cyclotron waves (EMIC) (Thorne et al., 2005; Miyoshi et al., 2008; Clilverd et al., 2015), plasmaspheric
ELF/VLF hiss (Lyons and Thorne, 1973), high latitude VLF chorus (Behra et al., 2017) and
Electron Cyclotron Harmonic (ECH) waves (Ni et al., 2012).

100 EMIC waves are pulsations in Pc1-2 having frequencies below proton gyrofrequency. These waves are generated near the field-line magnetic equator (Fraser et al., 1996; Loto'aniu et 101 102 al., 2005) by unstable ion distributions in the ring current (Cornwall, 1965; Anderson et al., 103 1993). The waves can grow when strong temperature anisotropy exists $(T_{perp.} > T_{par.})$ (Kozyra et al., 1984). The largest amplitude waves are seen in the dusk and dayside sectors at high L-shells 104 105 (L>5) and the occurrence rate is found to increase by up to a factor of five during major geomagnetic storms (Erlandson and Ukhorskiy, 2001). 'Anomalous' gyro-resonance between an 106 107 electron and EMIC wave occurs when an electron overtakes a wave (Thorne and Kennel, 1971) 108 so as to change the apparent polarization of the wave in the frame of electron. The typical resonant energies are >10 MeV in lower density regions outside the plasmasphere and can drop 109 to ≤ 1 MeV in regions like the plasmapause and in plasmaspheric plumes where the cold plasma 110 electron density is relatively high (Thorne and Kennel, 1971; Meredith et al., 2003; Summers 111 and Thorne, 2003; Ukhorsky et al., 2010). 112

Plasmaspheric hiss is a broadband (~100 Hz - few kHz) VLF emission generated in the equatorial plane by the electron-cyclotron instabilities (Thorne et al., 1973). These waves are found in high density regions like the plasmasphere and plasmaspheric plumes. The highest amplitude waves are found in the dawn to evening sector. These waves allow resonance with ~MeV electrons below L~3 (Thorne et al., 1979).

Whistler-mode chorus waves are discrete emissions in the frequency range of ~100 Hz –
5 kHz (Sazhin and Hayakawa, 1992) resulting from cyclotron instabilities (Kennel and Petschek,

120 1966) occurring near the geomagnetic equator in association with freshly injected plasma sheet
121 electrons (Tsurutani and Smith, 1974). The chorus intensity increases during substorm activity
122 and during the recovery phase of storms (Meredith et al., 2001; Li et al., 2009). Chorus waves,
123 depending upon the electron energies, can accelerate or scatter these particles into the loss cone.
124 The chorus wave can interact with 100 keV electrons in the ring current and outer radiation belt
125 to accelerate the electrons to MeV energies (Temerin et al., 1994; Horne and Thorne, 1998;
126 Summers et al., 1998).

The non-adiabatic loss processes of magnetopause shadowing, and electron precipitation 127 128 are the 'true' losses of energetic electrons. Precipitation by resonant wave-particle interaction, 129 depends on particle energies, particle pitch angles, L-shells, plasma wave modes, frequencies and intensities under different interplanetary and magnetospheric conditions (Tsurutani et al., 2016). 130 131 The losses of energetic electron fluxes at the start of geomagnetic storm events are known as 'dropouts' and are often rapid, i.e., the flux can decrease by several orders of magnitude in a few 132 hours. These dropout events are also defined as a flux decrease by factor of 4 in a day or a factor 133 of 9 in two days where the decrease should account for at least a factor of 2.5 each day (Boynton 134 et al., 2016). These sudden fluctuations in the flux are attributed to above mentioned loss 135 mechanisms, but the relative dominance of each mechanism likely varies from event to event. 136

Recently Shprits et al. (2017) have postulated that EMIC waves have the potential to precipitate relativistic electrons (2-6 MeV) from the outer radiation belt on rapid timescales, and may be the dominant factor in the generation of radiation belt dropout events. Traditionally EMIC waves are expected to precipitate electrons >1 MeV (Thorne and Kennel, 1971) although in the last few years studies have shown that some EMIC waves can induce electron precipitation with energies of >200 keV (Hendry et al., 2017). There are very few studies on the estimation of 143 the flux loss during dropouts as a result of relativistic electron precipitation. Recently, Zhang et al. (2017) estimated a net loss up to 6.8% of the 0.58-1.63 MeV electrons in a precipitation band 144 event using conjunctive measurement of the Colorado Student Space Weather Experiment 145 146 (CSSWE) mission, the Balloon Array for Radiation belt Relativistic Electron Losses (BARREL), 147 and one of the Polar Operational Environmental Satellites (POES). Previous analysis of non-148 relativistic electron precipitation (typically 30 keV -1 MeV) using the NOAA POES satellites have shown that electron precipitation occurs typically 3 hours after the dropout, and not during 149 it (Hendry et al., 2012). The non-relativistic precipitation appears to more likely to be linked to 150 151 the period where the outer radiation belt electron fluxes are recovering as a result of acceleration processes. 152

It is unclear what fraction of the outer radiation belt flux is lost during dropout events 153 154 through electron precipitation mechanisms. Baker et al. (2016) have speculated that the dropout of >1 MeV electrons on 17 March 2015 was due to magnetopause shadowing. However, 155 radiation belt models have been found to under-estimate the flux lost when applying only 156 magnetopause shadowing effects to their simulations (Glauert et al., 2018). In this paper, we use 157 ground-based subionospheric radiowave propagation observations to investigate the dropout 158 159 event that occurred at ~06 UT on 17 March 2015 during the St. Patrick's Day storm. The dropout in relativistic electron flux levels was observed by the Van Allen Probes satellites. The focus of 160 this work is to estimate the amount of relativistic electron flux precipitating into the atmosphere 161 162 during the event, using ground based subionospheric VLF receiver data. Rodger et.al. (2011) has investigated the sensitivity of subionospheric VLF paths in the north American region by 163 applying excess ionization generated by mono-energetic beams of precipitating electrons and 164 165 power law spectrum, to the D-region during daytime and nighttime conditions. Their results

166 show that the precipitation of >300 keV electrons exhibit large VLF amplitude and phase 167 variations, and the technique is more sensitive during night as compared to daytime. The aim of this study is to investigate what fraction of the radiation belt relativistic electron flux has 168 169 precipitated in to the atmosphere so as to cause the observed VLF signal perturbations at L \approx 3-4.5. Section 2 describes the event and datasets available. Section 3 describes the satellite [3.1] 170 171 and ground based observations [3.2] prior to, and during, the dropout event. Section 4.1 models the electron density that reproduces the observed VLF perturbations during the dropout event. 172 Section 4.2 determines the characteristics of the electron precipitation observed from the Van 173 174 Allen Probes, and compares them to those found in section 4.1 in order to determine the potential flux of precipitating relativistic electrons. Finally, section 5 estimates the fraction of trapped 175 relativistic electron flux lost to the atmosphere during the dropout event. 176

177 2. Experimental Setup and Data

The solar cycle 24 started dramatically in 2009 after prolonged minima from 2006-2008. 178 179 Surprisingly, there was not much geomagnetic activity even during the peak of the cycle until the first super geomagnetic storm in the declining phase of the cycle, on St. Patrick's day of 2015 180 with Dst = -223 nT. The two step storm is thought to have been initiated by a halo coronal mass 181 182 ejection (CME), erupted from the Sun on 15 March 2015 (Wu et al., 2016). Figure 1 represents the interplanetary (IP) conditions on 17 March 2015. There is no data gap in ACE level 2 data 183 but there is a data gap from ~7-9 UT in the processed OMNI data. The Wind spacecraft recorded 184 an IP shock at 03:57 UT on the event day and the arrival of the shock at the Earth produced a 185 sudden storm commencement (SSC) at 04:45 UT, represented by the vertical black line. The 186 solar wind speed at that time showed an increase from ~400 km/s to ~500 km/s. Initially the IMF 187 Bz was northward until 05:00 UT and then turned southward to give Bz~-20 nT which decreased 188

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further as the storm progressed and the solar wind speed increased to its maximum value of ~ 600 km/s. The main phase of the storm lasted about 18 hrs from $\sim 6-23$ UT on 17 March 2015.

191 To investigate the energetic electron precipitation into the atmosphere, narrowband VLF transmitter signals from NAA (44.6° N, 67.3°W) operating at a frequency of 24.0 kHz received 192 193 at Seattle (47.9° N, 124.4°W) and Edmonton (53.35° N, 112.97° W) and the transmitter signals 194 from NML (46.4° N, 98.3°W) operating at a frequency of 25.2 kHz received at St. John's (47.6° 195 N, 52.7°W) and Edmonton, are used. The great circle path lengths for NAA-Seattle is ~4305 km, NAA-Edmonton is ~3406 km, NML-St. John's is ~3410 km and NML-Edmonton is ~1301 km 196 respectively. These transmitters and receivers are the part of the AARDDVARK Network 197 (Clilverd et al., 2009). More information about the network can be found at 198 http://www.physics.otago.ac.nz/space/AARDDVARK homepage.htm. Figure 2 shows the 199 200 transmitter-receiver sites with great circle paths (GCP) and L = 3, 4, 5 contours. The subionospheric propagation paths are predominantly orientated east-west, and can be used to 201 202 remotely sense electron precipitation events at quasi-constant geomagnetic latitudes of $L \sim 3-4.5$.

Some indication of the dynamic behaviour of relativistic electron fluxes in the outer 203 radiation belt during the main phase of the March 2015 storm can be determined from the POES 204 SEM-2 telescope P6 (see Rodger et al., 2010 for a description of the instrument). Figure 3 shows 205 206 the P6 trapped (upper panel) and bounce-loss-cone precipitating fluxes (lower panel) from all available POES observations during 17 March 2015. The colour scale represents the logarithm 207 of the flux levels. The vertical dashed lines represent the dropout period that will be investigated 208 in this paper, i.e., 06:30 to 08:30 UT, while the purple box represents the L-shell ranges for 209 which VLF sub-ionospheric narrow-band data described in the paragraph above, and are 210 analysed during the storm period. In the absence of solar protons the P6 telescope responds to 211

212 electrons with energy >700 keV (Yando et al., 2011) and thus the figure indicates that relativistic trapped fluxes reduced over the L-shell range 3.5 to 5.5 at 06:30 UT (upper panel), while the 213 only observable relativistic electron precipitation into the atmosphere occurred between 06:30 214 215 and 08:30 UT, and in the L=3.5 to 4.0 range (lower panel). We show the POES P6 channel as it is a direct measure of the electron precipitation flux relevant to the electron energies involved in 216 relativistic electron flux dropouts (Baker et al., 2016) that are investigated in this paper, i.e., 217 >700 keV. The L-shell range over which the subionospheric VLF analysis will be performed in 218 this study is well suited to investigate these regions. While the POES P6 telescope observed clear 219 220 electron precipitation signatures at the time of the radiation belt dropout the geometric factor of the P6 detector for electron 'contamination' is complex and does not allow clear identification of 221 the electron energies involved, or what their flux levels might be. In order to investigate this 222 event in more detail we turn to the Van Allen Probes mission and its energetic electron 223 telescopes. 224

The dropout in radiation belt energetic electron flux on 17 March 2015 was seen by the 225 Relativistic Electron-Proton Telescope (REPT, ~MeV electrons) with supporting information 226 227 provided by the Magnetic Electron Ion Spectrometer (MagEIS, ~keV electrons) instruments on 228 board the Van Allen Probes (Popularly known as RBSP). The RBSP consist of two probes, A 229 and B, placed in very close orbits to study the events that occur simultaneously throughout the belts or localized at a point or which evolve with time from one point to another. The spacecraft 230 231 have nearly elliptical orbits lying in Earth's equatorial plane with $\sim 20^{\circ}$ inclination. The REPT and MagEIS form part of the Energetic Particle, Composition, and Thermal Plasma Suite (ECT) 232 which is dedicated to the measurement of particle energy and pitch angle. The REPT instrument 233 234 measures the particles with relativistic energies, binned in 12 energy bands from 1.8 MeV - 20 MeV. The MagEIS instrument measures the particles with lower energies, ranging from 31.5
keV - 4.2 MeV, distributed in 21 bins.

237 **3. Observations**

238 **3.1 RBSP Energetic Electron Flux Observations**

The ionospheric footprints of RBSP-A at time $t_1 = 06:30$ UT and $t_2 = 08:30$ UT are 239 located at ~164.4 ° E and ~158.3° W, and that of RBSP-B are at ~117.6° W and ~ 124.5° W 240 respectively as shown in Figure 2. A deep 'dropout' of electrons with energies in the range 2.0-241 242 4.2 MeV was observed by REPT as shown in Figure 4 (panels a - f) during the main phase of the 243 storm. Equivalent MagEIS observations are shown in Figure 4 (panels g - 1). Figure 4 (panels a -244 c) represents the color coded spin averaged intensities of REPT electrons with energies ~2.0 245 MeV, ~3.6 MeV and ~ 4.2 MeV for March 2015. Figure 4 (panels d - f) are the zoomed views of panels a - c providing a closer look at two days around the time of the dropout that started at 246 247 ~06:30 UT on 17 March. The flux decrease can be clearly seen from L=3.5 to 6 in each energy range, but we restrict this study of the dropout at L~4 as the VLF perturbations are observed over 248 L \approx 3 to 4.5. The black vertical lines in the figure represent the duration of observed VLF 249 perturbations as discussed later in this section, and we will focus on this time period throughout 250 our further analysis in order to investigate the cause of the observed VLF perturbations. 251

The 2.0 MeV flux started to recover around 16:00 UT on 17 March 2015 whereas the higher energy flux (~4.2 MeV) did not recover until the early hours of 18 March 2015, coinciding with the main phase of the storm as mentioned in section 2. Figure 4 (panels g - i) shows the same format as panels a – c, but for MagEIS electrons of energies ~221, ~464 and ~741 keV respectively, while panels j-l provide a zoomed view of the same energy channels 257 around the event time. There is no RBSP-A data available for ~221 keV channel. Although enhancements in the MagEIS electron energies are observed as a result of the St Patrick's day 258 storm, there is no clear dropout event at energies of 226 keV, a dropout is seen for 464 keV at 259 260 $L\approx 5$, while the 741 keV observations suggest that there is a small decrease in flux at the time of the dropout in already low flux levels occurring in the preceding days. Detailed inspection of the 261 262 REPT and MagEIS channels suggest that the dropout in flux on 17 March 2015 is clearly discernible from L=3.5-6 over energy ranges from 900 keV to 6.3 MeV. Based on the Van Allen 263 Probes observations of those energy channels showing decreased flux levels during the dropout 264 265 event, for the remainder of this study we take the energy range of the EEP to span 900-6300keV.

266 In order to determine the potential percentage of the total tube flux that could have been lost to the atmosphere during the flux dropout event it is important to be able to determine the 267 268 pitch angle distribution (α) at each energy in order to estimate the total tube content. It is also important to know the energy spectra of the precipitating flux in the bounce loss cone in order to 269 be able to estimate the flux that produces the VLF perturbations - for this we use pitch angle 270 information as close to the bounce loss cone as possible. Figure 5 (panels a - e) represents the 271 MagEIS pitch angle distribution for 2.0, 2.25, 2.85, 3.6 and 4.5 MeV electrons observed at 07:41 272 273 UT, 17 March 2015, as RBSP-A passed through the L=4 flux tube, close to the magnetic field line equator. The timing is close to the start of the observed dropout event as shown in Figure 4. 274 The pitch angle variation is given by a sinusoidal curve with $\sin^{n}\alpha$, where n takes values from 1 275 276 to 3 for 2.0 to 4.5 MeV, respectively, shown by a solid red curve in the Figure. We also plot particle flux as a function of energy at 90° and 15° pitch angles (panel f). From the power law fit, 277 it is seen that the power law gradient is -7.7 for 90° pitch angles while it is -8.8 nearer to bounce 278 279 loss cone ($\sim 6^{\circ}$ at L=4) i.e., at 15° pitch angles. The next time that RBSP-A crossed the L=4 field line was at 13:18 UT, which was close to the end of the observable dropout period, and showed
95-98% reductions in relativistic flux levels. These values will be used as an input to calculate
ionospheric impact in section 4.2 of this paper, and flux tube total content in section 5.

283 **3.2 Perturbations in narrowband VLF transmitter signals**

284 VLF narrowband transmitter signals are a good tool to study any changes in the lowest 285 region of the ionosphere that occur due to any forcing from above or below. The lower ionospheric changes are reflected as an increase or decrease in amplitude and phase of 286 narrowband VLF transmitter signals. The VLF signals may incur amplitude and phase 287 288 perturbations due to energetic electron precipitation (Rodger et al., 2008, Clilverd et al., 2015) which alters the ionospheric propagation conditions. In Figure 6 we show such subionospheric 289 VLF data on 17 March 2015. We observe clear amplitude and phase perturbations just after the 290 onset of the geomagnetic storm on 17 March 2015 in VLF transmitter signals received at Seattle 291 and Edmonton from NAA and those received at St. John's and Edmonton from the NML 292 293 transmitter. Figure 6 (a) shows the amplitude (left hand panels) and phase perturbations (right hand panels) observed in the four paths over the whole day. The black curve is the signal on the 294 disturbed day whereas the red curve represents the quiet day curve (QDC) of the narrowband 295 296 VLF transmitter signal for respective paths. Asterisks represent radio wave propagation modelling (Ferguson, 1998) results for non-disturbed nighttime conditions (Thomson et al., 297 2011a; 2011b) and equivalent conditions during the day (Ferguson, 1998). Here we follow the 298 299 technique of Thomson et al. (2007), and Thomson and McRea (2009) who use the relative phase and amplitude at night compared with the much more well known conditions during the day (as 300 301 they are driven by direct photoionisation) in order to determine the ambient amplitude and phase levels during the pre-event (nighttime) period. Good agreement is seen between the modelling 302

results and pre-event amplitude and phase values, suggesting that non-disturbed D-region
profiles are a reasonable description of the pre-event conditions. The radiowave modelling will
be discussed further in section 4.1.

In all of the panels of Figure 6 (a) we made some estimates of the variability of the nondisturbed amplitudes and phases in the observed values in the three hours immediately prior to the dropout precipitation event. These are shown as green horizontal lines. We find that there could be an uncertainty in the amplitude of +/- 2.5 dB, and in phase of +/-50°. These uncertainty limits will be taken into account in the determination of the dropout perturbation size, and in the resulting estimation of the likely D-region profile that the radio wave perturbations suggest (see section 4.1).

Figure 6 (b) represents the amplitude (left hand panels) and phase perturbations (right 313 hand panels) observed for all the four paths, NAA-Seattle, NML-St. John's, NAA- Edmonton 314 315 and NML-Edmonton, from 6-9 UT. The initial deviations from the respective quiet day curves in both amplitude and phase for both the paths begin at ~6.3 UT. A sudden amplitude decrease of 316 ~23+/-2.5 dB and an increase in phase by ~213+/-50⁰ is observed for NAA-SEA around 6.8 317 UT. Similarly, a sudden amplitude decrease of $\sim 27 \pm 2.5$ dB and phase increase of $\sim 218 \pm 50^{\circ}$ 318 319 is observed for NML-STJ around 7 UT. The VLF signal features an average decrease of ~8.5+/-320 2.5 dB and ~12.8+/-2.5 dB over both the paths respectively during the period of almost two hours from ~6.5 to 8.5 UT. This duration is shown by black vertical lines in the Figure 6. During 321 this period, the VLF signal showed an average phase increase of $\sim 142 \pm 50^{\circ}$, $\sim 172 \pm 50^{\circ}$, 322 ~250+/-50° and ~180+/-50° for NAA-Seattle, NML-St.John's, NAA-Edmonton and NML-323 Edmonton paths respectively, starting around ~6.3 UT as shown by black dashed line in lower 324 panel of Figure 6. The perturbations found in this study (10's of dB and several 100's of degrees) 325

326 are of very similar size to the effects seen by a large range of published event studies, a subset of 327 which include the effects of substorms (Clilverd et al., 2008, 2012), EMIC waves (Rodger et al., 2008; Clilverd et al., 2015), Plasmaspheric hiss (Hardman et al., 2015), and medium-large solar 328 329 flares (Thomson et al., 2005). Therefore, while the perturbations during the dropout event are clear, and substantial, they are consistent in size with the effects of many other relatively 330 331 common phenomena, and do not immediately suggest that a large portion of the radiation belt relativistic flux has been lost to the atmosphere during the dropout event. However, the 332 coincidence of VLF perturbations during the main phase of the storm starting at the same time as 333 334 the relativistic electron dropout event provides the motivation for the current study.

The effects of substantial precipitation occurring on the subionospheric path between 335 Iceland and Sodankylä, Finland (L=5.5 to 6) was also seen, which shows that the MLT region 336 covered by the electron precipitation at least ranges from 00-08 MLT. In the case of the 337 observations from NRK (37.5kHz, Reykjavik, Iceland) to Sodankylä, Finland, the amplitude 338 change at ~06 UT was ~-40 dB, pushing the signal into the noise floor, and as a result the 339 340 AARDDVARK receiver lost phase lock. Therefore, no estimate of the electron precipitation flux at L~6 could be made using those observations. We note, however, that the precipitation started 341 at 06 UT at L~6, compared with ~6.3 UT at L~3-4, suggesting a delay in response at lower L-342 shells compared with higher L. 343

- 344 **4. Modelling Results**
- 345 4.1 LWPC Modelling

To infer the changes in the lower ionosphere on the event day, we first model the quiet time signal using the Long Wave Propagation Capability (LWPC) v 2.1 code developed by the 348 US Naval Ocean System Center (NOSC) (Ferguson, 1998). This code calculates the full-wave reflection coefficients for the waveguide boundaries by taking into account the input path 349 parameters. The process leads to the search for modal angles which give phase change of 2π 350 across the guide taking into consideration the curvature of the Earth (Morfitt and Shellman, 351 1976). The program basically determines the upper boundary of the waveguide in terms of two 352 'Wait parameters' used to describe the electron number density of the lower ionosphere through 353 the sharpness factor, β (in km⁻¹) and reference height, H' (in km) (Wait and Spies, 1964). We use 354 the LWPC code to determine the electron profile characteristics of the ionosphere that would 355 have caused the VLF signal changes during the dropout event. For the undisturbed conditions 356 (i.e., without additional electron precipitation) we use $\beta = 0.3$ km⁻¹ and H[/] = 74 km for daytime 357 (12 - 23 UT) and $\beta = 0.63$ km⁻¹ and H[/] = 85.1 km for nighttime (0 - 11 UT) (Thomson et al., 358 359 2007; 2011a; 2011b). The blue asterisks in Figure 6 represent the modelled signal. One can see that the modelled signal matches the quiet day curve shown by red, and suggests that the pre-360 event conditions are well represented by non-disturbed D-region profiles that have previously 361 362 been determined, and extensively published in the past.

To further infer the ionospheric lower boundary conditions during the dropout event of 363 17 March 2015, the amplitude and phase perturbations of the VLF signal relative to the quiet day 364 levels are plotted against H[/] for different values of β , for all four paths as shown in Figure 7. This 365 exercise leads to the H' and β which would cause the observed perturbation in the VLF signal. 366 367 The left panels show the amplitude and phase perturbations for the NAA-SEA and NAA-EDM subionospheric propagation paths; while the right panels show the equivalent results for the 368 NML-STJ and NML-EDM propagation paths. The horizontal dot-dashed lines represent the 369 370 experimentally observed changes in amplitude and phase on 17 March 2015 for each path, as 371 mentioned in section 3.2. The vertical black line indicates the solution for H' that best matches 372 the observed perturbation levels on the four paths. The green square centred on the crossing point of the two lines represents the upper and lower limits of the uncertainty in the perturbation levels 373 374 due to uncertainty in the pre-event levels, as shown in Figure 6, and identifies the H' range that is necessary to take in to account the perturbation uncertainty. It can be seen from the figure that β 375 = 0.35 ± 0.05 km⁻¹ and H['] = 80 ± 1 km would produce the observed changes in the VLF signals 376 when uncertainty limits are taken into account. This solution explains the observed changes over 377 all four paths, although in practice there are a wider range of solutions that could describe the 378 379 amplitude perturbation levels, and the result is primarily constrained by the phase perturbation levels. We further use this information to show that the shape of the precipitation-perturbed 380 ionospheric profile determined from Van Allen Probes data is consistent with the beta/H'381 382 modelling profile found with the approach undertaken here, and use it to calculate the equivalent relativistic flux that matches the beta/H['] modelling profile that might be coming into the 383 atmosphere during the dropout observed on 17 March 2015. 384

385 4.2 Energetic Electron Precipitation (EEP) Modelling

From our earlier analysis we know both the electron density profiles which describe (a) 386 387 the undisturbed ionospheric D-region, and (b) changes incurred by EEP during the dropout event. We also know parameters to describe the nature of electron flux lost from the outer 388 radiation belt, potentially entering the ionosphere, i.e., the energy range and pitch angle 389 390 distribution. Our goal is to determine the magnitude of the EEP flux, such that we can estimate the importance of EEP to the observed dropout at L~4. We follow the same processes described 391 in earlier studies to determine the EEP affected electron density profiles (following, for 392 example Rodger et al. (2013) and Simon-Wedlund et al. (2014)). The EEP produced ionization 393

rate is calculated for a range of EEP fluxes, assuming a power law energy spectrum with gradient -8.8 found in section 3.1. We assume the EEP spans the energy range of 900-6300keV, based on the Van Allen Probes observations of which energy channels showed decreased flux levels during the dropout event, with the range bounded by the energy channels that did not show any flux decreases. From these ionization rates the disturbed ionospheric electron density profile is determined, and the flux is identified which most closely produce the mid-range β =0.35, H'=80 km profile determined in section 4.1.

The result of these calculations are shown in Figure 8. The undisturbed electron density 401 402 profile is shown by the black line, representing a pre-event Wait ionosphere (β =0.63, H'=85.1 km) up to 90 km altitude, which then smoothly transitions to a profile provided by the 403 International Reference Ionosphere (IRI-2007) appropriate for the middle of the propagation 404 paths (50°N, 270°E). The heavy dashed blue line in Figure 8 is the disturbed Wait ionosphere 405 $(\beta=0.35, H'=80 \text{ km})$, while the lighter blue, green, red lines are the best fitting electron density 406 profiles produced by the EEP modelling. We investigated the sensitivity of the EEP produced 407 408 electron number density profile to the choice of the ambient nightime profile. In practice the magnitude of the EEP produced ionization is so dominant that it produces the same EEP 409 ionization profile for a very wide range of ambient profiles, and thus although the VLF phase 410 and amplitude analysis provides a clear indication of the nighttime ambient profile 411 characteristics, it does not influence the final EEP ionization profile result significantly. Note 412 413 that there is a fairly good agreement between the shape of the number density profiles produced by the EEP and the Wait ionosphere over the altitude range 55-90 km, inside which the VLF 414 reflections will take place. Although the two profiles can be seen to diverge below number 415 density levels of 10^{-1} el.cm⁻³, and the gradient becomes markedly steeper than ambient, the 416

subionospheric VLF radiowaves are insensitive to these densities, and independent of the electron number density profile characteristics at these altitudes (<55km) at night. While the EEP has an energy range starting at 900 keV, for the purpose of comparison with the dropout, we label these through their 2 MeV flux values. Those are 2.1×10^{-3} el.cm⁻²s⁻¹keV⁻¹, 2.7×10^{-3} el.cm⁻²s⁻¹keV⁻¹, and 3.4×10^{-3} el.cm⁻²s⁻¹keV⁻¹, respectively.

422 **5. Flux tube total content changes**

Our goal is to determine how significant these EEP fluxes are to the observed electron flux dropout, i.e., how much of the dropout is due to precipitation into the atmosphere. To do this we calculate the total population of electrons in a flux tube at a given energy, and determine the time required to deplete this tube to the RBSP observed levels. This is a fairly common approach used in experimental studies to determine the overall significance of precipitation to the radiation belts (e.g., Voss et al., 1998; Lorentzen et al., 2001; Rodger et al., 2003; O'Brien et al., 2004; Blum et al., 2013).

As noted above, the D-region electron density profile consistent with the VLF 430 observations can be produced by EEP with a relatively small range of flux magnitudes. For the 431 432 purposes of the following comparison we take the middle value. Note that this choice has no significant impact on the conclusions. At 0724 UT, near the beginning of the dropout, RBSP-A 433 passed through L=4 and determined the trapped 2 MeV flux and pitch angle distribution, as 434 described above. We use this information to determine the number of 2 MeV electrons in a 435 436 magnetic flux tube of 1 square centimeter in area at the equatorial plane, and then transform this value to the top of atmosphere at 100 km (in both cases following the methodology 437 described by Voss et al. (1998) and Rodger et al. (2003)). This leads to a flux tube total 2 MeV 438 electron population of 1.2×10^4 electrons. In contrast, at 1318 UT, near the end of the dropout, 439

the RBSP observations indicate the flux tube total 2 MeV electron population was 695 electrons. From this we see that there was a ~95% decrease in the total flux tube content at this energy. However, the EEP at 2 MeV that we have calculated above would take slightly more than 50 days to cause such a large decrease. As the ~95% decrease occurred in ~7 hours, it is clear that very little of the dropout can be explained through precipitation into the atmosphere. At the specific EEP rate we would expect the total tube content to only decrease by <0.5%, by considering the 900-6300 keV electron flux.

We have also undertaken the same calculation for 3.6 MeV, where the dropout was 447 448 >98%. For the VLF determined EEP rate, it would take 45 days to drain the flux tube content to this level, again, vastly longer than experimentally observed. If some of the VLF phase and 449 amplitude perturbations are due to the precipitation of electrons with lower electron energy (i.e., 450 451 <900 keV), then the flux of 900-6300 keV electrons that we calculate here would consequently be even smaller than stated. Therefore, in this study the maximum loss of 900-6300 keV 452 electrons that could have occurred during the dropout event is determined, and it could 453 454 potentially be smaller than this. We note that precipitation at lower energies than the relativistic ones assumed here could have influenced the size of the radio wave perturbations. Thus, the flux 455 456 of relativistic electrons that have been determined in this study could have been even smaller than those calculated as a result of our working assumption (i.e., that all of the perturbation was 457 due to relativistic flux). There is even the possibility that the entire VLF perturbation observed 458 could have been generated by lower energy precipitation (100's of keV or so) such that there was 459 no relativistic precipitation involved in the observed perturbations. However, this is unlikely due 460 to the fact that some relativistic electron precipitation was observed by the POES satellites at the 461 462 beginning of the dropout period. Thus, this study calculates an upper limit of the likely relativistic fluxes involved. From this we conclude that EEP played only a very small role in theobserved electron flux dropout.

465 6. Discussion and Summary

Many previous studies have focused on the loss mechanism of outer belt electron flux 466 (Dessler and Karplus, 1960; West et al., 1973; Imhof and Gaines et al., 1993; Thorne et al., 2005; 467 468 Ukhorsky et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2016) but very few of them gave attention to relative contribution of each physical mechanism (Li et al., 1997; Onsager et al., 2002; Bortnik et al., 469 2006; Morley et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2013; Xiang et al., 2017). In this paper, we have determined 470 471 the fraction of the outer-belt relativistic electrons at L~4 that could have precipitated into the atmosphere during the dropout event that occurred during the St. Patrick's Day storm of 2015. 472 We assume that the perturbations observed on ground-based narrow-band VLF radio waves are 473 entirely due to relativistic electron precipitation associated with the dropout observed by the Van 474 Allen probes, and thus calculate an upper limit of the likely relativistic fluxes involved. A 475 476 dropout of electrons with energies in the range from 900 keV to 6.3 MeV was seen through RBSP's flux measurements starting at ~0630 UT on 17 March 2015 over L=3.5-6 with a power 477 law energy spectral gradient of -8.8 at 15° pitch angle, i.e., close to the atmospheric loss cone. 478 479 Strong perturbations in VLF narrowband transmitter signals for four L \approx 3 to 4.5 paths, i.e., NAA-Seattle, NAA- Edmonton, NML-St. John's and NML-Edmonton, are observed for nearly 480 two hours starting at the same time as the dropout. Phase increases of $\sim 180^{\circ}$ are typically 481 observed on the four paths analysed from ~0630 to 0830 UT. LWPC modelling is performed to 482 infer the ionospheric changes that occurred at the time of the dropout, using Wait ionospheric 483 parameterization. We found that $\beta = 0.35$ km⁻¹ and H[/] = 80 km would produce the observed 484 changes in VLF signal. The power law gradient and pitch angle distributions from RBSP, as well 485

486 as Wait ionospheric parameters from VLF radio wave observations, are used to calculate total 487 tube content, and subsequent EEP loss rates. The results suggest that it would take 50 days to drain a flux tube of 2 MeV electrons and 45 days to drain the 3.6 MeV flux at L≈4. However, the 488 satellite observations suggest that the flux decrease to drain the flux tube by 95% only took ~ 7 489 490 hours. Our calculations indicate that during this time interval only <0.5% of the relativistic fluxes 491 (900-6300 keV) could have been lost to the atmosphere. This leads to the conclusion that a very minimal fraction of the total trapped relativistic flux entered the atmosphere as a result of the 492 dropout at L=3 to 4.5, and electron precipitation was not the major contributor to the observed 493 494 dropout during the St. Patrick's Day storm of 2015.

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Figure Caption

Figure 1. Interplanetary conditions measured during the period of interest in our study. This plot shows Wind observations representing solar wind speed (*Vsw*), density (*n*), pressure (*Psw*), temperature (*T*), IMF *Bz*, SYM-H, and ASY-H. The vertical black line represents the Sudden Storm Commencement (SSC) which occurred at 04:45 UT.

Figure 2. Locations of VLF transmitters, NAA and NML and receivers Seattle (SEA), St. John's (STJ) and Edmonton (ED) respectively along with great circle paths and L= 3, 4, 5 contours. The magenta and green dots represent the ionospheric footprints of RBSP-A and RBSP-B at $t_1 = 6:30$ UT and $t_2 = 8:30$ UT respectively.

Figure 3. POES P6 trapped (90-deg) and BLC (0-deg) fluxes during 17 March 2015. The colour bar shows the logarithm of the flux (for electron energy>700 keV), while the vertical dotted lines indicate the start and end times of the dropout event, and the horizontal red lines indicate the Lshell range of the VLF paths shown in Figure 2.

Figure 4. RBSP electron flux from Relativistic Electron Proton Telescope (REPT) for (a) 2.0
MeV, (b) 3.6 MeV and (c) 4.2 MeV flux for whole month of March, 2015; (d) 2.0 MeV, (e) 3.6

MeV and (f) 4.2 MeV flux for 17 and 18 March 2015. RBSP electron flux from MagEIS for (g)
226.1 keV, (h) 464.4 keV and (i) 741.6 keV flux for whole month of March, 2015; (j) 226.1 keV,
(k) 464.4 keV and (l) 741.6 keV flux for 17 and 18 March 2015. The vertical black lines
represent the duration of VLF perturbations analysed in this study.

Figure 5. (panels a –e) RBSP-A pitch angle distributions for a range of relativistic electron energies at 07:21 UT at L=4 on 17 March 2015. Labels indicate the *n* parameter fit (using $\sin^{n}\alpha$) to the observations. Panel f shows the power law energy spectrum at 90° and 15° pitch angles.

815 Figure 6. VLF amplitude (left hand column) and phase (right hand column) for the four paths 816 studied (black lines). Panels (a) show the data for 0-24 UT on 17 March 2015. Panels (b) show the 6-9 UT period in more detail. Each individual path is identified on the left hand side of the 817 818 row. The red curves represent the signal observed on a representative non-disturbed day (marked 819 as the "Quiet Day Curve" (QDC)). Here the blue asterisks show the results of the LWPC modelling to reproduce the undisturbed QDC observations. Vertical black lines represent the 820 821 duration over which average of the signal is taken. Horizontal green lines in panels (a) represent an estimate of the uncertainty in the pre-event amplitude and phase levels for 3 hours prior to the 822 start time. See text for more details. 823

Figure 7. Variation of the LWPC modelled amplitude and phase of VLF signals as a function of the reference height (H[/]) for varying sharpness factor (β) for the paths: NAA-SEA, NAA-EDM, NML-STJ, and NML-EDM. Observed perturbation levels on each path are indicated by horizontal dot-dashed lines, while the inferred H' solution is shown by a vertical line. The green boxes indicate the uncertainty in perturbation level, and thus the H' solution due to uncertainty in the initial QDC levels. See text for more details. Figure 8. D-region electron number density profiles during the dropout event of 17 March 2015. The black line represents the ambient nighttime profile, while the heavy dashed blue line is the disturbed Wait ionosphere (β =0.35, H'=80 km) inferred from the VLF observations. Lighter blue, green, red lines are the best fitting electron densities profiles produced by the EEP modelling determined from Van Allen Probes data.

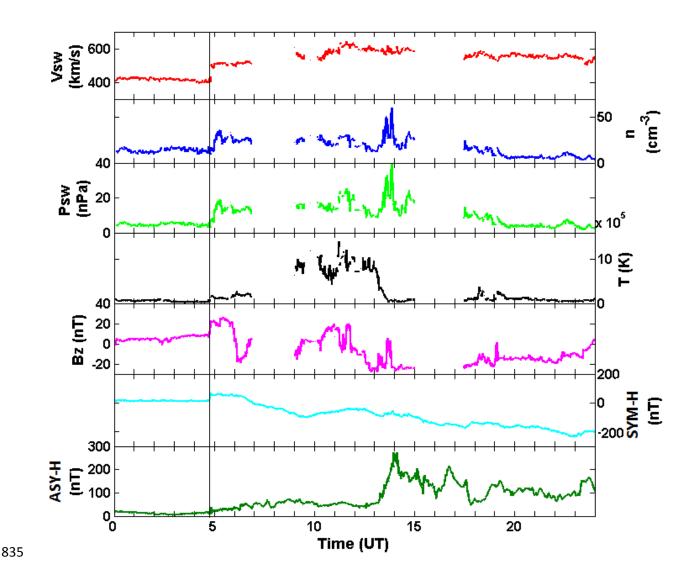
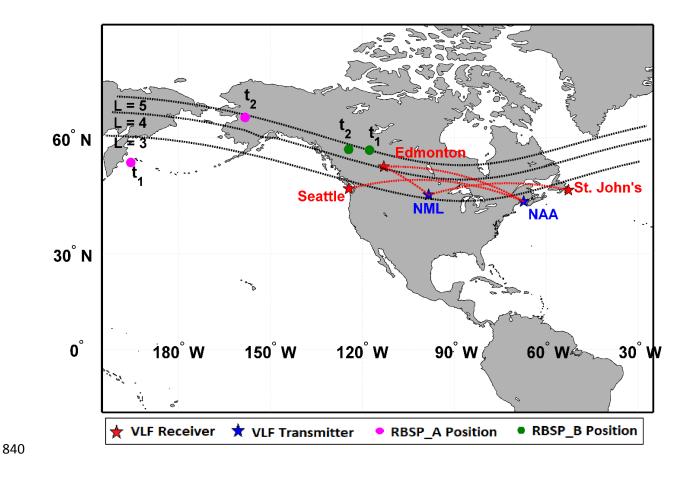


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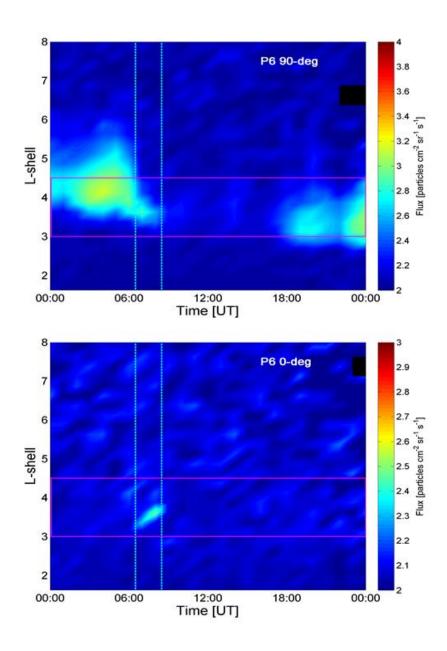




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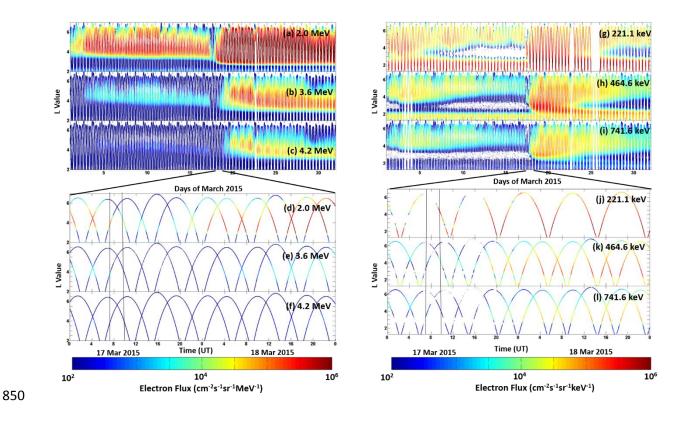


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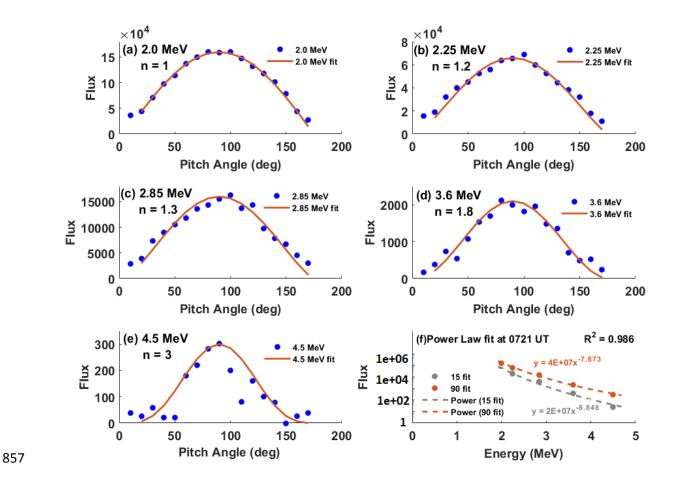
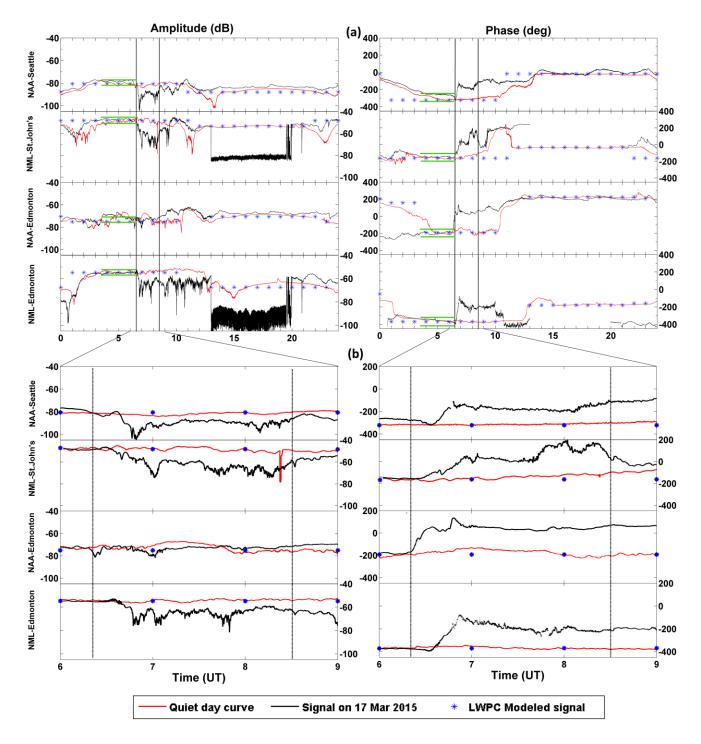


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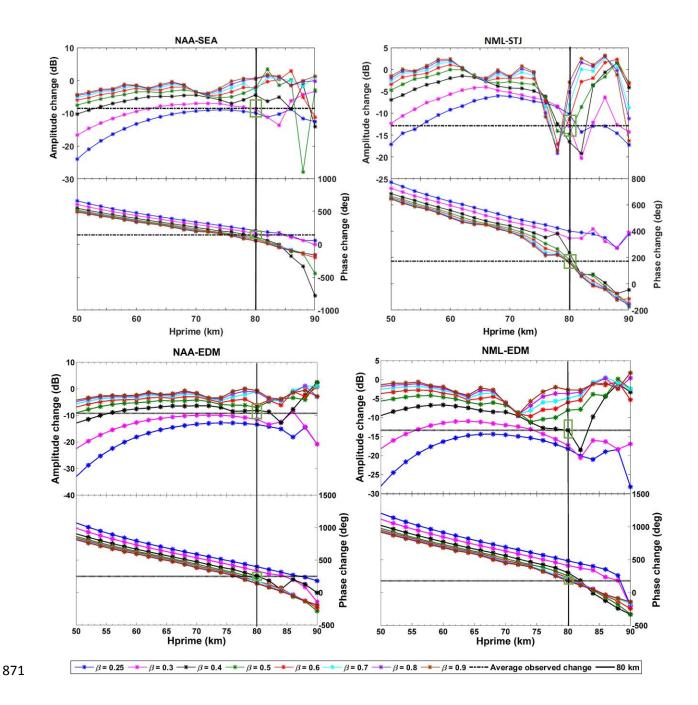
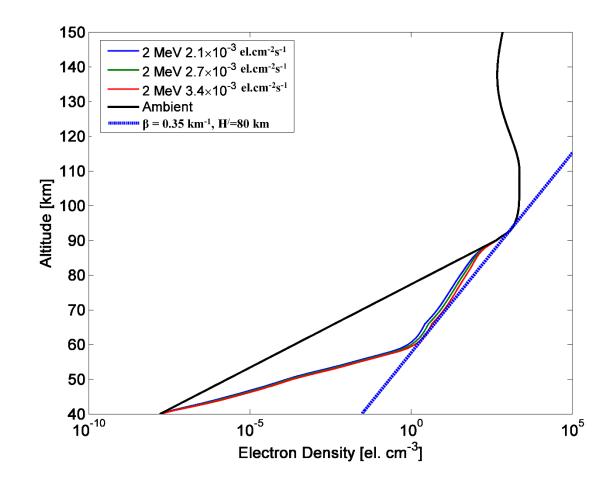


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