

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

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22 **Key points**

23 The March 2013 outer radiation belt flux dropout is consistent with fast outward ULF wave  
24 radial diffusion to a compressed magnetopause

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26 Outward radial diffusion at high  $L$  combined with a loss process occurring on  $L < 3.5$  are required  
27 to explain the March 2015 flux dropout

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29 Event specific radial diffusion coefficients should be used to simulate outer belt flux dynamics  
30 especially during the storm main phase

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## 48 **Abstract**

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

## 67 **1 Introduction**

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

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

77  
78 Several different approaches have been used to specify the required ULF wave electric and  
79 magnetic field power and derive the radial diffusion coefficients. Brautigam and Albert (2000)  
80 used a statistical database of ULF wave power spectral density values based on in-situ and  
81 ground-based magnetometer measurements to empirically specify the average radial diffusion  
82 coefficient resulting from the induced electric field as a function of Kp (see also, Lanzerotti et  
83 al., 1973; and Lanzerotti et al., 1978). Using a much larger database of global ground-based  
84 magnetometer measurements, as well as in-situ Time History of Events and Macroscale  
85 Interactions during Substorms (THEMIS) (Angelopoulos, 2008) and GOES magnetometer  
86 (Singer et al., 1996) ULF wave measurements, Ozeke et al. (2014b) also derived analytic  
87 expressions for the average electric and magnetic radial diffusion coefficients as a function of  
88 Kp. As shown for example by Ozeke et al. (2014a) and Ozeke et al. (2014b), these statistically  
89 derived radial diffusion coefficients can produce outer belt electron flux variations in good  
90 agreement with observations over long timescales during geomagnetically quiet times. However,  
91 for event specific case studies of individual large geomagnetic storms the radial diffusion  
92 coefficients derived directly from the measured ULF waves can be significantly different from

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

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

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

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

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

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

136

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

153

154 High temporal and spatial resolution electron flux measurements taken by the constellation of  
155 Global Positioning System (GPS) satellites during these two storms presented in Olifer et al.  
156 (2018), show that the timing and extent of the electron flux dropout is closely correlated with the  
157 dynamics of the location of the LCDS consistent with the electron flux data in panels (i) and (e)  
158 of Figure 1. The local pitch angle (P.A.) distribution of the electrons measured by the two Van  
159 Allen Probes during the flux dropout intervals for the March 2015 and March 2013 geomagnetic

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

### 173 **3 Modeling Methodology**

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

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

177 In equation (1)  $f$  represents the phase space density of the electrons and it is assumed that the  
 178 first and second adiabatic invariants,  $M$  and  $J$ , are conserved (see Schulz & Lanzerotti 1974). The  
 179 diffusion coefficient and the electron lifetime are represented by  $D_{LL}$  and  $\tau$  respectively.

180 The solutions to equation (1) only give the electron phase density space density,  $f$ . In order to  
181 determine the electron flux at fixed energies as a function of  $L$  equation (1) is solved for multiple  
182 different first adiabatic invariants,  $M$  (see e.g., Ozeke et al., 2014a; Ozeke et al., 2014b; and  
183 Ozeke et al., 2018, for details).

### 184 3.1 Radial Diffusion Coefficients

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

$$D_{LL}^E = \frac{1}{8B_E^2 R_E^2} L^6 \sum_m P_m^E(m\omega_d) \quad (2)$$

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

$$\omega - m\omega_d = 0. \quad (3)$$

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

214

215 In addition, as shown in equation (2),  $D_{LL}^E$  also depends on the PSD value as a function of the  
 216 azimuthal wavenumber,  $m$ . However, in order to determine the  $m$ -value from ground-based  
 217 magnetometer measurements requires a coherent ULF wave signal at each frequency and L-shell  
 218 to be detected across a range of longitudinally separated stations (see e.g., Chisham & Mann,  
 219 1999) which in general does not occur. In order to resolve the uncertainty in the PSD as a  
 220 function of  $m$ -value, we adopt the approach discussed in Ozeke et al. (2014b) and assume that

221 the magnetometer derived frequency independent equatorial azimuthal electric field PSD,  $P^{meas}$ ,  
 222 is the sum of the PSD's at each individual  $m$ -value,  $P_m^E$ , so that

$$P^{meas} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P_m^E \quad (4)$$

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

230

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

### 236 3.2 Boundary and Initial Conditions

237 In order to solve the diffusion equation shown in equation (1) the electron phase space density,  $f$ ,  
 238 must be specified at an inner and outer boundary. For the inner boundary condition, we set  
 239  $f(L^*=1)=0$ , representing assumed loss to the atmosphere. Here the outer boundary condition is set  
 240 at  $L^*=5$ . At  $L^*=5$  the electron phase space density at fixed first and second adiabatic invariants,

241 M, and ,K, respectively, is derived using the fully relativistic formula presented in Boyd et al.  
242 (2014);

$$f = 3.325 \times 10^{-8} \frac{J}{E(E + 2m_0c^2)} \left[ \left( \frac{c}{\text{MeVcm}} \right)^3 \right]. \quad (5)$$

243 Here,  $J$  is the particle flux at fixed first and second adiabatic invariants in units of  $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{sr}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}\text{keV}^{-1}$ ,  
244 derived using the TS04D magnetic field model (Tsyganenko & Sitnov, 2005), and measurements  
245 of the electron flux taken with the Magnetic Electron and Ion Spectrometer (MagEIS) (Blake et  
246 al., 2013) and the REPT instruments on-board Van Allen Probes A and B. The particle's kinetic  
247 energy and rest mass in MeV are represented by  $E$  and  $m_0c^2$ , respectively (see Boyd et al., 2014  
248 Turner & Li, 2008; and Chen et al., 2005, for more details).

249

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

263 invariant to the observed and initially low electron phase space density, as measured by the Van  
264 Allen Probes.

### 265 3.3 **Electron Loss**

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

## 278 **4 Results**

### 279 4.1 **Effects of different radial diffusion coefficients**

280 In Figure 3 the ULF wave radial diffusion coefficients derived using different approaches during  
281 the March 2015 and 2013 geomagnetic storms are compared. The red and green curves represent  
282 the empirically defined radial diffusion coefficients as a function of Kp derived by Brautigam  
283 and Albert (2000) for the electromagnetic diffusion term  $D_{LL}^{EM}$  [B & A], and by Ozeke et al.  
284 (2014b) for the electric diffusion term  $D_{LL}^E$  [Ozeke]. The black curves represent the event specific

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

#### 290 4.2 Simulations of March 2013 and 2015 storms

291  
292 Using the approach outlined in the methodology section, including the effects arising from the  
293 time dependence of the outer boundary condition, we simulated the relativistic electron flux  
294 during the March 2015 and March 2013 storms with our ULF wave radial diffusion model.  
295 Figure 4 illustrates the impact of using different diffusion coefficients on the simulated electron  
296 flux during the March 2015 and March 2013 storms. Panels (a-b) and (c-d) shown in Figure 4  
297 show the simulated flux derived using empirical expressions for the diffusion coefficients using  
298 the specifications from Brautigam and Albert (2000), for  $D_{LL}^{EM}$ [B & A] and Ozeke et al. (2014b),  
299 for  $D_{LL}^E$ [Ozeke], respectively. The simulated electron flux derived using these empirical diffusion  
300 coefficients produces flux values which are in general higher than the measured flux; compare  
301 for example panels (a-d) with panels (g-h) in Figure 4. However, panels (e) and (f) in Figure 4  
302 also shows that when event-specific radial diffusion coefficients are derived from the ground-  
303 based magnetometers measurements of ULF waves, using  $D_{LL}^E$ [E. S.], the agreement between the  
304 simulated and measured 2.6 MeV energy electron flux during both storms is improved. In order  
305 to estimate the possible impact of the compressional magnetic field panels (g) and (h) show  
306 simulations with an added  $D_{LL}^B$  term during the flux dropout intervals. Here we assume that the  
307  $D_{LL}^B$  term is an order of magnitude greater than  $D_{LL}^E$ , consistent with the results presented in

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

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

340

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

354 additional loss may also result from resonant wave-particle interactions with small scale size  
355 kinetic Alfvén waves which are not included in our simulations (see Chaston et al., 2017).  
356 Chaston et al. (2017) presented theoretical results indicating that these kinetic Alfvén waves may  
357 be able to radially diffuse electrons with energies  $>100$  keV outward to the magnetopause,  
358 rapidly depleting the outer belt on the timescale of hours during the storm main phase.  
359 Nonetheless, the large-scale morphological agreement between the model and the observed flux  
360 is in general quite good for the March 2015 event when simulated with  $D_{LL}^E$  [E. S.].  
361  
362 For the March 2013 magnetic storm (right column of Figure 4 and Figure 5) there is even better  
363 agreement between the simulation results and observations. Significantly, for the March 2013  
364 storm, the simulation results derived using the event-specific radial diffusion coefficient  $D_{LL}^E$  [E.  
365 S.] is in excellent agreement with the data; results from both the  $D_{LL}^{EM}$  [B&A] and  $D_{LL}^E$  [Ozeke]  
366 empirical models as well as for  $D_{LL}^{E+B}$  [E. S.] transporting electrons onto lower  $L^*$  values than is  
367 observed. Nonetheless, during the main phase of both storms, there appears to be an under-  
368 estimate of the fast losses at low  $L^*$  values which especially for the March 2015 storm, results in  
369 penetration of the electron flux to very low L-shell regions,  $L^* < 2.8$ , for all representations of  
370  $D_{LL}$ . This suggests that especially for the March 2015 storm, that the introduction of additional  
371 low  $L^*$  losses into the 1-dimensional model might improve the agreement with the flux observed  
372 by the Van Allen Probes, we investigate this hypothesis below.

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

374

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

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

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

403

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

416

#### 417 4.4 March 2013 Storm: Simulation Without Additional Fast Loss

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

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

429

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

443

444 Previous studies of the March 2013 geomagnetic storm have suggested that local acceleration of  
445 the outer radiation belt electrons by resonance with chorus waves could have contributed to the  
446 flux enhancement during the recovery phase on March 18 and 19 (see e.g., Z. Li et al. 2014; W.

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

460

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

470 available from <https://drive.google.com/drive/u/0/folders/0ByNhSbWkAgdfaGt6TnJMCElhUTg>.  
471 As mentioned in the acknowledgement this is the data repository for the Geospace Environment  
472 Modeling (GEM) challenge events in 2013 selected by the *Quantitative Assessment of Radiation*  
473 *Belt Modeling* focus group.

474

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

486

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

493 growing peaks are due to acceleration by chorus waves. The results presented in Ma et al.  
494 (2018), W. Li et al. (2014) and in our Figure 9 (see also Figures S5 and S6 in the supporting  
495 material) indicate that the local electron phase space density peak at  $L^*\sim 3.8$  does not continue to  
496 grow at times later than  $\sim 05$  UT on March 18. However, our results indicate that at times after  
497  $\sim 05$  UT on March 18 the electron phase space density further increases across all L-shells greater  
498 than  $L^*\sim 4$ . Moreover, these subsequent increases in the electron phase space density beyond  
499  $L^*\sim 4$  become progressively greater with increasing L-shell, so that no locally growing peaks  
500 occur at  $L^*\gtrsim 4$ , see Figure 9 panels (e) to (l) (also see the same panels in Figure S5 and S6 in the  
501 supporting material). Consequently, this additional enhancement in the electron phase density at  
502 times after  $\sim 05$  UT on March 18 is not consistent with the occurrence of growing peaks  
503 associated with local acceleration of the electrons inside the apogee of the Van Allen Probes,  
504 since the phase space density profile monotonically increases with increasing  $L^*$ , beyond  $L^*\sim 4$ .  
505  
506 However, the additional enhancement in the electron phase space density beyond  $L^*\sim 4$  could  
507 result from a local acceleration mechanism occurring at  $L^*$  values higher than the apogee of the  
508 Van Allen Probes (see Boyd et al., 2018). Alternatively, the enhancement could result from the  
509 inward radial transport of energetic electrons from a plasmashet source. In order to resolve  
510 which process may be responsible for the increase in the electron flux beyond  $L^*\sim 4$  and during  
511 times after  $\sim 05$  UT on March 18 would require additional measurements of the electron phase  
512 space density beyond the apogee of the Van Allen Probes. Nonetheless, our simulations results  
513 presented in Figure 8 clearly indicate that inward transport of the electrons from  $L^*=5$  driven by  
514 the event specific ULF wave radial diffusion coefficients can accurately reproduce the observed

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

517

## 518 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

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

530

531 During the flux dropout interval, the last closed drift shell (LCDS) moved inward to  $L^* \sim 5$  and  
532 butterfly pitch-angle distributions with a minimum flux near  $90^\circ$  for both storms were observed  
533 near the apogee of the Van Allen Probes, consistent with the hypothesis that the flux dropout  
534 resulted from magnetopause shadowing and outward ULF wave driven radial diffusion. Turner  
535 et al. (2014) also reached a similar conclusion in their analysis of a flux dropout event which  
536 occurred in September 2012. In our simulation results, the flux at the outer boundary, defined to  
537 be at  $L^* = 5$ , was set to zero during this dropout interval, consistent with magnetopause

538 shadowing, since the measured flux was either at the noise floor of instrument or the probes did  
539 not reach  $L^*=5$  during the dropout interval (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 as well as supporting  
540 material Figure S2). Note that changing the time extent of the dropout interval where the flux at  
541  $L^*=5$  was set to zero by  $\pm 2$  hours did not significantly affect the simulation results.

## 542 5.1 March 2015 Storm

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

561

562 5.2 **March 2013 Storm**

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

572

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

584 dominant acceleration mechanism. The profiles in  $f$ , presented here for the March 2013 storm  
585 also show a growing peak near  $L^*\sim 3.8$  immediately following the flux dropout interval.  
586 However, at later times and at higher  $L^*$  values beyond  $L^*=4$  the values of the electron phase  
587 space density gradually become greater than those at the location of the local peak in the  $f$  profile  
588 (see our Figure 9). Our results therefore indicate that during this storm that inward radial  
589 diffusion by ULF may have played a significant role in the acceleration and flux recovery at  
590  $L^*\gtrsim 4$ . However local acceleration may also have played an important role in the electron flux  
591 dynamics during the initial flux recovery interval on lower L-shells near  $L^*\sim 3.8$ .

592

593 For both the March 2015 and March 2013 storms the simulation results presented in this paper  
594 demonstrate that the large-scale morphology and dynamics of the outer electron radiation belt  
595 can be successfully modeled with ULF wave radial diffusion. The results further highlight the  
596 importance of using radial diffusion coefficients derived from event specific ULF wave  
597 measurements, instead of using empirical models for  $D_{LL}$  based on ULF wave statistics, in order  
598 to accurately simulate the overall flux dynamics in the outer radiation belt.

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## 852 **7 Acknowledgements**

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854 IRM is supported by a Discovery Grant from Canadian NSERC. This research was supported by  
855 funding from the Canadian Space Agency through a Geospace Observatory (GO) Canada  
856 Science and Applications grant. We acknowledge the WDC for Geomagnetism, Kyoto  
857 University, Japan for the geomagnetic indices (<http://wdc.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp/>). We also  
858 acknowledge use of NASA/GSFC's Space Physics Data Facility's OMNIWeb service, and OMNI  
859 data. CARISMA is operated by the University of Alberta, funded by the Canadian Space Agency  
860 (<http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). The authors thank D.K. Milling and the CARISMA team for the  
861 provision of data (<http://www.carisma.ca/>). Van Allen Probes ECT funding is provided by  
862 JHU/APL contract 967399 under NASA's Prime contract NAS5-01072 ([https://rbsp-](https://rbsp-ect.lanl.gov/rbsp_ect.php)  
863 [ect.lanl.gov/rbsp\\_ect.php](https://rbsp-ect.lanl.gov/rbsp_ect.php)). The GOES 13 and 15 magnetic field data are produced in real time by  
864 the NOAA Space Weather Prediction Center (SWPC) and are distributed by the NOAA National  
865 Geophysical Data Center (NGDC) (<http://satdat.ngdc.noaa.gov/sem/goes/data/>). Electron phase  
866 space density data used in this study is available from  
867 <https://drive.google.com/drive/u/0/folders/0ByNhSbWkAgdfaGt6TnJMcElhUTg>. A duplicate  
868 copy of the phase space density data is also available on the zenodo data repository  
869 <https://zenodo.org/record/3249418#.XTIQY-tKhEY>). The output from the plasmopause test

870 particle simulation used to specify the storm time location of the plasmopause is available from  
871 <http://enarc.space.swri.edu/PTP/>. The LANLGeoMag software library is available  
872 at <https://www.github.com/drsteve/LANLGeoMag>. LANL\* neural network was used through  
873 SpacePy python library (<https://pythonhosted.org/SpacePy/>). This research was enabled in part  
874 by software provided by Compute Canada (<http://www.computecanada.ca>). All data used in the  
875 paper is publicly accessible from the links provided above. All supporting material is available at  
876 the zenodo data repository (see <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3466079>).

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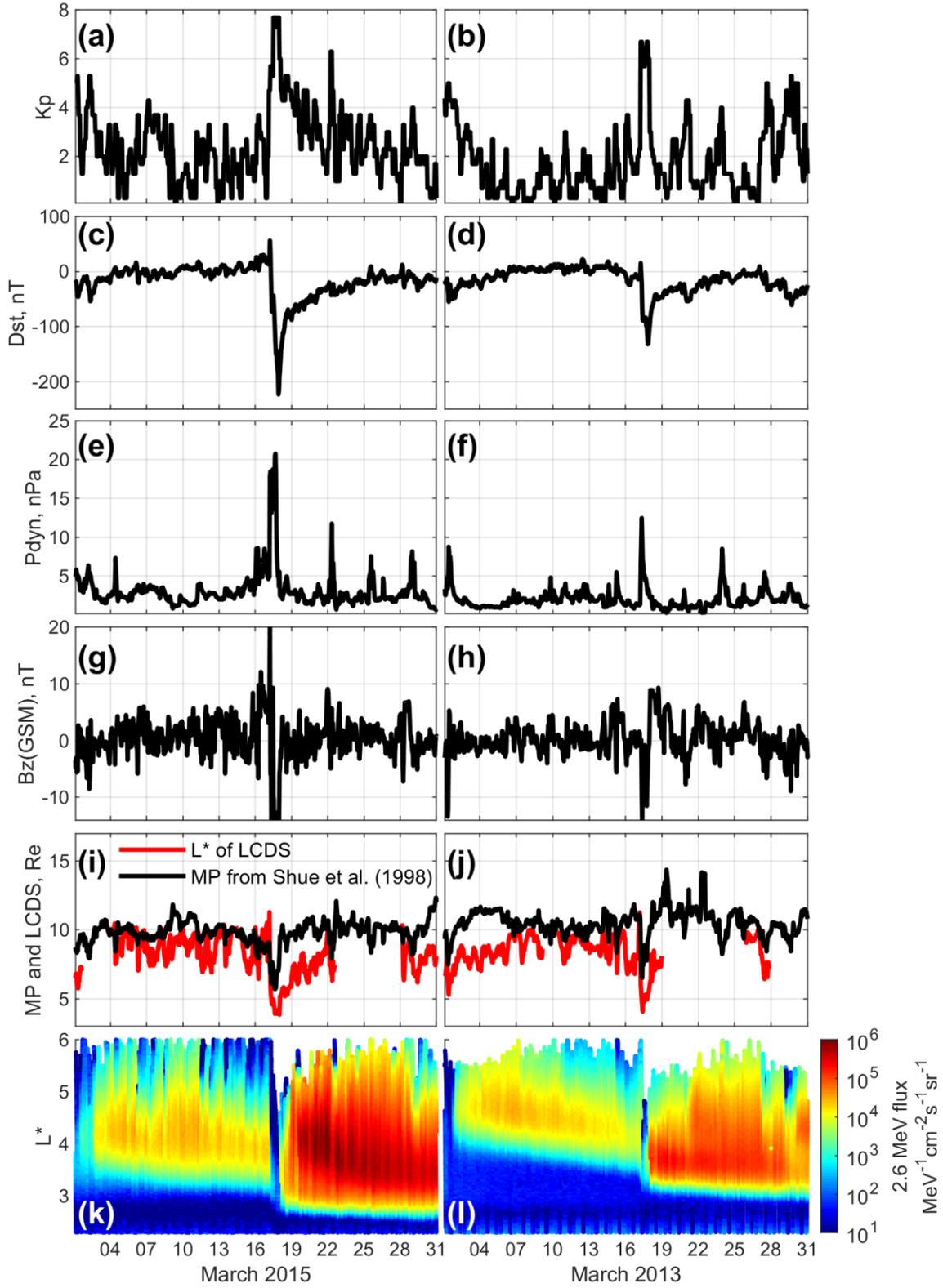
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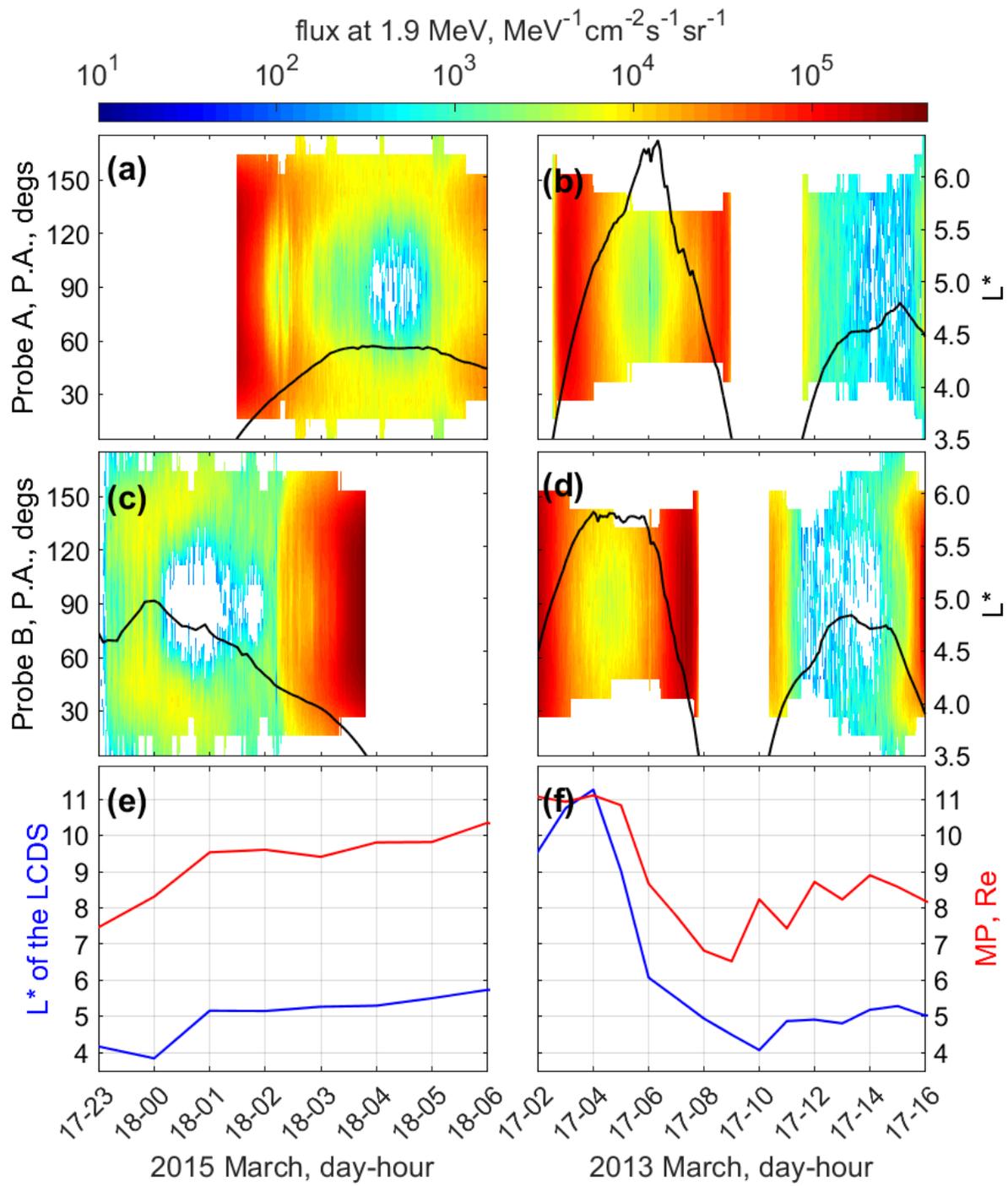
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894 **Figure 1: Electron flux and selected geomagnetic and solar wind parameters during the**  
895 **March 2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) storms. (a),(b) Geomagnetic index, Kp; (c),(d)**  
896 **Geomagnetic activity index, Dst; (e),(f) Solar wind dynamic pressure measured at the L1**  
897 **point; (g),(h) interplanetary magnetic field Bz component in geocentric solar**  
898 **magnetospheric (GSM) coordinates measured at the L1 point; (i),(j) Magnetopause**  
899 **location in ( $R_E$ ), based on Shue et al. (1998) and the  $L^*$  (TS04D) location of the last closed**  
900 **drift shell; (k),(l) electron flux at an energy of 2.6 MeV as a function of time and  $L^*$**   
901 **(TS04D) measured by the Van Allen Probes.**



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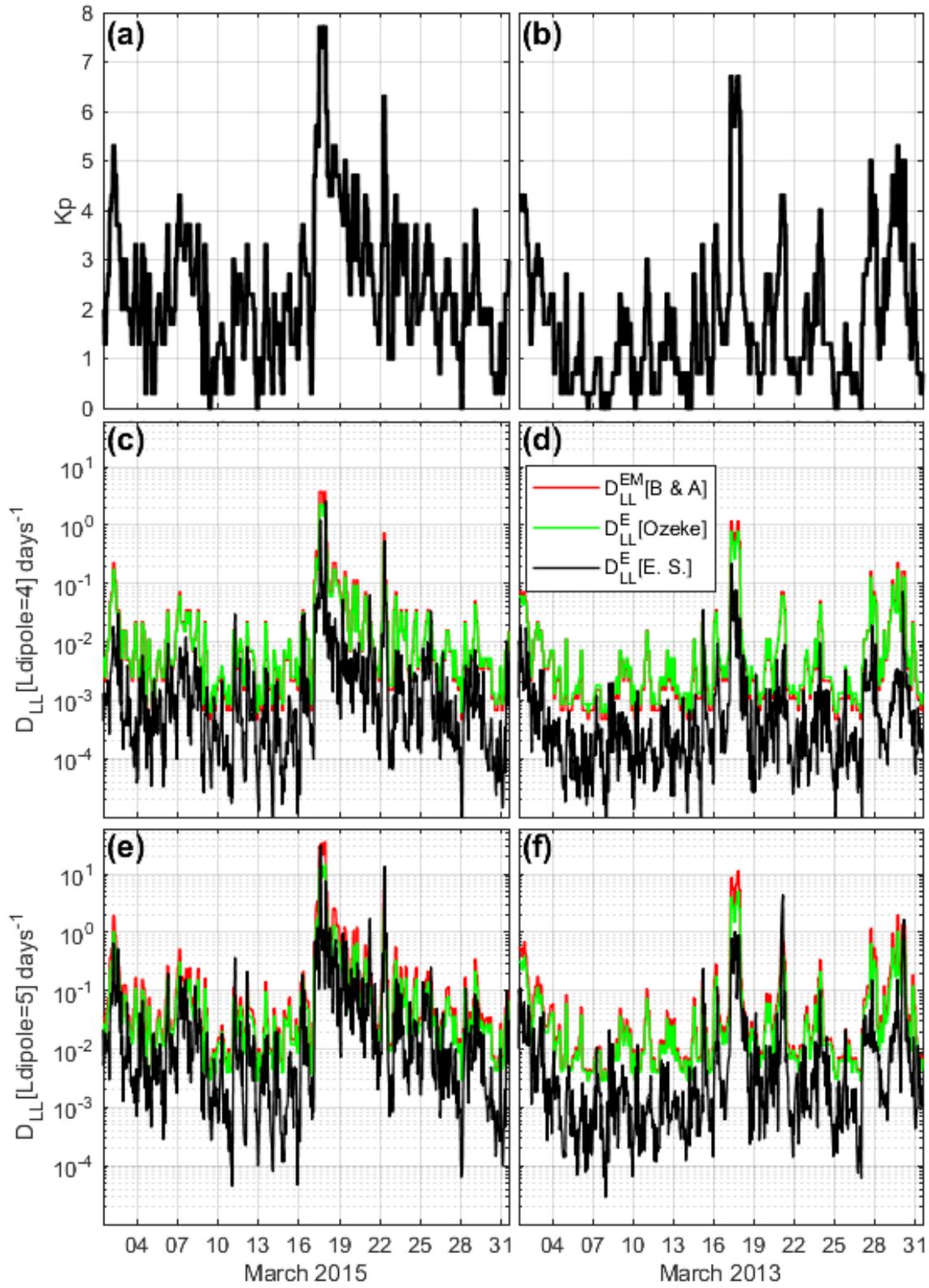
906 **Figure 2: Panels (a) – (d) show the pitch angle, (P. A.) distributions of the electron flux at**  
907 **an energy of 1.9 MeV measured by Van Allen Probes A (top row) and B (middle row)**  
908 **during the March 2015 (left panels) and March 2013 (right panels) flux dropouts. Over**  
909 **plotted is the  $L^*$  location of the probes, illustrated by the black curves. The red curves in**  
910 **panels (e) and (f) show the location of the magnetopause (MP) standoff distance in  $R_e$ ,**  
911 **derived using the Shue et al. (1998) model and the blue curves also show the  $L^*$  location of**  
912 **the last closed drift shell (LCDS). Similar results for 1.0 MeV energy electrons are shown in**  
913 **supporting material Figure S1.**

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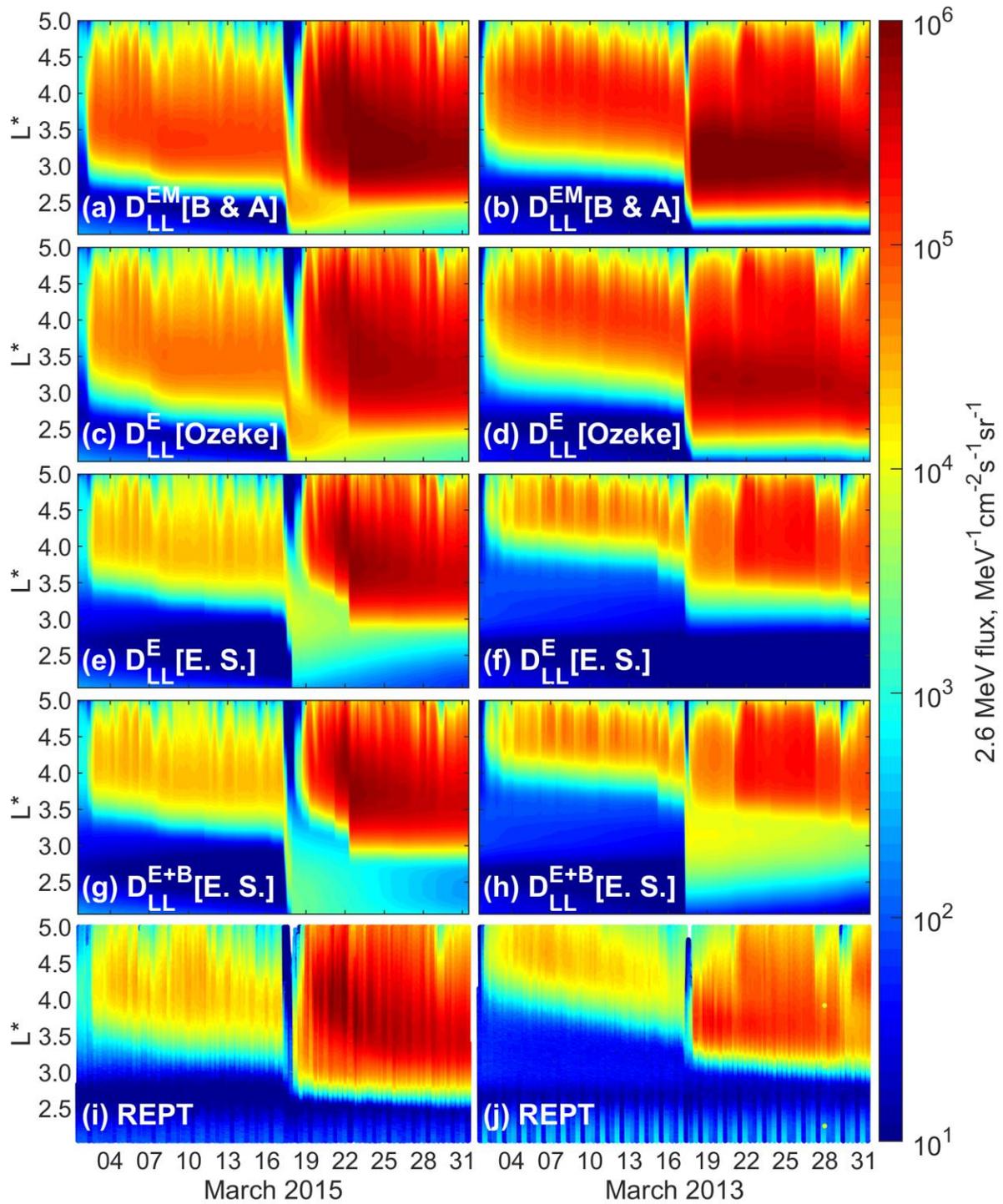
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919 **Figure 3: Radial diffusion coefficients at  $L=4$  and  $L=5$  during the March 2015 and March**  
920 **2013 geomagnetic storms. Panels (a) and (b) show the  $K_p$  variation during the March 2015**  
921 **(left column) and March 2013 (right column) storms, respectively. The radial diffusion**  
922 **coefficients as a function of  $K_p$  based on ULF wave statistics from Brautigam and Albert,**  
923 **(2000),  $D_{LL}^E$ [B & A], and Ozeke et al., (2014b),  $D_{LL}^E$ [Ozeke], are represented by the red and**  
924 **green curves, respectively. The event specific radial diffusion coefficients derived from**  
925 **ground-based magnetometer measurements,  $D_{LL}^E$ [E. S.] are represented by the black**  
926 **curves.**



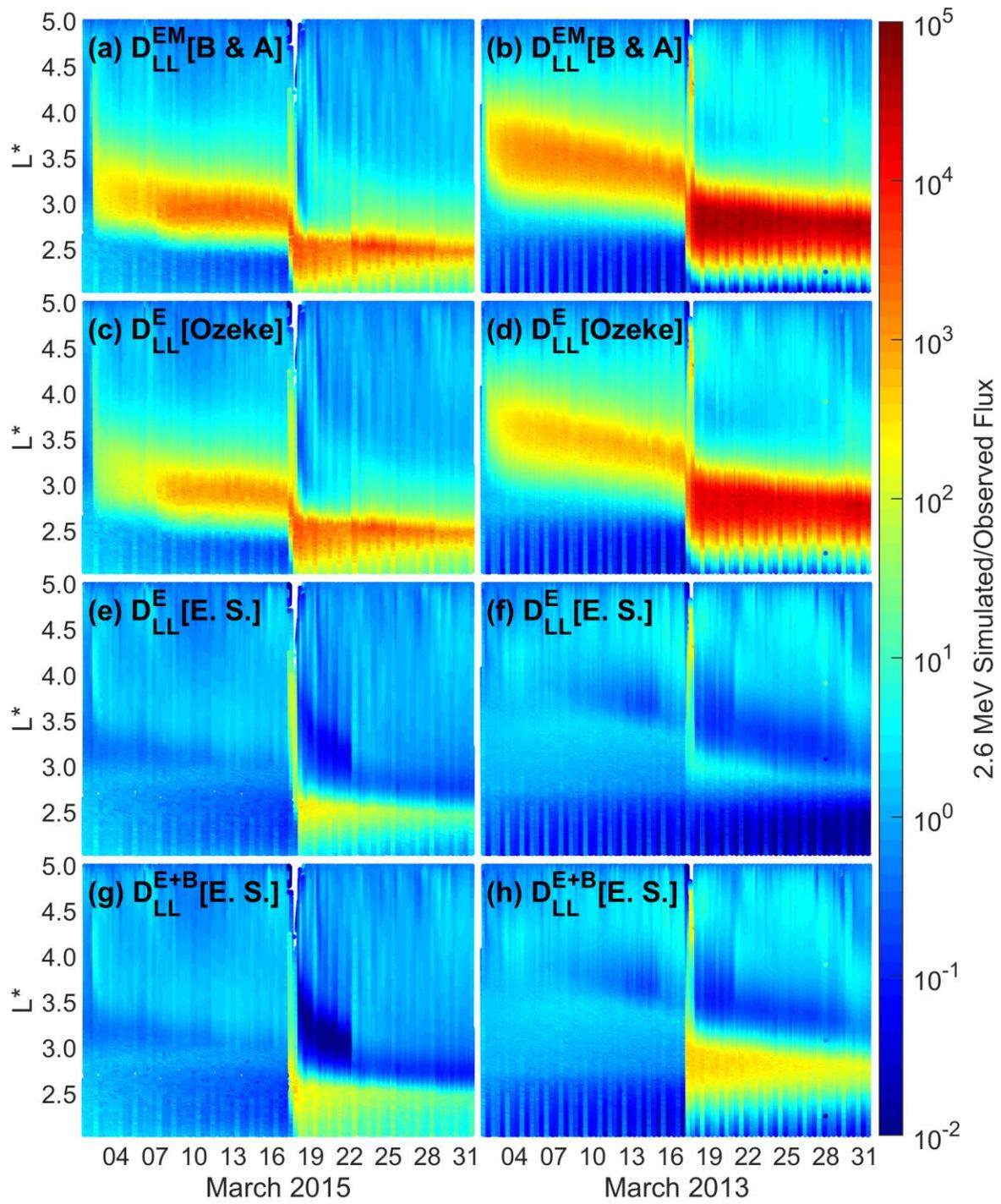
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931 **Figure 4: Comparison between the simulated and observed electron flux at an energy of 2.6**  
932 **MeV as a function of  $L^*$  derived using the TS04D magnetic field model during the March**  
933 **2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) storms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

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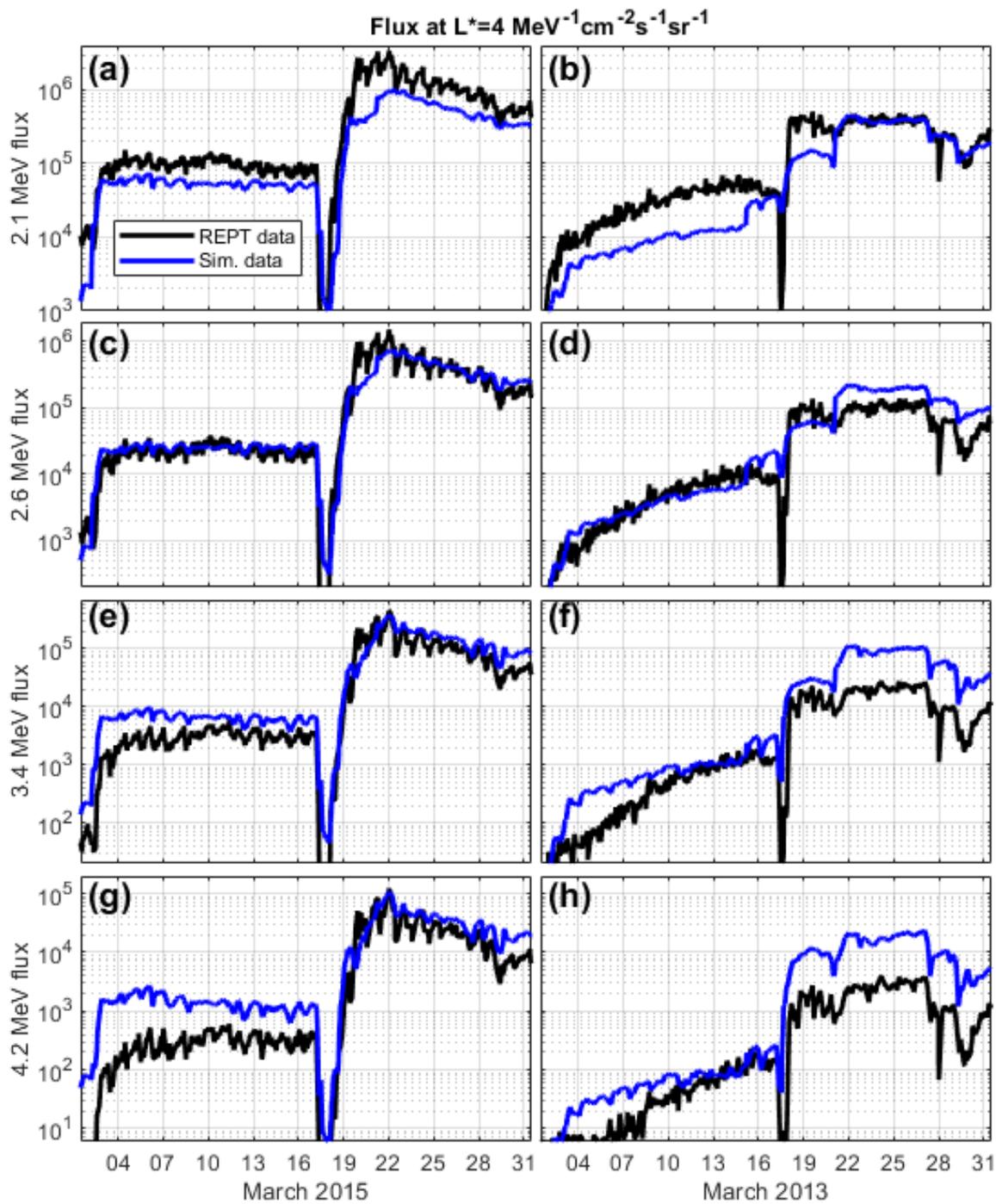
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951 **Figure 5: The ratio of the simulated over the observed electron flux values presented in**  
952 **Figure 4 during the March 2015 (left) and March 2013 (right) magnetic storms. Red to**  
953 **yellow regions indicate L-shells and times where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



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959 **Figure 6: Comparison between the observed, (black curve), and simulated, (blue curve),**  
960 **electron flux at  $L^*=4$  and at energies of 2.1, 2.6, 3.4 and 4.2 MeV during the March 2015**  
961 **(left) and March 2013 (right) magnetic storms. During both the March 2013 and 2015**  
962 **storms, at fixed  $L^*=4$ , the simulated (blue curve) and measured (black curves) ultra-**  
963 **relativistic electron flux values are in good agreement with each other to within an order of**  
964 **magnitude at all energies from 2.1 MeV to 4.2 MeV**

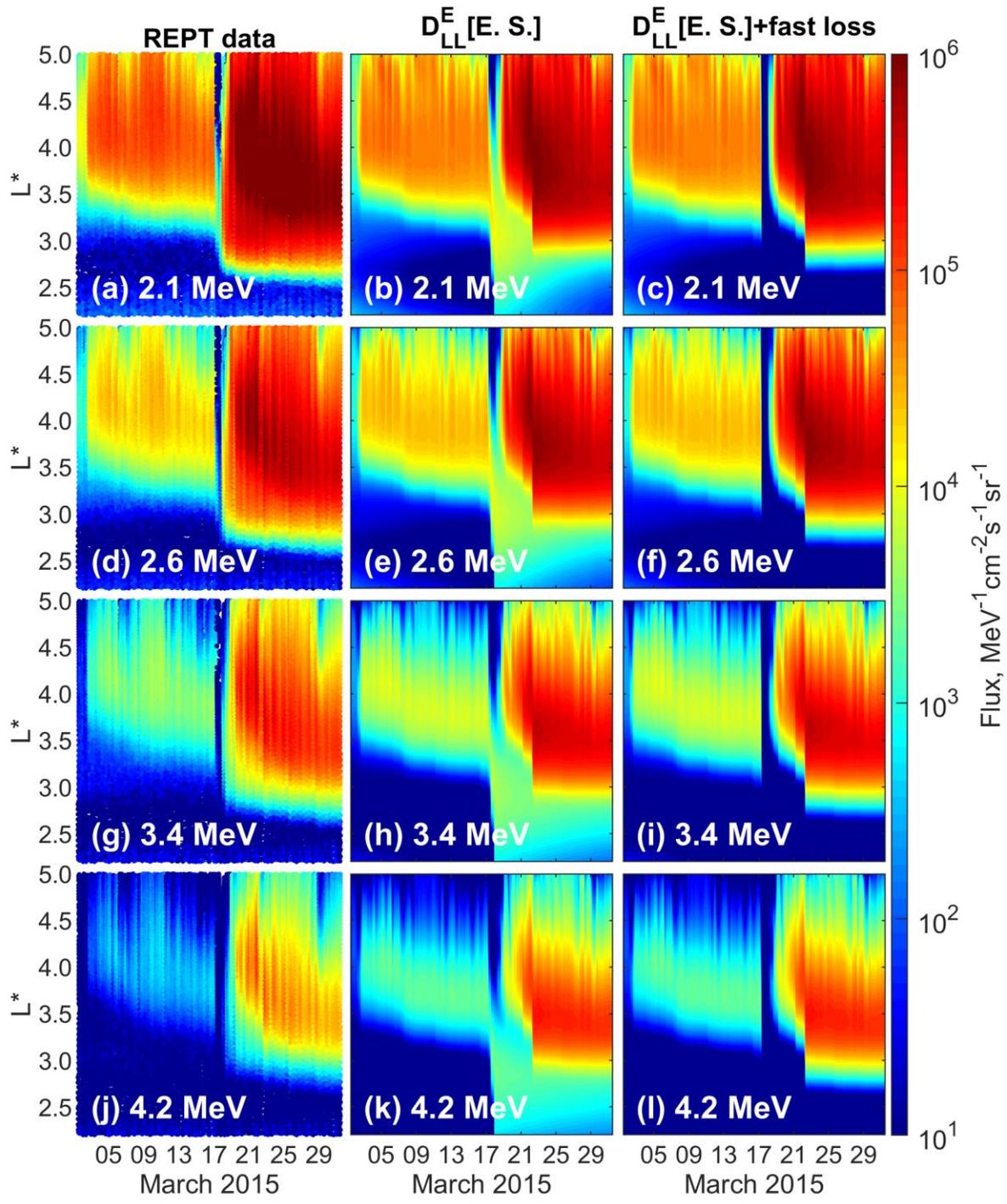
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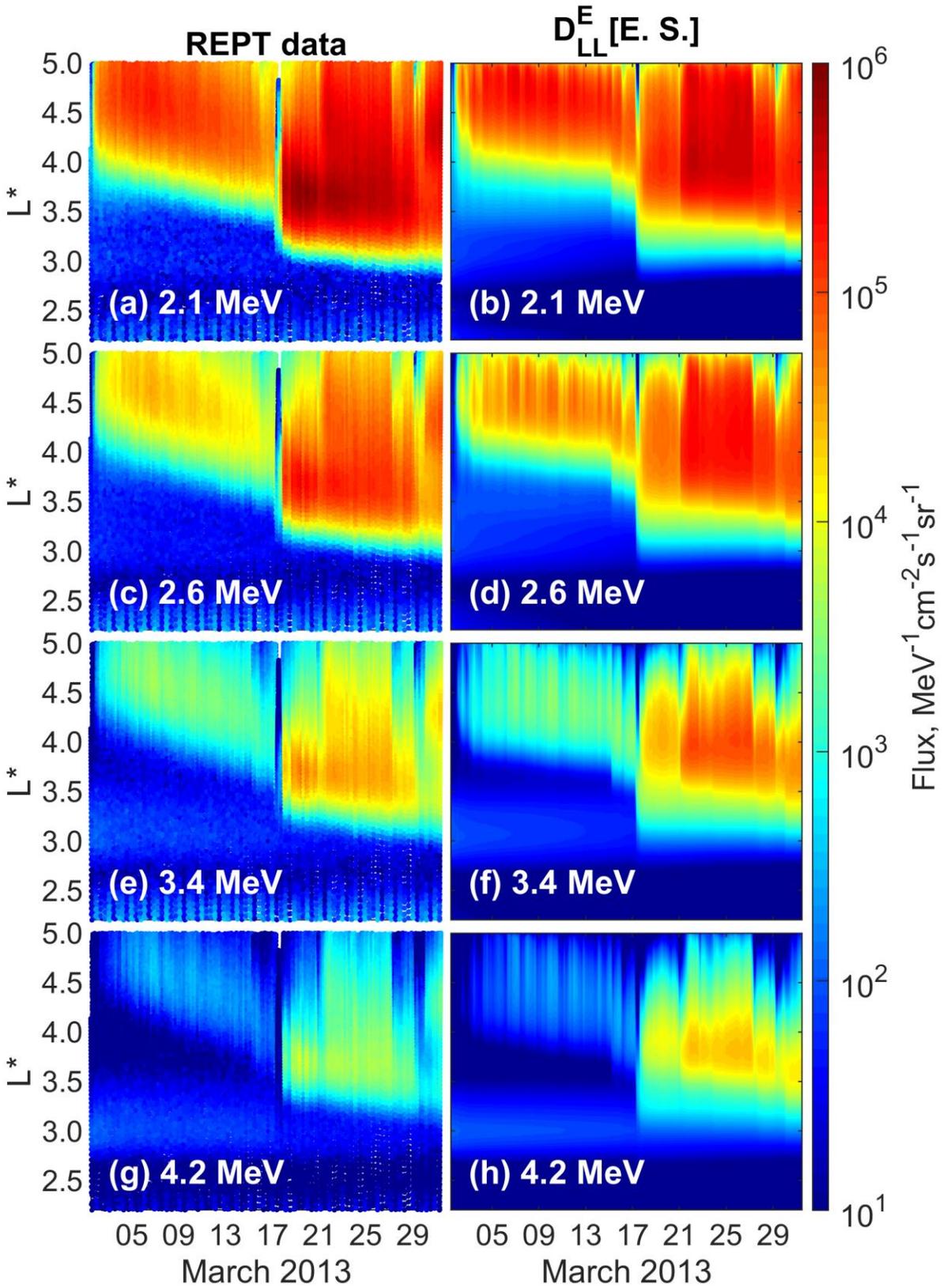
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973 **Figure 7: Comparison between the observed and simulated electron flux at energies of 2.1,**  
974 **2.6, 3.4 and 4.2 MeV as a function of  $L^*$  using the TS04D magnetic field model during the**  
975 **March 2015 storm. Panels (a), (d), (g), and (j) (left column) show the observed flux. Panels**  
976 **(b), (e), (h), and (k) (middle column) show the simulated electron flux using radial diffusion**  
977 **coefficients obtained from global ground magnetometer measurements of the ULF wave**  
978 **power,  $D_{LL}^E$ [E. S.]. Panels (c), (f), (i), and (l) (right column) show the simulated electron**  
979 **flux again using  $D_{LL}^E$ [E. S.] but with a short time interval of artificial loss with  $\tau=1$  hour**  
980 **included at  $L^* < 3.5$ , presenting additional fast loss.**

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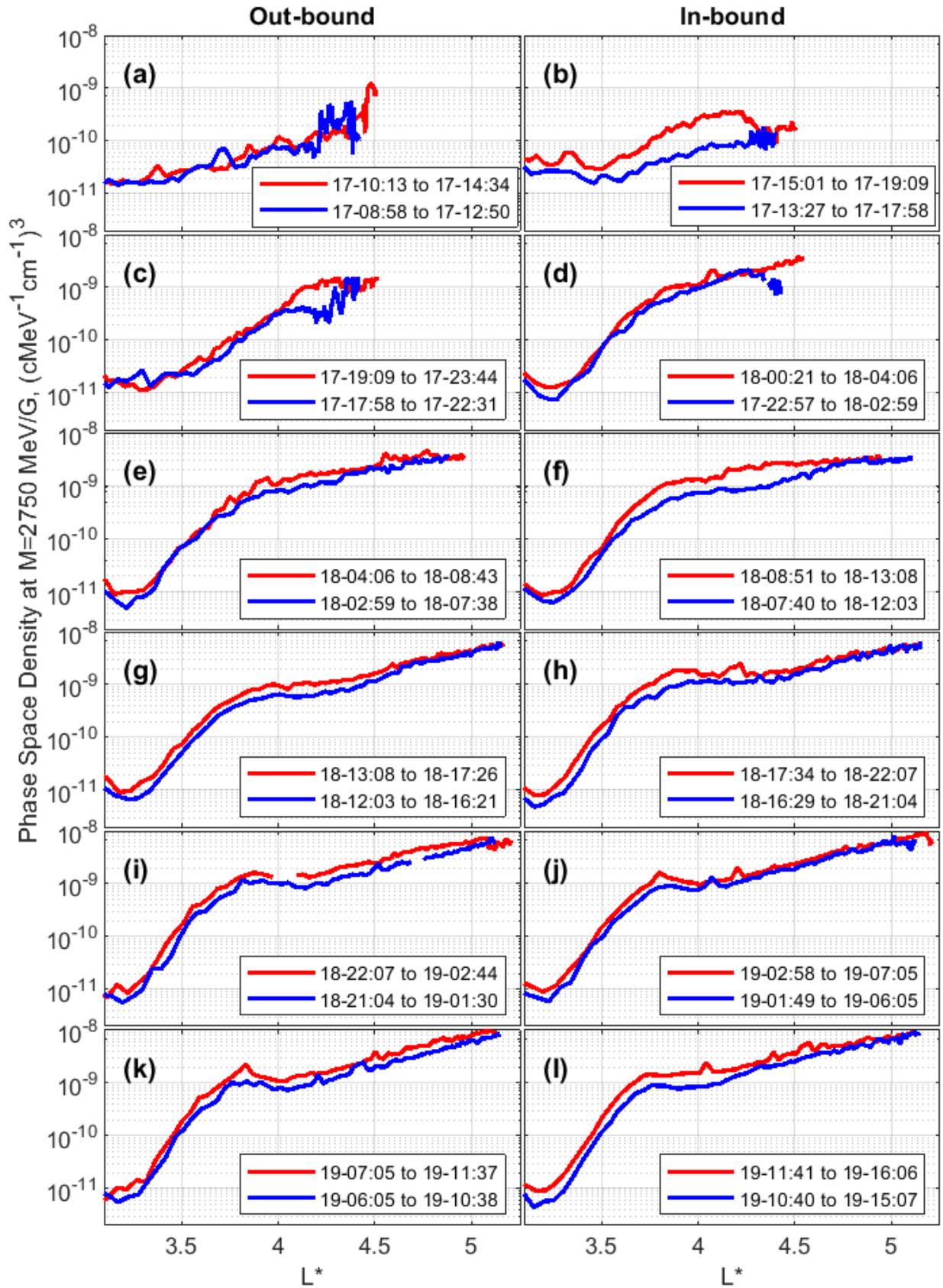


983 **Figure 8: Comparison between the observed and simulated electron flux at energies of 2.1,**  
984 **2.6, 3.4 and 4.2 MeV as a function of  $L^*$  using the TS04D magnetic field model during the**  
985 **March 2013 storm. Panels (a), (c), (e), and (g), (left columns) show the observed flux. Panels**  
986 **(b), (d), (f), and (h), (right columns) show the simulated electron flux using radial diffusion**  
987 **coefficients obtained from global ground magnetometer measurements of the ULF wave**  
988 **power,  $D_{LL}^E$  [E. S.]. As described in the text, the flux at the outer boundary at,  $L^*=5$ , is set to**  
989 **zero on March 17 from 8 UT to 24 UT. No additional artificial fast losses are included, see**  
990 **text for details.**

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995 **Figure 9: Evolution of the electron phase space density profiles as a function of  $L^*$  at**  
996  **$M=2750$  MeV/G and  $K=0.17$  G<sup>1/2</sup>Re during the March 2013 storm. The red and blue curves**  
997 **represent phase space density profiles derived from Van Allan Probes A and B,**  
998 **respectively. The start and end times of the out and in bound passes are shown in the**  
999 **legend in the format day-hour:minute. Similar plots for  $M=1590$  MeV/G and  $M=3980$**   
1000 **MeV/G electrons are shown in the supporting material in Figure S5 and Figure S6,**  
1001 **respectively.**  
1002