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3 **Improved Energy Resolution Measurements of Electron Precipitation**
4 **Observed during an IPDP-type EMIC event**
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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • An electromagnetic ion cyclotron wave event (an interval of pulsations with diminishing
15 period, IPDP) was studied from Low Earth Orbit
- 16 • Co-incident satellite observations detected IPDP-induced energetic electron precipitation,
17 starting at 150 keV, peaking at 215 keV
- 18 • High-resolution measurements from the DEMETER satellite show enhanced fluxes from
19 215 keV to 1.5 MeV exhibiting a ‘hard’ power-law spectrum
- 20

21

22 **Abstract**

23 High energy resolution DEMETER satellite observations from the Instrument for the Detection
24 of Particle (IDP) are analysed during an electromagnetic ion cyclotron (EMIC)-induced electron
25 precipitation event. Analysis of an Interval Pulsation with Diminishing Periods (IPDP)-type
26 EMIC wave event, using combined satellite observations to correct for incident proton
27 contamination, detected an energy precipitation spectrum ranging from ~ 150 keV to ~ 1.5 MeV.
28 While inconsistent with many theoretical predictions of >1 MeV EMIC-induced electron
29 precipitation, the finding is consistent with an increasing number of experimentally observed
30 events detected using lower resolution integral channel measurements on the POES, FIREBIRD,
31 and ELFIN satellites. Revised and improved DEMETER differential energy fluxes, after
32 correction for incident proton contamination shows that they agree to within 40% in peak flux
33 magnitude, and 85 keV (within 40%) for the energy at which the peak occurred as calculated
34 from POES integral channel electron precipitation measurements. This work shows that a subset
35 of EMIC waves found close to the plasmopause, i.e., IPDP-type rising tone events, can produce
36 electron precipitation with peak energies substantially below 1 MeV. The rising tone features of
37 IPDP EMIC waves, along with the association with the high cold plasma density regime, and the
38 rapidly varying electron density gradients of the plasmopause may be an important factor in the
39 generation of such low energy precipitation, co-incident with a high energy tail. Our work
40 highlights the importance of undertaking proton contamination correction when using the high-
41 resolution DEMETER particle measurements to investigate EMIC-driven electron precipitation.

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43

44 **Plain Language Summary**

45 Energetic electrons are lost rapidly from the outer radiation belt. Several processes are thought to
46 drive the electron losses. One process is through interactions with electromagnetic ion cyclotron
47 (EMIC) waves. Theoretical studies suggest that electrons primarily with energy >1 MeV are lost
48 through this process, however, previous experimental satellite observations indicate that
49 precipitation bursts with much lower electron energies are more common. One issue is that the
50 previous satellite observations were made with poor energy resolution and are challenging to
51 interpret due to coincident proton precipitation, which contaminate the electron measurements.
52 Here we use observations from the DEMETER satellite which we have corrected for proton
53 contamination. The measurements, made with higher energy resolution than before, confirm that
54 indeed, low energy electron precipitation can happen when EMIC waves drive electron losses.
55 The study finds that this lower energy characteristic is likely to be driven by a small subset of
56 rising tone EMIC waves, known as Interval Pulsation with Diminishing Periods (IPDP), typically
57 confined to the magnetic local time evening sector.

58

59 **1 Introduction**

60 The dynamical behavior of energetic electron fluxes in the outer radiation belt involves
61 the loss of electrons into the atmosphere – a process known as electron precipitation. Quantifying
62 and characterizing energetic electron precipitation (EEP, i.e., >10 keV) is one of the
63 requirements for a more complete description of solar forcing that can be used in coupled climate
64 models (Seppälä et al., 2015; van de Kamp et al., 2016; Matthes et al., 2017; Duderstadt et al.,
65 2021; Nesse Tyssøy et al., 2021; Salice et al., 2024). Electrons precipitating with energies
66 >10 keV will typically deposit their energy in the atmosphere at altitudes of 100 km or below
67 (Turunen et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2020; Katoh et al., 2023), leading to chemical and dynamical
68 changes in the climate system (Brasseur and Solomon, 2005; Andersson et al., 2012; Sinnhuber
69 et al., 2012; Mironova et al., 2015; Orsolini et al., 2018; Guttu et al., 2021). One mechanism that
70 causes energetic electron precipitation is via scattering with EMIC waves (e.g., Thorne and
71 Kennel, 1971; Millan & Thorne, 2007; Denton et al., 2019). Many theoretical predictions of
72 EMIC-induced electron precipitation suggest that fluxes primarily occur with energy > 1 MeV
73 (e.g., Thorne and Kennel, 1971; Summers & Thorne, 2003). However, recent observational
74 studies contradict the theoretical predictions (Hendry et al., 2017; Hendry et al., 2021a;
75 Capannolo et al., 2021; Capannolo et al., 2023) through the identification of EMIC-induced
76 electron precipitation with energies starting from 100's of keV. This area of study has been
77 investigated extensively by Denton et al. (2019) through numerical simulations, although no
78 definitive mechanism for the generation of peak energies <1 MeV has been identified to date.
79 Hanzelka et al. (2023, 2024) used test particle simulations of fractional sub-cyclotron resonant
80 interactions with EMIC waves to generate sub-MeV electron precipitation consistent with some
81 of the ELFIN cubesat observations described in Capannolo et al. (2023). The presence of lower

82 energy precipitation is particularly important when considering the impact of observed EMIC-
83 induced losses on radiation belt populations (e.g., Usanova et al., 2014; Hendry et al., 2021a) and
84 resultant atmospheric ozone decreases (Hendry et al., 2021b).

85 EMIC waves have been observed using instruments flown on spacecraft as well as by
86 instruments located on the ground. The waves occur over a wide range of geomagnetic latitudes,
87 a wide range of magnetic local time (MLT), and exhibit a range of temporal behavior (e.g., see
88 Figure 6 in Fukunishi et al., 1981). Spacecraft-based observations of EMIC waves can be limited
89 by the transitory nature of the measurements, particularly in the case of temporal changes in
90 wave amplitude or frequency (e.g., Rodger et al., 2015). Such EMIC waves are often observed
91 in the 0.1-2 Hz range with ground-based induction coil magnetometers. Several distinct wave
92 types have been classified, including periodic emissions, emission bursts, ion-cyclotron chorus,
93 and IPDP waves (Fukunishi et al., 1981). Whether the temporal structure within each wave-type
94 produces different characteristics in the resultant EEP remains an open question. Kubota &
95 Omura (2017) investigated the effects of rising tone EMIC emissions on electron populations
96 near the plasmapause using test particle simulations. The calculations showed that while rising
97 tone EMIC wave subpackets could produce significant fluxes of precipitating particles with
98 energy < 1 MeV, the process required extremely large wave amplitudes (> 10 nT) and thus
99 offered an unlikely explanation for the satellite observations.

100 The L -shell and magnetic local time distribution of EMIC waves has been studied
101 extensively through spacecraft observations (Min et al., 2012; Meredith et al., 2014; Saikin et al.,
102 2015; Wang et al., 2017; Jun et al., 2021; Allen et al., 2015; Grison et al., 2021). Meredith et al.
103 (2014) combined observations from the CRRES satellite to form detailed MLT "clock plots" of
104 wave power. That wave database has been recently extended to include more satellite

105 observations and produce updated MLT clock plots (Ross et al., 2021). Strong EMIC waves are
106 mostly found on the dayside of the magnetosphere, typically around MLT noon as well as in the
107 early afternoon, and at L -shells substantially higher than the plasmopause, i.e., $L=5 - 6$. EMIC
108 waves in these latitudes, and MLT ranges, would likely be classified as periodic, burst, or ion-
109 cyclotron chorus emissions (Fukunishi et al., 1981). Strong EMIC waves, but with low
110 occurrence rates, were also identified at lower L -shells, close to the average position of the
111 plasmopause, i.e., $L=4$, in the MLT evening sector, about 22 MLT. These would be likely to be
112 classified as IPDP waves. The generation of IPDP-type EMIC waves is known to be associated
113 with substorm injection of 50 - 100 keV protons close to MLT midnight (Salzano et al., 2022 and
114 references therein). The protons subsequently drift in longitude westwards from the injection
115 region (i.e., drift anti-clockwise in MLT) accompanied by inward motion driven by electric field
116 convection (Gendrin et al., 1967; Fukunishi, 1969). Large Pc 1-2 wave growth through cyclotron
117 resonance occurs when the drifting protons intersect the cold plasma density gradients associated
118 with the plasmopause or plasmaspheric plumes. This ‘cartoon’ picture explains three of the main
119 characteristics of IPDP waves, namely, that they typically occur in the evening MLT sector,
120 close to the location of the plasmopause (or possibly plasmaspheric plumes), and are delayed
121 with respect to the onset timing of substorms. Another key characteristic of IPDP's is the gradual
122 increase of observed wave frequency over time. Rates of change are usually observed to be 0.3 -
123 2 Hz/hour (Fraser and Wawrzyniak, 1978; Salzano et al., 2022).

124 Ground-based measurements of very low frequency (VLF) radio waves, propagating sub-
125 ionospherically from distant transmitters, showed the potential of EMIC waves to generate
126 excess ionization below the D-region of the ionosphere (Rodger et al., 2008). Analysis of sub-
127 ionospheric radio signals by Clilverd et al. (2010) showed a link between temporal variations of

128 electron precipitation and the POES satellites bounce-loss-cone fluxes. To investigate EMIC
129 wave-induced EEP in the POES satellite measurements, a large database of events was created
130 using a detection algorithm based on simultaneous proton and electron precipitation
131 characteristics (Sandanger et al., 2009; Carson et al., 2013). The proton channel used was the P1
132 52 keV differential flux channel, and the electron channel used was the P6 detector - which
133 suffers from >700 keV electron contamination (Evans and Greer, 2004; Yando et al., 2011). In
134 this study we hereafter refer to the P6 0° telescope flux as the E4 detector, using the
135 nomenclature suggested by Peck et al., 2015, representing $>\sim 700$ keV precipitating electrons.
136 Most of the events occurred in the MLT evening sector or close to midnight. Few were identified
137 around MLT noon. This is consistent with an association with IPDPs, and also consistent with
138 the earlier work of Miyoshi et al. (2008). Hendry et al. (2016) reported that a significant
139 proportion, as high as 90% of the POES events exhibiting simultaneous proton and electron
140 precipitation correspond with EMIC wave detections on the ground. That study also indicated
141 that the EMIC waves linked to these precipitation events tended to be IPDP.

142 The current state of research into EMIC-induced electron precipitation poses two
143 questions: what does the spectrum of EMIC-induced electron precipitation events look like; and
144 what are the characteristics of the EMIC waves that drive low energy ($\lesssim 250$ keV) electron
145 precipitation? To address these questions, we make use of DEMETER satellite IDP observations.
146 DEMETER only observed locally precipitating electron fluxes when orbiting in the region of the
147 North Atlantic Ocean, where the bounce-loss-cone is larger than the viewing angle subtended by
148 the telescope (see Figure 2 in Whittaker et al., 2013). We analyze the EEP for an IPDP EMIC
149 event which occurred late on 11 April 2005 and was clearly observed with ground-based
150 induction coil magnetometers. During the IPDP event DEMETER's orbit passed through the

151 precipitation region just after 21 UT, i.e., at 22 MLT. Using co-located POES NOAA-17 satellite
152 measurements of proton fluxes provides the means to remove the impact of proton contamination
153 from the DEMETER IDP measurements. As with the integral channel analysis of NOAA-17, a
154 wide energy range of electron precipitation was observed with a peak in flux between 200 –
155 300 keV.

156 **2 Observations**

157 DEMETER IDP operated from 2004 – 2010 and measured 126 differential energy
158 channels from 50 keV to 2 MeV (Sauvaud et al., 2013) in 17.8 keV steps. Here we use 124 of the
159 energy channels, following previous authors by dropping the first and the last channels
160 (Whittaker et al, 2013). To avoid electromagnetic disturbances caused by the Solar Array Drive
161 Mechanism (SADM) on the DEMETER scientific instruments, the SADM was only switched
162 ON over the polar regions to orient its Solar Array Generator toward the Sun. SADM operation
163 was limited to periods when the satellite was at latitudes $>65^\circ$ and $<-65^\circ$. As a result, scientific
164 instrument data were not collected in the polar regions (Cussac et al., 2006).

165 To investigate the DEMETER satellite IDP measurements for locally precipitating
166 electron fluxes, the analysis was restricted to times when the satellite was observing above a
167 region of the North Atlantic (Whittaker et al., 2013), when ground-based induction coil
168 magnetometer observations confirmed the presence of EMIC waves. To the east of the North
169 Atlantic region we make use of the Nurmijärvi pulsation magnetometer in Finland, located at
170 $L\sim 3.4$ (Yahnin et al., 2017). The magnetometer is operated by the Sodankylä Geophysical
171 Observatory. To the west of the North Atlantic region we consider the magnetic field-line
172 conjugate location of the southern hemisphere pulsation magnetometer at Halley, Antarctica

173 (Engebretson et al., 2008), which is located at $L \sim 4.5$. Our wave analysis concentrates on the
174 frequency range of 0.1–2 Hz, in which Pc1-2 waves, including IPDP waves, are known to occur.
175 The induction coil magnetometers sample at a rate of 40 sample/s, and use is made of
176 spectrograms showing wave activity in the Pc 1-2 range to identify occurrences of IPDP.

177

178 **3 Methods**

179 In the DEMETER IDP instrument a 6 μm aluminum foil protects the semi-conductor
180 from UV and from low-energy protons (Sauvaud et al., 2013). As a result of the foil, the detector
181 is sensitive to contaminating protons with >500 keV energies. Typically the proton flux in that
182 energy range is considerably lower than that of low-energy electrons, particularly when
183 DEMETER views the more populated drift-loss-cone. However, in this particular study the
184 limitation of viewing only the bounce-loss-cone in the North Atlantic results in electron flux
185 levels that are often close to the sensitivity limit of the instrument, during events where strong
186 proton precipitation is expected. Thus, proton contamination is potentially more of an issue than
187 originally envisaged.

188 Fortunately, DEMETER flew in a similar orbit configuration to the POES satellites, i.e.,
189 nearly circular at ~ 650 -850 km altitude, polar orbiting, Sun-synchronous. As EMIC waves are
190 strongly associated with low energy proton precipitation (e.g., Sandanger et al., 2009; Ni et al.,
191 2023), and there were no independent proton measurements made on DEMETER to assess the
192 proton flux levels, we follow the suggestion of Sauvaud et al. (2013) in using measurements of
193 proton fluxes observed by POES SEM-2 particle instruments when DEMETER and a POES
194 spacecraft are in close-conjunction. We use the multi-layered shielding simulation software

195 (MULASSIS) transport code (Lei et al., 2002; Lozinski et al., 2019) to simulate the attenuation
196 effect of 6 μm aluminum foil on a proton spectrum determined from near coincident and
197 conjunct POES measurements. The attenuated particle fluxes are treated as contamination and
198 removed from those measured by DEMETER IDP, leaving a revised and improved measure of
199 precipitating electron flux.

200 **4 Case study of EMIC-induced electron precipitation**

201 Based on the selection criteria described in section 2, a DEMETER – POES conjunction
202 was found that met all the specified requirements. This event occurred on 11 April 2005 at
203 21:14 UT. Figure 1 shows a map of the North Atlantic region. The DEMETER (blue trace) and
204 NOAA 17 (red trace) orbital paths, and the locations of the satellites during the near-conjunction
205 are shown (circles). Induction coil magnetometer observatory locations are shown, representing
206 Nurmijärvi in Finland to the east of the study region, and the conjugate point of Halley,
207 Antarctica, to the west of the region. An $L=4$ contour is shown by the dashed black line. The blue
208 DEMETER trace ends just north of the event location close to $L=4$ because DEMETER
209 observations were usually not made at high latitudes (i.e., the satellite instrumentation was
210 switched off).

211 Figure 2 presents the observations during the 11 April 2005 event. NOAA-17 flux
212 variations along the orbital path from 21:13:00 UT to 21:16:00 UT are shown. The blue trace
213 represents the E4 >700 keV flux. The red trace represents the P1 0° telescope flux (30-80 keV
214 precipitating protons). Some POES-contaminating high energy protons, i.e., as detected by the
215 P6 telescope, were observed during this event, but were successfully removed (following
216 techniques described earlier in Hendry et al., 2016). Elevated E4 flux at 21:14:15 UT coincides

217 with a smaller peak in P1 flux. This is characteristic of EMIC-induced electron precipitation
218 (Sandanger et al., 2009; Hendry et al., 2016). The enhancement in E4 flux is only observed for
219 ~ 6 s. At POES NOAA-17 altitudes and $L \sim 4$ this duration is equivalent to a precipitation feature
220 with a latitudinal width of $\sim 0.1 L$. Figure 2 also shows that later, after 21:14:30 UT, a broader
221 elevated P1 flux feature with low E4 flux levels occurs at $L \sim 5-6$. This feature is more consistent
222 with potential ring current precipitation.

223 Figure 3 shows the DEMETER IDP electron flux at 21:13:34 UT, measured just prior to
224 the instrument being turned off as DEMETER approached higher latitudes. Non-zero flux is
225 observed from the lowest energy channel (80 keV) up to 1500 keV, with the peak flux occurring
226 around 200 keV. At energies above the peak flux, a gradual decrease in flux is observed,
227 declining towards zero. At energies below the peak flux a sharp decrease in flux occurs
228 compared to the peak levels, but non-zero flux is never achieved. At the time of the event
229 DEMETER was approaching $L=4$ while NOAA-17 encountered its EMIC-induced precipitation
230 signature at $L=4$ some 40 s later. Because of the potential for the IDP detector to be contaminated
231 by protons the key question posed here is what component of the DEMETER IDP fluxes in
232 Figure 3 were caused by electrons and what was due to proton contamination?

233 Figure 4 presents two panels depicting the ground-based observations of EMIC wave
234 activity during the electron precipitation event on 11 April 2005. The upper panel shows the H-
235 component (horizontal intensity) induction coil measurement from Nurmijarvi in Finland ($L=3.4$)
236 situated to the east of the satellites during the event. IPDP-type EMIC waves, i.e., gradually
237 increasing frequency of wave features, were observed Nurmijarvi. Similar wave features were
238 observed in the D- and Z-component spectral plots. The majority of the wave power at ~ 1 Hz
239 had a left-handed polarization at the time of the event (not shown), typical for EMIC waves

240 (Usanova, 2021 and references therein). The wave event onset at frequencies of ~ 0.1 - 0.2 Hz at
241 about 18:30 UT, rising gradually to nearly 2 Hz at about 22:00 UT. A white dashed line indicates
242 a rising frequency feature, with a rate of ~ 0.6 Hz/hour, consistent with typical IPDP rates (Fraser
243 and Wawrzyniak, 1978; Salzano et al., 2022). A vertical white arrow indicates the time of the
244 electron precipitation event seen by DEMETER and POES N17. At that time enhanced wave
245 power can be seen from 0.5 Hz to 1.5 Hz.

246 The lower panel of Figure 4 shows simultaneous H-component induction coil
247 measurements from Halley in Antarctica ($L=4.5$), whose magnetic field line conjugate lies to the
248 west of the satellite locations at the time of the event – as shown in Figure 1. As in the upper
249 panel a white dashed line indicates a rising frequency feature of ~ 0.6 Hz/hour but in this case it
250 is delayed with respect to Nurmijarvi by about 1 hour. The precipitation event time identified by
251 the white vertical arrow indicates EMIC wave power from 0.1 Hz to 0.5 Hz at Halley, with
252 weaker amplitude waves observable up to ~ 1 Hz around the time of the event. Some individual
253 rising tone features can be seen within the general envelope wave power, with slightly faster
254 rates of ~ 1 Hz/hour.

255 The result of removing the proton contamination of the IDP measurements is presented in
256 Figure 5. The red line shows the NOAA-17 proton flux spectra as described by a double
257 Maxwellian energy distribution fitted to the NOAA-17 proton channels following the approach
258 of Peck et al. (2015). The contamination of the DEMETER IDP instrument due to those proton
259 fluxes, after accounting for the protection afforded by the $6 \mu\text{m}$ aluminum foil using the
260 MULASSIS code, is shown by the green dashed line. The solid blue line shows the IDP
261 measurement at the time of the IPDP-induced precipitation. Two features can be noted, namely

262 that the IDP flux and the contamination flux levels are similar at energies below ~150 keV, while
 263 IDP electron fluxes are significantly higher than the contamination fluxes above ~150 keV.

264 Figure 6 shows the corrected IDP electron precipitation flux (blue line) with 20%
 265 uncertainty ranges, following Sauvaud et al. (2013), indicated by blue dotted lines. At energies
 266 below ~150 keV the IDP fluxes are close to zero, while the peak flux occurs at ~215 keV at
 267 levels of ~100 el. s⁻¹cm⁻²sr⁻¹keV⁻¹. Enhanced electron precipitation fluxes occur at energies up to
 268 ~1.5 MeV. Also shown on the panel are the electron precipitation flux calculated from the
 269 integral channels of NOAA-17 (black line) following the fitting technique of Hendry et al.
 270 (2017). Hendry et al. fitted the four POES integral electron flux measurements with a distribution
 271 peaked around a central energy whilst taking into account the energy-dependent geometric
 272 factors determined by Yando et al. (2011), and compensating for any proton contamination. The
 273 peaked flux distribution (J) was calculated as a function of energy (E) using the relationship:

$$274 \quad J = (\exp(\alpha_1 - \beta_1 \log(E)) + \exp(-\alpha_2 + \beta_2 \log(E)))^{-1}$$

275 Where in this case $\alpha_1=34.2$, $\beta_1=7.1$, $\alpha_2=16.7$, $\beta_2=2.0$, determined using a least squares fit to the
 276 integral measurements and restricted to one decimal place as in Hendry et al. (2017). The values
 277 α_1 and β_1 describe the characteristics of the spectral rise to the peak flux, while α_2 and β_2
 278 describe the spectral characteristics for energies higher than that of the peak flux.

279 An uncertainty of 20% in the NOAA-17 electron flux spectrum is indicated by dashed
 280 black lines, based on the least squares error in fitting the above distribution to each of the integral
 281 channels. The peak energy of the NOAA-17 flux distribution occurs at 300 keV, with a peak flux
 282 of ~140 el. s⁻¹cm⁻²sr⁻¹keV⁻¹. Above ~400 keV the DEMETER IDP electron fluxes are
 283 approximately a factor of two lower than those calculated using the integral NOAA-17 detectors

284 using the technique of Hendry et al. (2017). The high-resolution differential DEMETER IDP
285 measurements indicate that while the POES integral electron channel data can be used to
286 determine the general characteristics of the IPDP-induced electron precipitation, some
287 refinement in the integral channel analysis would be beneficial. This will likely be important
288 when estimating the impact of EMIC-driven electron precipitation on polar atmospheric
289 chemistry and trapped radiation belt fluxes, for example as earlier undertaken by Hendry et al.
290 (2021b).

291 Despite the lack of exact agreement in the event flux characteristics between DEMETER
292 and the more approximate POES integral channel analysis, it is illuminating to investigate if the
293 corrected DEMETER IDP flux variation can be described by a peak exponential distribution, as
294 assumed for the POES analysis. Figure 7 shows how successfully a peak exponential distribution
295 fits the corrected IDP fluxes. The upper panel shows the corrected IDP (blue line) and the
296 modelled peak exponential distribution (black line) where $\alpha_1=73.27$, $\beta_1=14.90$, $\alpha_2=14.15$,
297 $\beta_2=1.77$. Good agreement is seen apart from at energies close to 100 keV. This discrepancy is
298 probably due to a slight underestimate of the contaminating proton flux as is apparent in Figure
299 5.

300 The lower panel of Figure 7 shows a power law fit (red line) to the corrected IDP fluxes
301 above the energy of the peak flux (215 keV). The fit shows a high value of correlation (Pearson
302 correlation coefficient $R^2 = 0.977$ for 78 data points) up to 1.59 MeV. Above 1.59 MeV the IDP
303 data shows increasing scatter, suggesting some influence from the instrument noise floor.

304 **5 Discussion**

305 Detailed analysis of DEMETER satellite measurements during an electron precipitation
306 event driven by an IPDP-type EMIC wave on 11 April 2005 shows that the largest flux occurred
307 at an energy of 215 keV. While inconsistent with many theoretical predictions of EMIC-induced
308 electron precipitation occurring primarily with energy > 1 MeV (Thorne and Kennel, 1971;
309 Summers & Thorne, 2003), the finding here is consistent with an increasing number of
310 experimental studies; the large number of events described in Carson et al. (2013) based on
311 POES integral channel measurements, Hendry et al. (2017) using POES and DEMETER,
312 Capannolo et al. (2021) using FIREBIRD II, and Capannolo et al. (2023) using the ELFIN
313 cubesats. The event studied here is typical of the EMIC-induced electron precipitation
314 characteristics found by Carson et al. (2013), and Hendry et al. (2016), in that it occurs pre-
315 midnight in MLT, close to the typical location of the plasmapause ($L \sim 4$), and is associated with
316 an IPDP-type rising frequency EMIC wave.

317 Hendry et al. (2017) analysed NOAA POES SEM-2 telescope measurements to
318 determine the peak energy of the EEP involved. A maximum error algorithm was developed
319 using detailed geometrical factors for each integral flux detector (E1 > 30 keV, E2 > 100 keV, E3
320 > 300 keV and E4 > 700 keV electrons). The peak energy of EMIC-induced EEP events were
321 determined by assuming a peaked energy spectrum specified by two spectral indices, each one
322 defining the slope either side of the peak flux. Hendry et al. (2017) found that $> 80\%$ of the
323 EMIC-induced precipitation events studied had a peak energy between 200 and 500 keV, while
324 $< 20\%$ had a peak energy > 800 keV, although the energy resolution of the electron precipitation
325 was poorly resolved because of the integral flux measurements. To investigate this issue a case
326 study was undertaken with high energy resolution DEMETER satellite particle measurements
327 made in conjunction with POES. An estimate of the background flux contamination of the

328 DEMETER measurements was made from observations prior to, and after, the precipitation
329 event. The background flux was at least partly due to quasi-trapped electrons in the drift-loss-
330 cone, and these needed to be removed to determine the locally precipitating fluxes. A peaked
331 electron flux distribution was determined from the high resolution DEMETER data, with a flux
332 maximum at 250 keV, declining with a power-law spectrum at energies above this. In-situ
333 DEMETER wave data confirmed the presence of an EMIC wave at the time of the event.

334 Further, using thousands of events identified by the Carson et al. (2013) algorithm
335 Hendry et al. (2021a) undertook a superposed epoch analysis of trapped radiation belt flux
336 variations based on simultaneous Global Positioning System (GPS) particle measurements made
337 over a wide range of energies. EMIC-induced EEP at the heart of the outer radiation belt
338 ($4 < L < 5$) was observed to deplete trapped electron populations at 120 keV, 600 keV, and 1 -
339 6 MeV, consistent with the idea that many of the events involved < 1 MeV precipitation fluxes.

340 In more recent studies, Capannolo et al. (2021) analysed FIREBIRD II measurements of
341 energetic electron precipitation events associated with EMIC waves, and similarly identified EEP
342 occurring in the 200 – 300 keV range, as well as at MeV precipitation. A multi-event analysis
343 showed that the events occurred around the MLT dusk sector, with about 90% having EEP at
344 energies < 700 keV. However, in about half of the events the occurrence of co-incident proton
345 contamination precluded any detailed electron spectrum analysis < 700 keV. This work was
346 extended by Capannolo et al. (2023) using the ELFIN cubesat pair. Proton precipitation was used
347 as a proxy for the presence of EMIC waves, and 144 electron precipitation events identified.
348 Electron precipitation with energies of $\lesssim 250$ keV was observed, coincident with \sim MeV
349 precipitation. Comparison with quasi-trapped flux levels showed that the lower energy
350 precipitation could be described as occurring with weak scattering efficiency, while the higher

351 energy electron precipitation occurred in events that exhibited strong scattering efficiency. This
352 is consistent with the findings of Hendry et al. (2021a) based on GPS satellite dosimeter
353 measurements of trapped electron fluxes in the presence of EMIC waves. Capannolo et al. (2023)
354 were able to model the energy characteristics of the >250 keV electron precipitation using
355 quasilinear theory incorporating the statistical characteristics of EMIC waves at $L\sim 6$. However,
356 the difficulty in reproducing the observed $\lesssim 250$ keV electron precipitation contribution using
357 quasilinear theory was put down to possible non-resonant interactions, other waves, or EMIC
358 wave properties not described by the statistical wave characteristics. An et al. (2022, 2024) used
359 a theoretical model of nonresonant scattering with short EMIC wave packets to show that it was
360 possible to extend the energy of significant scattering well below the minimum resonance
361 energy. Multiple in-situ wave observations, and careful one-to-one satellite conjunction analyses,
362 has been called for to address this area of scattering well below the minimum resonance energy.

363 The two panels of Figure 4 confirm the presence of IPDP-type waves at the time of the
364 precipitation, potentially driven by substorm injected protons from an event at 17:56 UT which
365 had an onset location to the east of the North Atlantic region as determined by SuperMAG
366 (Gjerloev, 2012; Ohtani and Gjerloev 2020). Figure 2 indicates that proton precipitation was
367 occurring during the event, which would also be consistent with EMIC wave-induced
368 precipitation (Sandanger et al., 2009). The delayed Halley IPDP wave feature is consistent with a
369 westwards drifting proton interaction region (Clilverd et al., 2015), although some of the delay
370 may have come from east-west ionospheric ducting acting over 10's of degrees of longitude
371 (Kim et al., 2010). It is noted here that coincident very low frequency (VLF) observations made
372 at Halley (not shown) do not indicate any significant VLF wave power in the VLF whistler mode
373 chorus and hiss bands, and thus whistler mode VLF waves are unlikely to contribute to any of

374 the observed lower energy electron precipitation observed by DEMETER, as shown in Figure 3.
375 This is consistent with the earlier report by Rodger et al. (2015), who combined POES, Van
376 Allen Probes, and ground based measurements to investigate multiple EMIC-driven precipitation
377 events. Rodger et al. found that the events exhibited peak precipitating electron fluxes at energies
378 a few hundred keV. High-quality wave observations made near the geomagnetic equator by the
379 Van Allen Probes found no evidence of whistler mode waves causing the scattering, only the
380 EMIC waves seen at the spacecraft. Shen et al. (2023) undertook a simulation of loss cone filling
381 by whistler-mode chorus emissions that resulted in loss cone filling at energies from 5 keV to
382 500 keV even with very weak waves (< 20 pT). Therefore, it may be possible that the
383 unexplained IDP fluxes at < 150 keV shown in Figure 6 could have been caused by the presence
384 of undetected, weak whistler waves.

385 In the lower panel of Figure 7 the EMIC-induced precipitation power law slope is given
386 by a spectral gradient of $k = -1.77$. In previous studies Clilverd et al. (2020) used a spectral
387 gradient of $k = -3$ to -4 (average $k = -3.5$) to represent the electron precipitation flux during a
388 geomagnetic storm, which was assumed to be dominated by whistler-mode chorus-driven
389 precipitation. As such the electron precipitation from this EMIC IPDP event is ‘hard’ because it
390 contains relatively large fluxes at high energy compared to lower energies. Analysis of a large
391 POES electron flux dataset undertaken by van de Kamp et al. (2016) also showed spectral
392 gradients of $k = -3$ to -4 during enhanced electron precipitation, outside of the plasmopause.
393 Analysing the POES electron flux dataset as a function of magnetic local time (MLT) van de
394 Kamp et al. (2018) confirmed the spectral gradient findings of $k = -3$ to -4 where VLF whistler-
395 mode chorus driven electron precipitation was expected to occur (morning MLT – see Figure 3
396 of that paper). However, for evening sector times (18-24 MLT), spectral gradients close to the

397 location of the plasmopause were close to $k = -2$. This is consistent with the findings in this study
398 and Hendry et al. (2017), where evening MLT sector, plasmopause EMIC IPDP electron
399 precipitation events generate a ‘hard’ electron precipitation spectrum – unlike that expected for
400 whistler-mode VLF chorus.

401 The identification of a band of electron precipitation in Figure 2 of $\sim 0.1 L$ wide is slightly
402 smaller than the electron precipitation radial scales of $0.3 L$ determined by Hendry et al. (2016)
403 and Capannolo et al. (2023). However, the radial width is consistent with the recent work of
404 Blum et al. (2024) where radially narrow ($\sim 0.1 L$) EMIC wave regions were detected
405 simultaneously with energetic electron precipitation using the Van Allen Probes and the
406 CALorimetric Electron Telescope experiment onboard the International Space Station. Hendry et
407 al. (2020) combined wave observations from the RBSP and ARASE satellites to determine the
408 size of an EMIC wave source region, at $L \sim 4$, and located close to the example here, i.e., over
409 head of the UK, at about 21 UT. A wave source radial size of $0.7 L$ was determined. This
410 suggests that in cases like the one studied here, the wave source region may be similar to, or
411 slightly wider than, the electron precipitation region.

412 **6 Conclusions**

413 Detailed analysis of an IPDP-type EMIC wave event on 11 April 2005 using combined
414 satellite and ground-based observations has shown that electron precipitation occurs with fluxes
415 ranging from ~ 150 keV to ~ 1.5 MeV. Capannolo et al. (2023) suggested that in order to more
416 accurately model the characteristics of electron precipitation at energies below 250 keV, EMIC
417 wave properties not described by statistical wave characteristics could be required. This study
418 provides a description of such wave characteristics, where the IPDP nature of the wave is

419 associated with rising tone emissions. At the time of an electron precipitation event observed
420 EMIC waves showed a rising tone feature of 0.6 Hz/hour, ranging from 0.1 Hz to 1.5 Hz. Some
421 finer structure exhibited rate rises approximately double the overall envelope. On the ground, the
422 wave was observed for ~3 hours.

423 Comparison between the high-resolution DEMETER IDP differential channel
424 measurements of the IPDP-induced precipitation and the low-resolution integral channel
425 measurements of POES satellites, shows that they agree to within 40% in their determination of
426 peak flux magnitude, and 80 keV (<40%) in the energy at which the peak occurred. Our work
427 highlights the importance of undertaking proton contamination correction when using the high-
428 resolution DEMETER loss measurements to investigate EMIC-driven electron precipitation. In
429 the case studied here, the peak energy of the electron precipitation occurred at slightly lower
430 energy than found using the integral POES channels.

431 This study suggests that the POES integral channel energy spectrum fitting technique
432 employed by Hendry et al. is reasonable and confirms the previous finding that many EMIC-
433 induced electron precipitation events show peak energies <1 MeV (Hendry et al., 2017; 2021a).
434 The lower energy (<1 MeV) electron precipitation association with IPDP wave events, and
435 strong occurrence bias towards the MLT dusk sector, is consistent with the idea of injected
436 protons drifting westwards from their near-midnight injection region, driving the required wave-
437 particle resonance. It is also consistent with a role of high cold plasma density conditions within
438 or at the outer edge of the plasmopause, which acts to reduce the resonant energy of the
439 interactions (Hirai et al., 2023 and references therein). The spectral gradient of the precipitated
440 electrons driven by the EMIC IPDP waves was found to be well described by a power law, with
441 gradient $k = -1.77$. This is substantially harder than the spectral gradients associated with electron

442 precipitation from VLF whistler-mode chorus regions, which is consistent with the absence of
443 any observed chorus at the time of the EMIC event examined here.

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451

452 **Open Research**

453 The data used in this paper are available at NOAA's National Geophysical Data Center (NGDC -
454 POES MEPED data, <https://ngdc.noaa.gov/stp/satellite/poes/>), and the CNES/CESR Centre de
455 Donnees pour la Physique des Plasmas (CDPP - Demeter IDP, [https://cdpp-
456 archive.cnes.fr/user/cdpp/modules/1723](https://cdpp-
456 archive.cnes.fr/user/cdpp/modules/1723)). The Halley induction coil magnetometer data for this
457 paper are available at the British Antarctic Survey Polar Data Centre ([http://psddb.nerc-
458 bas.ac.uk/data/access/](http://psddb.nerc-
458 bas.ac.uk/data/access/)). The Nurmijärvi induction coil magnetometer is part of the Finnish
459 pulsation magnetometer network. Nurmijärvi magnetometer spectrograms are available at the
460 Sodankylä Geophysical Observatory website (<https://www.sgo.fi/Data/Pulsation/pulData.php>).

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767

768 **Figure Captions:**

769

770 Figure 1. A map of the North Atlantic, showing the orbits of the DEMETER (blue line) and
771 NOAA-17 (red line) spacecraft on 11 April 2005 at approximately 21:14 UT. Blue and red
772 circles indicate the field line footprint of the satellites at the time of EMIC-induced electron
773 precipitation. Locations are shown for the Nurmijarvi (purple square) and Halley conjugate
774 (yellow square) induction coil magnetometers. A dashed black line indicates the L=4 contour.

775

776 Figure 2. The variation of NOAA-17 P1 and E4 fluxes between 21:13 and 21:16 UT on 11 April
777 2005.

778

779 Figure 3. The energy spectrum of DEMETER IDP flux during the conjunction with the NOAA
780 17 satellite. Enhanced fluxes are seen over the energy range 80 keV to >1 MeV. Note this is
781 before correction of proton contamination.

782

783 Figure 4. The time variation of EMIC wave activity observed at Nurmijarvi ($L=3.9$) and Halley
784 ($L=4.5$) respectively. Characteristic features of an IPDP wave can be seen at both sites. The
785 white dashed lines indicate a rising frequency feature, with a rate of ~ 0.6 Hz/hour. The vertical
786 white arrows indicate the time of the electron precipitation event seen by DEMETER and POES
787 N17.

788

789 Figure 5: The variation with energy of the NOAA-17 proton flux spectra (red line) used to
790 calculate the contamination of the DEMETER IDP instrument from those proton fluxes, after
791 accounting for the protection afforded by the 6 μm aluminum foil using the MULASSIS code
792 (green dashed line). The solid blue line shows the DEMETER IDP measurement at the time of
793 the IPDP-induced precipitation, at 21:14 UT on 11 April 2005.

794

795 Figure 6: The energy spectrum of the IPDP electron precipitation fluxes determined using the
796 DEMETER IDP instrument (blue line), and the NOAA-17 electron detectors (black line).
797 Uncertainty ranges of $\pm 20\%$ are shown by dotted and dashed lines in both cases.

798

799 Figure 7: Upper panel. Fitting the energy spectrum of the corrected DEMETER IPDP electron
800 precipitation flux using a peaked exponential function. Lower panel. Comparison of the
801 corrected DEMETER IDP flux >200 keV with a power-law spectrum.

Figure 1.

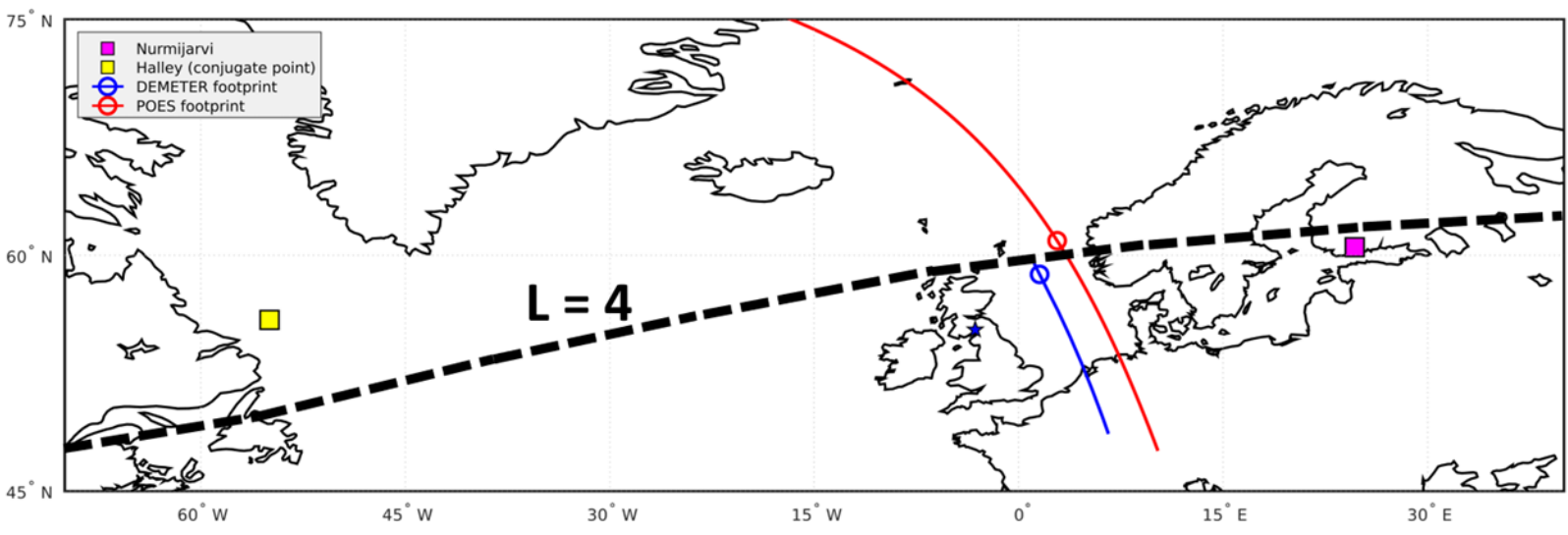


Figure 2.

POES SEM2 N17 2005/04/11 21:13-21:16

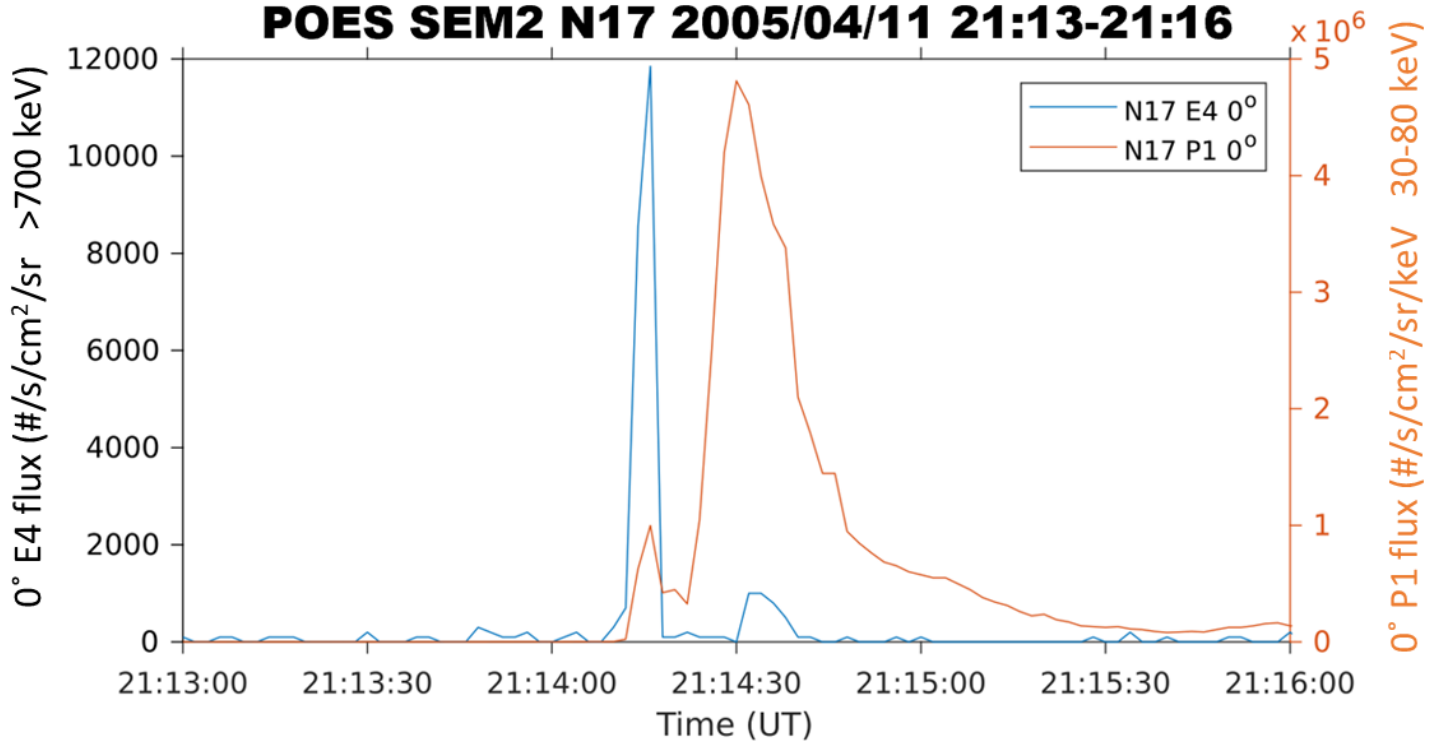


Figure 3.

DEMETER IDP 2005/04/11 21:13:34

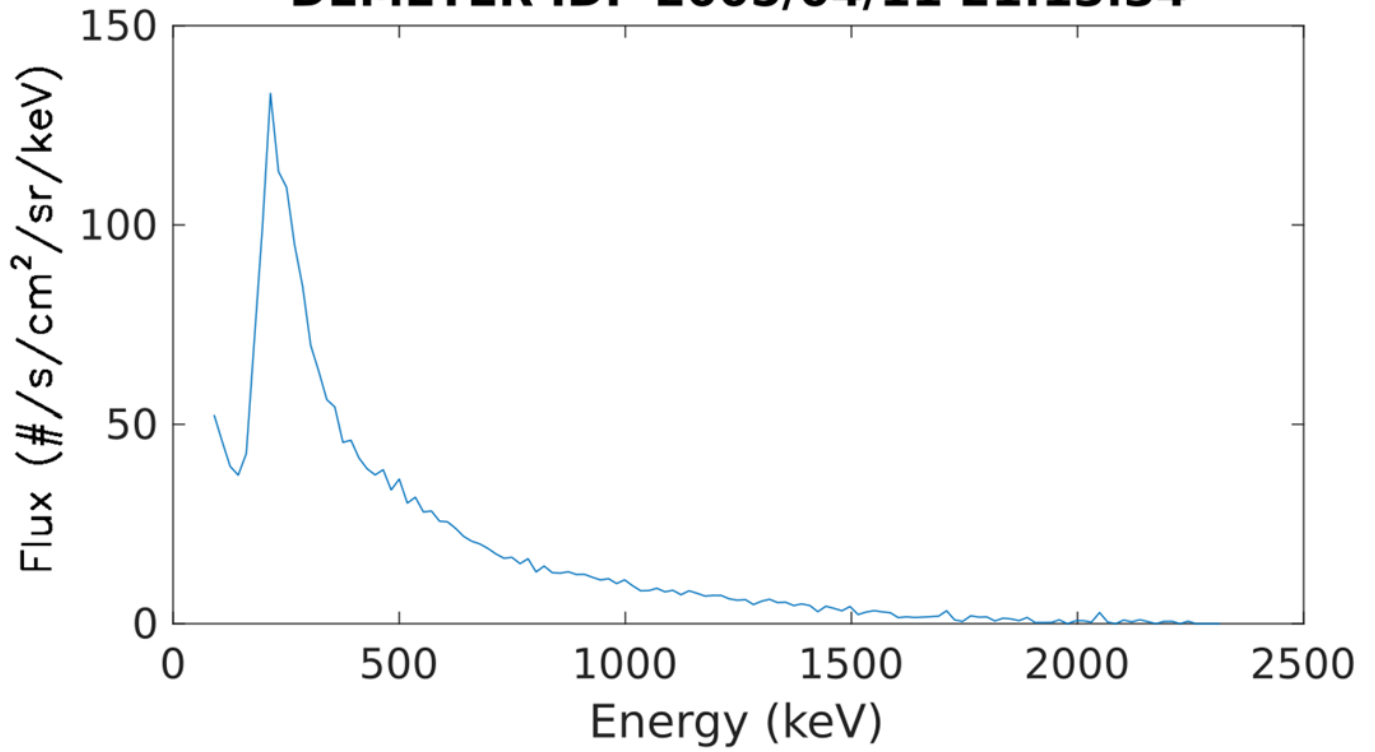


Figure 4.

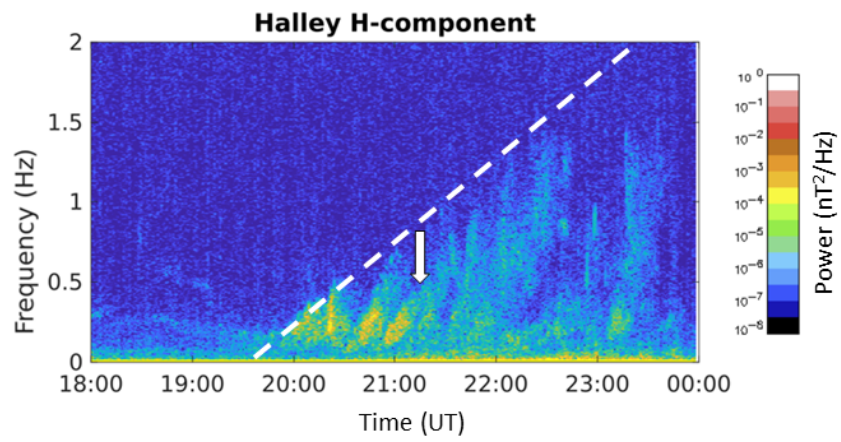
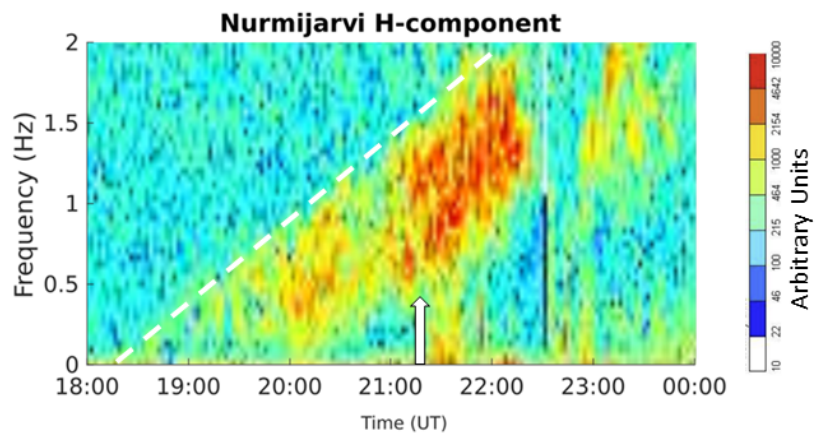


Figure 5.

NOAA 17 protons & DEMETER IDP

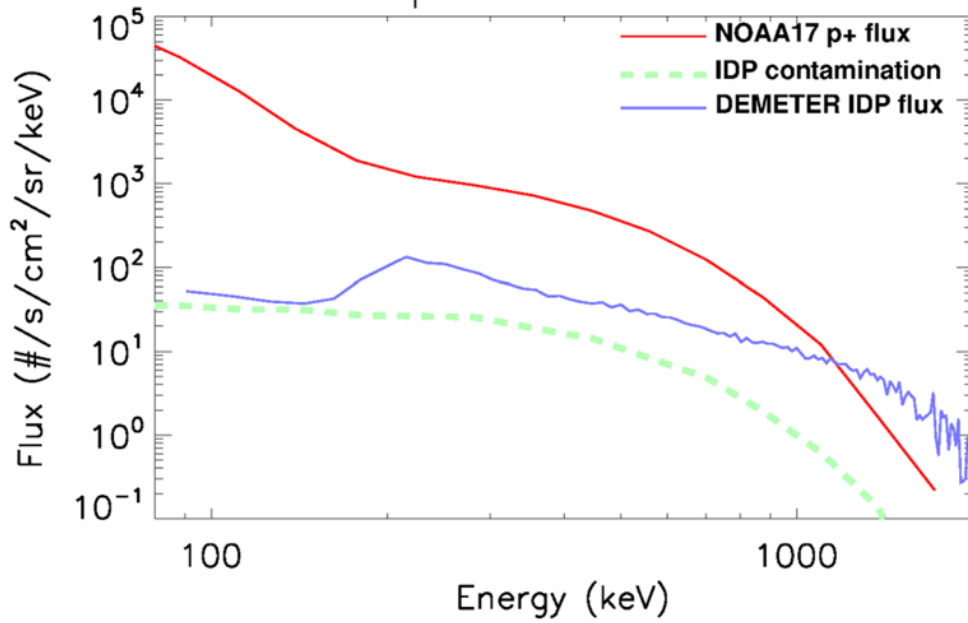


Figure 6.

IPDP-induced electron precipitation flux

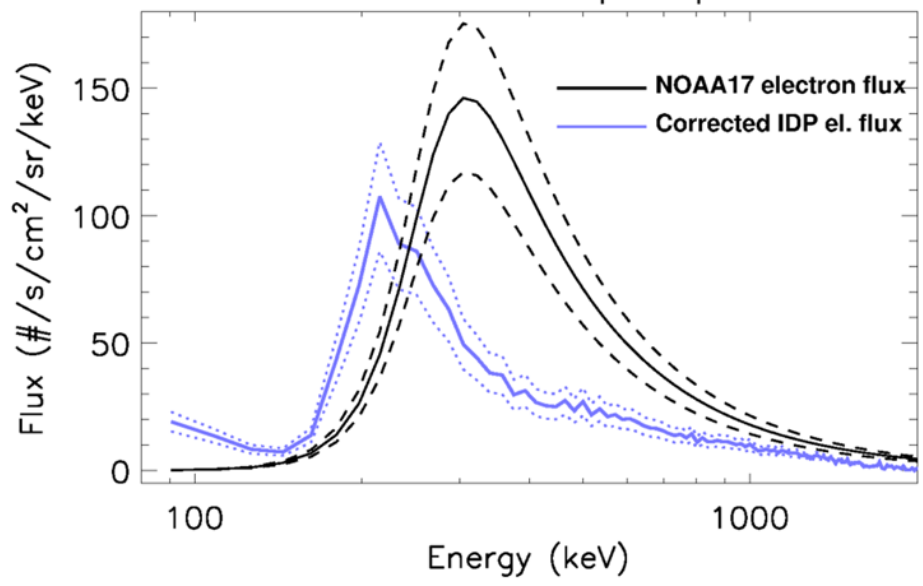
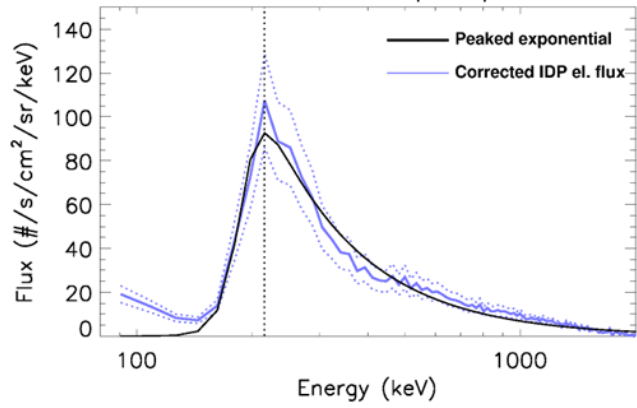


Figure 7.

IPDP-induced electron precipitation flux



Spectral gradient

