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Duderstadt, KA, Huang, C, Spence, HE et al. (9 more authors) (2021) Estimating the Impacts of Radiation Belt Electrons on Atmospheric Chemistry Using FIREBIRD II and Van Allen Probes Observations. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 126 (7). e2020JD033098. ISSN 2169-897X

<https://doi.org/10.1029/2020jd033098>

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1 **Estimating the Impacts of Radiation Belt Electrons on Atmospheric Chemistry using**
2 **FIREBIRD II and Van Allen Probes Observations**

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9 **Key Points:**

- 10 • Conjunctions between Van Allen Probes and FIREBIRD II enable novel estimates of
11 atmospheric electron precipitation.
- 12 • Estimates of electron precipitation from Van Allen Probes suggest CMIP6 may
13 underestimate atmospheric ionization from 60 to 70 km.
- 14 • Direct production of NO_x by precipitating electrons during March 2013 using this new
15 method suggest 40% enhancements from 60 to 70 km.
16

17 **Abstract**

18 This study considers the impact of electron precipitation from Earth's radiation belts on
19 atmospheric composition using observations from the NASA Van Allen Probes and NSF
20 Focused Investigations of Relativistic Electron Burst Intensity, Range, and Dynamics
21 (FIREBIRD II) CubeSats. Ratios of electron flux between the Van Allen Probes (in near-
22 equatorial orbit in the radiation belts) and FIREBIRD II (in polar low Earth orbit) during
23 spacecraft conjunctions (2015-2017) allow an estimate of precipitation into the atmosphere.
24 Total Radiation Belt Electron Content, calculated from Van Allen Probes RBSP-ECT MagEIS
25 data, identifies a sustained 10-day electron loss event in March 2013 that serves as an initial case
26 study. Atmospheric ionization profiles, calculated by integrating monoenergetic ionization rates
27 across the precipitating electron flux spectrum, provide input to the NCAR Whole Atmosphere
28 Community Climate Model in order to quantify enhancements of atmospheric HO_x and NO_x and
29 subsequent destruction of O₃ in the middle atmosphere. Results suggest that current APEEP
30 parameterizations of radiation belt electrons used in Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
31 may underestimate the duration of events as well as higher energy electron contributions to
32 atmospheric ionization and modeled NO_x concentrations in the mesosphere and upper
33 stratosphere.

34

35 **Plain Language Summary**

36 High-energy particles precipitating into the atmosphere from space affect the chemistry and
37 composition of Earth's atmosphere. While there is significant understanding about the
38 atmospheric impacts of auroral electrons, solar protons, and galactic cosmic rays, the effects of
39 electrons from the near-Earth Van Allen radiation belts remain uncertain. This study helps
40 quantify electrons precipitating into the atmosphere by comparing measurements within the
41 radiation belts from the NASA Van Allen Probes spacecraft to observations from the low-
42 altitude NSF Focused Investigations of Relativistic Electron Burst Intensity, Range, and
43 Dynamics (FIREBIRD II) CubeSats. Global atmospheric model simulations quantify the impact
44 of estimated electron precipitation on the ionization and chemical composition of Earth's
45 atmosphere. Results from an initial case study using this new method suggest that electrons from
46 the radiation belts may produce more atmospheric ionization at lower altitudes and for longer
47 duration than currently recommended estimates, potentially affecting the chemistry of ozone in
48 the middle atmosphere and as a consequence influencing atmospheric heating and dynamics.

49

50 1 Introduction

51 It is widely accepted that protons from impulsive solar events (flares and coronal mass
52 ejections) enhance HO_x (HO_x = H + HO + HO₂) and reactive odd nitrogen (NO_x = N + NO +
53 NO₂) in the middle atmosphere over the polar cap through the dissociation and ionization of N₂
54 and O₂ (e.g., Randall et al., 2005; Jackman et al., 2008; Funke et al., 2011; Sinnhuber et al.,
55 2012). Low-energy auroral electrons also produce NO_x at high altitudes within the auroral oval.
56 Both short-lived HO_x and longer-lived NO_x participate in the catalytic destruction of ozone (O₃).
57 During polar winter, when downward transport within the isolated polar vortex is strong and
58 photochemistry is limited, NO_x produced in the mesosphere can be transported to the
59 stratosphere, reducing O₃ levels and modifying the radiative balance, chemistry, and dynamics of
60 the global atmosphere (e.g., Rozanov et al., 2005, 2012; Seppälä et al., 2009, 2013;
61 Baumgaertner et al., 2011; Funke et al., 2011; Duderstadt et al., 2014, 2016).

62
63 As consensus grows over the impacts of solar proton events (SPEs) and low energy
64 auroral electrons (< 30 keV) on atmospheric HO_x, NO_x, and O₃, research into the contribution of
65 electron precipitation from the Van Allen radiation belts is intensifying (e.g., Andersson et al.,
66 2014a, 2014b, 2018; Arsenovic et al., 2016; Smith-Johnson et al., 2017, 2018; Newnham et al.,
67 2018, 2020; Pettit et al., 2019; Clilverd et al., 2020). These studies are motivated in part by
68 model simulations that underpredict enhancements of NO_x when only including solar protons,
69 galactic cosmic rays, and auroral electrons (e.g., Randall et al., 2015; Arsenovic et al., 2016;
70 Andersson et al., 2018). The question remains whether ionization from these medium energy
71 electrons (or MEE, typically defined as 30 keV to 1 MeV) can explain these discrepancies (e.g.,
72 Callis et al., 1991; Gaines et al., 1995; Codrescu et al., 1997; Sinnhuber et al., 2006, 2012).

73
74 The transport, acceleration, and loss of electrons within the Van Allen radiation belts and
75 the relation of these processes to solar storms and geomagnetic disturbances are complex and not
76 yet resolved (e.g., Reeves et al., 2003; Millan and Thorne, 2007; Turner et al., 2013b). Episodic
77 increases in the precipitation of radiation belt electrons are associated with geomagnetic
78 perturbations driven by solar coronal mass ejections (CMEs) and high-speed solar wind streams
79 (HSSWS) (e.g., Richardson et al., 2000; Clilverd et al., 2006, 2009; Rodger et al., 2007; Rozanov
80 et al., 2012; Spence et al., 2013). Electron loss from the radiation belts can be rapid, with
81 examples showing the outer belt emptied within a few days (e.g., Lorentzen et al., 2001; Millan
82 et al., 2007; O'Brien et al., 2004). In addition, a background low flux “drizzle” is constantly
83 present and likely dominates the overall loss rate during quiet times (Kanekal et al., 2001; Millan
84 et al., 2013). While geomagnetic storms have been directly linked with precipitation into the
85 atmosphere, loss processes such as radial diffusion and magnetopause shadowing are also
86 important, especially during the main storm phase (e.g., Morley et al., 2010; Turner et al.,
87 2013a,b). The competition between sources replenishing electrons in the radiation belts and
88 continued losses, particularly during storm main phase and recovery, makes quantifying these
89 electron loss processes challenging (Reeves et al., 2003; Selesnick, 2006).

90
91 The most robust estimates of atmospheric precipitation of radiation belt electrons to date
92 rely on observations from the Medium Energy Proton and Electron Detector (MEPED)
93 instruments on NOAA Polar Orbiting Environmental Satellites (POES) and European Space
94 Agency MetOp satellites (e.g., Rodger et al., 2010, 2013; Peck et al., 2015; Matthes et al., 2017;
95 Nesse Tyssøy et al., 2016, 2019; van de Kamp et al., 2016, 2018; Pettit et al., 2019). The

96 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) incorporates MEE precipitation using the
97 APEEP model of van de Kamp et al. (2016), a parameterization derived from MEPED data that
98 estimates electron precipitation as a function of the geomagnetic Ap index. Model simulations
99 from Andersson et al. (2018) incorporating CMIP6 APEEP estimates conclude that NO_x
100 enhancements from MEE impact the stratospheric ozone response by a factor of two. While the
101 APEEP parameterization currently provides the best available radiation belt electron
102 precipitation estimates for decadal-scale atmospheric modeling, uncertainties in the method
103 include how to take into account 1) pitch angle anisotropies, given the narrow field of view of
104 the MEPED telescopes, and 2) estimates of spectral flux at higher energies, given the MEPED
105 integral energy resolution. Nesse Tyssøy et al. (2019) support the argument that the model does
106 not adequately address pitch angle anisotropies. In addition, the authors argue that the APEEP
107 model underestimates electron flux during strong storms, as the parameterization is based on a
108 weak solar cycle, and does not take into account the full duration of electron precipitation
109 following storms. We present an alternative method of estimating electron precipitation that
110 addresses uncertainties in MEPED-derived electron precipitation.

111 This study introduces a novel method of estimating electron precipitation by scaling
112 observations from the Van Allen Probes RBSP-ECT MagEIS instruments (in equatorial orbit at
113 700 km – 6 Re) to observations from the Focused Investigations of Relativistic Electron Burst
114 Intensity, Range, and Dynamics (FIREBIRD II) CubeSats (polar orbiting at 400-600 km). The
115 twin Van Allen Probes provide continuous coverage of electrons trapped within the radiation
116 belts, while FIREBIRD II CubeSats sample precipitating electrons from polar low Earth orbit
117 (LEO). We focus on times of moderate geomagnetic activity, excluding periods of strong solar
118 proton events. Both datasets provide higher energy resolution than MEPED instruments and are
119 more sensitive during periods of low flux, conceivably enabling better estimates of the electron
120 precipitation during storm recovery and quiet times as well as resolving higher energies
121 responsible for atmosphere ionization at lower altitudes. As an initial case study, this paper
122 applies the new method to a 10-day sustained electron loss event observed in the radiation belts
123 during March 2013. Results suggest that CMIP6 particle precipitation may underestimate
124 ionization rates in the mesosphere and upper stratosphere, with potentially significant impacts on
125 the production and background levels of NO_x.

126
127

128 **2 Measurements, Model, and Methods**

129
130

2.1. Measurements

131

132 The FIREBIRD II CubeSats, identified as Flight Unit 3 (FU-3) and Flight Unit 4 (FU-4),
133 launched in January 2015 in polar low Earth orbit (Spence et al., 2012; Crew et al., 2016;
134 Shumko et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2020). Each unit carries a FIREBIRD Instrument for
135 Relativistic Electrons (FIRE), measuring high cadence (tens of ms) electron flux across six
136 energy channels from 200 keV to >1 MeV.

137

138 Each CubeSat has a surface detector and a collimated detector (see Spence et al., 2012,
139 and Johnson et al., 2020, for instrument details). These silicon solid-state detectors are identical
140 except that the collimated detector has an aluminum collimator above the housing that reduces its
141 angular response and geometric factor. This study uses measurements from the collimated

142 detectors (both FU-3 and FU-4) because the surface detectors did not function as intended for
143 most of the mission and are also more prone to saturation.

144
145 The twin NASA Van Allen Probe spacecraft (RBSP-A and RBSP-B) launched in
146 August 2012. They orbit at an inclination of $\sim 10^\circ$ with altitudes ranging from ~ 700 km to
147 $\sim 30,000$ km and pass through both the inner and outer radiation belts. A slight difference in
148 apogee altitudes causes the relative position of these spacecraft to change throughout the
149 mission, allowing for the analysis of temporal and spatial effects (Stratton et al., 2012). The Van
150 Allen Probes Energetic Particle, Composition, and Thermal Plasma Suite (RBSP-ECT)
151 instruments are coordinated to measure spatial, temporal, and pitch angle distributions for
152 electrons and ions with energies from tens of eV to tens of MeV (Spence et al., 2013). This study
153 uses data from the Magnetic Electron Ion Spectrometer (MagEIS) that has 25 energy bins (20
154 keV to 4 MeV) and 11 pitch angle bins (8 to 172 degrees) (Blake et al., 2013; Spence et al.,
155 2013).

156
157 Figure 1 shows the equatorial orbits of the Van Allen Probes and the low Earth orbits of
158 FIREBIRD II. The broad range of electron energies measured by RBSP-ECT instruments on
159 board the Van Allen Probes provide high resolution differential energy spectra of electrons as a
160 function of L shell and magnetic local time, yielding unprecedented temporal, spatial, and
161 spectral information. However, as a result of the 10° inclination of the spacecraft orbits, the
162 RBSP-ECT instruments do not always sample particles in pitch angles small enough to resolve
163 measurements within the atmospheric loss cone. In contrast, the polar LEO FIREBIRD II
164 CubeSats are designed to observe electrons within the loss cone, allowing the direct evaluation
165 of precipitating electron flux. However, FIREBIRD II is limited by sparse temporal and spatial
166 coverage, as the CubeSats pass quickly through geomagnetic latitudes corresponding to the
167 radiation belts. The size of the loss cone depends on L shell, altitude, and the magnetic field
168 strength, with the loss cone being roughly $\sim 4^\circ$ at the equatorial location of the Van Allen Probes
169 and $\sim 60^\circ$ as the FIREBIRD-II CubeSats pass through outer radiation belt L shells.

170
171 Table 1 compares selected past and present satellite instruments that allow estimates of
172 energetic electron precipitation. The twin Van Allen Probes are ideal for providing global
173 coverage of pitch angle resolved, high-resolution observations within the radiation belts. The
174 FIREBIRD II observations sample precipitating electrons with an energy range and resolution
175 that is ideal for assessing the production of NO_x in the mesosphere and upper stratosphere and
176 their polar orbit passes through L-shells associated with the radiation belts. In contrast, while the
177 UARS PEM observations are also of high resolution in the energies of interest, the spacecraft
178 orbit at an inclination of 57° , limiting measurements to electron precipitation from lower L shells
179 ($L < 4$) and not capturing the full extent of the outer radiation belt. SAMPEX PET observations
180 were at a favorable inclination and provided three years of data within a >150 keV energy
181 channel, but for most of the mission the instruments sampled energies too high to adequately
182 predict ionization in the middle atmosphere (Selesnick et al., 2003; Tu et al., 2010). NOAA
183 POES and MetOp MEPED observations have both the inclination and energy range for studying
184 atmospheric impacts as well as provide broad temporal and spatial coverage with multiple
185 satellites. However, the MEPED integral energy resolution is low, there are significant
186 challenges removing the effects of proton contamination (Peck et al., 2014; van de Kamp et al.,
187 2016; Nesse Tyssøy et al., 2019), and the narrow field of view (30°) and geometric factors of the

188 telescopes results in a high noise floor (Rodger et al., 2010; Lam et al., 2010; Yando et al., 2011;
189 Peck et al., 2015). As alluded to earlier, there are also uncertainties associated with anisotropic
190 pitch angle distributions. Specifically, the geometry and orientation of the MEPED telescopes is
191 such that the 0° detector will underestimate and the 90° detector will overestimate the flux of
192 precipitating electrons (Rodger et al., 2013; Nesse Tysøy et al., 2016, 2019).

193

194 Unique benefits of using FIREBIRD II observations to quantify radiation belt electron
195 precipitation include:

- 196 1. High differential energy resolution in an ideal range for studying the direct production of
197 NO_x in the middle atmosphere.
- 198 2. Instrument geometry providing a field of view of ~60° and geometric factors 600 times
199 greater than POES MEPED (Johnson et al., 2020).
- 200 3. Low altitude polar orbit (400-600 km), where the majority of observed electrons are
201 within the drift lost cone and are eventually lost to the atmosphere.

202 However, the FIREBIRD II dataset is limited in spatial and temporal coverage as a result of
203 orbit, data storage, and download limits. In addition, while the CubeSats (and detectors) were
204 designed to use passive magnetic attitude control to point nominally away from the Earth in the
205 Northern Hemisphere, they are still prone to oscillation (wobble) and their precise orientation is
206 unknown (Crew et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2020). As a consequence, the detectors may sample
207 quasi-trapped (drift loss cone) electrons in addition to directly precipitating electrons (bounce
208 loss cone). Finally, observations are limited to electron energies above ~200 keV and do not
209 measure lower energy electrons responsible for the majority of NO_x production above ~80 km.

210

211 2.2. Model

212

213 Van Allen Probes observations suggest a broad magnetic footprint of electron
214 precipitation extending to sub-auroral latitudes (50° to 80°). These energetic electrons penetrate
215 atmospheric depths ranging from 90 km (~30 keV) to below 50 km (> 2 MeV). The wide
216 horizontal and deep vertical range of atmospheric influence warrant the use of a whole
217 atmosphere, three-dimensional global climate model to study the atmospheric impacts of
218 radiation belt electrons. This project quantifies the effects of atmospheric ionization from
219 radiation belt electrons using the NCAR Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model
220 (CESM2-WACCM6), a high top model capable of calculating the effects of ionization on
221 atmospheric chemistry and the contribution of the upper atmospheric to climate (Gettelman et
222 al., 2019).

223

224 WACCM6 provides 1° horizontal resolution and extends to ~140 km, resolving upper
225 atmospheric processes crucial for accurately modeling the chemical-radiative-dynamic coupling
226 necessary for studying stratospheric ozone and its climate effects (e.g., Garcia et al., 2007; Marsh
227 et al., 2007; 2013; Charlton-Perez et al., 2013; Gettelman et al., 2019). This work takes
228 advantage of the most recent updates to the WACCM6 model, including a new D-region ion
229 chemistry scheme (Verronen et al., 2016). This model chemistry is applied to 30 minute time
230 steps. Simulations in this study use the “specified dynamics” configuration, where
231 meteorological fields below 60 km are nudged using NASA Modern-Era Retrospective analysis
232 for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2) reanalysis (Gelaro et al., 2017).

233 WACCM6 relies on the CMIP6 solar forcing as described in Matthes et al. (2017). For solar
234 protons, daily averaged ionization rates are calculated based on particle flux measured by GOES
235 and the parameterization of Jackman et al. (1980). Ionization from galactic cosmic rays is
236 determined using modulation potential. Ionization from auroral electrons is based on the
237 parameterization scheme of Roble and Ridley (1987) as described in Marsh et al. (2007). The
238 low energy auroral electrons are primarily significant above 90 km, altitudes higher than the
239 region of this study.

240

241 2.3. Methods

242

243 2.3.1. Estimating Electron Precipitation from Van Allen Probes Observation

244

245 We use the following procedure to estimate ratios of electrons trapped within the
246 radiation belts to electron precipitation into the atmosphere, with an example provided in Figure
247 2:

248

- 249 1. Determine conjunctions between Van Allen Probes and FIREBIRD II satellites, when
250 satellite orbits are within one L shell and one hour magnetic local time (MLT) and
251 when both RBSP-ECT and high-resolution FIREBIRD II data are available.
- 252 2. Compare the electron energy spectra of RBSP-ECT and FIREBIRD II at conjunctions.
- 253 3. Calculate the flux ratio between the loss cone and equatorial plane as a function of
254 electron energy.

$$\text{Flux ratio} = \frac{\text{Electron flux in loss cone}}{\text{Electron flux at equator near loss cone}} \%$$

255

256 The scaled differential electron flux measured near the loss cone by RBSP-ECT is used to create
257 maps of electron flux at the top of the atmosphere. These precipitation maps allow us to calculate
258 atmospheric ionization input files (ion pair production rates) for WACCM.

259

260 This work uses statistics (50th, 75th, and 100th percentiles) of ratios from 35 satellite
261 conjunctions (~50,000 timesteps) during the first two years of overlap between FIREBIRD II and
262 the Van Allen Probes missions (2015-2017). These conjunctions were identified among all
263 RBSP and FIREBIRD II spacecraft. We focus on electron flux at geomagnetic latitudes
264 corresponding to L shells 3 through 7, the region most likely associated with precipitation from
265 the outer radiation belt, and do not consider conjunctions over the South Atlantic Anomaly.

266

267 A sustained electron loss event observed by the Van Allen Probes from 4 to 14 March
268 2013 serves as an initial test case for this new method (Figure 3). This event was identified from
269 Total Radiation Belt Electron Content (TRBEC), calculated by integrating the phase space
270 density data from Van Allen Probes MagEIS over adiabatic invariants (e.g., Hartley and Denton,
271 2014; Forsyth et al., 2016; Murphy et al., 2018). This event is associated with a HSSWS
272 originating from a coronal hole that began on 28 February 2013 with a duration of six days
273 (Gerontidou et al., 2018). The geomagnetic indices Dst and Ap for this time period are presented
274 in Figure 4. TRBEC calculations suggests a 95% loss of electrons over a 10-day period occurring
275 during the recovery phase following the moderate storm. Although FIREBIRD II observations

276 were not yet available during this time, the event provides an excellent case study given the
277 length of decay between storms. The event also occurred early in the Van Allen Probes mission
278 and is highlighted in several publications, including Baker et al. (2014), Li et al. (2014), Reeves
279 et al. (2016), and Ripoll et al. (2016). Results of these studies show evidence of electron loss in
280 addition to radial diffusion within the radiation belts, suggesting pitch angle scattering might be
281 leading to significant electron precipitation to the atmosphere during this time.

282

283 We scale the energy-dependent electron flux observed by the Van Allen Probes RBSP-A
284 MagEIS instruments within the smallest pitch angle bin ($< 8^\circ$) during this event according to
285 results from the statistical study of flux ratios during satellite conjunctions. We then compare
286 enhancements of nitric oxide (NO) during WACCM simulations with satellite observation from
287 the Odin submillimetre radiometer instrument (Odin/SMR) (Pérot et al., 2014) as well as the
288 Solar Occultation for Ice Experiment (SOFIE) instrument on board the Aeronomy of Ice in the
289 Mesosphere (AIM) (Gordley et al., 2009). The objective of these comparisons is to assess how
290 much of the electron depletion observed within the outer radiation belt can be attributed to
291 atmospheric precipitation.

292

293 2.3.2. Calculating Atmospheric Ionization Profiles

294

295 Vertical profiles of energy deposition and ion pair production rates are calculated by
296 integrating monoenergetic ionization rates across the differential spectrum of precipitating
297 electrons as outlined in Fang et al. (2010). This method uses coefficients of polynomial fits to
298 first-principle particle transport model results to calculate energy dissipation functions and
299 ionization, integrating across an incident differential energy spectrum to obtain total ionization
300 profiles. The ionization rates calculated using the Fang et al. (2010) parameterization compare
301 well with the CRAC:EPII calculations by Artamanov et al. (2016, 2017), with biases under 35-
302 40%. The unique ability of FIREBIRD II data to study ionization at middle atmospheric altitudes
303 is shown in Figure 5, with peak ionization ranging from ~ 55 km to 75 km at FIREBIRD II
304 energies.

305

306 This WACCM study also uses the recently developed D-region ion chemistry scheme
307 (WACCM-D) to calculate HO_x and NO_x production (Verronen et al., 2016), a chemical
308 mechanism that includes 307 reactions of 20 positive ions and 21 negative ions. The primary
309 difference from prior (CESM1-WACCM4) chemistry is that instead of assuming a parameterized
310 production of NO_x and HO_x as described in Jackman et al (1980; 2009), this new scheme more
311 realistically simulates the full chemical chain from the initial ionization of N_2 and O_2 , through
312 cluster ion reactions, to the ultimate production of NO_x and HO_x . Andersson et al. (2016)
313 conclude that WACCM-D shows closer agreement with observations, producing 25–50% less
314 OH and 30–130% more NO_x at 70–85 km.

315

316 3 Results

317

318 3.1. Electron Precipitation and Atmospheric Ionization Rates

319

320 The energy dependent flux ratios for precipitating (FIREBIRD II) and trapped (Van Allen
321 Probes) electrons during 35 conjunctions are given in Figure 6. The median precipitation rate

322 (50th percentile) across all energies is ~1%, with 75% of the ratios below 2 to 3%. These ratios
323 represent the majority of times. The largest precipitation flux ratios (100th percentile) range from
324 ~7% at 300 keV to ~90% near 900 keV, with many conjunctions between the 75th and 100th
325 percentiles suggesting stronger precipitation events. While the median flux ratio has minimal
326 energy dependence, there are many instances of preferential precipitation at higher energies.
327 There are also conjunctions where the ratio peaks at mid-range energies. It is possible that this
328 energy dependence could be a statistical artifact because of lower particle counts at higher
329 energies or associated with the uncertain orientation of the FIREBIRD II detectors (Johnson et
330 al., 2020). The lower energy channels can also exhibit saturation that might contribute to higher
331 ratios at higher energies. However, behaviors within the radiation belts such as wave-particle
332 interactions can also scatter and precipitate electrons at preferential energies. C-L Huang is
333 currently leading a study to assess this energy dependence along with the potential relationship
334 of flux ratios with L shell, magnetospheric activity, and wave-particle interactions. This study
335 will consider the full period of overlap between the Van Allen Probes and FIREBIRD-II
336 missions (2015-2019). Specifically, it will focus on FIREBIRD II high-resolution data
337 downloads targeted during conjunctions with Van Allen Probes beginning in August 2018.
338

339 Figure 7 presents observed Van Allen Probes (RBSP-A) daily average flux values for the
340 lowest pitch angle bin ($< 8^\circ$) centered on L shells 4, 4.5, 5, and 5.5 (± 0.25) throughout the
341 March 2013 electron loss event in energies ranging from 57 keV to 1.7 MeV. Reeves et al.
342 (2016) and Ripoll et al. (2016) provide detailed descriptions of the unique energy dependence of
343 electrons during this time period. For our modeling study, we exponentially extrapolate flux
344 values below 57 keV and above 1.7 MeV, noting that this exponential assumption may
345 underestimate flux values at lower energies as suggested by the spectral fits of MEPED
346 observations by Peck et al. (2015) and the combined RBSP-ECT dataset of Boyd et al. (2019).
347 The Van Allen Probes flux values are multiplied by the flux ratios shown in Figure 6 to estimate
348 electron precipitation at the top of the atmosphere. (Note that the flux ratios for the lowest
349 FIREBIRD II energy channels are used for energies below 200 keV and the highest FIREBIRD
350 II energy channels for energies greater than 1 MeV.)
351

352 These scaled electron fluxes are used to create precipitation maps across L shells 3
353 through 7 ($\sim 55^\circ$ to 68° magnetic latitudes assuming a centered dipole magnetic field). We extend
354 the flux values determined from L shells 3.5 to 5.5 to L shells 3 through 7, acknowledging the
355 potential for overestimating precipitation, as electron flux is not evenly distributed and generally
356 peaks between L shells 4.5 and 5.5 (e.g., Rodger et al., 2010; Verronen et al., 2020). No
357 variability in precipitation is assumed across magnetic local time (longitude). This is an adequate
358 approximation, especially for the study of longer-lived NO_x and O_3 , given the rapid zonal mixing
359 in the atmosphere at these high altitudes (Verronen et al., 2020). Figure 8 shows ionization
360 profiles at an L shell of 5 using flux ratios representing the 50th (median), 75th, and 100th
361 percentiles from the conjunction study. Figure 9 provides an example of atmospheric ionization
362 rates driving our median flux ratio WACCM simulations. The vertical profile of the atmospheric
363 ionization rates event at 65° N latitude and 0° longitude confirm that energetic electron
364 precipitation from the radiation belts dominates ionization in early March compared with solar
365 protons (noting that this simulation does not include radiation belt precipitation after 14 March).
366 Galactic cosmic rays primarily impact altitudes below 25 km and are therefore not significant to

367 our analysis. Figure 9 also depicts a polar view of the Northern Hemisphere, showing the
368 latitudinal extent of peak ionization on 4 March at the altitude of 70 km.

369 370 3.2. WACCM Simulations for March 2013

371
372 Figure 10 shows results from WACCM simulations for the March 2013 electron loss
373 event, where radiation belt electron precipitation is included from 26 February through 14
374 March. Plots focus on a location directly impacted by electron precipitation (65° N latitude and
375 0° longitude) and exhibit some variability from background atmospheric dynamics.
376 Enhancements of HO_x for the median (50th percentile) ratios are small and limited to higher
377 altitudes (~30% at 70 km). However, the highest flux ratios (100th percentile) result in HO_x
378 enhancement several times larger throughout the mesosphere (~250% at 70 km). Similarly, NO_x
379 enhancements at 70 km are ~40% for the median case but reach up to 30 times background levels
380 for the highest flux ratios. The localized O₃ reductions exceed 50% above 70 km for the median
381 flux ratio case and 60-70% extending down to 60 km for high flux ratio case. Changes in HO_x,
382 NO_x, and O₃ using ionization rates from CMIP6 are similar to the median flux ratio simulations,
383 particularly at higher altitudes.

384
385 In the weeks following the March 2013 event, the Northern Hemisphere polar vortex
386 remains relatively stable, encouraging strong diabatic descent of enhanced NO_x into the
387 stratosphere. Figure 11 depicts the boundary of the meandering polar vortex, objectively
388 determined by identifying grid points within the stratosphere where scaled potential vorticity
389 (sPV) on isentropic surfaces exceeds $1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (e.g., Dunkerton and Delisi, 1986; Brakebusch
390 et al., 2013; Duderstadt et al., 2014). Scaled potential vorticity retains the conservation properties
391 of Ertel's potential vorticity while being normalized with respect to the standard atmosphere. In
392 the mesosphere, the vortex is assumed to extend to the same latitude as the top of the
393 stratosphere, noting that the sPV method no longer adequately delineates the vortex edge given
394 the temperature profile. During 2013, the winter polar vortex continues to persist throughout
395 most of March breaking up toward the end of the month.

396
397 Figure 12 shows the modeled enhancement of NO_x and reductions of O₃ averaged over
398 the polar stratospheric vortex (sPV greater than $1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$) during the weeks following the
399 March 2013 electron loss event. Enhancements of NO_x descending into the upper stratosphere
400 (40-50 km) reach 20-30% for the 50th percentile flux ratios and 80-90% for the 100th percentile
401 case and persist through April. Reductions of O₃ are only 1% for the 50th percentile case at 40 to
402 50 km but up to 40% for the 100th percentile case.

403 4 Discussion

404 During the storm recovery of early March 2013, we estimate that peak ionization rates
405 from the precipitation of radiation belt electrons reach tens of ion pairs $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in the altitude
406 region of 60 to 80 km. For comparison, ion pair production from weak solar proton events are
407 less than $1 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The most likely scenario, where MageIS electron flux is scaled to median
408 flux ratios derived from spacecraft conjunctions, results in 40% enhancements of NO_x averaged
409 over the polar vortex from 60 to 70 km altitudes. CMIP6 APEEP simulations do not show
410 similar levels of NO_x enhancement below 70 km during this time period, raising the question of
411 whether APEEP underestimates electron precipitation in higher energy ranges. We remind

412 readers that this study only considers NO_x enhancements from radiation belt electron
413 precipitation during this unique March 2013 sustained electron decay event and does not address
414 questions of enhancements involving NO_x production and dynamics earlier in the winter. As this
415 event coincides with a winter where the atmosphere is characterized by strong descent associated
416 with a sudden stratospheric warming, we recognize that these circumstances make it challenging
417 to determine if NO_x enhancements are the result of electron precipitation or dynamics.

418
419 During March 2013, NO observations from Odin/SMR show zonal average values
420 poleward of 70° N ranging between 10 and 30 ppbv from 0.3 to 0.02 hPa (~55 km to 75 km) (see
421 Figure 2b in Pérot et al., 2014). Since 2007, the Odin submillimeter radar, a limb emissions
422 sounder, has been providing global sampling of NO with vertical resolution of ~7 km based on
423 the thermal emission lines in the 551.7 GHz band. Our median flux ratio WACCM simulations
424 compare well with Odin/SMR satellite observations, with enhancements of tens of ppbv
425 persisting during and following the electron loss event (as evident in Figure 13).

426
427 Figure 13 shows comparisons of WACCM NO calculations along the track of the SOFIE-
428 AIM observations (also presented in Bailey et al., 2014; Hendrickx et al., 2015). SOFIE solar
429 occultation measurements are made for NO using the 5.32 μm absorption band, providing 15
430 sunrise measurements per day from 65°N to 85°N and 20 km to 140 km (from 2007 until the
431 present). Because our case studies involve electron precipitation beginning in March, they do not
432 adequately address the confluence of processes leading to prominent NO descent following the
433 January 2013 sudden stratospheric warming (SSW). However, it is notable that WACCM
434 simulations considering only solar protons and auroral electrons (WACCM no MEE) fail to
435 reproduce the large and narrow enhancements in NO_x that descends below 50 km discussed in
436 Bailey et al. (2014). Although our study focuses on NO_x production in the 1 to 0.01 hPa range
437 during March 2013, questions remain regarding the competing roles of dynamics and the
438 production of NO_x by medium energy electrons to explain discrepancies following SSWs (e.g.,
439 Randall et al., 2015; Siskind et al., 2015; Hendrickx et al., 2018). While Hendrickx et al. (2018)
440 demonstrate good agreement in descent rates between WACCM and satellite observations (based
441 on observations over the Southern Hemisphere), Siskind et al. (2015) show that adding data
442 assimilation at higher altitudes results in NO predictions that better match satellite observations
443 following the 2009 Northern Hemisphere SSW.

444
445 The SOFIE observations do not show similar enhancements between 60 km and 70 km
446 observed by ODIN and predicted by our WACCM 50th percentile flux ratio simulations during
447 early March. However, SOFIE is also orbiting above 80°N during this time period, beyond
448 latitudes corresponding to the outer radiation belt. Nonetheless, it is clear that the extreme
449 scenario (based on 100th percentile flux ratios) is unlikely, as the enhancements for that
450 simulation are over 100 ppbv and should be large enough to be detected by ODIN and SOFIE.
451 Therefore, precipitation of electrons into the atmosphere likely contributes to but does not
452 dominate the loss observed within the radiation belts during the March event (the 95% reduction
453 from peak levels according to TRBEC).

454
455 Figure 14 shows the atmospheric ionization used in CMIP6 simulations, representing the
456 sum of ionization from solar protons, galactic cosmic rays, and the APEEP parameterization of
457 electron precipitation. Except during the solar proton enhancements around 12 April and 20

458 May, there is very little ionization below 70 km, an altitude representing ionization from
459 electrons with energies greater than ~ 300 keV. Van de Kamp et al. (2018) acknowledge the
460 challenge of using POES MEPED instruments to estimate atmospheric ionization from higher
461 energy electrons outside of high flux storm times. The method presented in this paper may
462 enable a unique understanding of how significant these higher energy electrons are to
463 atmospheric ionization and subsequent influences on NO_x and O_3 . However, comparing Figure
464 14 with Figure 9 demonstrates that the MagEIS energy range used in this study (57 keV to 1.7
465 MeV) also limits estimates of ionization at altitudes above 80 km, the region most often
466 associated with longer-term downward transport of NO_x to the stratosphere and impacts to O_3 , a
467 process often termed the “indirect effect” (e.g., Randall et al., 2007; Funke et al., 2014;
468 Sinnhuber et al., 2018). The Van Allen Probes ECT team is currently developing a combined
469 data product that includes data from the Helium Oxygen Proton Electron (HOPE) plasma
470 spectrometer that will enable a better representation of electrons with energies below 50 keV
471 (Boyd et al., 2019). We also recognize the challenges associated with the March 2013 case study
472 following a winter of sudden stratospheric warming. It would be preferable to identify sustained
473 electron loss events that occur during periods when it is easier to distinguish between NO_x
474 enhancement from electron precipitation and atmospheric descent.

475
476 The calculated atmospheric impacts on NO_x and O_3 as a result of electron precipitation
477 during the March 2013 electron loss event are relatively small, with lower estimates (median flux
478 ratios) resulting in a decrease in O_3 in the upper stratosphere of $\sim 1\%$. However, we should note
479 that even a 1% decrease can disrupt the radiative and dynamic properties of the middle
480 atmosphere (e.g., Rozanov et al., 2005; Seppälä et al., 2009; 2013; Lu et al., 2011). Furthermore,
481 it is important to adequately represent direct production and background concentrations of NO_x
482 at all altitudes, and enhanced ionization at altitudes lower than captured by CMIP APEEP is
483 worthy of further study. The method also shows promise in capturing the longer duration of
484 electron precipitation following HSSWS events, potentially underpredicted by the APEEP model
485 (Nesse Tyssøy et al., 2019). In addition, while ratios of FIREBIRD II to Van Allen Probes
486 observations during conjunctions show that, on average, 1 to 2% of electrons observed within the
487 0 to 8° pitch angles by the Van Allen Probes precipitate into the atmosphere, there are times
488 when this ratio approaches 90% at higher energies. It would be valuable to consider processes
489 beyond daily average flux estimates, including microburst clusters and precipitation bands (e.g.,
490 Blum et al., 2014; Greeley et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2020) that have been shown to impact
491 ionization calculated at lower altitudes (Seppälä et al., 2018). An additional option is to better
492 estimate fluxes within the loss cone by extrapolating to smaller pitch angles based on pitch angle
493 distributions (e.g., Gannon et al., 2007; Shi et al., 2015).

494
495 This study demonstrates the potential for using observations of electron distributions
496 within the Van Allen Belts to estimate the fluence and spectral distributions of electron
497 precipitation. Since August 2018, the FIREBIRD II team has been targeting high resolution
498 downloads during conjunctions with the Van Allen Probes, providing a much larger and closer
499 set of conjunctions for follow-up studies. Observations during conjunctions between POES
500 satellites and FIREBIRD are also being downloaded to allow better comparisons of spectral
501 shape. Future plans are to use the new methods outlined in this work to estimate electron
502 precipitation over the entire Van Allen Probes mission. We also plan to conduct studies using a
503 new “tagged NO_x ” chemical mechanism in WACCM (Marsh et al., 2018) to distinguish direct

504 production of NO_x from radiation belt electrons, NO_x production by solar protons, and the
505 descent of NO_x from auroral electrons. The pitch-angle resolved electron observations in LEO
506 from the recently-launched Electron Losses and Fields Investigation (ELFIN) CubeSat mission
507 (Shprits et al., 2018) may enable additional understanding of these precipitation flux ratios.
508

509 **5 Conclusions**

510 This study presents a new method of estimating electron precipitation from observations
511 directly within the radiation belts. Electron flux measurements from the Van Allen Probes
512 MagEIS instrument are scaled to flux ratios determined from a study of spacecraft conjunctions
513 with FIREBIRD-II CubeSats to create maps of electron precipitation. WACCM simulations
514 using these maps of electron precipitation show enhancements of HO_x and NO_x and reductions of
515 O_3 in the middle atmosphere, with the magnitude and altitude of these effects depending on the
516 precipitating electron energy distribution.
517

518 A case study in early March 2013 represents a period of unusually long and sustained
519 electron loss from the radiation belts during recovery from a moderate storm. While electron loss
520 during the main phase of storms is generally attributed to loss through the magnetopause, we
521 assume much of the electron decay during this unique sustained electron loss event is associated
522 with precipitation into the atmosphere. WACCM simulations for this event, using electron
523 precipitation based on median flux ratios derived from the conjunction study, show 40%
524 enhancements of NO_x within 60 km to 70 km and O_3 reductions of $\sim 1\%$ in the mid stratosphere
525 during the weeks following the event. While changes to NO_x and O_3 are relatively small for this
526 individual event, over longer timescales there is the potential for many such events to alter the
527 mean background composition. Odin/SMR satellite observations confirm enhancements of NO
528 similar to values calculated at these altitudes by WACCM, highlighting the potential importance
529 of low levels of electron flux at higher energies. This study suggests that the current APEEP
530 parameterizations of medium energy electrons used in CMIP6, while remaining the best
531 available option for long term atmospheric modeling, may underestimate the duration of electron
532 precipitation following HSSWS storms as well as the contribution to atmospheric ionization
533 from higher energy electrons producing NO_x at lower altitudes.
534

535 Our results motivate future plans to study the impact of electrons on atmospheric
536 composition by developing electron precipitation maps throughout the extent of the Van Allen
537 Probes mission (2012 to 2019), extending to lower electron energies based on the combined
538 RBSP-ECT dataset (Boyd et al., 2019). We also plan to search for observations of sustained
539 electron loss events within the radiation belts that occur outside of times with strong atmospheric
540 descent. Electron precipitation maps will be compared with estimates derived from POES
541 MEPED instruments that are currently being used to drive CMIP6 simulations through the
542 APEEP parameterization (Matthes et al., 2017; van de Kamp, 2016) and will provide a unique
543 estimate of atmospheric impacts of radiation belt electrons during the peak and descending
544 portion of solar cycle 24. Efforts are also underway to conduct a more comprehensive analysis of
545 spacecraft conjunctions among FIREBIRD II, Van Allen Probes, and POES to identify the
546 radiation belt conditions that drive flux ratios and their energy dependence. This method of
547 estimating atmospheric electron precipitation using observations from within the radiation belts

548 will likely contribute new understandings to processes that couple Earth's magnetosphere and
549 atmosphere.
550

551 **Acknowledgments and Data**

552 This research was supported by NSF (#1650738, #1650918, #1035642) and NASA
553 (#135260). The CESM project is supported primarily by the National Science Foundation.
554 WACCM6 code is available as part of the CESM2 release via github. Instructions are at this site
555 (http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm2/release_download.html). Computing and data storage
556 resources, including the Cheyenne supercomputer (doi:10.5065/D6RX99HX), are provided by
557 the Computational and Information Systems Laboratory (CISL) at NCAR. Van Allen Probes
558 data is available at <http://rbspgateway.jhuapl.edu/>. FIREBIRD II data is available at
559 http://solar.physics.montana.edu/FIREBIRD_II/ and was made possible by NSF (#0838034,
560 #1339414). Additional data files specific to this study are available on the Harvard Dataverse at
561 <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/QCDYHI>.
562

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957 Table 1
 958 Comparison of Observations of Electron Particle Flux

	UARS (PEM)	SAMPEX (PET)	POES (MEPED)	FIREBIRD II²	Van Allen Probes (ECT/MagEIS)
Altitude	600 km	520-670 km	800-870 km	400-600 km	700 km to ~6 Earth radii
Inclination	57°	82°	98.7°	99.1 °	10°
Energies	30 keV to 4 MeV 32 energy channels	150 keV ¹ to 100s MeV E > 0.6 MeV 1.5 < E < 6MeV 2.5 < E <14 MeV	E1 >50 keV E2 >100 keV E3 > 300 keV P6 > 1 MeV	265 keV 354 keV 481 keV 663 keV 913 keV > 1 MeV	20 keV to 4 MeV 25 energy bins
Challenges	Low L shells	High energies	Proton Contamination & Noise Floor	Sparse & Uncertain Orientation	Equatorial “near” loss cone

959 *Note.* References include UARS – Winningham et al. (1993); SAMPEX – Selesnick et al. (2003); MEPED –
 960 Nesse Tyssøy et al., (2016); FIREBIRD II – Crew et al., (2016); Van Allen Probes – Spence et al., (2013). ¹
 961 SAMPEX has three years of data from a >150 keV channel but most of the mission observed only higher
 962 energies. ² FIREBIRD energy channels vary between campaigns and units. Energies are from FU-3 during
 963 multiple campaigns.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Orbits of the Van Allen Probes (RBSP-A and RBSP-B) (red) and FIREBIRD-II (FU-3 and FU4) (yellow). Representative magnetic field line (blue) observed near the magnetic equator by RBSP-B and at LEO by FU3 during a conjunction. Background image credit A. Kale.

Figure 2. Electron flux observations during a conjunction between RBSP-B and FU4 on 21 Jan 2016 at 22:43:06.

Figure 3. Electron loss event observed by the Van Allen Probes during 4-14 March 2013. Total Radiation Belt Electron Content (TRBEC) is calculated by integrating phase space density determined from Van Allen Probes MagEIS data.

Figure 4. Dst and Ap indices during late February through March 2013 (downloaded from the Kyoto database <http://wdc.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp>, August 2020). Vertical black lines indicate the start and end of the 4-14 March 2013 electron loss event considered in this study.

Figure 5. Ionization profiles for monoenergetic electron flux (total incident energy of $1 \text{ erg cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) using the Fang et al. (2010) parameterization. Calculations are based on density and temperature from the MSIS-E-90 atmospheric model on 4 March 2013 at $60^\circ\text{N } 0^\circ\text{E}$. Examples using FIREBIRD-II energies from FU-3 are highlighted in color.

Figure 6. The flux ratios (given in %) between FIREBIRD-II and Van Allen Probes MagEIS electron flux as a function of energy for the 35 conjunctions (50,000 timesteps). Flux ratios associated with 50th (blue), 75th (red), and 100th (yellow) percentiles are overlaid onto plot.

Figure 7. Daily-averaged differential electron flux observed by the Van Allen Probes (RBSP-A) ECT-MagEIS instrument for the 4-14 March 2013 event for pitch angles $< 8^\circ$ at several L-shells. These values are multiplied by the energy dependent flux ratios presented in Figure 6 to estimate electron precipitation to the atmosphere.

Figure 8. Ionization profiles using flux ratios representing the 50th (median), 75th, and 100th percentile ratios from the conjunction study (Figure 6) applied to Van Allen Probes electron flux at an L shell of 5 (Figure 7).

Figure 9. a) Atmospheric ionization profiles used in the WACCM simulation involving solar protons, galactic cosmic rays, and estimated radiation belt electron precipitation using median (50th percentile) flux ratios. Radiation belt electrons are included from 26 February -17 March 2013. b) Atmospheric ionization at 70 km on 4 March 2013 for the 50th percentile flux ratio.

Figure 10. WACCM simulations for the March 2013 event showing localized enhancements of HO_x and NO_x and reductions of O_3 . Includes simulations without radiation belt electrons (No MEE), with CMIP6 ionization (CMIP6 APEEP), and with Van Allen Probes observations scaled

1011 to 50th, 75th, and 100th percentile flux ratios from the study of conjunctions between FIREBIRD
1012 II and the Van Allen Probes.

1013
1014 **Figure 11.** The location of the stratospheric polar vortex in the Northern Hemisphere near the
1015 start of the March 2013 electron decay event ($sPV > 1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

1016
1017 **Figure 12.** WACCM simulations for the March 2013 event showing longer term
1018 a) enhancements of NO_x and b) reductions of O_3 averaged over the Northern Hemisphere polar
1019 vortex from radiation belt electrons for each of the simulations. Gray bars represent times when
1020 MEE ionization is included in the simulations.

1021
1022 **Figure 13.** Northern Hemisphere comparison of SOFIE satellite observations of NO_x during
1023 winter 2013 with WACCM simulations of radiation belt electron precipitation (latitudes $> 65^\circ$
1024 N). Black regions indicate NO values less than 10 ppbv. (SOFIE Level 2 Version 1.3 NO vmr
1025 data were downloaded from <http://sofie.gats-inc.com/sofie/>, retrieved August, 2020). Gray bars
1026 show times when MEE is included.

1027
1028 **Figure 14.** Ionization rates from CMIP6 that includes solar protons, galactic cosmic rays, and the
1029 APEEP parameterization of electron precipitation from January to May 2013. The location 70°N
1030 and 0°E represents a latitude of peak flux.

1031

1032

Figure 1.

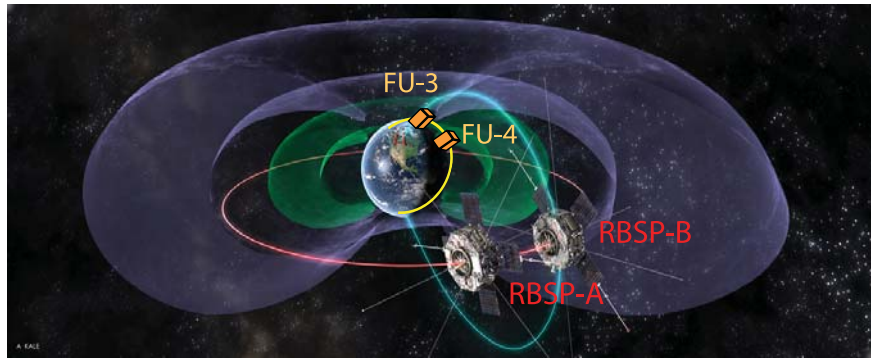


Figure 2.

FIREBIRD (FU4) and Van Allen Probes (RBSP-B)
Conjunction on 21 Jan 2016 22:43:06

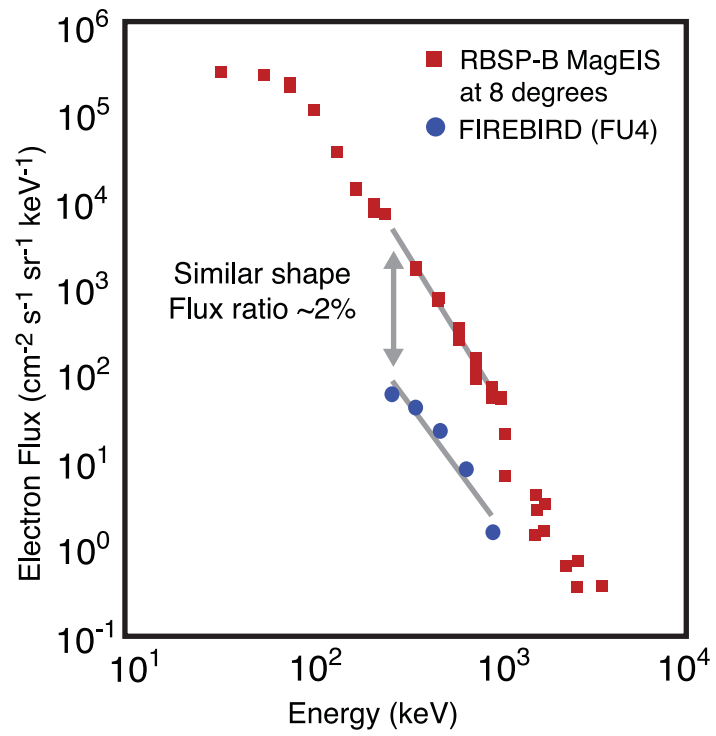


Figure 3.

4–14 March 2013 Electron Long Decay Event

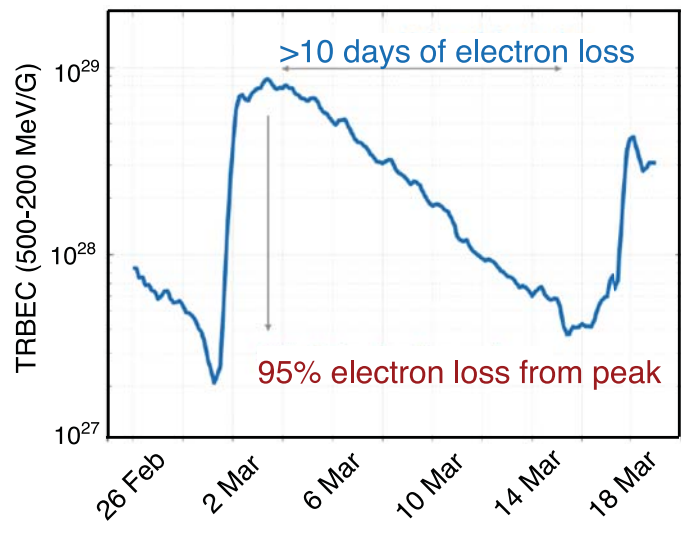


Figure 4.

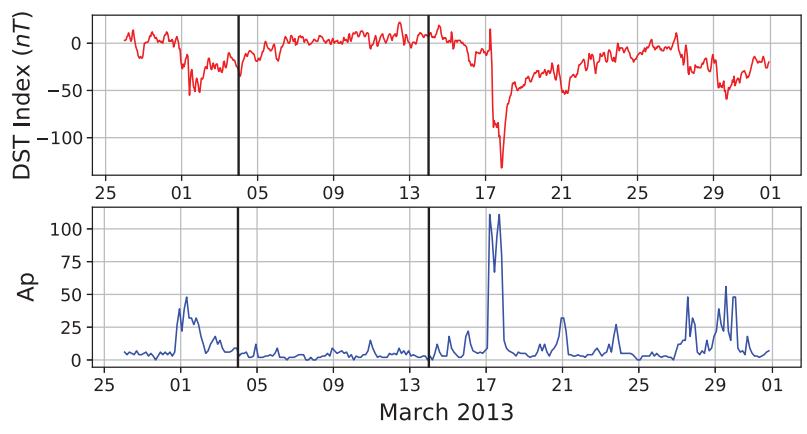


Figure 5.

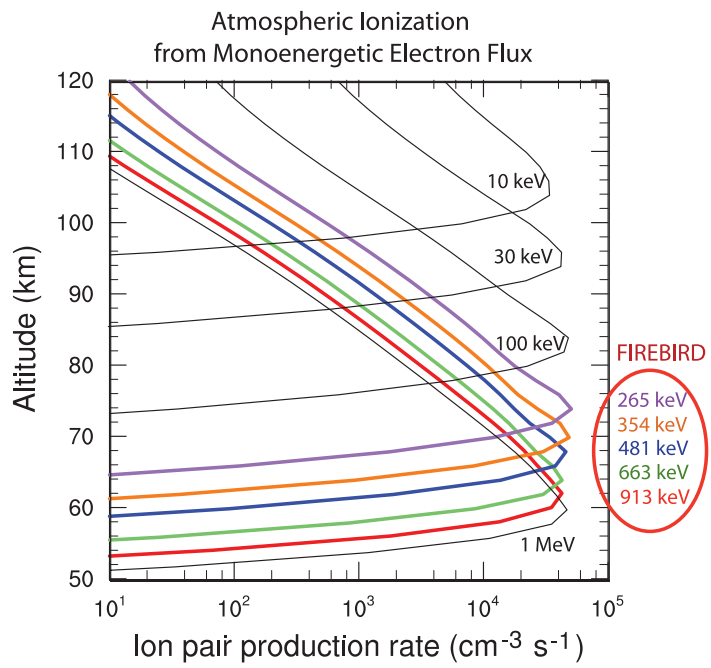


Figure 6.

FIREBIRD II and Van Allen Probes MagEIS
Electron Flux Ratios during Conjunctions

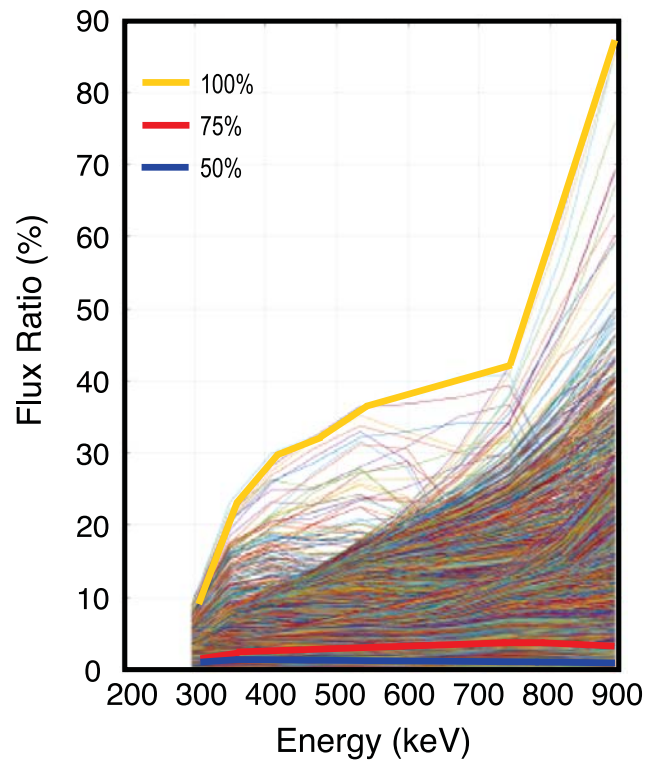


Figure 7.

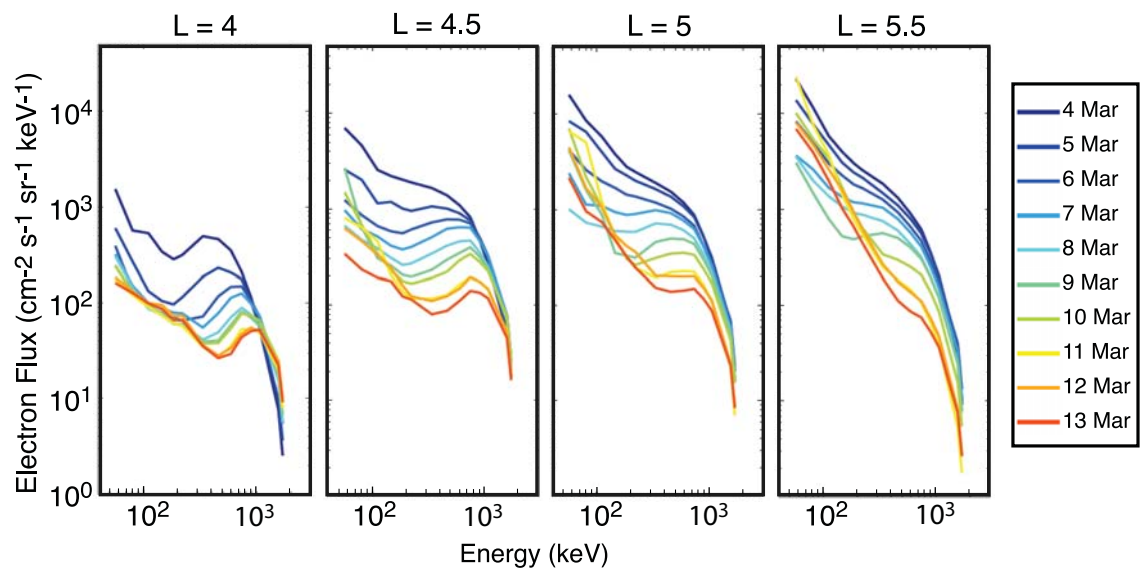


Figure 8.

Ion Pair Production Rates

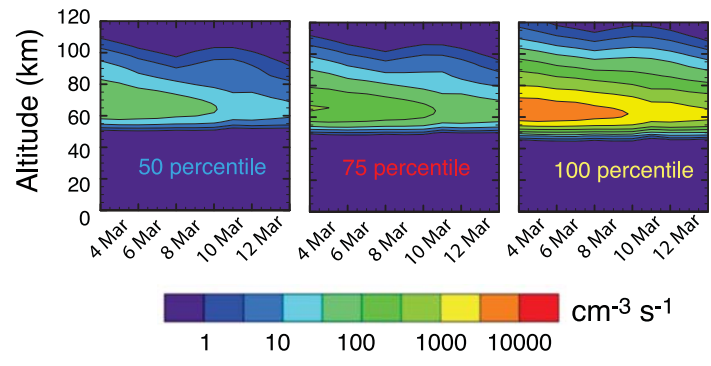
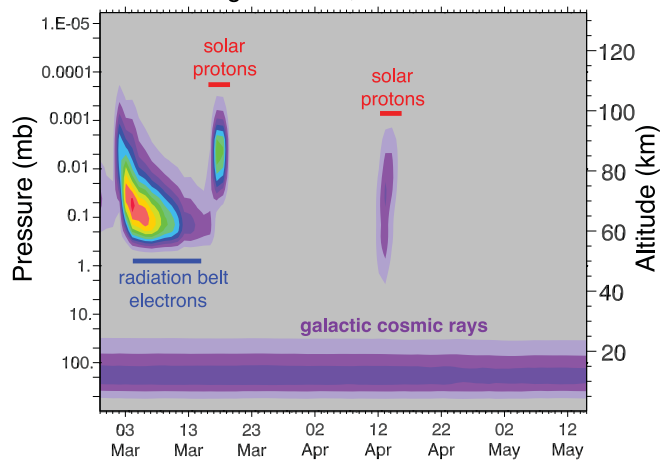


Figure 9.

WACCM Atmospheric Ionization (Spring 2013)
longitude 0°E, latitude 65°N



4 March 2013 at 70 km

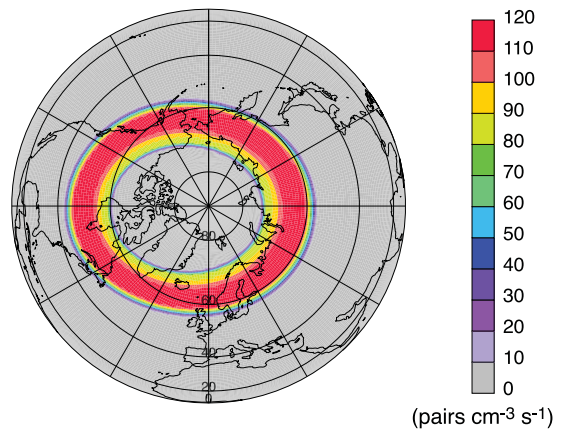


Figure 10.

WACCM Simulations of March 2013 Electron Loss Event HO_x, NO_x, and -ΔO₃ (65° N latitude, 0° E longitude)

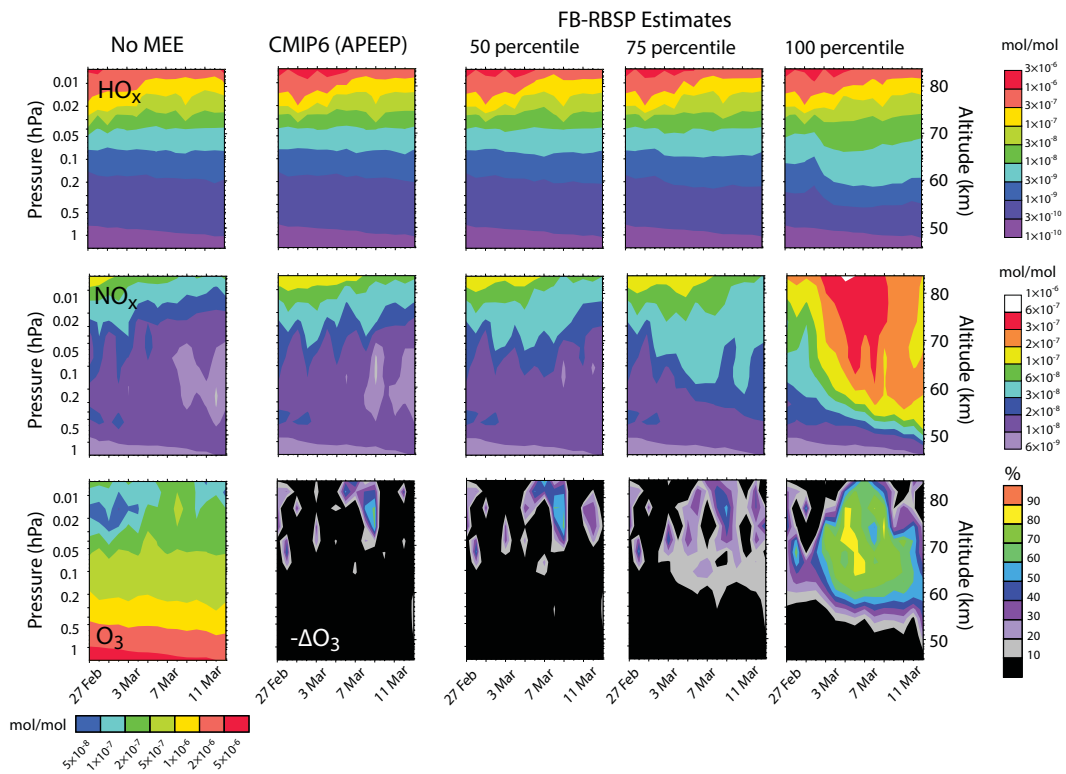


Figure 11.

5 Mar 2013

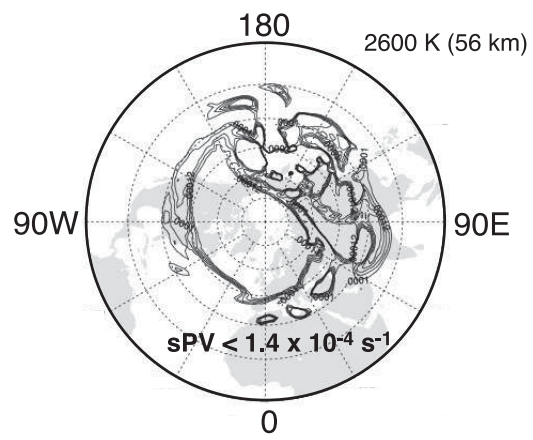
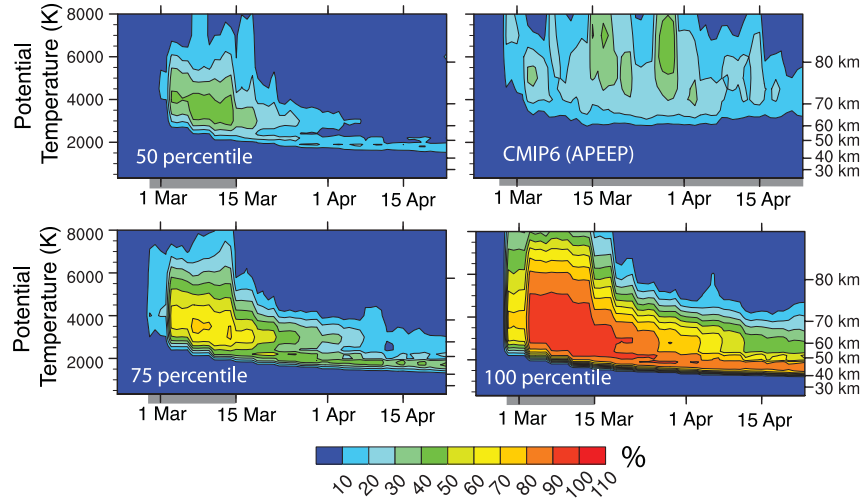


Figure 12.

a) Northern Hemisphere vortex-averaged NO_x enhancements (%) compared to simulations without radiation belt electrons



b) Northern Hemisphere vortex-averaged O₃ reduction (%) compared to simulations without radiation belt electrons

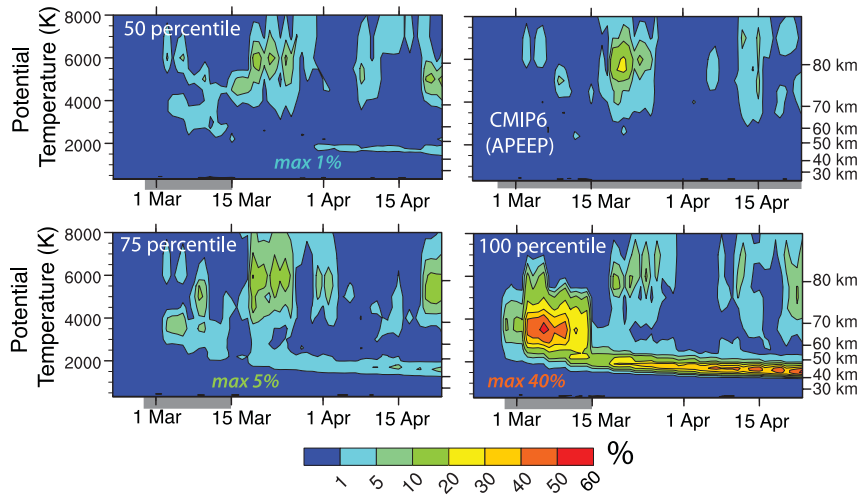


Figure 13.

Comparison of SOFIE nitric oxide (NO) observations with WACCM (CESM2) simulations during winter 2013

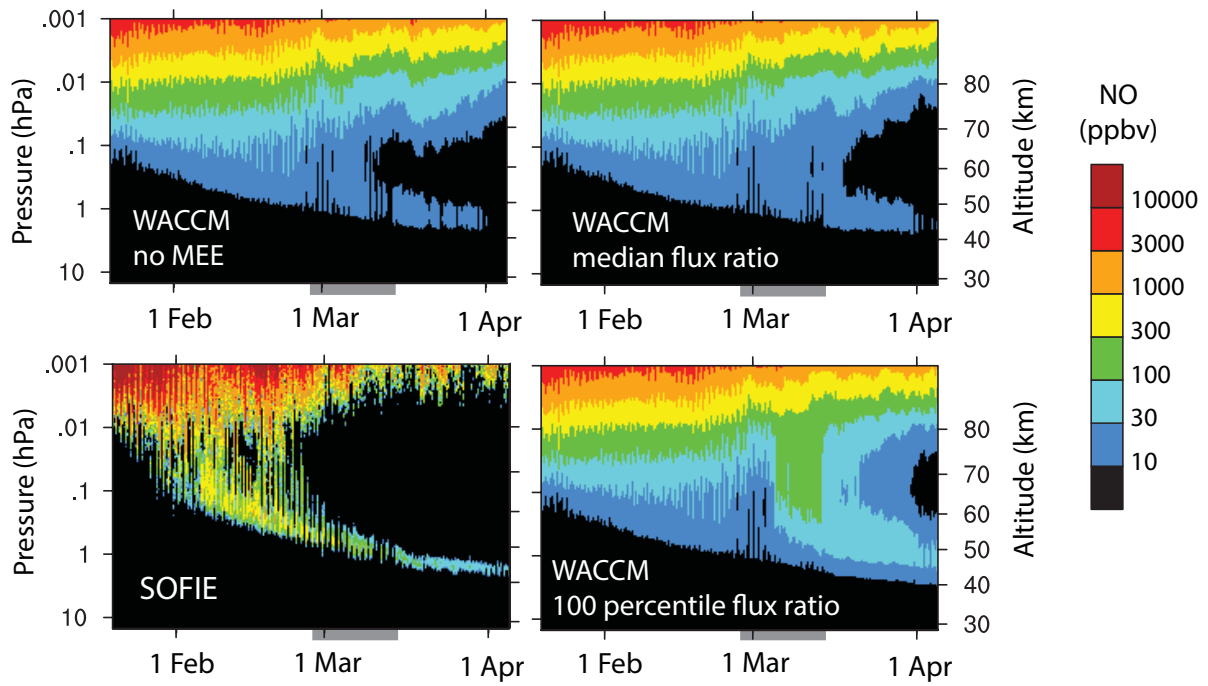


Figure 14.

CMIP6 Atmospheric Ionization
longitude 0°E, latitude 70°N

