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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

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### Special Section:

Fifteen Years of THEMIS  
Mission

### Key Points:

- Conjugate spacecraft observations allow evaluating the relative importance of kinetic Alfvén waves (KAWs) and whistlers in driving energetic electron precipitation
- KAW-driven electron bounce-averaged diffusion rates above 50 keV are one order of magnitude larger than those due to whistler-mode waves
- KAWs can contribute to and may dominate the scattering and precipitation of energetic electrons from the substorm plasma sheet

### Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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## Contribution of Kinetic Alfvén Waves to Energetic Electron Precipitation From the Plasma Sheet During a Substorm

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**Abstract** Energetic ( $\geq 50$  keV) electron precipitation from the magnetosphere to the ionosphere during substorms can be important for magnetosphere-ionosphere coupling. Using conjugate observations between the THEMIS, ELFEN, and DMSP spacecraft during a substorm, we have analyzed the energetic electron precipitation, the magnetospheric injection, and the associated plasma waves to examine the role of waves in pitch-angle scattering plasma sheet electrons into the loss cone. During the substorm expansion phase, ELFEN-A observed 50–300 keV electron precipitation from the plasma sheet that was likely driven by wave-particle interactions. The identification of the low-altitude extent of the plasma sheet from ELFEN is aided by DMSP global auroral images. Combining quasi-linear theory, numerical test particle simulations, and equatorial THEMIS measurements of particles and fields, we have evaluated the relative importance of kinetic Alfvén waves (KAWs) and whistler-mode waves in driving the observed precipitation. We find that the KAW-driven bounce-averaged pitch-angle diffusion coefficients  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  near the edge of the loss cone are  $\sim 10^{-6}$ – $10^{-5}$  s<sup>-1</sup> for these energetic electrons. The  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  due to parallel whistler-mode waves, observed at THEMIS  $\sim 10$ -min after the ELFEN observations, are  $\sim 10^{-8}$ – $10^{-6}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. Thus, at least in this case, the observed KAWs dominate over the observed whistler-mode waves in the scattering and precipitation of energetic plasma sheet electrons during the substorm injection.

**Plain Language Summary** One of the key elements of magnetosphere-ionosphere coupling is energetic electron precipitation from the magnetosphere to the ionosphere. This precipitation becomes particularly significant and geoeffective during substorms, when it can cause radio transmission interference by increasing ionospheric radio absorption. Understanding the mechanisms of such precipitation is thus critical to space weather nowcasting and forecasting. In this paper, using magnetically conjugate observations between the THEMIS, ELFEN, and DMSP satellites in both the Earth's magnetosphere and ionosphere, and aided with numerical simulations and theoretical estimates, we examine the relative importance of different plasma waves in the scattering and precipitation of energetic electrons from the plasma sheet during a substorm. By comparing the electron scattering efficiencies due to the observed kinetic Alfvén waves (KAWs) and whistler-mode waves, we conclude that KAWs dominate over whistler-mode waves, at least in this case, in driving the observed energetic (50–300 keV) electron precipitation by ELFEN during the substorm expansion. Thus, the KAW may be an important, previously overlooked contributor to energetic electron precipitation from the plasma sheet during substorms.

## 1. Introduction

The magnetospheric substorm (Akasofu, 1964; Angelopoulos et al., 2013) is an important geophysical process that powers dynamic auroras (Kataoka et al., 2021) and energizes the radiation belts (Mauk et al., 2013). In the magnetotail, a substorm is often accompanied by transient, meso-scale structures evidenced as ion bursty bulk flows (Angelopoulos et al., 1992; Baumjohann et al., 1990), plasma injections (Birn et al., 2013; Gabrielse et al., 2014; McIlwain, 1974), and dipolarizing flux bundles (DFBs) (Liu et al., 2014; Runov et al., 2009), which occur on time scales of minutes and with dawn-dusk extent of the order of 1–3  $R_E$  (Nakamura et al., 2004; Runov et al., 2011; Sitnov et al., 2019). Plasma injections are often observed to propagate earthward with electron flux increases in the energy range of tens to hundreds of keV at the nightside magnetotail-inner magnetosphere interface (Birn et al., 1998; Gabrielse et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2016; Ukhorskiy et al., 2022). The

energetic electrons within the injection region and near the DFB exhibit complex, energy-dependent anisotropic distributions, such as pancake (peaking at  $90^\circ$ ) or cigar-shaped (peaking at  $0^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$ ) (Fu et al., 2011; Runov et al., 2013; X. Zhou et al., 2010). These anisotropic electrons have been explained by both adiabatic and non-adiabatic acceleration mechanisms (Birn et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2010; Gabrielse et al., 2017; Khotyaintsev et al., 2011; Sorathia et al., 2018). The buildup of such anisotropy during these structures must necessarily be limited by wave-particle interactions (see discussions in X. Zhang et al. (2018) and Ukhorskiy et al. (2022)). The waves excited by excessive anisotropy, both suppress the anisotropy and can cause electron pitch-angle scattering into the loss cone and precipitation to the ionosphere at some other energy range. Such precipitation plays a critical role in magnetosphere-ionosphere coupling (Kepko et al., 2014; Khazanov et al., 2018; Ni et al., 2016; Nishimura et al., 2020). Lower-energy ( $\lesssim 50$  keV) electron precipitation generates the diffuse aurora (Ni et al., 2016; Ni, Thorne, Meredith, et al., 2011; Shen et al., 2021; Thorne et al., 2010; X. Zhang et al., 2014) and higher-energy electron precipitation increases ionospheric radio signal absorption (e.g., Hargreaves, 1969; Kellerman et al., 2015; Spanswick et al., 2010).

By analyzing auroral riometer absorption data collected from 60 substorm events as recorded across 40 stations, Berkey et al. (1974) found that the auroral absorption moved both eastward and westward, representing dynamic motion of  $\sim 50$ – $300$  keV electron precipitation. The precipitation region expands both equatorward and poleward from the initiation region and is primarily confined to the auroral zone latitudes. A similar pattern of substorm energetic precipitation expansion within  $4 < L < 12.5$  has been reported by Clilverd et al. (2012) using VLF radio signal phase observations and riometer measurements. Gabrielse et al. (2019) has recently combined THEMIS in-situ measurements, ground-based all-sky images, and riometer absorption data to study the movement of substorm electron injections and the associated energetic electron precipitation. They suggested that a series of small-scale DFBs and plasma injections can accumulate near the Earth to build up large-scale injections in the flux pileup region ( $\sim 6$ – $\sim 10 R_E$  wide), which could expand even further azimuthally (mostly westward) and also tailward. During cases of prolonged activity, DFBs may rebound and oscillate near the equator (Panov et al., 2010; Schmid et al., 2011). These observations of rebounding and often vortical flows could reconcile the discrepancies in previous in-situ and ground-based observations of the movements of substorm injection and energetic precipitation (see discussion in Spanswick et al. (2010) and Gabrielse et al. (2019)). Prior works have suggested that wave-particle interactions are necessary to explain the ground-based riometer signals during a substorm (Baker et al., 1981; Gabrielse et al., 2019; Lam et al., 2010; Spanswick et al., 2007). However, the specific wave modes and scattering mechanisms implicated in the driving of the energetic precipitation from plasma sheet electron injections are not well understood.

Various kinetic wave structures have been previously associated with substorm magnetic field dipolarizations and plasma injections. Deng et al. (2010) have shown that DFBs are associated with both whistler-mode chorus waves (Tsurutani & Smith, 1974) and time domain structures (TDSs), the latter appearing as broadband electrostatic waves (Mozer et al., 2015). Chorus waves are usually observed within the DFB itself or behind it (Breuillard et al., 2016; Khotyaintsev et al., 2011; Viberg et al., 2014). There, the electron perpendicular anisotropy has been shown to drive the whistler-mode wave unstable (W. Li et al., 2009; X. Zhang et al., 2018, 2019). Similarly, electron cyclotron harmonic (ECH) waves were found to often coincide with or follow substorm injections (71%) and DFBs (52%) (X. Zhang & Angelopoulos, 2014). Whistler-mode waves, ECH waves, and TDSs are typically associated with low-energy ( $< \sim 50$  keV) electron precipitation to the diffuse aurora from the plasma sheet (e.g., Ni et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2020; Vasko et al., 2018). Although whistler-mode chorus waves have been known to accelerate and scatter energetic ( $> 50$  keV) electrons from the inner magnetosphere ( $L \leq 7$ ) (see reviews by Shprits et al. (2008), Thorne (2010), Millan and Baker (2012), Artemyev et al. (2016), and Thorne et al. (2021)), their scattering efficiency drops significantly as the energy of the plasma sheet electrons increases from 10 to 50–100 keV (Ghaffari et al., 2020; Ni et al., 2016; Ni, Thorne, Meredith, et al., 2011; Ni, Thorne, Shprits, et al., 2011).

In addition, lower-hybrid waves with frequencies near and above the lower-hybrid frequency have also been detected near the boundaries of the DFBs, known as dipolarization fronts (DFs) (Graham et al., 2017; Norgren et al., 2012; V. A. Sergeev et al., 2009; M. Zhou et al., 2009). These waves are important for plasma acceleration and heating (Cairns & McMillan, 2005; Divin et al., 2015; Drake et al., 2003), but they are incapable of scattering electrons into the loss cone. Furthermore, M. Zhou et al. (2014) have shown observations of large-amplitude ( $\sim 2$  nT) low-frequency (sub-Hz on the order of  $f_{ci}$ ) magnetosonic waves associated with DFs. Magnetosonic waves can scatter electrons at intermediate ( $\sim 10^\circ$ – $\sim 70^\circ$ ) pitch angles but are also ineffective in scattering electrons into

the loss cone (e.g., Ma et al., 2016; Mourenas et al., 2013; M. Zhou et al., 2014). Moreover, ultra-low-frequency (ULF) waves, which are on MHD scales, also play a critical role in the substorm dipolarization processes (e.g., Liu et al., 2017; Shiokawa et al., 1997), but they seldom contribute to electron pitch-angle scattering directly (Ukhorskiy & Sitnov, 2013; X.-J. Zhang et al., 2019). Electromagnetic ion cyclotron (EMIC) waves have been sporadically observed in the midnight plasma sheet (Wang et al., 2017), and they primarily scatter relativistic ( $\sim$ MeV) electrons (e.g., Albert, 2003; Ni et al., 2015; Summers & Thorne, 2003).

The kinetic Alfvén wave (KAW) is also a common and powerful wave mode associated with substorm injections and DFBs. KAWs are quasi-electrostatic waves with perpendicular wavelengths comparable to the local ion gyroradius (Hasegawa & Chen, 1975). They have been observed in the plasma sheet both at high latitudes and close to the equator (Angelopoulos et al., 2002; Deng et al., 2010; Wygant et al., 2002), usually in correlation with braking ion bursty bulk flows (Angelopoulos et al., 2002; Chaston et al., 2012; Ergun et al., 2015). Poynting flux carried by KAWs can be an important carrier of energy transfer from plasma sheet ion kinetic energy to electromagnetic energy flowing into the ionosphere at high-latitudes (Angelopoulos et al., 2002; Chaston et al., 2012; Keiling, 2009). KAWs in the plasma frame appear as broadband waves in the spacecraft frame, in the presence of fast ion flows (Chaston et al., 2012). Using statistics of  $>170$  events from THEMIS in the outer magnetosphere ( $L \geq 8$ ), Ergun et al. (2015) demonstrated a good correlation between large-amplitude ( $>50$  mV/m) KAWs and fast ion flows ( $>100$  km/s in 85% of the events), as well as DFBs (in 91% of the events). The events were primarily in the pre-midnight sector (as is typical of fast flows and DFBs). A similar correlation between KAWs and plasma injection boundaries has also been reported in the inner magnetosphere by Malaspina et al. (2015) using Van Allen Probe observations. They also showed that KAW broadband emissions were comoving with the injections. A recent statistical study from Usanova and Ergun (2022) in the flow-braking region has suggested that large-amplitude electric fields (which we believe could be potentially comprised of KAWs), may be responsible for local acceleration and heating of energetic electrons (Ergun et al., 2022), so as to supply a seed population for the outer radiation belt (Jaynes et al., 2015). It is thus critically important to understand the role KAWs play in plasma sheet injections and magnetic field dipolarizations, in particular during substorms, and whether they can contribute to energetic injection electron scattering or acceleration.

It has only recently been recognized (Shen et al., 2022a; Shen et al., 2022c) that KAWs can resonantly scatter energetic injection electrons with energies of tens to hundreds of keV through Doppler-shifted Landau resonance. This resonant interaction results from coupling between KAW electric fields and electron perpendicular guiding-center drifts at magnetic field gradients. By comparing conjugate observations from the MMS and ELFIN spacecraft with test particle simulation results, Shen et al. (2022c) have provided preliminary evidence that KAWs may contribute to energetic electron precipitation from a plasma sheet injection. However, the relative role of KAWs and other scattering mechanisms in driving energetic precipitation has not been addressed yet. Here we address this issue using observations from the ELFIN, DMSP, and THEMIS missions, which provide approximately conjugate measurements from the vantage points of both the ionosphere and the equatorial magnetosphere during a substorm event.

## 2. Instrumentation and Data

We use data from the three THEMIS spacecraft (A, D, and E) (Angelopoulos, 2008) in the magnetotail (at  $\sim 11R_E$ ) spanning the period of 01:00–02:10 UT during a substorm event on 10 July 2021. From each THEMIS spacecraft we use injection electron fluxes from 25 to 900 keV measured by the Solid State Telescope (SST) instrument (Angelopoulos, Sibeck, et al., 2008; Runov et al., 2015), DC vector magnetic field at spin resolution ( $\sim 3$  s for the *fgs* data set) measured by the Fluxgate Magnetometers (FGM) (Auster et al., 2008), electric and magnetic field wave power spectra with frequencies up to 4 kHz (FFF spectra every  $\sim 1$  s), particle burst waveform data at 512 sps (DC-coupled), and short-burst ( $\sim 5$  s) waveform data 16,384 sps (AC-coupled), measured by the Electric Field Instrument (EFI), the search coil magnetometer (SCM), and the Digital Fields Board (DFB) (Bonnell et al., 2008; Cully et al., 2008; Le Contel et al., 2008). In addition, background electron densities are inferred from spacecraft potentials (Bonnell et al., 2008), and electron and ion temperatures are obtained from thermal ( $\lesssim 30$  keV) and high-energy ( $\sim 25$ –900 keV) measurements by the Electrostatic Analyzers (ESA) (McFadden et al., 2008) and the SST instrument.

We also use energetic electron measurements from the ELFIN twin CubeSats (ELFIN-A, ELFIN-B; or ELA, ELB) (Angelopoulos, Tsai, et al., 2020), which were roughly magnetically conjugate with THEMIS during

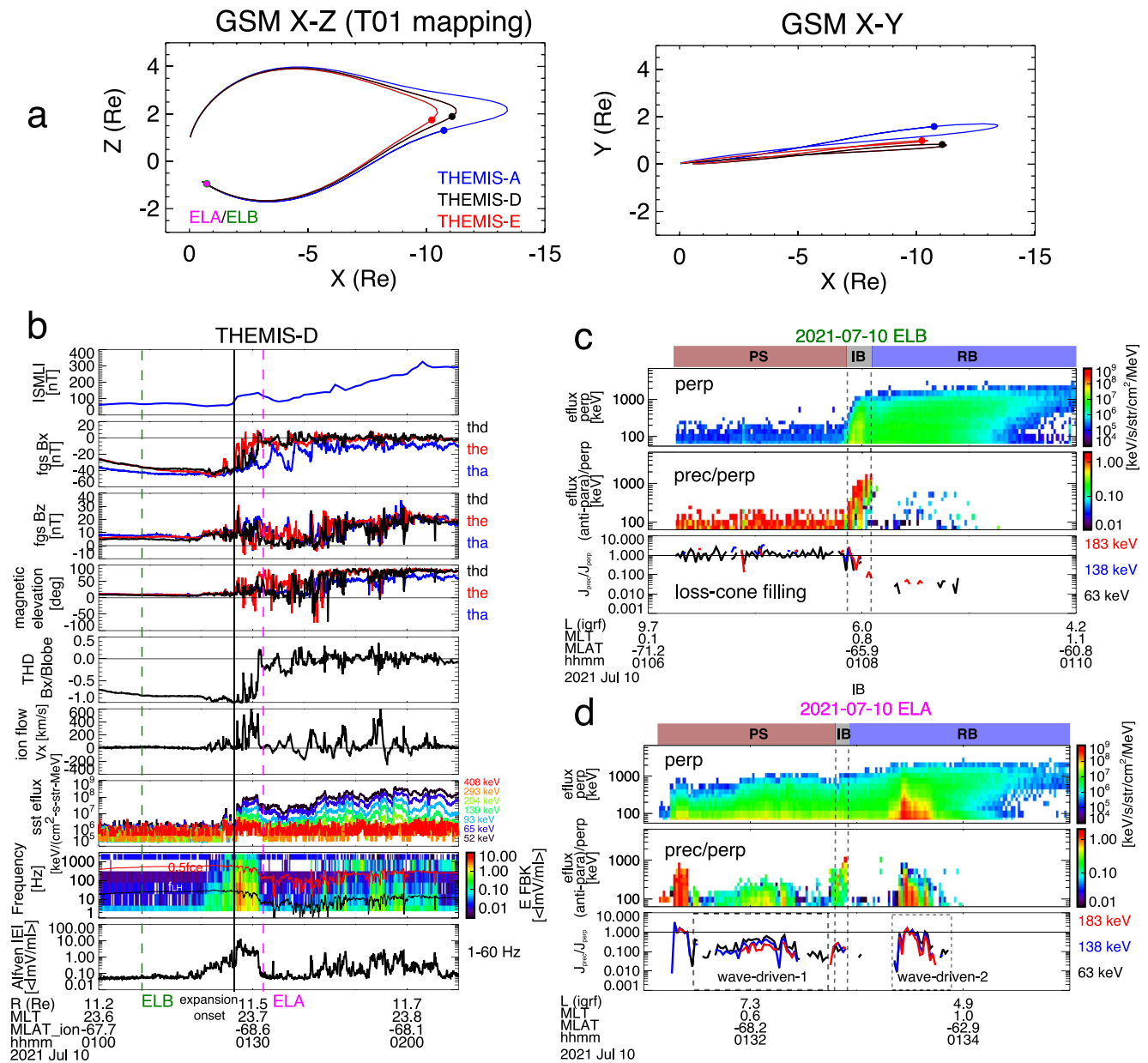
the growth phase of a substorm near 01:06–01:10 UT (ELFIN-A) and during the expansion phase of the same substorm near 01:31–01:35 UT (ELFIN-B). Mounted on the spinning ELFIN CubeSats, flying on polar circular orbits at ~450 km altitude, the energetic particle detector for electrons (EPDE) instrument measures electrons from 50 keV to ~6 MeV in 16 energy channels, and pitch-angle distributions in 16 (full-spin) angular sectors with a resolution (FWHM) of ~22.5° every 3 s. The **B** field is within ±15° of the spin plane, allowing ELFIN to reliably resolve the local ionospheric loss cone (~67°) and separate precipitating, backscattered, and trapped electron fluxes (see Angelopoulos et al., 2022). Multiple energy channels with fine energy step size and full pitch-angle resolution allow us to distinguish between wave-particle interactions and field-line curvature scattering based on the characteristic precipitation signatures of these processes in energy and pitch-angle (V. A. Sergeev et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022c).

In addition, we use observations from the DMSP spacecraft (F17 and F18) to reveal the substorm-related auroral activities as well as the associated low-energy electron precipitation and magnetic field measurements at an altitude of ~840 km. The optical auroral emissions demarcate the auroral boundaries or the plasma sheet boundaries providing context to ELFIN's ionospheric measurements. These optical measurements also support the origin of energetic precipitation measured by ELFIN from the magnetospheric plasma sheet. The DMSP Special Sensor Ultraviolet Spectrographic Imager (SSUSI) instrument provides far ultraviolet (FUV) auroral imagery covering a wavelength range of 110–180 nm, which is divided into Lyman-Birge-Hopfield short (LBHS) within 110–160 nm wavelengths and Lyman-Birge-Hopfield long (LBHL) within 160–180 nm wavelengths (Paxton et al., 2002; Sotirelis et al., 2013). We will use the LBHL measurements in horizon-to-horizon cross-track scanning mode accumulated over the two conjugate (with ELFIN and THEMIS) auroral oval passages during 01:00–01:21 UT and 01:55–02:15 UT. The SSJ5 particle detector measures fluxes of ions and electrons from 30 eV to 30 keV once per second (Hardy et al., 1984). We also use magnetic field data from the Special Sensor Magnetometer (SSM) instrument (Rich et al., 1985) and electron densities from the Special Sensor Ions, Electrons, and Scintillation (SSIES) instrument. Lastly, we use the *SML* index (the generalization of *AL*) to support our identification of substorm activities (Gjerloev, 2012; Newell & Gjerloev, 2011).

### 3. Overview of the Event on 10 July 2021

Figure 1 shows an overview of the THEMIS-ELFIN conjunction event (Panel (a)) on 10 July 2021, when THEMIS observed energetic electron injection, magnetic fields, ion flows, and plasma waves in the equatorial plasma sheet (Panel (b)) and the two ELFIN CubeSats observed energetic (>50 keV) electron precipitation in the southern auroral ionosphere (ELFIN-B: Panel (c) and ELFIN-A: Panel (d)). Figure 1a shows the magnetic conjunction of the three THEMIS spacecraft in the magnetotail magnetic field during the period of 01:20–01:30 UT. Because THEMIS-A and THEMIS-E have very similar observations to THEMIS-D, all located south of the neutral sheet near magnetic midnight (*MLT* ~ 23.7 hr), we mostly discuss observations from THEMIS-D here.

Figure 1b shows that the absolute value of *SML* index was relatively stable around 70 nT prior to ~01:26:40 UT, when *SML* increased suddenly and progressively to more than 300 nT, signifying the initiation of a magnetospheric substorm expansion. The THEMIS spacecraft first observed current-sheet thinning with increasing  $|B_x|$  and decreasing  $B_z$  during the substorm growth phase, before they encountered the dipolarizing flux bundles (DFBs) around 01:26:40 UT. All THEMIS spacecraft entered the plasma sheet proper near 01:28 UT, with  $|B_x/B_{lobe}| < 0.3$ . Assuming pressure balance in the *z* direction, the lobe field  $B_{lobe} = \sqrt{2\mu_0 P_{tot}}$  and  $P_{tot}$  is the total pressure containing only  $B_x$  and  $B_y$  components. Here the condition  $|B_x/B_{lobe}| < 0.3$  is used as a proxy to indicate that the spacecraft observations are in the central plasma sheet (Liu et al., 2013). Near 01:26:40 UT, a sharp increase of particle fluxes (seventh panel from top), along with multiple DFBs, intense Alfvénic broadband waves and ion bursty bulk flows (BBFs), engulfed the spacecraft and was sustained almost an hour. Multiple DFBs were observed, having peaks in  $B_z$  up to ~20 nT with magnetic field elevation angle increases of more than 30°. Coinciding with the substorm expansion onset and in the few-minute period after (01:27 - 01:32 UT), earthward ion flows  $V_x$  exceeded 500 km/s, oscillating in correlation with the magnetic perturbations, suggesting the presence of compressional ULF waves (Kepko et al., 2014; Runov et al., 2014; Shiokawa et al., 1997) and significant magnetic flux transport  $-V_x \times B$  (e.g., Liu et al., 2014) from the reconnection site (Angelopoulos, Artemyev, et al., 2020; Angelopoulos, McFadden, et al., 2008). The injected electrons had maximum energies of >500 keV and the broadband low-frequency (1–60 Hz) waves had a mean absolute electric field amplitude of >10 mV/m. As will be demonstrated later, the broadband waves in the beginning of the injection near 01:27–01:31 UT consist



**Figure 1.** THEMIS-ELFIN conjugate observations of a substorm injection and energetic electron precipitation on 10 July 2021. (a) THEMIS and ELFIN positions in GSM X-Z and X-Y projections. Magnetic field line tracing is performed using the T01 model (Tsyganenko, 2002). (b) Panels from top to bottom: the absolute SML index; THEMIS A, D, and E magnetic field  $B_x$  in GSM; magnetic field  $B_z$ ; magnetic field elevation angle  $\theta_{DF} = \arctan(B_z/\sqrt{B_x^2 + B_y^2})$ ; THEMIS-D  $B_x/B_{lobe}$ ; THEMIS-D ion flow velocities  $V_x$  in GSM; THEMIS-D SST electron energy flux within 50–500 keV; THEMIS-D filter-bank (FBK) electric field spectra; integrated FBK wave electric field within 1–60 Hz, calculated as  $|E| = \sqrt{\sum_f \langle |E_w(f)| \rangle^2 \pi^2 / 8}$ , where  $\langle |E_w(f)| \rangle$  is the FBK mean absolute wave amplitude. Note that the magnetic latitudes (MLAT) are calculated at the ionospheric footprints ( $\sim 110$  km) in (Altitude-adjusted corrected geomagnetic) AACGM coordinates. (c) ELFIN-B (ELB) substorm growth-phase observations of near-perpendicular electron energy fluxes, along with the loss cone filling ratios (flux ratios)  $J_{prec}/J_{perp}$  spectrogram and line plots for 63, 138, and 183 keV. (d) ELFIN-A (ELA) substorm expansion-phase observations of near-perpendicular electron fluxes and loss cone filling ratios spectrogram and line plots in the same format as in (c). The isotropy boundary (or the inner edge of the plasma sheet) is indicated in between the gray dashed lines, and two wave-driven precipitation regions are indicated by the rectangular boxes. Note that the conjunction time stamps of ELA and ELB with THEMIS are highlighted in (b) with vertical dashed lines.

mainly of KAWs and time domain structures (TDSs) (Mozer et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2021), whereas after 01:40 UT there exist additionally, lower-hybrid (LH) waves (Deng et al., 2010; Graham et al., 2017), whistler-mode waves (X. Zhang et al., 2018), and electron cyclotron harmonic (ECH) waves (X. Zhang & Angelopoulos, 2014).

Simultaneously with the commencement of the injection near 01:26:40 UT,  $B_x$  and ion flows  $V_x$  were observed to periodically oscillate, indicating flapping motion of the plasma sheet (e.g., V. Sergeev et al., 2003).

In association with THEMIS observations from the plasma sheet, the two ELFIN spacecraft in the southern ionosphere observed significant energetic electron precipitation (Figures 1c and 1d). ELFIN-B and -A, in that sequence, traversed the auroral latitudes ( $\sim -65^\circ \sim -72^\circ$ ) during the growth phase and the expansion phase, respectively, both at  $MLT \sim 0.1\text{--}0.8$  hr. ELFIN-B's crossing occurred near 01:06 UT, before the injection at THEMIS, whereas ELFIN-A's was concurrent with the injection, near 01:32 UT. Although known to be somewhat inaccurate (the uncertainty reaches  $3^\circ$  in latitude during active times), magnetic mapping of THEMIS and ELFIN to the ionosphere ( $\sim 110$  km) is performed to demonstrate the closeness of the ELFIN satellites to the THEMIS footpoints at least in  $MLT$ , and the relation of both missions' magnetic projections to the large-scale auroral region. For our mapping we used the T01 model (Tsyganenko, 2002) with real-time, lag-compensated input parameters of the  $Dst$  index ( $\sim 12$  nT), the IMF  $B_y$  ( $\sim -2$  nT) and  $B_z$  ( $\sim -6$  nT), and the solar wind density ( $\sim 16$  cm $^{-3}$ ) and speed ( $\sim 350$  km/s).

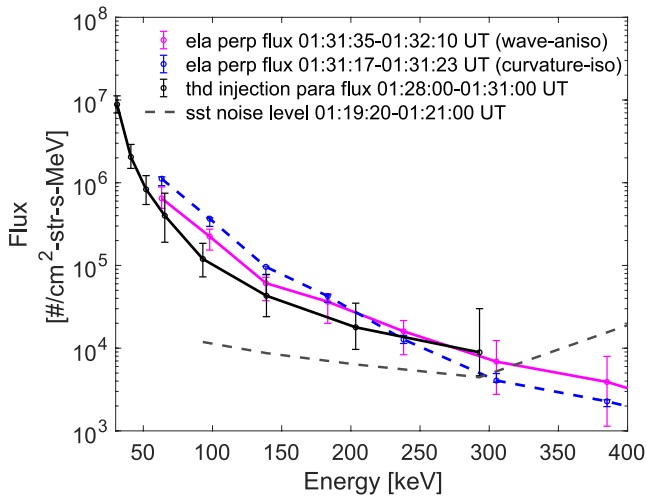
While ELFIN-B only observed weak and isotropic precipitation poleward of the isotropy boundary (IB, as characterized by a latitudinal boundary of isotropic fluxes at energies that dispersively decrease with increasing latitude; see V. A. Sergeev et al. (1993, 2012) for details and references), ELFIN-A observed intense, anisotropic electron precipitation from the plasma sheet region (PS), where electrons were energized and their fluxes enhanced during the substorm expansion phase. It is worth emphasizing here that the contribution of atmospheric backscattered electron fluxes has been excluded from the precipitation energy fluxes when calculating  $J_{prec}/J_{perp}$  ( $J_{prec}$  is the precipitating flux and  $J_{perp}$  is the perpendicular flux) ratios in Figures 1c and 1d (see, e.g., Mourenas et al., 2021).

The plasma sheet precipitation observed at ELFIN-A (during substorm expansion) is dominated by energies below  $\sim 300$  keV, except for a couple of transient precipitation intervals when precipitation exceeds 500 keV. That electron energies of significant flux in the plasma sheet can be  $> 300$  keV and exceed 500 keV has also been reported by previous missions in the magnetotail (Christon et al., 1991; Sarafopoulos et al., 2001; Sarris et al., 1976). Nonetheless, the typical plasma sheet precipitation region is identified from ELFIN based on: (a) significant near-perpendicular (bounce-trapped) fluxes are observed poleward of the IB (V. A. Sergeev et al., 1993); (b) significant down-going (precipitating) fluxes are observed at  $L_{IGRF} > 7$  with energies below  $\sim 300$  keV; and (c) the precipitation region is within the main auroral oval as observed by DMSP (and will be discussed below).

During the growth phase (Figure 1c), the weak isotropic electron precipitation at ELFIN-B poleward of the IB is caused by field-line curvature (FLC) scattering of plasma sheet electrons due to the current sheet thinning process (McPherron, 1972; V. A. Sergeev & Tsyganenko, 1982; V. A. Sergeev et al., 1983). During the expansion phase, dipolarized magnetic fields will increase the curvature radius and reduce FLC-scattering. This explains the observation of mostly anisotropic precipitation from the plasma sheet at ELFIN-A (in Figure 1d). Note that localized, isotropic precipitation with energies of over  $\sim 500$  keV was observed at the poleward boundary of the plasma sheet, likely associated with localized current sheet/FLC-scattering. The anisotropic precipitation observed near 01:32 UT shows higher loss cone filling ratios for lower-energy electrons, as indicated by the flux ratios  $J_{prec}/J_{perp}$  in the third panel of Figure 1d. These ratios suggest that scattering and loss is more efficient for lower-energy electrons than for higher-energy electrons.

This energy dependence of the precipitating-to-perpendicular anisotropy ratio cannot be explained by FLC-scattering, which would produce more efficient higher-energy electron precipitation than lower-energy precipitation, due to decreasing curvature-radius-to-gyroradius ratios with increasing energy (Buchner & Zelenyi, 1989; Delcourt et al., 1994; V. A. Sergeev et al., 1983). It is very likely that this energy dependence is caused by wave scattering, which can produce more efficient electron scattering at lower energies (Ni et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2022a; Summers et al., 2007). A similar, wave-driven precipitation region can be identified at 01:33:30 UT except that it is located within the outer radiation belt (RB), since the  $L$ -shell around that time is low ( $\sim 5$ ) and the precipitation is embedded in a prolonged interval of high perpendicular fluxes exceeding 500 keV. It is likely that whistler-mode waves, which are routinely observed in the outer radiation belt, can account for the broadband precipitation with energies from  $\sim 50$  to more than 500 keV and have been studied extensively in the past (e.g., Millan & Thorne, 2007; Shprits et al., 2008; Thorne, 2010; Thorne et al., 2021, and references therein).

To confirm that the injection near the equator observed by THEMIS-D is related to the aforementioned wave-driven precipitation event observed at ELFIN-A, we compare in Figure 2 the energy-spectrum of the



**Figure 2.** Comparison of differential number flux energy-spectra measured by THEMIS-D during injection periods (solid black line, 01:28:00–01:31:00 UT, see Figure 1b), by ELFIN-A within the ionospheric wave-driven, anisotropic precipitation region (solid magenta line, 01:31:35–01:32:10 UT, see wave-driven-1 in Figure 1d), and by EFLIN-A near the poleward boundary of the auroral precipitation region (dashed blue line, 01:31:17–01:32:23 UT, see Figure 1d). Median values of the spectra are shown along with errorbars. The gray-dashed line indicates the noise-level spectrum obtained from the time period of 01:19:20–01:21:00 UT during the growth phase, when no significant energetic injection fluxes were observed. Note that the noise level of median flux spectra from THEMIS-D SST becomes higher than or comparable with the measured injection fluxes at energies larger than  $\sim 300$  keV. Thus, SST flux enhancements at  $>300$  keV cannot be interpreted as of physical origin and we do not show spectra at these higher energies.

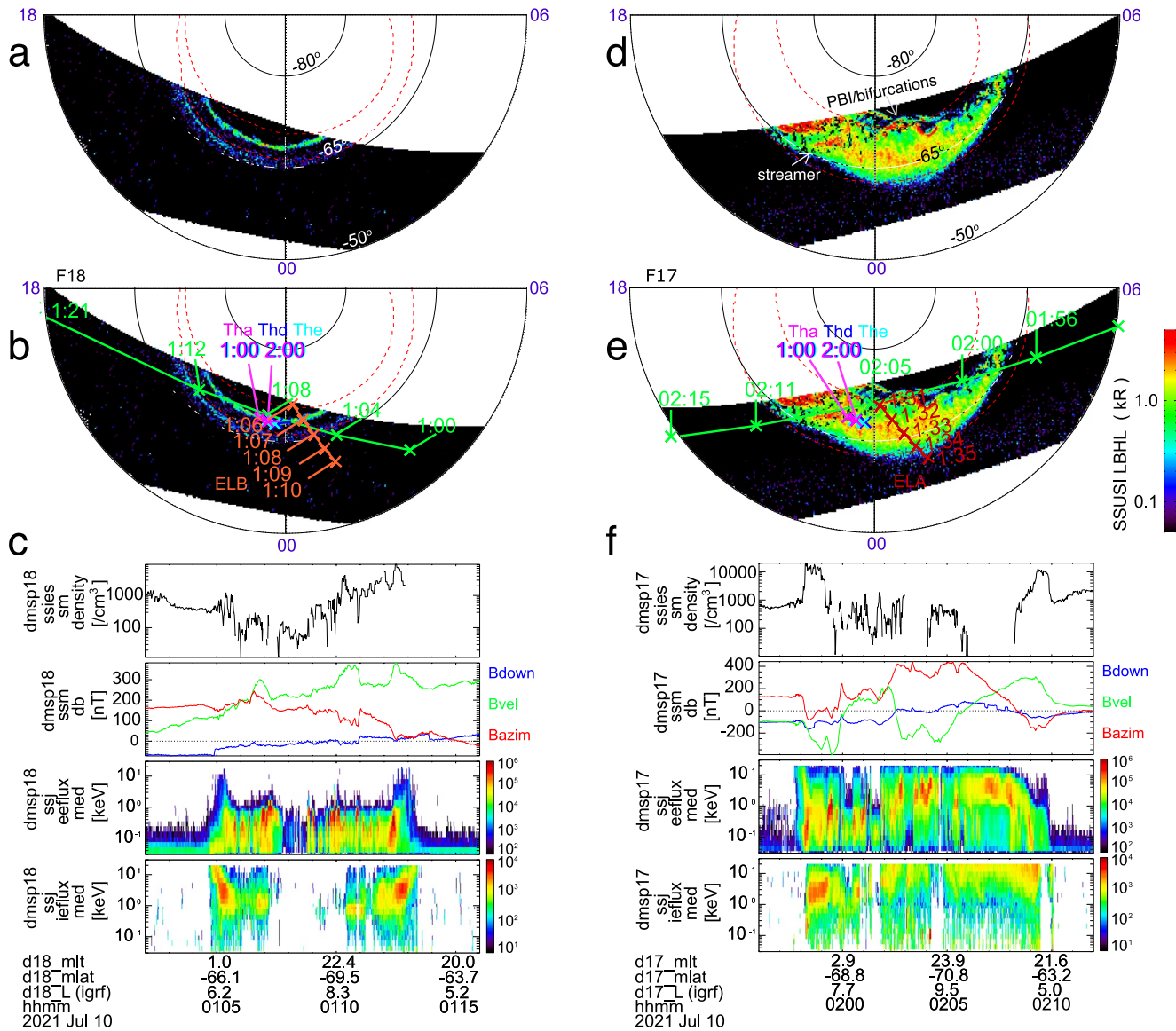
parallel-to-B differential number flux (pitch angles less than  $22.5^\circ$  from the field line) at THEMIS-D (black solid line) with the perpendicular number flux energy-spectrum measured at ELFIN-A (magenta solid line). Assuming adiabatic motion of energetic electrons, perpendicular electrons measured at ELFIN-A would have an equatorial pitch angle of  $\sim 2^\circ$ . As demonstrated by Artemyev et al. (2022), flux distributions measured by ELFIN and THEMIS are comparable if the regions where the spacecraft reside in the ionosphere and magnetosphere are approximately magnetically conjugate. Indeed, nearly identical spectra are observed at THEMIS-D during the injection period (01:28–01:31 UT) and at ELFIN-A within the wave-driven, anisotropic precipitation period (01:31:35–01:32:10 UT) (see Figure 1d). The distributions are considered nearly identical because the spectra overlap within the errorbars at all comparable energies. Conversely, the ELFIN spectra measured during the intense precipitation region (01:31:17–01:31:23 UT) just poleward of the wave-driven precipitation in Figure 1d (blue dashed line in Figure 2) is significantly different from the THEMIS-D injection spectrum (black line in same figure), particularly at energies below  $\sim 150$  keV. We conclude that the plasma sheet injection fluxes measured by THEMIS-D during 01:28–01:31 UT are likely associated with the wave-driven, anisotropic precipitation at ELFIN-A around 01:32 UT.

Two DMSP spacecraft, F17 and F18, were in conjunction with ELFIN during this event. They provided additional support that the energetic electron precipitation at ELFIN was probably due to fluxes from the plasma sheet (which THEMIS was observing in situ at the time). Figure 3 shows DMSP FUV auroral images in the LBHL band (160–180 nm), plasma densities, magnetic perturbations, and low-energy ( $<30$  keV) particle precipitation energy fluxes. These measurements were taken first by F18 and next by F17 as they traversed the aurora in the southern ionosphere during the substorm growth phase (01:00–01:15 UT) and expansion phase (01:55–02:15 UT), respectively. The ionospheric footprints of ELFIN-A, ELFIN-B, THEMIS,

and DMSP are highlighted on the images in Figures 3b and 3c. They reveal that at the times of interest both F18 and F17 were within the auroral oval at high latitudes, near the magnetic midnight meridian. It is worth noting that we do not imply that THEMIS and ELFIN are exactly conjugate along the same field line. We merely suggest that they are sufficiently close, and that the plasma and field characteristics of the ELFIN's equatorial source region and those at the THEMIS are similar.

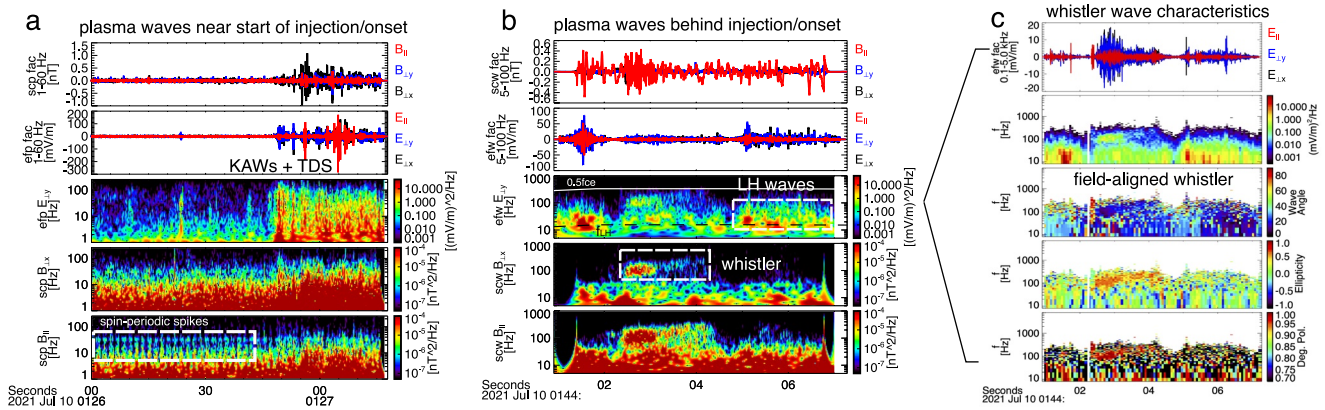
During the growth phase, the FUV image in Figure 3a reveals two distinct bright latitudinal bands one at low and one at high latitudes bracketing the auroral oval. The equatorward band is likely the thin growth-phase arc, typical during substorms. It is in the vicinity of the IB precipitation as identified from ELFIN-B near 01:08 UT (Figure 1c). When DMSP F18 traversed the plasma sheet equatorward boundaries, once near 01:05 UT in the premidnight sectors and once 01:12 UT in the postmidnight sectors, SSJ5 measured energetic electron precipitation of  $>10$  keV, which coincided with energy-dispersed ions with energies surpassing the instrument energy limit of 30 keV. These features, along with the sharp drop-off of the electron energies at the equatorward sides of the auroral precipitation region, are consistent with previous observations of the inner edge of the plasma sheet (Elphic et al., 1999). The poleward bright latitudinal band is at the same latitude as the low-energy ( $< a$  few keV) precipitation in Figure 3c. It is likely related to Alfvén wave acceleration, typically observed in the high-latitude auroral region, and has been extensively studied (e.g., Liang et al., 2019).

During the expansion phase, DMSP F17 measured an enlarged auroral oval (Figure 3d) and observed various dynamic auroral forms near midnight, such as the poleward boundary intensification, bifurcations and north-south-aligned aurora streamers (e.g., Forsyth et al., 2020; Henderson, 2012; Lyons et al., 2012; Nishimura et al., 2011). Importantly, most of the energetic electron precipitation measured by ELFIN-A during the period of 01:31–01:34 UT is within the auroral precipitation region as evidenced by the DMSP auroral image. The uncertainty of field-line tracing of ELFIN and DMSP to the ionosphere is less than  $0.5^\circ$  in latitude, because the two missions have low-altitude orbits ( $\sim 450$  km and  $\sim 840$  km, respectively) where the background magnetic field



**Figure 3.** Overview of DMSP F18 and F17 observations during the periods of 01:00–01:15 UT and 01:55–02:15 UT (a and d) FUV auroral images measured by F18 (left) and F17 (right) during the growth and expansion phases of the substorm, respectively. The dashed circles delineate roughly the auroral oval poleward and equatorward boundaries. Complex auroral structures, such as auroral streamers, poleward boundary intensifications (PBIs) and bifurcations (e.g., Forsyth et al., 2020; Henderson, 2012; Nishimura et al., 2011), can be observed near midnight during the expansion phase (b),(e) Same auroral images but overlaid with ionospheric (at 110 km altitude) footprints of ELFIN, THEMIS, and DMSP using T01 mapping in AACGM coordinates. The time stamps are indicated along the spacecraft trajectories with the cross symbols. (c and f) F18 (left) and F17 (right) measurements of plasma densities, magnetic field perturbations, and low-energy (<30 keV) electron and ion precipitation energy fluxes (in  $\text{keV}/\text{cm}^2\text{-s-sr-eV}$ ).

can be well modeled. This supports our interpretation that the anisotropic wave-driven precipitation, observed by ELFIN near 01:32 UT in Figure 1d, is from the plasma sheet during the expansion phase. Note that there exists a ~20-min time separation between ELFIN-A and DMSP observations, and the DMSP image is time-aliased, being a composite of cross-track scans over the 12-min traversal of the southern polar region. Therefore, we do not examine the one-to-one correspondence between the DMSP-observed dynamic auroral features and ELFIN-A-observed energetic electron precipitation. We only identify the ELFIN-measured precipitation region relative to the DMSP large-scale auroral boundaries. Within the auroral oval, DMSP F17 SSJ5 measured interleaved Alfvénic and inverted-V auroral precipitations during the period of 01:57–02:10 UT (Karlsson et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2019).



**Figure 4.** Magnetic and electric field waveforms and spectrograms measured from THEMIS-D particle-burst (512 samples per second (sps), DC-coupled) and wave-burst (16,384 sps, AC-coupled) collections, demonstrating various plasma waves associated with the plasma sheet electron injection. (a) Particle-burst data measured during the period of 01:26:00–01:27:20 UT, showing kinetic Alfvén waves and time domain structures. Panels from top to bottom are: low-frequency magnetic field waveforms, low-frequency electric field waveforms, wavelet spectrograms of  $E_{\perp y}$ ,  $B_{\perp x}$ , and  $B_{\parallel}$  in the field-aligned coordinates. The background magnetic field vector is determined by running a 1-min averaging window through spin-resolution magnetic fields (fsg data). Waveform data have been bandpass-filtered to be within 1–60 Hz. Spin-periodic contamination can be seen in both electric fields and magnetic fields. (b) Wave-burst collection during the period of 01:44:01–01:44:07, showing mostly lower-hybrid and whistler-mode waves. Panels are displayed in the same format as (a) but show waveforms with frequencies between 5 and 100 Hz and wave spectrograms up to 1 kHz. (c) Whistler-mode wave electric field waveform measurements and spectrograms of power spectral density, wave normal angle, wave ellipticity, and degree of polarization.

#### 4. Plasma Waves Within Plasma Sheet Injection and Dipolarization Fields

Near the dipolarizing flux bundles (DFBs) at 01:27 UT, THEMIS observed intense broadband wave electric fields with frequencies up to 1 kHz and mean wave amplitudes of more than 10 mV/m below 60 Hz (Figure 1b). To reveal the nature of the broadband emissions, we show in Figure 4a the particle-burst waveform data (bandpass filtered within 1–60 Hz) measured at the beginning of the substorm injection within 01:26:00–01:27:20 UT. The waveform data demonstrate predominantly perpendicular fluctuations, in  $B_{\perp x}$ ,  $B_{\perp y}$ ,  $E_{\perp x}$ , and  $E_{\perp y}$ , with electric field perturbations up to 100 mV/m and magnetic field perturbations up to 1 nT. Their frequencies are much higher than the local ion cyclotron frequency of  $\sim 0.5$  Hz. These transverse field perturbations are consistent with the characteristics of KAWs (Chaston et al., 2012; Wygant et al., 2002). There are also large-amplitude nonlinear time domain structures (TDS) as evidenced by the spiky field-aligned  $E_z$  perturbations up to 300 mV/m near 01:27:05 UT (Mozer et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2021).

Short-duration ( $\sim 6$  s) wave-burst data are available to show features of additional wave fluctuations collected at different time intervals during the substorm. These include whistler-mode waves, ECH waves, and lower-hybrid (LH) waves. These three modes are mainly observed after 01:40 UT when sustained electron injections have developed sufficient temperature anisotropy. In total, nine collections of  $\sim 6$ -s wave-burst data were obtained in our event, with four of them showing mainly ECH waves near and above  $f_{ce} \sim 600$  Hz that were also accompanied by low-frequency broadband waves below  $\sim 100$  Hz. The broadband waves consisted mainly of either KAWs or LH waves. LH waves have frequencies near and above the lower-hybrid frequency ( $\sim 20$  Hz) and can be distinguished from KAWs by examining whether  $B_z$  dominates magnetic fluctuations (Graham et al., 2017). Figure 4b demonstrates an example of these LH wave bursts along with whistler-mode waves. The whistlers are in the frequency band of  $0.1\text{--}0.35f_{ce}$  with peak wave spectral densities reaching up to  $10^{-4}$  nT<sup>2</sup>/Hz. A detailed analysis of the whistler-mode wave spectra has been provided in Supporting Information S1. In Figure 4c, we analyze the whistler-mode wave normal angle, ellipticity, and degree of polarization using Means' method (Means, 1972). These whistler-mode waves mainly propagate along the magnetic field ( $|\theta_{kb}| < 25^\circ$ ), which is typical in the equatorial plasma sheet injection region (Breuillard et al., 2016; W. Li, Bortnik, et al., 2011; Le Contel et al., 2009; X. Zhang et al., 2018).

#### 5. Potential Waves Generating Energetic Electron Pitch-Angle Diffusion and Precipitation

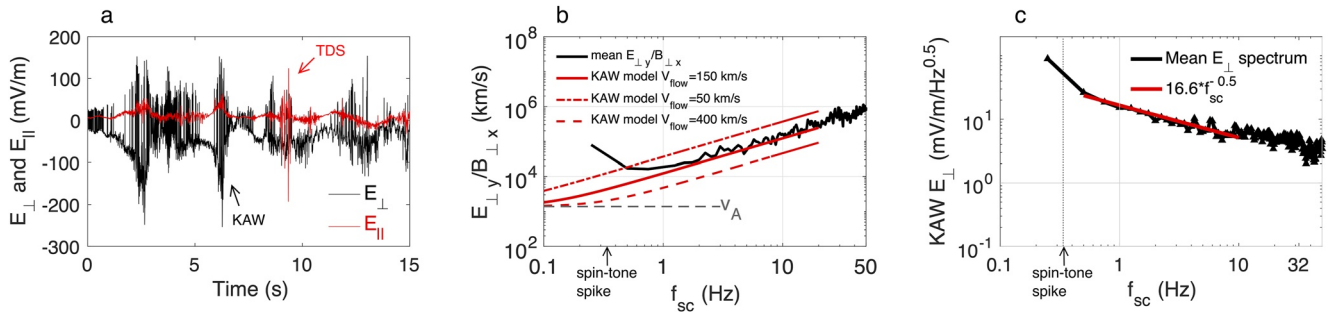
We now embark on the main question we aim to address in this paper: To what plasma waves or electron scattering mechanisms can we attribute the anisotropic, energetic (approximately 50–300 keV) electron precipitation

observed by ELFIN-A near 01:32 UT in Figure 1d? On the one hand, the anisotropic precipitation has higher loss cone filling rates at lower energies, thus disproving field-line curvature (FLC) scattering as a viable mechanism. On the other hand, we have observed various wave modes in the equatorial plasma sheet during the substorm, among which ECH waves and TDSs have been known to mainly scatter electrons with energies below a few keV (Ni et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2021; Vasko et al., 2017, 2018). LH waves and magnetosonic waves cannot scatter energetic electrons effectively into the loss cone (e.g., Ma et al., 2016; Mourenas et al., 2013). In addition, MHD ULF waves associated with injections (Runov et al., 2014; Shiokawa et al., 1997) are unlikely to directly impact energetic electrons in pitch angle (e.g., Lejosne & Kollmann, 2020; Ukhorskiy & Sitnov, 2013, and references therein). Instead, ULF waves may contribute indirectly to electron pitch-angle scattering by coupling with and seeding the growth of other kinetic-scale waves (X. J. Zhang et al., 2020), such as KAWs (Allan & Wright, 2000; Hasegawa & Chen, 1975) or whistler-mode waves (L. Li et al., 2022; W. Li, Thorne, et al., 2011; Xia et al., 2016; X.-J. Zhang et al., 2019). Note that electromagnetic ion cyclotron (EMIC) waves, which can also scatter energetic electrons, were absent in this event and, regardless, they typically contribute to relativistic (>500 keV) electron precipitation, that is, energies well above those of interest in this study. The electron resonant energies are in fact higher as the plasma density gets lower (i.e., magnetic energy per particle increases), as is the case in the plasma sheet (Albert, 2003; Angelopoulos et al., 2022; Mourenas et al., 2016; Ni et al., 2015; Summers & Thorne, 2003). We are, therefore, left with two wave modes—whistler-mode waves and KAWs—to potentially explain the anisotropic electron precipitation observed by ELFIN-A during the substorm expansion phase.

Previous studies have shown that the scattering efficiency of plasma sheet electrons by parallel whistler-mode waves drops significantly at energies increasing from 10 keV to 50–100 keV (Artemyev et al., 2022; Ghaffari et al., 2021; Ni, Thorne, Meredith, et al., 2011; Ni, Thorne, Shprits, et al., 2011; Panov et al., 2013). The corresponding electron minimum resonant energy is  $\sim 5$  keV in our case. To estimate energetic electron diffusion rates driven by the observed parallel-propagating whistlers, we have employed the formula of whistler-driven electron local diffusion rates derived by Summers (2005), which only accounts for the first-order cyclotron resonant interaction. However, this solution has been found to be a reasonable approximation for mildly oblique ( $<25^\circ$ ) whistler-mode waves, albeit resulting in a slight overestimate of the scattering rates (Albert, 2007; Shprits et al., 2006; Summers et al., 2007). Electron local diffusion coefficients we calculated for whistler-mode waves are also validated via benchmarking with the example shown in Figure 1 of Summers (2005). Although rare in the nightside plasma sheet (e.g., W. Li, Bortnik, et al., 2011), in case whistler-mode waves have highly oblique wave normal angles, higher-order resonances need to be considered. Several other studies have provided analytical formulae of calculating electron diffusion rates due to oblique whistler-mode waves (e.g., Albert, 2017; Artemyev et al., 2013, 2016; Mourenas et al., 2012).

Bounce averaging takes into account the latitudinal distribution of waves and the interaction time between the waves and electrons as electrons travel along the magnetic field line between mirror points. We approximate this procedure by weighting the local diffusion rates with fractional wave-particle interaction time relative to the bounce period  $\tau_w/\tau_b$ , where  $\tau_w$  is the time the electron spend within the wave region and  $\tau_b$  is the bounce period. The weighting factors are calculated for electrons with different equatorial pitch angles in the plasma sheet dipolarized magnetic field. We adopt this approximate procedure because: (a) statistical studies have shown that parallel whistler-mode waves are mainly confined to equatorial regions in the plasma sheet at nightside (Agapitov et al., 2018; W. Li, Bortnik, et al., 2011; Meredith et al., 2021), thus there is little contribution from off-equator whistlers; and (b) it is very challenging to analytically incorporate a model field that is accurate enough to describe the dipolarized plasma sheet and current sheet into the procedure of evaluating bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients (e.g., Ni, Thorne, Shprits, et al., 2011).

Using the approximate procedure outlined above, we have obtained whistler-driven bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  on the order of  $10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for near-loss-cone electrons with pitch angles  $\alpha < 10^\circ$  at 10 keV. The diffusion rates decrease drastically to about  $10^{-7}$ – $10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 50–100 keV and about  $10^{-8} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 200 keV and higher energies. Accounting for a scaling factor of  $\Delta B^2$ , these  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  are roughly consistent, in terms of order of magnitude, with previous studies at low energies (tens of keV) (Ni et al., 2012; Ni, Thorne, Shprits, et al., 2011). The whistler-mode wave amplitude in our case is a strong emission example ( $\Delta B \approx 220 \text{ pT}$ ), compared with very weak amplitudes (up to tens of pT) of whistler-mode waves as reported from statistical observations at  $L > 8$  at nightside (W. Li, Bortnik, et al., 2011). We have provided a detailed analysis of the whistler-mode waves observed in Figure 4b and the procedure of calculating whistler-driven bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients in Supporting Information S1.



**Figure 5.** (a) Particle-burst waveform data showing kinetic Alfvén wave (KAW) perpendicular and parallel electric fields during the 15-s interval of 01:26:46–01:27:01 UT. The perpendicular electric fields are calculated as  $E_{\perp} = \text{sgn}(E_{Ly})\sqrt{E_{Lx}^2 + E_{Ly}^2}$ , where  $\text{sgn}$  is the sign function. (b) Mean  $E_{Ly}/B_{Lx}$  spectra (black) calculated for the same period in panel (a) in comparison with the model prediction of KAW dispersion relation, using the THEMIS-observed range of ion flow velocities (50, 150, and 400 km/s in red lines). The plasma parameters used for the KAW model are based on THEMIS observations at this time, which have been provided in Supporting Information S1. We exclude from the calculation the background spectra of those with  $E_{Ly}$  amplitudes less than 10 mV/m and  $B_{Lx}$  amplitudes less than 0.1 nT at 0.25 Hz. The spectra are calculated using Hanning windows of 4 s with 2-s overlapping. The local Alfvén speed  $v_A \sim 1,400$  km/s is shown as the gray dashed line. Note that the spurious spectral amplitude increase near 0.33 Hz is due to spin-periodic spikes in the DC-coupled electric field measurements (Bonnell et al., 2008). (c) Least-square power-law fitting of the mean KAW  $E_{\perp}$  spectra for the same interval in (a).

To analyze energetic electron scattering by KAWs, we further explore the spectral characteristics of KAWs measured near 01:27 UT in Figure 4a. These in-situ wave measurements provide important observables to inform our analyses and simulations on the interactions between KAWs and electrons. Figure 5a displays an exploded view of the parallel and perpendicular electric fields of KAWs measured during the 15-s period of 01:26:46–01:27:01 UT, in the beginning of the substorm injection. The perpendicular electric fields have small-scale fluctuations embedded within the large-scale fields that reach more than 200 mV/m. We also observe transient  $E_{\parallel}$  spikes of time domain structures (TDSs) during the interval.

We use the same procedure as reported by Shen et al. (2022c) to identify KAWs, that is, by comparing the measured  $E_{Ly}/B_{Lx}$  spectra (in the field-aligned coordinates) with the theoretical KAW dispersion relation. The spacecraft-frame frequencies of broadband KAWs well exceed the local ion cyclotron frequency and thus have been interpreted to be in great part due to the Doppler shift of low-frequency KAW structures overtaken by a local ion flow (Chaston et al., 2012; Stasiewicz et al., 2000):

$$\left| \frac{E_{Ly}}{B_{Lx}} \right| = v_A (1 + k_{\perp}^2 \rho_i^2) [1 + k_{\perp}^2 (\rho_i^2 + \rho_s^2)]^{-1/2}, \quad (1)$$

where based on THEMIS-D observations of a background magnetic field  $B_0 \approx 35$  nT, an average ion number density  $n_i \approx 0.3$  cm $^{-3}$ ,  $T_e \approx 2.5$  keV,  $T_i \approx 3.5$  keV, the local Alfvén speed is  $v_A = B_0/\sqrt{\mu_0 n_i} \approx 1,400$  km/s,  $k_{\perp} \approx 2\pi f_{sc}/v_i$  is the KAW perpendicular wavenumber inferred from the spacecraft frame frequency  $f_{sc}$  and perpendicular ion flows  $v_i$  in the range of 50–500 km/s, and  $\rho_i$ ,  $\rho_s$  are the ion thermal gyroradius and ion acoustic gyroradius. These plasma and field parameters are based on observations in Figure 1b, the details of which have also been provided in Supporting Information S1. Figure 5b demonstrates that the measured mean wave fields (the black curve) are consistent with those predicted by the KAW model (the red lines), for an average ion flow velocity of 150 km/s, similar to that measured by THEMIS-D (Figure 1b). The measured spectra are consistent with KAWs in frequencies from  $\sim 0.5$  Hz to more than 20 Hz, corresponding to  $k_{\perp} \rho_i \sim 5$ –200 in the kinetic branch (Lysak & Lotko, 1996). Figure 5c presents the fitted power-law spectrum of the mean  $E_{\perp}$  field as  $E_f = E_0 f_{sc}^{-\nu}$  (mV/m/ $\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ ), where  $E_0 = 16.6$  mV/m and  $\nu = 0.5$ . The KAW electric field amplitudes and the spectral power-law index obtained in our substorm event are large but within family when compared with previous statistical observations of the average power of KAWs in the plasma sheet (Chaston et al., 2012; Ergun et al., 2020) and injection region (Chaston et al., 2015, 2018).

Next, we evaluate electron bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients driven by the observed KAWs using test particle simulations (Shen et al., 2022c). We apply a generalized guiding-center model (Cary & Brizard, 2009; Ukhorskiy et al., 2011) including electron bounce motion in a magnetic field that models the Earth's plasma sheet

with an embedded dipolarization front. The equations of motion are derived as (Cary & Brizard, 2009; Ukhorskiy et al., 2011):

$$\frac{d\mathbf{R}}{dt} = \frac{p_{\parallel}}{m_e \gamma} \frac{\mathbf{B}^*}{B_{\parallel}} + \mathbf{E}^* \times \frac{c\mathbf{b}}{B_{\parallel}}, \quad \frac{dp_{\parallel}}{dt} = \frac{q_e \mathbf{E}^* \cdot \mathbf{B}^*}{B_{\parallel}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{R}$  is the guiding center position,  $p_{\parallel}$  is the electron parallel momentum,  $\mathbf{b}$  is the magnetic unit vector,  $q_e$  is the electron charge, and  $\mathbf{E}^*$  and  $\mathbf{B}^*$  are the effective electric field (mainly dictated by waves) and magnetic field. We use the following magnetic field to model the Earth's large-scale plasma sheet, current sheet, and dipolarization front fields in the Geocentric Solar Magnetospheric (GSM) coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}_0 = & B_{CS} \tanh\left(\frac{z}{L_{CS}}\right) \mathbf{e}_x + a B_{CS} \mathbf{e}_z \\ & + B_{CS} (a \sin^{-2} \alpha_{LC} - 1) \tanh\left(\frac{z}{L_{PS}}\right) \mathbf{e}_x \\ & + B_{DF} \left[ 1 - \tanh\left(\frac{x - v_{DF} t}{L_{DF}}\right) \right] \mathbf{e}_z \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

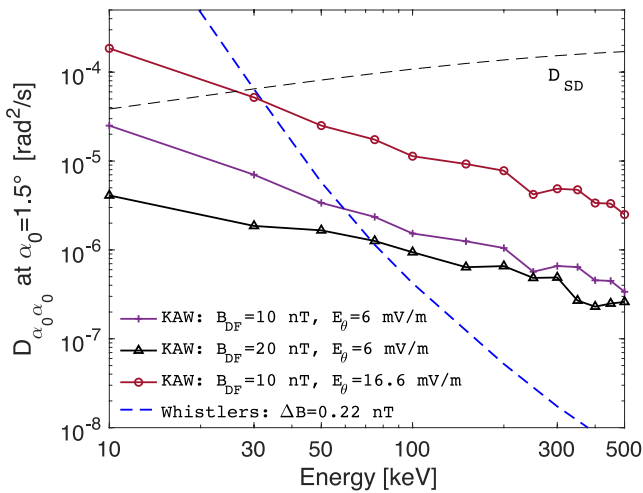
where the first term describes the current sheet field with  $z$ -gradients having a scale length of  $L_{CS}$  and a magnitude of  $B_{CS}$ . The third term describes the large-scale magnetic field  $z$ -gradients with a scale length  $L_{PS}$  and a magnitude of  $B_{CS}$ , to allow electron bounce motion along the field line. The last term describes the dipolarization front field with  $x$ -gradients having a scale length of  $L_{DF}$  and a magnitude  $B_{DF}$ . Parameter  $a$  determines the level of magnetic field line stretching in the pre-dipolarized current sheet (i.e., the ratio of magnitudes of the magnetic field components in  $z$  and  $x$  directions). The term  $\sim(a \sin^{-2} \alpha_{LC} - 1)$  mimics the magnetic field increase on the earthward side to maintain a realistic loss-cone size for the current sheet model. A more detailed description of the simulation and a discussion of the assumptions and limitations of the model can be found in Shen et al. (2022a).

Taking into account electron bounce motion and perpendicular guiding-center drifts within the dipolarization front, Shen et al. (2022a) have shown that electrons with energies of tens to hundreds of keV can be pitch-angle scattered into the loss cone by KAWs, through Doppler-shifted Landau resonance near the magnetic equator. The resonance condition can be approximated as  $v_{\parallel} \simeq -k_{\perp} v_{drift} / k_{\parallel} = -v_{drift} \tan \theta$ , where  $v_{\parallel}$  is the resonant electron parallel velocity,  $v_{drift}$  is the curvature and gradient drift of the electron, and  $\theta$  is the KAW wave normal angle, which is typically larger than  $70^\circ$  (Chaston et al., 2009).

To estimate KAW-driven diffusion rates for near-loss-cone electrons (i.e.,  $\alpha = 1.5^\circ$ , see X.-J. Zhang et al., 2015) in our event, we have specified broadband electrostatic KAW potentials having 39 harmonics  $k_{\perp}$  increasing with a stepsize of  $\Delta k_{\perp} \rho_i \sim 1.3$  in the range of  $k_{\perp} \rho_i \in [3, 51]$ . This range corresponds to the spacecraft frame frequency range of [0.25, 5] Hz, taking into account an ion plasma flow  $v_i \sim 150$  km/s. KAWs have been frequently observed both at the equator and near the plasma sheet boundary layer (Angelopoulos et al., 2002; Chaston et al., 2012; Wygant et al., 2002), but their propagation toward higher latitudes (away from the equator) is suppressed by damping due to their Landau-resonance with suprathermal electrons (e.g., Gurrat et al., 2021; Sharma Pyakurel et al., 2018). The wave distribution is assumed to be limited within  $z \in [-2L_{CS}, 2L_{CS}]$  and  $x \in [-2L_{DF}, 2L_{DF}]$  centered around the equatorial current sheet and dipolarization front region. To obtain the characteristic KAW wave amplitude  $E_{\theta}$ , which dictates the fractional wave power at individual wave normal angles that are optimum to scatter resonant electrons at different energies, we assume an isotropic wave normal angle distribution  $F(\theta)$  within  $[83^\circ, 87^\circ]$ . This angle range accounts for optimal resonance energies of  $\sim 50$ – $300$  keV in the model. Accordingly,

we have  $F(\theta) = 1/4$  for  $d\theta \sim 1^\circ$  and  $E_{\theta}$  is determined as  $E_{\theta} = \sqrt{\left(\sqrt{\sum E_j^2 df}\right)^2 F(\theta) d\theta} = 6$  mV/m, where the spectrum  $E_j$  has been obtained from Figure 5c. The KAW spectrum in the simulation is then  $E_{\perp} = E_{\theta}(f_{sc}/2\pi)^{-\nu}$  and  $\nu \sim 0.5$ . The parallel electric fields are included based on the KAW polarization relation. The large-scale background magnetic field parameters here are same as those in Shen et al. (2022a).

Figure 6 displays KAW-driven electron bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients  $D_{\alpha_0 \alpha_0}$  as a function of energy, evaluated at an equatorial pitch angle of  $1.5^\circ$ . To explore variations in  $D_{\alpha_0 \alpha_0}$  due to variations in magnitude of the dipolarization front  $B_{DF}$ , we perform two sets of simulations using  $B_{DF} = 10$  nT (the purple solid curve) and  $B_{DF} = 20$  nT (the black solid curve), according to the observed value range in Figure 1b. The decrease of  $B_{DF}$  from 20 to 10 nT leads to an increase of  $D_{\alpha_0 \alpha_0}$  by a factor of  $\sim 3$  above 50 keV. Note, however, that as  $B_{DF}$



**Figure 6.** Electron bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  as a function of energy for an equatorial pitch angle  $\alpha_0 = 1.5^\circ$  due to resonant scattering by the observed kinetic Alfvén waves (KAWs) (solid lines) and whistler-mode (blue dashed line) waves from THEMIS. The simulation background field parameters for KAW-electron scattering are:  $B_{CS} = 20$  nT,  $L_{CS} = 3,000$  km,  $B_{DF} = 20$  nT (black solid line) or 10 nT (purple solid line),  $L_{DF} = 500$  km, which is about three times the local ion gyroradius of  $\sim 145$  km,  $L_{PS} = 5 R_E$ ,  $\alpha_{LC} = \arcsin\left(\sqrt{B_{eq}/B_{iono|100km}}\right) = 1.5^\circ$  in our event. The KAW broadband spectrum has  $E_\theta = 6$  mV/m,  $\nu = 0.5$ , where the KAW wave normal angle  $\theta$  is assumed uniform within  $[83^\circ, 87^\circ]$  (see the text and additional details in Shen et al. (2022a)). To account for full ranges of KAW power in observations, we also show  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  with KAW  $E_\theta = 16.6$  mV/m (red solid line) as observed in Figure 5c. The KAW-driven diffusion coefficients are obtained by ensemble-averaging the pitch-angle variance of electrons after one bounce period. The electron bounce-averaged  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  driven by the observed whistler waves are shown as the blue dashed line. The black dashed line shows the strong diffusion limit  $D_{SD} = (\alpha_{LC})^2/2\tau_b \sim 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , where  $\alpha_{LC} \sim 1.5^\circ$  (see Kennel and Petschek (1966) for  $D_{SD}$  definition).

decreases further, the field-line curvature radius of the magnetic field will become small enough to initiate non-adiabatic curvature/current-sheet scattering, which is undesirable as its effects have not been included in our simulation. For  $B_{DF} = 10$  nT, the obtained KAW-driven  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  approach the strong diffusion limit  $D_{SD}$  (Kennel & Petschek, 1966) at 10 keV, and decrease gradually to the order of  $10^{-5}$ – $10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $\sim 30$ – $300$  keV. In addition, to account for a possible range of KAW wave power as observed in Figure 5c, we show  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  under the KAW characteristic amplitude  $E_\theta = 16.6$  mV/m (the solid red line). This larger wave power increases  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  by nearly an order of magnitude, with  $\leq 30$  keV electrons exceeding the strong diffusion limit. In comparison, we have also shown whistler-driven electron diffusion rates (the blue dashed line), which are much smaller than those driven by KAWs at energies above 50 keV in this event. However, the observed parallel whistler-mode waves may have a stronger scattering effect for electrons below  $\sim 50$  keV in the plasma sheet.

It is worth emphasizing that in the quasi-linear regime the simulated KAW-driven electron diffusion coefficients scale with  $E_\theta^2$  (e.g., Kennel & Engelmann, 1966; Shapiro & Sagdeev, 1997), which largely hinges on KAW wave normal distributions. Although we cannot obtain the KAW wave normal angle distribution in our case and no statistical KAW normal measurements have thus far emerged (to the best of our knowledge), we can understand this effect by varying the assumed  $\theta$  distributions. For instance, if we assume KAWs are uniformly distributed within  $[80^\circ, 89^\circ]$  as opposed to within  $[83^\circ, 87^\circ]$ , this results in  $E_\theta \sim 3.8$  mV/m compared with 6 mV/m used in Figure 6, leading to a decrease in  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0}$  by a factor of 2.5.

To compare with the loss cone filling ratios observed by ELFIN in Figure 1d, we can tentatively assume a steady-state diffusion equilibrium to relate the precipitating differential fluxes within the loss cone ( $0 < \alpha_{eq} \leq \alpha_{LC}$ , where  $\alpha_{LC} = 1.5^\circ$ ) to those at the loss cone angle as (Kennel & Petschek, 1966; W. Li et al., 2013; Reidy et al., 2021; Mourenas et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2022b):

$$J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{eq}) = J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{LC}) \cdot \frac{I_0\left(\frac{\alpha_{eq}}{\alpha_{LC}} Z_0\right)}{I_0(Z_0)} \quad (4)$$

and the precipitating differential fluxes outside but near the loss cone ( $\alpha_{LC} \leq \alpha_{eq}$ ) to those at the loss cone as:

$$J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{eq}) = J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{LC}) \cdot \left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{\sin \alpha_{eq}}{\sin \alpha_{LC}}\right) \frac{Z_0 I_1(Z_0)}{I_0(Z_0)} \right] \quad (5)$$

where  $Z_0 \simeq \alpha_0/\sqrt{D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0|LC}\tau}$  is an energy-dependent parameter defining the diffusion strength at the loss cone,  $\tau$  is assumed to be a quarter of the bounce period,  $I_0$  and  $I_1$  is the modified Bessel function. Assuming adiabatic motion of energetic electrons along the field line, the precipitating-to-perpendicular flux ratios measured by ELFIN can be approximated as (e.g., Mourenas et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2022b):

$$\frac{J_{prec|50^\circ}}{J_{trapped|80^\circ}} \simeq \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\beta J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{LC}) \frac{I_0\left(\frac{\alpha_{eq}}{\alpha_{LC}} Z_0\right)}{I_0(Z_0)} \sin \eta d\eta d\psi}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\beta J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{LC}) \cdot \left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{\sin \alpha_{eq}}{\sin \alpha_{LC}}\right) \frac{Z_0 I_1(Z_0)}{I_0(Z_0)} \right] \sin \eta d\eta d\psi}, \quad (6)$$

where  $\beta$  is the detector half angle  $\sim 11.25^\circ$ ,  $\eta$  and  $\psi$  are related to the precise local pitch angle  $\alpha$  of electrons within an elementary solid angle surface area as seen by the ELFIN detector, and the term  $J_{eq}(E, \alpha_{LC})$  cancels for the ratio calculation. The averaged local pitch angles for precipitating and trapped fluxes measured by ELFIN are  $\sim 50^\circ$  and  $\sim 80^\circ$  in the above calculation. Given  $D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0|LC} \simeq D_{\alpha_0\alpha_0|1.5^\circ}$  as shown in Figure 6, we have obtained precipitating-to-perpendicular flux ratios for 50–150 keV electrons in the range of  $\sim 0.01$ – $\sim 0.08$  with

$E_\theta = 6$  mV/m. To account for variations in KAW normal distribution and wave power, we also calculate the ratios corresponding to  $E_\theta = 16.6$  mV/m (an upper limit of the wave power), which is in the range of  $\sim 0.1$ – $\sim 0.4$ . These values are comparable but slightly lower than the observed ratios, which are mostly in the range of  $\sim 0.1$ – $\sim 0.6$  in Figure 1d.

To understand this difference, we note that the above calculation is valid only for steady-state diffusion equilibrium when the injection source at high pitch angles ( $\alpha \sim 90^\circ$ ) is completely balanced by the precipitation into the loss cone (Kennel & Petschek, 1966). In reality, however, the diffusion hardly reaches equilibrium on the time scales of substorm expansion. It is anticipated that the distribution within the loss cone may still be controlled by the balance of loss and wave scattering with a rate  $D_{aa}$  under the weak diffusion limit, thus the solution inside the loss cone is again close to an exponential function determined as  $f(\alpha_{in}) \sim I_0(\alpha/\sqrt{D_{aa}\tau})$ . This implies that the numerator in Equation 6 may still be valid. However, the solution exterior to the loss cone under the non-equilibrium condition is mainly determined by the instantaneous pitch-angle distribution, which in our case takes the form  $f(\alpha_{out}) \sim \sin^n \alpha$  where  $n \simeq 0.2$  (see Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1).

Consider again the steady-state solution outside the loss cone, which is a logarithmic function  $f(\alpha_{out}) = (S^*/D_{aa}) \ln(\sin \alpha) + f_c$ , where  $f_c$  is a constant determined by matching the outside solution to that inside the loss cone at  $\alpha = \alpha_{LC}$  (Kennel & Petschek, 1966). The full steady-state solution is  $f(\alpha_{out}) = (S^*/D_{aa}) \left\{ h(\alpha_{LC}) + \ln\left(\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha_{LC}}\right) \right\}$ , where the term  $h(\alpha_{LC}) = I_0(Z_0)/Z_0 I_1(Z_0)$  is evaluated from the functional form within the loss cone, and the term  $\ln\left(\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha_{LC}}\right)$  is determined by the functional form outside the loss cone and contributes primarily to the flux outside the loss cone. Note that  $(S^*/D_{aa}) \ln\left(\frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha_{LC}}\right)$  can also be written as  $f(\alpha_{out}) - f(\alpha_{LC}) = f'(\alpha_{LC}) d\alpha \sim da/\alpha$ . Consider now the non-equilibrium diffusion during the expansion phase with the observed distribution outside the loss cone  $f(\alpha_{out}) \sim \sin^n \alpha$ . Then,  $f(\alpha_{out}) - f(\alpha_{LC}) = f'(\alpha_{LC}) d\alpha \sim da/\alpha \cdot n \sin^n \alpha < da/\alpha$ . Therefore, the corresponding denominator in Equation 6 will be smaller, and the precipitating-to-perpendicular flux ratio will be larger during the expansion phase than during the steady-state equilibrium. Therefore, the anisotropic energetic electron precipitation from the plasma sheet observed by ELFIN-A near 01:32 UT in Figure 1d is likely consistent with pitch-angle scattering by the observed KAWs during the substorm expansion phase.

To summarize this section, we have combined in-situ wave measurements, theoretical quasi-linear estimates, and numerical test particle simulations to investigate the relative role of the observed KAWs and whistler-mode waves at THEMIS, in driving the scattering and precipitation of energetic electrons from the plasma sheet during our substorm event. We first outline the procedures of estimating whistler-driven electron bounce-averaged diffusion rates and then analyze the wave spectral characteristics of KAWs which inform our numerical test particle simulations on KAW-electron interactions. These are followed by a brief description of the numerical model that we employ to estimate KAW-driven bounce-averaged electron pitch-angle diffusion rates. Finally, we show that KAW-driven electron diffusion rates are comparatively much smaller than those driven by the observed whistler-mode waves at energies above 50 keV. Also, based on quasi-linear diffusion analyses, we have deduced that the diffusion rates due to KAWs are roughly consistent with the precipitating-to-perpendicular anisotropy flux ratios measured by ELFIN-A. Thus, the KAWs dominate over whistler-mode waves in driving the anisotropic, energetic electron precipitation observed by ELFIN-A near 01:32 UT in Figure 1d.

## 6. Discussion and Conclusion

Using approximately conjugate observations made from a fleet of spacecraft including the THEMIS, ELFIN, and DMSP missions, we have analyzed comprehensive measurements of the energetic electron precipitation, the magnetospheric injection, and the associated plasma waves to examine the role of plasma waves in scattering injected electrons into the loss cone in the plasma sheet during a substorm. While ELFIN-B observed primarily weak isotropic electron precipitation in the ionosphere, with energies of 50–200 keV, driven by magnetospheric field-line curvature scattering during the growth phase, ELFIN-A observed intensified anisotropic electron precipitation at energies extending to  $>300$  keV during the expansion phase. This anisotropic precipitation is likely driven by wave-particle interactions, as inferred by the loss cone filling ratios (the precipitating-to-perpendicular flux ratios) of energetic electrons that have a characteristic energy dependence. An approximate demarcation between the plasma sheet and the radiation belt regions traversed by ELFIN is achieved by (a) the characteristic precipitation patterns of those regions, such as the IB, and by (a) DMSP FUV auroral images, which provide

observations of the auroral boundaries during the substorm event. At the equatorial plasma sheet, THEMIS-D observed prolonged energetic electron injections in the nightside transition region ( $R \sim 11 R_E$ ,  $MLT \sim 0$  hr), along with intense KAWs that are associated with ELFIN energetic electron precipitation. Field-aligned propagating whistler-mode waves, along with several other wave modes, have also been observed by THEMIS-D, primarily  $\sim 10$ -min after the ELFIN observation of energetic electron precipitation. The observed injection electron flux energy distributions, by THEMIS-D in the plasma sheet, are also in good agreement with those measured by ELFIN within the ionospheric wave-driven precipitation region. This agreement in distribution strongly supports our interpretation that ionospheric and magnetospheric observations are approximately conjugate.

We then used numerical test particle simulations with a dipolarized plasma sheet model to quantify electron pitch-angle diffusion coefficients driven by KAWs (Shen et al., 2022a) as measured from THEMIS. Electron bounce motion has been included in the model in order to quantify bounce-averaged electron diffusion rates. The resulting KAW-driven diffusion coefficients  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  for 50–500 keV near-loss-cone electrons are on the order of  $10^{-6}$ – $10^{-5}$  rad<sup>2</sup>/s, compared with the strong diffusion limit  $D_{SD} \sim 10^{-4}$  rad<sup>2</sup>/s at this radial distance ( $\sim 11 R_E$ ) (Kennel & Petschek, 1966). Based on quasilinear theory, these KAW-driven diffusion rates predict energetic electron loss cone filling ratios roughly consistent with ELFIN observations in the ionosphere. On the other hand, the estimated  $D_{a_0 a_0}$  due to parallel whistler-mode waves are on the order of  $10^{-8}$ – $10^{-6}$  rad<sup>2</sup>/s for 50–500 keV electrons. These are more than one order of magnitude smaller than those due to KAWs. In addition, whistler-mode waves were observed by THEMIS-D  $\sim 10$  min after ELFIN measurements of anisotropic electron precipitation from the plasma sheet. We conclude that the observed KAWs dominate over the observed whistler-mode waves in the scattering and precipitation of energetic ( $\sim 50$ – $\sim 300$  keV) electrons from the dipolarized plasma sheet during our event. Such wave-driven precipitation has been directly observed and well-resolved in pitch angle by ELFIN during the substorm injection.

Previous studies have shown that ion bursty bulk flows, flow shear, and magnetic compression facilitate the generation of high-power MHD Alfvén waves in the plasma sheet flow braking region (Angelopoulos et al., 2002; Chaston et al., 2012; Kepko et al., 2014; Shiokawa et al., 1997). Through mode-coupling (Hasegawa & Chen, 1975; Johnson & Cheng, 2001; Lin et al., 2012), phase-mixing (Allan & Wright, 2000), or other nonlinear processes (e.g., Wygant et al., 2002), the large-scale MHD waves can effectively couple and transfer significant energy to KAWs at or near plasma boundaries, such as dipolarization fronts and injection boundaries (Deng et al., 2010; Ergun et al., 2015; Malaspina et al., 2015; Usanova & Ergun, 2022). These KAWs can accelerate and heat thermal electrons (Artemyev et al., 2015; Damiano et al., 2015, 2016; Watt & Rankin, 2009) and ions (Chaston et al., 2013, 2014; Johnson & Cheng, 2001) and seed the growth of electrostatic turbulence down to electron scales (An et al., 2021). Such kinetic processes facilitate multi-scale energy coupling and dissipation associated with plasma injections, magnetic field dipolarizations, and fast ion jets in the substorm plasma sheet. To complement this picture, the results of our paper have provided convincing evidence that KAWs can also contribute to and may even dominate energetic injection electron scattering and precipitation processes in the dipolarized plasma sheet during substorm events. It requires future investigations to fully understand how significant this KAW-driven energetic precipitation is on the global scale, at different times, and in a statistical sense.

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#### Data Availability Statement

ELFIN data can be publicly accessed from <https://data.elfin.ucla.edu/>. DMSP data products can be accessed from <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/dmsp-space-weather-sensors/access/>, <http://sd-www.jhuapl.edu/Aurora/>, and [https://ssusi.jhuapl.edu/data\\_products](https://ssusi.jhuapl.edu/data_products). THEMIS data is available at <http://themis.ssl.berkeley.edu>. SuperMAG SML data can be obtained from <https://supermag.jhuapl.edu/indices/>. Data access and processing was done using SPEDAS V4.1, see Angelopoulos et al. (2019).

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