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FARWEST: Efficient Computation of Wave-Particle Interactions for a Dynamic Description of the Electron Radiation Belt Diffusion

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Abstract In this paper, we present a new method to compute rapidly, wave particle interaction induced pitch angle and momentum diffusion coefficients. Those terms are normally obtained by the numerical solving of equations based on the quasi-linear theory. However, this bulk resolution leads to a high computational cost, preventing the integration of plasma density and VLF waves nowcasts and forecasts. Therefore, and in the context of the SAFESPACE project (H2020), we implemented a new wave particle interaction code called FARWEST (FAst Radiation diffusion with Waves ESTimator), with an efficient interpolation based method. The proposed implementation was validated against reference results obtained by WAPI, ONERA's wave particle interaction legacy code, with a substantial reduction of the computing time while conserving the physical accuracy of the generated coefficients. The FARWEST code is later used to measure the impact of a time-dependent plasma density distribution (numerically computed by BIRA's plasmaspheric model SPM) on the coefficients and on the representation of the electron flux map by Salammbô, ONERA's radiation belt code.

1. Introduction

The balance of seed and loss mechanisms (Lyons & Thorne, 1973) governs electron radiation belt dynamics, while being powered by geomagnetic activity and driven by the solar wind (Hudson et al., 2008). Among these mechanisms, wave particle interactions play a major role. They lead to the violation of the first and the second invariants of the trapped electrons (Schulz & Lanzerotti, 1974), resulting in a pitch angle scattering and momentum transfer (Kennel & Petschek, 1966). During the phases of intense geomagnetic activity, their combined role on particle energization and drain in the atmosphere leads to an electron flux variation over several orders of magnitude within hours (Baker et al., 1986, 1994; Horne et al., 2005; Li et al., 1997).

There are different families of Plasma waves, unevenly distributed in the inner magnetosphere. Besides, each wave type presents different characteristics in terms of induced mechanisms, life time and intensities (Su et al., 2011; Thorne, 2010). On the VLF band, one can cite:

1. Whistler mode Chorus, located outside the plasmasphere, with a frequency range between 10% and 80% of the electron gyrofrequency $f_{ce}$ (Tsurutani & Smith, 1974) (separated into an upper and a lower band). They are responsible for the acceleration and the loss of energetic electrons in the electron outer belt.

2. Plasmaspheric Hiss, trapped inside the plasmasphere with a broadband emission and a frequency range between 100 and 2 kHz. They are responsible for the pitch angle scattering of electrons in the atmosphere which is responsible for the formation of the slot region separating the inner and the outer electron belts (Abel & Thorne, 1998; Lyons et al., 1972).

3. Magnetosonic waves (MS), observed inside and outside the plasmapause, confined within few degrees of the equatorial plane and responsible for accelerations (Horne et al., 2007; Meredith et al., 2008; Thorne, 2010).

4. Electromagnetic Ion Cyclotron (EMIC) waves, observed in the periphery of the plasmasphere and its plume and responsible for sudden losses at relativistic energies due to pitch angle scattering (Meredith, 2003; Summers, 2003; Thorne, 2010; Usanova et al., 2013).

To model these resonant interactions, the quasi-linear theory is used (Kennel & Engelmann, 1966). It yields a diffusion equation that governs the electron distribution and involves pitch angle $\alpha$ and momentum $p$ diffusion...
coefficients (Albert, 1999; Lyons, 1974a, 1974b). After the emergence of three dimension electron radiation belt codes that required a complete physical description (Beutier & Boscher, 1995; Glauert et al., 2014; Su et al., 2010; Subbotin & Shprits, 2009; Varotsou et al., 2005), different wave particle interaction codes were implemented. They are used to compute bounce averaged diffusion coefficients \( A_{\langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle},\langle D_{\alpha\alpha} \rangle,\langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle,\langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle \) (\( \alpha_{eq} \) being the equatorial pitch angle) that would serve as input data for the radiation belt dynamic codes.

Starting with particular assumptions to simplify calculations (field aligned propagation, high density assumption) (Albert, 1999; Summers, 2003), the wave particle interaction codes were gradually able to take into account more generalized cases of wave modes, plasma densities and wave propagation angles with the background magnetic field. This was the case of the Pitch Angle and Energy Diffusion of Ions and Electrons code (PADIE) from the British Antarctic Survey (BAS) (Glauert et al., 2014; Glauert & Horne, 2005), ONERA’s WAPI code (Sicard-Piet et al., 2008; Sicard-Piet et al., 2014) and ULCA’s Full Diffusion Code (FDC) (Shprits et al., 2009). Moreover, they were involved in the analysis of the effect of wave particle interaction parameters such as the cold plasma density on the diffusion rate (Sicard-Piet et al., 2014). In fact, it was shown that the last parameter had a major impact on diffusion rates during active events leading to sudden precipitations of MeV outer belt electrons (Thorne et al., 2005) or accelerations of electrons from keV up to >7 MeV during extreme cold plasma depletion events (Allison et al., 2021).

However, the heavy numerical calculation method used in PADIE, FDC and WAPI (Glauert & Horne, 2005; Ni et al., 2008; Orlova & Shprits, 2011; Shprits et al., 2009; Sicard-Piet et al., 2008) and derived from the analytical quasi-linear theory; imposes a huge computational cost to estimate \( \langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle,\langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle \) and \( \langle D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \rangle \) (or alternatively \( D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \), \( D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \) and \( D_{\alpha\alpha\alpha\alpha} \) with \( y = \sin(\alpha_{eq}) \)) for different geomagnetic activity configurations. For a long time, this computational constraint was not that much bothering as the generation of the different sets of diffusion coefficients could be processed well in advance before the radiation belt simulation runs.

This view has changed since the emergence of the space weather applied field, requiring a time dependent monitoring and reliable predictions of harmful particle populations in the inner magnetosphere. In this sense, the H2020-EU SafeSpace project aims at the implementation of a prototype for a space weather safety service (Daglis et al., 2021). The prototype is built on a chain of physical models, semi-empirical models and statistical tools propagating physical information and uncertainties from the sun to electron radiation belts. Ultimately, the chain will include hourly updated VLF wave information from IAP (Santolík et al., 2021) and cold plasma density distribution, in the plasmasphere and the plasma trough, from BIRA’s SPM code (Pierrard et al., 2021; Pierrard & Stegen, 2008; Pierrard & Voiculescu, 2011). This data will then serve as an input to compute each hour, an ensemble of diffusion coefficients that will serve for SalammoB data assimilation simulations (relying on a Ensemble Kalman filter EnKF), as presented in Figure 1 (Daglis et al., 2021).
As the current computational cost of WAPI is inappropriate with the computational requirements of the SafeSpace project that needs the computation of around 200 sets of diffusion coefficients each hour, the ONERA team had to switch to a much more efficient method to compute the latter diffusion coefficients. This constraint led to implementation of a new suitable code called FARWEST (Fast Radiation diffusion with Waves ESTimator), which will be the subject of this paper. In addition to the computational upgrade, the diffusive frame of Salammbô becomes dynamic with FARWEST, as VLF waves and plasma density are updated each time step. This represents a major improvement going in the direction of the previously cited studies, showing the impact of the plasma density dynamic on wave particle interactions.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 is devoted to the presentation of the new FARWEST code and its numerical performances. After a quick overview of the old method used in WAPI, we will present the new interpolation based method. Then, in Section 3, we will assess its numerical accuracy compared to WAPI’s output and its computational cost. Then, we present in Section 4 the validation procedure operated on FARWEST and measure its physical relevance. In Section 5, we take a further look at the effect of time dependent plasma density inputs on Salammbô’s restitution, as the computation of time dependent diffusion coefficients is now enabled with FARWEST. Finally, we conclude our work in Section 6.

2. The FARWEST Code

2.1. The Legacy Implementation of WAPI and Its Performances

In its current version, WAPI computes in the equatorial pitch angle, momentum space \( (\alpha_{eq}, p) \) the wave-particle interaction diffusion coefficients following the same implementation adopted in BAS’s PADIE code (GlaUART & Horne, 2005). To do so, a local pitch angle \( \alpha \) grid (size \( n_{\alpha} = 100 \)) is first defined, describing the background magnetic field line traveled by the trapped particles represented by each Salammbô \( (\alpha_{eq}, L^*) \) grid point. Over this \( \alpha \) grid, the corresponding latitudes are computed, allowing to scale the local cold plasma densities with \( \alpha \). We note that a more generic power spectrum can be obtained by adding several of these Gaussian bands, which is allowed by the linearity of the diffusion coefficients relatively to the power spectrum. In the particular case of WAPI, only Hiss, Lower Chorus and Upper Chorus are considered in the computations (see appendix) (GlaUART & Horne, 2005). We note that a more generic power spectrum can be obtained by adding several of these Gaussian bands, which is allowed by the linearity of the diffusion coefficients relatively to the power spectrum. In the particular case of WAPI, only Hiss, Lower Chorus and Upper Chorus are considered in the computations (Sicard-Piet et al., 2014). In fact, MS and EMIC are not retained due to their contained spatial extent; limited activity time and energy range (Thorne, 2010) and thus are not considered further in this paper.

Afterward, a Gaussian distribution of wave normal angle \( X = \tan(\psi) \) is assumed (\( \psi \) is the angle between the \( \vec{k} \) the wave vector and earth’s magnetic field \( \vec{B} \))

\[
g(X) = \begin{cases} \exp \left( -\left( \frac{X - X_{\alpha}}{X_{\alpha}} \right)^2 \right), & X_{\min} \leq X \leq X_{\max} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\]

with \( X_{\alpha} \) the angular width and \( X_{\alpha} \) the angle for which the distribution is at its maximum. Hence, for each \( \alpha \), the local diffusion coefficients \( D_{\alpha}, D_{p\alpha}, D_{e\alpha} \) are given by the following expressions

\[
D_{\alpha} = \sum_{n=1}^{n_{\alpha}} \int_{X_{\min}}^{X_{\max}} X dX e^{\alpha X} \]

where \( \alpha_{eq} \) and \( L^* \) are given by the following expressions:

\[
\alpha_{eq} = \max \left( \omega \omega_{2} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad L^* = \frac{\omega^2 \alpha_{eq}}{\omega_{2}}
\]
in which local diffusion coefficients for a given harmonic and a given angle $\alpha_{eq\alpha}$, $\alpha_{eq\beta}$, $\alpha_{eq\gamma}$ are integrated over all the considered normal angles and summed over the harmonics of the cyclotron frequency (between the lowest and the highest harmonic numbers $n_l, n_h$). The distributions $B_2(\omega)$ and $g(X)$ are present inside the integrals through the expressions of $D_{az}^{X\alpha}$, $D_{az}^{X\beta}$, $D_{az}^{X\gamma}$ (reported in the appendix) (Glauert & Horne, 2005).

Furthermore, the integrations and summations are evaluated at the parallel component of the wave vector $k_\parallel$ and $\omega$ satisfying the resonance equation

$$\omega - k_\parallel v_\parallel = \frac{n\Omega_e}{\gamma}$$

and the dispersion equation

$$D(\alpha_{eq\alpha}, X) = \left(SX^2 + P\right) \mu^4 - \left(RLX^2 + PS \left(2 + X^2\right)\right) \mu^2 + PRL \left(1 + X^2\right) = 0$$

with $v_\parallel$ the parallel component of the particle velocity, $\Omega_e$ the cyclotron frequency of electrons, $R, L, S, P$ the Stix parameters (Stix, 1962) and $\mu = lek/\omega$ the wave reflective index.

Finally, the calculation ends in WAPI with the averaging of local coefficients $D_{az}$, $D_{az}$, $D_{az}$ over the bounce motion (Lyons et al., 1972) (see appendix) and over the drift motion. Hence, the obtained averaged coefficients $\langle D_{az\alpha\alpha} \rangle$, $\langle D_{az\gamma} \rangle$, $\langle D_{az\beta} \rangle$ are suitable to be used in Salammbô 3D simulations (see Figure 2).

In terms of input data, the WAPI considers:

1. Static profiles of $B_0$ constructed from Dynamics Explorer 1, CRRES, Cluster 1, Double Star TC1, and THEMIS A, D, E satellite measurements (Meredith et al., 2012).
2. Semi-empirical (Carpenter & Anderson, 1992) or empirical models for the cold plasma density (Sicard-Piet et al., 2014).

In terms of computational cost, the current version of WAPI takes 3 hr to evaluate one set of the diffusion coefficients \( \langle D_{eq} \rangle, \langle D_{pp} \rangle \), representing one data assimilation member, on a grid with \( n_L \times n_p \times n_{eq} = 34 \times 25 \times 34 \) points.

With its current computational performance, it is obvious that WAPI is not adapted to the SafeSpace project, requiring the computation of \( \approx 200 \) sets of diffusion coefficients over the Salammbô grid, for each hour of the simulated time. Therefore, it was necessary to develop a new method to compute wave particle interactions while ensuring a much smaller computing time.

2.2. The Computing Logic of FARWEST

For the sake of clarity, we introduce the generic term \( D_{\alpha} \) that refers to any pitch angle or momentum local diffusion coefficient \( D_{eq} \) or \( D_{pp} \) evaluated for a given pitch angle \( \alpha \) at a given Salammbô grid point \( (\alpha_{eq}, p, L^*) \).

The new implementation is derived from two observations:

1. The linear dependence of local diffusion coefficients \( D_{xx} \) to the squared wave amplitude \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) (Glauert & Horne, 2005) (see appendix).
2. The nonlinear dependence of local diffusion coefficient \( D_{xx} \) to the cold plasma density \( N_e \).

Hence, the new adopted strategy is organized in the following order:

1. First, a logarithmic density grid is fixed with a defined size \( n_{dens} \) between the bounds \( N_{e \text{min}} = 1 \text{ cm}^{-3}, N_{e \text{max}} = 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3} \) (\( n_{dens} \) will be set later in this paper).
2. Second, for a given \( \alpha \) and a given Salammbô grid point \( (\alpha_{eq}, p, L^*) \), we compute \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) normalized local diffusion coefficients over the newly defined logarithmic density grid, using Equations 3–5 (assuming a normalized wave frequency distribution). This leads to the construction of a normalized diffusion coefficient table that we will refer to as \( D_{\alpha \text{table}} \) (the \( \alpha \) superscript refers to a \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) normalized quantity). Thus, for a given Salammbô grid point, we dispose of a 2D \( (\alpha, N_e) \) mapping of \( D_{\alpha \text{table}} \) over the logarithmic density and the local pitch angle grids (see Figure 3).
3. Third, a density model \( N_{e \text{model}} \) is considered as an entry over \( n_{eq} = 4 \) magnetic latitude bins, from which we interpolate a density distribution over the \( \alpha \) grid, called \( N_{e \text{interp}} \). The four magnetic latitude bins, that will also receive \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) entries, are parts of the SafeSpace specifications and fixed by SPM’s output density format over a \( n_{MLT} \times n_L \times n_{eq} \) grid (see Figure 4).
4. Fourth, the interpolated density \( N_{e \text{interp}} \) on a given \( \alpha \), is used to interpolate from the \( D_{\alpha \text{table}} \) table, a normalized local diffusion coefficient \( D_{\alpha \text{interp}} \) (see Figure 4). This interpolation is normally done using a log-log

![Figure 3](image-url)  
**Figure 3.** Construction of the \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) normalized local diffusion coefficient table in step 1 and 2.

![Figure 4](image-url)  
**Figure 4.** Schematization of steps 3 to 6 for a given \( \alpha \): the \( \alpha \) grid (on the left) and the \( B_{\alpha}^2, N_{e \text{model}} \) entries that will serve in the interpolation from the normalized coefficients table (in the center) to the \( B_{\alpha}^2 \) multiplication and bounce/drift averaging (on the right).
interpolation scheme. For the particular case of an interpolation between a resonant and a non-resonant state, a linear interpolation is used instead, as one of the interpolation bounds is equal to zero.

5. Fifth, the obtained local diffusion coefficient $\hat{D}_{\text{interp}}$ is multiplied by a time-dependent VLF wave intensity $A_A^2\omega$ to obtain the local diffusion coefficient $A_A\hat{D}_{\text{interp}}$ (see Figure 4).

6. Finally, the computed $A_A\hat{D}_{\text{interp}}$ for each node of the $\alpha$ grid are averaged over complete drift shells to get the global diffusion coefficients $\langle D_{\alpha\text{eq}} \rangle$, $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$ (see Figure 4).

With this method, the computational cost is expected to shrink, as the interpolation operation over the density grid is much less time consuming than the estimation of the expressions 3–5 along with the on-line resolution of the dispersion and resonance equations. In the case of FARWEST, these costly operations are done only once during the construction of the $B_\omega^2$-normalized $\hat{D}_{xx}$ table (see Figure 5). Not to mention the marginal computation cost of the $B_\omega^2$ multiplication. As we will see in the following section, the on-line computation time is brought from the order of a few hours to about 1 minute for each set of plasma density and wave intensity entries. Note that in the current version of Salammbô, cross diffusion terms $\langle D_{\alpha\text{eq}} \rangle$ and $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$ are ignored for numerical stability considerations (Dahmen et al., 2020; Varotsou et al., 2005). Hence, we will only be interested, in what follows, in the calculation of $\langle D_{\alpha\text{eq}} \rangle$ and $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$.

3. Assessing the Accuracy of FARWEST

The computing method of FARWEST relies on interpolations. This characteristic will surely introduce numerical errors that may affect its numerical accuracy. Therefore, before validating FARWEST, it was important to measure the numerical errors introduced by FARWEST and analyze their origin if possible. We keep in mind that uncertainties are already present in the current modeling of wave particle interaction due for example, to the application range of the quasi-linear theory or the precision of wave distributions and they are not under the scope of this section.
We identified three sources of numerical errors (as schematized in Figure 6):

1. **Interpolation accuracy.** This error is related to the interpolation of the local diffusion coefficients \( D_{xx}^{\text{ interp}} \) from the \( D_{xx}^{\text{ table}} \) table and is controlled by the refinement of the density grid (or its size \( n_{\text{dens}} \)).
2. **The constrained density binning.** This source of error is not directly linked to the new computing method, but to the relatively coarse representation of the plasma density. It takes origin at the estimation of densities over the \( \alpha \) grid based on the interpolation of four magnetic latitude density bins, received from the input density model. This error cannot be controlled as the number of input bins is fixed within the SafeSpace project constraints.
3. **Resonance uncertainty.** This error is related to the management of special interpolation cases between a resonant \( (D_{xx}^{\text{ table}} \neq 0) \) and a non-resonant state \( (D_{xx}^{\text{ table}} = 0) \). It is controlled by the refinement of the density grid.

To isolate each one of these errors, we conducted several estimations of local bounce averaged diffusion coefficients, using WAPI and FARWEST and considering the following input data:

4. **Three Gaussian profiles for \( B(\omega) \) with \( \omega_1 = 200 \, \text{Hz}, \, \delta\omega_1 = 300 \, \text{Hz} \) and \( \omega_2 = 800 \, \text{Hz}, \, \delta\omega_2 = 500 \, \text{Hz} \) and \( \omega_3 = 2500 \, \text{Hz}, \, \delta\omega_3 = 1500 \, \text{Hz} \). \( B_\delta^2 \) distributions for the three gaussians are reported in Figure 7.

Plasma density inside the plasmasphere following the arbitrary profile presented in Figure 8 and the Carpenter and Anderson model (Carpenter & Anderson, 1992) outside the plasmasphere.

The choice of this input data is not motivated to obtain the most accurate estimation of the diffusion coefficients by WAPI or FARWEST, but rather benefit from their analytical and realistic features to conduct the following accuracy analysis and later the validation of the new computing method in FARWEST.

### 3.1. Interpolation Error

To measure the interpolation error, we compare for a given Salammbô grid point \((\alpha_{eq}, p, L^*)\):

1. \( D_{xx}^{\text{ interp}} \), the local diffusion coefficient computed by FARWEST (i.e., the local diffusion coefficient interpolated from a pre-computed table, following step 4 and 5 in Section 2.2).

2. \( D_{xx}^{\text{ theory}} \), the local diffusion coefficient computed by WAPI (i.e., the local diffusion coefficient obtained from the numerical resolution of the quasi linear theory Equations 3–7).

![Figure 6. Simplified representation of the three error sources.](image-url)

![Figure 7. \( B_\delta^2 \) distributions of each Gaussian as function of Earth's radius and latitude.](image-url)
To eliminate the density binning error, we consider for WAPI and FARWEST calculations, the same density distribution \( N_e \) over the \( \alpha \) grid points (in this case, FARWEST is freed from the 4 latitude bin constraint imposed by the SafeSpace project). To compare \( D_{\text{interp}}^{\alpha \alpha} \) and \( D_{\text{theory}}^{\alpha \alpha} \) over the \( \alpha \) grid, we use the following error expression:

\[
Err_\infty = 100 \times \sup_{\alpha \in [0^\circ, 90^\circ]} \left| \frac{D_{\text{theory}}^{\alpha \alpha} - D_{\text{interp}}^{\alpha \alpha}}{D_{\text{theory}}^{\alpha \alpha}} \right|
\]

We present in Figure 9 the evolution of \( Err_\infty \) as a function of the density grid refinement (\( n_{\text{dens}} = 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, \) and 200 points) for a representative Salammbô grid point.

Obviously, the error decreases as the density grid is refined, begins to stagnate from 100 points. Still, the error magnitudes stay overall lower than 4% for the pitch angle coefficient and lower than 10% for the momentum.
coefficient. By construction, $\text{Err}_{\infty}$ focuses on the maximum relative error measured over the local pitch angle grid and we observed that the maximum error is always located near the mirror point ($\alpha = 90^\circ$). This behavior is expected, as the mirror point is the nearest point of the magnetic field line to the atmosphere, where the density is higher and where the logarithmical density grid is less refined, leading to less accurate interpolations.

On the other hand, the ratios of bounce averaged coefficients $\langle D_{\alpha\alpha} \rangle$, $\langle D_{pp} \rangle$ presented in Figure 10 reflect lower error magnitudes, even for $n_{\text{dens}} = 25$ points. This is explained by the smoothing effect of bounce averaging that mitigates the effect of local errors over the $\alpha$ grid.

Knowing the huge computational cost required to construct the table $\hat{D}_{\text{table}}$ that has $2 \times n_{L^*} \times n_p \times n_{\text{eq}} \times n_\alpha \times n_{\text{dens}}$ entries ($\sim O \left(10^5 \times n_{\text{dens}}\right)$), we decided to fix $n_{\text{dens}} = 30$. This will keep the interpolation error to a contained value around 5%–10%. This error margin should still remain lower than the magnitude of the propagated uncertainties along the SafeSpace chain, and originating from its different constitutive physical models.

### 3.2. Density Binning Error

To measure the density binning error, we need to eliminate both the interpolation and resonance errors from the total error. Thus, we compare bounce averaged coefficients generated by WAPI in case of:

1. A density model $N_e$ known on each one of the 100 points of the $\alpha$ grid.
2. The same density model known only on the four magnetic latitude bins, that will serve later to estimate $N_{e,\text{interp}}$ over the $\alpha$ grid.

Figure 11 shows the ratio of the previously described coefficients (bounce averaged) at locations inside (on the left) and outside the plasmasphere (on the right).

The large majority of Salammbô grid points present a ratio very close to one, especially for $L^* = 4.87$. For $L^* = 2.52$, we observe $\langle D_{pp} \rangle$ ratios lower than 1 for the points located close to the loss cone at high energy (A) and for points at low energy (C). Besides, some points at low energy and outside the loss cone (B) present null ratios.

To explain the origin of these artifacts we present in Figure 12, a mapping of $\hat{D}_{\text{table}}$ ($n_{\text{dens}} = 30$) as a function of the density $N_e$ and the magnetic latitude $\alpha$, for each one of the four group of points identified above (A),(B),(C) and (D). We also represent, on each one of the 2D mappings, the density model followed to compute $D_{pp}$. The
colored areas in the figures represent resonance regions in the \((N_e, \alpha)\) table with \(\hat{D}^{\text{able}}_{\alpha} \neq 0\), opposed to the white regions where no resonance is observed and \(\hat{D}^{\text{able}}_{\alpha} = 0\).

For the zone (A), the 60° bin (the highest bin in latitude among the 4 entry bins) is located inside earth \((R_E = L \cdot \sin^2 \theta_60 = 2.52 \cdot \sin^2(90° - 60°) = 0.63)\). Thus it is outside the density model range (and therefore WAPI's range too) and holds a zero plasma density entry. Consequently, the interpolation misses the local diffusion coefficients of points located between the 40° and 60° bins, leading to an underestimation of the bounce averaged coefficient. For the zone (B), the density model distribution does not encounter any resonant state, leading to a zero interpolated diffusion coefficient. Note that the analytical diffusion coefficient is already very low at that location (see Figure 2). Thus we can expect the interpolation procedure to capture a non zero but very low diffusion coefficient if the density grid is more refined. For zone (C), there are only few resonant states encountered by the density model. Thus, the smoothing effect of bounce averaging is reduced and interpolation errors are emphasized. The opposite behavior is observed with (D) points, for which resonances are observed all along the density distribution path, leading to accurate interpolations and the smoothing of the error during the bounce averaging phase.

### 3.3. Resonance Uncertainty Error

Isolating the resonance uncertainty error is a difficult task as it is a byproduct of the interpolation operation. In most cases, non-resonant states are observed over continuous regions in the \((N_e, \alpha)\) space and will at most concern few points over the 100 points of the \(\alpha\) grid. However, for some cases, the plasma density distribution observed by the particle during its bounce motion can oscillate frequently between non-resonant and resonant states, enhancing the resonance uncertainty error.

This is the case of the \((\alpha_{eq}, p, L^*)\) grid point reported in Figure 13, for which the density model distribution evolve at the frontier separating resonant (in color) and non-resonant (in white) regions. One can have \(\hat{D}^{\text{interp}}_{\alpha} \neq 0\) (from the linear interpolation between a non-null \(\hat{D}^{\text{able}}_{\alpha}\) and a null \(\hat{D}^{\text{able}}_{\alpha}\)) whereas the WAPI computation gives \(D^{\text{theory}}_{\alpha} = 0\), leading to an overestimation of the coefficient by FARWEST (as we will see later).
4. Validation of the New Code

The validation of FARWEST is based on a two-step procedure:

1. Quantitative comparison of FARWEST and WAPI outputs, using the previously presented density and $B_\omega$ inputs (see Figure 14).
2. Qualitative comparison of the diffusion coefficients by measuring their effect on Salammbô simulations (see Figure 16).

4.1. Quantitative Validation

We report in Figure 14, 2D mappings of $\langle D_{eq} \rangle$ and $\langle D_{pp} \rangle$ generated by WAPI and FARWEST on two $L^*$ plans (inside the plasmasphere at $L^* = 2.52$ and outside the plasmasphere at $L^* = 4.87$). Both codes produce coefficients with practically the same main features and amplitudes. This time, the ratio profiles gathers all three types of errors and one can recognize the (A), (B), and (C) zones identified in the density ratios (Figures 11 and 1). Nevertheless, the majority of ratio values are very close to 1. On the other hand, we report...
the presence of some overshoots (ratio >1) near \( E = 100 \text{ keV} \) at \( L^* = 2.52 \) (E) and \( E = 10 \text{ keV} \) at \( L^* = 4.87 \) (F).

Those overshoots are due to the resonance uncertainty error as explained in Section 3c and showed in Figure 15. In fact, the third Gaussian panel reports several cases of conflicts between \( D_{\text{interp}} \) and \( D_{\text{theory}} \) due to the density model evolving at the edge of the resonant and the non-resonant states. Moreover, the non-zero \( D_{\text{table}} \) portion crossed by the density distribution is relatively small (compared to the size of the \( \alpha \) grid) for the first and the second Gaussians. Thus, the bounce averaging is not efficient enough to smooth the overestimation.

Despite the non-negligible differences observed on the coefficients (especially \( D_{\text{pp}} \)) in the (A), (B), (E) and (F) zones, their influence over FARWEST’s physical relevance and by extension on Salammbô should remain insignificant. In fact, (A), (B), (E) are located inside the plasmasphere where Hiss induced \( D_{\text{eq}} \) and the radial diffusion \( D_{\text{rad}} \) highly dominate \( D_{\text{pp}} \). In addition, (B), (E), (F) are located at energies \( \leq 100 \text{ keV} \), below the confidence range of WAPI. Therefore, those artifacts should not have a notable impact over the physical relevance of FARWEST output.

4.2. Qualitative Validation

To confirm the previous conclusions, we conducted Salammbô simulations of the St Patrick 2015 CME driven storm, using WAPI and FARWEST generated coefficients and the radial diffusion model taken from (Boscher et al., 2018). The results shown in Figures 16 and 17 present electron flux profiles both nearly coinciding in terms of amplitudes but also in terms of dynamical features as regards to local accelerations (operating at the calm phase at the beginning of the simulation), losses (occurring during the return to the equilibrium phase at the end of the simulations) and the depth of the radial penetration. As expected, the reported artifacts in 4.1 have very small effects at the studied energies. Therefore, we can assert that the new method reconstructs with a very good accuracy the wave particle interaction diffusion coefficients.

4.3. Computational Cost

We report in Table 1, the computational cost of each task in FARWEST (as schematized in Figure 5), evaluated on 8 \( \times \) 3.5 GHz machine (Intel® Xeon(R) CPU E5-1620 v3) with 8 GB RAM. Compared to WAPI’s computational cost, the computational gain of the new code is substantial. In fact, the computing time required to estimate one set of diffusion coefficients over the Salammbô grid was reduced from several hours with WAPI to almost 1 minute with FARWEST. Note that, the computation of one pre-computed table set for 1 Gaussian among 3 (as described in step 2 in 2.2) lasted around 15 hr (but realized once and for all).

Nevertheless, considering the data assimilation application planned within the SafeSpace chain and operating downstream of FARWEST (see Figure 1), a parallel implementation will be required in order to compute the 200 sets of diffusion coefficients. (A serial implementation would still last more than the real time with 1 min \( \times \) 200 members at each hourly update).

5. Effect of a Time Dependent Plasma Density on Salammbô Simulations: The September 2017 Storm

In this section, we take advantage of FARWEST in order to measure the effect of a time dependent plasma density (computed by BIRA’s plasma density code SPM) on Salammbô simulations. The impact of the new VLF waves will be studied in future research works.
Figure 14. From the top to the bottom, $(a_{eq}, E)$ mapping of $\langle D_{a_{eq}a_{eq}} \rangle \times \langle D_{pp} \rangle / p^2$ computed by FAst Radiation diffusion with Waves ESTimator, WAPI, and their ratios, over Salammbô solving domain at either sides of the plasmasphere ($K_p = 2.3$).

Figure 15. Resonance error example.
To do so, we conducted two Salammbô simulations of the CME-driven September 2017 event ($T_{\text{simu}} = 23$ days) associated to FARWEST generated $\langle D_{\text{eq}} \rangle$ and $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$ using the Carpenter and Anderson plasma density model in the first case and using SPM simulated plasma density over the simulation period for the second case. Both simulations use the same radial diffusion model taken from (Boscher et al., 2018) and the same boundary condition at $L^* = 8$, based on averaged THEMIS data (Boscher et al., 2018). We present in Figure 18, the ratio of SPM diffusion coefficients over old WAPI diffusion coefficients (represented in Figure 2) at different $L^*$ plans, over the Salammbô grid. Figures 19 and 20 report the simulation results.

Figure 16. From the top to the bottom: Salammbô 500 keV electron flux for the Saint Patrick event using WAPI generated $\langle D_{\text{eq}} \rangle$, $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$, Salammbô 500 keV electron flux using FAst Radiation diffusion with Waves ESTimator generated $\langle D_{\text{eq}} \rangle$, $\langle D_{\text{pp}} \rangle$ and the flux ratio.
At 500 keV, both electron profiles are in a good accordance with the measurements in terms of orders of magnitude and dependence to Kp. During the calm period at the early days of September, the SPM density driven simulation presents slightly smaller amplitudes of fluxes around $L^* = 4$ compared to Carpenter density driven simulations and measurements. This is explained by the new local diffusion balance imposed by the new coefficients that slightly favors $\langle D_{\alpha\alphaeq} \rangle$ and by extension losses. The increase of pitch angle scattering explains also the small reduction of electron flux magnitude during the main phase of the storm (8–9 September), while still being dominated by radial diffusion. The same behavior is observed during the
return to equilibrium phase at the end of the simulation. This time, the reduction of the estimated flux by the SPM simulation contributes to a better depiction of the slot region. We also observe that the SPM simulation captures better the outer belt’s radial depth and its narrowing between September 1st and September 7th, following mechanically the evolution of the plasmapause. This is due to the closer MLT dependence of the SPM density that smooths the state transition between the plasmasphere and the plasma trough.

At 1,000 keV however, both simulations are less accurate and underestimate the measured electron flux. Both simulations show very similar features and dependence to Kp as they embody the same physical balance between radial diffusion and wave particle interaction at that energy. Still, the SPM simulation shows slightly higher flux amplitudes during the early calm period and the return to equilibrium period.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we presented a new method to compute efficiently wave particle interaction diffusion coefficients. The need for the new method came from the SafeSpace project, aiming at the implementation of a Space weather safety prototype. In particular, the project required the fast computation - for Salammbô EnKF - of an ensemble of pitch angle and momentum diffusion coefficients, each hour, based on cold plasma density and VLF wave entries from upstream codes in the project chain. These requirements were inconsistent with the heavy computational cost imposed by WAPI and other wave particle interaction estimation codes. As a result, a new method was set, which main idea was to pre-compute in one time as much information as possible. The latter came in the form of a density dependent local diffusion coefficients, normalized to VLF waves data. Then, operational diffusion coefficients are interpolated each time, based on plasma density and VLF entries. The new method proved

| Task                                      | Computing time (s) |
|-------------------------------------------|--------------------|
| \(B_0^2\) distribution                    | 1.35               |
| \(N_e\) distribution                      | 1.03               |
| \(D_{ao}, D_{pp}\) interpolation          | 57                 |
| \(B_0^2\) multiplying + bounce and drift averaging | 1.35               |
| FARWEST (total)                           | 59.73              |

Table 1

Computational Cost of FAst Radiation Diffusion With Waves ESTimator (FARWEST) Calculation for One Member and for a Time Updated State

Figure 18. \(\langle a_{eq}, E\rangle\) distribution of \(\langle D_{ao}, a_{eq}\rangle\), \(\langle D_{pp}\rangle\) ratios in case of SPM density and Carpenter density, for two \(L^*\) on either sides of the plasmapause \(K_a = 2.3\).
its computational efficiency by reducing the cost to generate one diffusion configuration to almost 1 minute. Besides, the method was validated against old WAPI results and proved its physical relevance with contained numerical errors. Finally, the new code FARWEST was put in use to measure the benefit of the SPM density model on Salammbô electron flux map estimation. This improvement should open the way to the establishment of radiation belt meta-codes, which would be capable to describe the inner magnetosphere medium and derive the dynamical frame they solve at each time iteration.

Figure 19. From the top to the bottom: Salammbô 500 keV electron flux results for the September 2017 event using the SPM time dependent density model, Salammbô 500 keV electron flux results using the Carpenter and Anderson density model, RBSP-B omnidirectional differential flux measurements for electrons at 0.424 – 0.509 MeV and Kp evolution during the studied event.
Appendix A

The normalization constant $A^2$ used in the Gaussian frequency distribution, is given by

$$A^2 = \frac{B^2}{\omega} \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left[ \text{erf} \left( \frac{\epsilon - \epsilon_s}{\sqrt{\omega}} \right) + \text{erf} \left( \frac{\epsilon_s - \epsilon}{\sqrt{\omega}} \right) \right]^{-1}$$

The expression of the local diffusion coefficients for a given harmonic $n$ and a given angle $\psi = \tan^{-1} X$

Figure 20. From the top to the bottom: Salammbô 1 MeV electron flux results for the September 2017 event using the SPM time dependent density model, Salammbô 1 MeV electron flux results using the Carpenter and Anderson density model, RBSP-B omnidirectional differential flux measurements for electrons at 0.970 – 1.279 MeV and Kp evolution during the studied event.
With $N(\omega)$ the normalization factor ensuring that the wave energy per unit frequency is given by $B^2(\omega)$

$$N(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{x_{max}}^{x_{min}} \frac{g(X)k^2}{(1+X^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \frac{\partial D}{\partial D} \frac{\partial D}{\partial k} XdX$$

(A5)

The term $|\Phi|^2_{k,n}$ depends on the Bessel function $J_n$ and is given by

$$|\Phi|^2_{k,n} = \left[ \left( \frac{\mu - L}{\mu^2 - S} \right) J_{n+1} + \left( \frac{\mu^2 - R}{\mu^2 - S} \right) J_{n-1} \right] \left( \frac{\mu^2 \sin^2 \psi - P}{2\mu^2} \right) + \cot \alpha \sin \psi \cos \psi J_n$$

(A6)

The bounce-averaged diffusion coefficients, for equatorial pitch-angle $\alpha_{eq}$, are given by

$$\langle D_{\alpha\alpha_{eq}} \rangle = \frac{1}{\tau_B} \int_0^{\tau_B} D_{\alpha\alpha} \left( \frac{\partial \alpha_{eq}}{\partial \alpha} \right)^2 dt$$

(A7)

$$\langle D_{\alpha\beta_{eq}} \rangle = \frac{1}{\tau_B} \int_0^{\tau_B} D_{\alpha\beta} \left( \frac{\partial \beta_{eq}}{\partial \alpha} \right) dt$$

(A8)

$$\langle D_{\beta\beta} \rangle = \frac{1}{\tau_B} \int_0^{\tau_B} D_{\beta\beta} dt$$

(A9)

Where $\tau_B$ is the particle bounce period.

**Data Availability Statement**

The computing method followed in WAPI is based on the developments described in (Glauert & Horne, 2005). The cold plasma density model used in the validation procedure is taken from (Carpenter & Anderson, 1992) and the VLF intensities are taken from the (Meredith et al., 2012).

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