

## First detection of a terrestrial MeV X-ray burst

J.E. Foat<sup>1,2,3</sup>, R.P. Lin<sup>1,3</sup>, D.M. Smith<sup>1</sup>, F. Fenrich<sup>1</sup>, R. Millan<sup>1,3</sup>, I. Roth<sup>1</sup>, K.R. Lorentzen<sup>4</sup>, M.P. McCarthy<sup>4</sup>, G.K. Parks<sup>4</sup>, J.P. Treilhou<sup>5</sup>

**Abstract.** We report the first detection of a terrestrial X-ray burst extending up to MeV energies, made by a liquid-nitrogen-cooled germanium detector ( $\sim 2$  keV FWHM resolution) on a high-altitude balloon at  $65.5^\circ$  magnetic latitude ( $L=5.7$ ) in the late afternoon (1815 MLT) during low geomagnetic activity. The burst occurred at 1532-1554 UT on August 20, 1996, and consisted of seven peaks of  $\sim 60$ -90 s duration, spaced by  $\sim 100$ -200 s, with quasi-periodic ( $\sim 10$ -20 s) modulation of the peak count rates. The very hard X-ray spectrum extends to the instrumental limit of 1.4 MeV, and is consistent with bremsstrahlung emission from monoenergetic,  $\sim 1.7$  MeV, precipitating electrons. Since the trapped relativistic electrons showed a steeply falling energy spectrum from 0.6 to 4 MeV (at  $L=6.6$ ), the precipitation mechanism appears to be highly energy selective. The modulation frequencies suggest scattering of the MeV electrons due to gyro-resonance with Doppler-shifted electromagnetic ion cyclotron waves, but either equatorial proton densities a factor of  $\sim 10^2$  higher than typical for the plasmasphere or significant  $O^+$  densities would be required.

### Introduction

Hard  $> 20$  keV X-rays from the bremsstrahlung emission of energetic electrons precipitating into the atmosphere were first detected from a balloon by Winckler *et al.* [1958]. Subsequent balloon measurements have established that even in the absence of geomagnetic activity (Anderson and Enemark, 1960), an average X-ray flux of  $\sim 15$  cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> is present in the auroral zone  $> 50\%$  of the time (Anderson, 1965). Periods of intense X-ray emission (up to several hundred cm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) lasting from several minutes to several hours, often accompany geomagnetic disturbances (for a review see Parks *et al.*, 1993). These events show rich temporal structure on time scales from  $\sim 5$  ms (Parks *et al.*, 1967) to several minutes (Evans, 1965).

The energy spectrum of the X-rays typically drops off rapidly between 20-200 keV with e-folding energies of  $\sim 20$ -30 keV (see, for example, Smith *et al.*, 1995), but on rare occa-

sions significant fluxes are detected above 120 keV with e-folding energies of  $\sim 200$  keV (Parks *et al.*, 1979). To our knowledge, the highest energy previously detected in terrestrial X-rays is  $\sim 500$  keV, by a spacecraft-borne detector (Imhof *et al.*, 1978).

Precipitating MeV energy electrons, however, are often detected near the trapping boundary in narrow latitude bands up to 2-3 degrees wide, which are detected by low-Earth-orbiting (LEO) spacecraft as a few s to  $\sim 30$  s spikes (Blake *et al.*, 1996). Intense MeV electron precipitation can deposit energy at rates up to 3-4 orders of magnitude larger than that due to cosmic rays and solar EUV radiation at altitudes of 40-70 km; this can provide coupling from the magnetosphere into the middle atmosphere, and possibly even affect atmospheric ozone chemistry (Baker *et al.*, 1987).

Here we present high spectral resolution balloon observations of the most energetic terrestrial hard X-ray burst ever detected. The nearly stationary balloon platform allows the temporal evolution of the entire precipitation event to be observed.

### Observations

The observations were made with a liquid nitrogen cooled, 5.5 cm diam x 5.5 cm coaxial germanium detector (GeD), which had flown previously on an Antarctic long duration ( $\sim 9$  day) balloon flight [Smith *et al.*, 1995]. The GeD inner bore is electrically segmented to form two detectors: D0, which occupies a few cm<sup>3</sup> at the center of the top surface, and D1 with the rest of the  $\sim 130$  cm<sup>3</sup> volume. D1 covers from  $\sim 20$  keV to 1.365 MeV with  $\sim 2$  keV FWHM resolution. Its effective photopeak area (at vertical incidence) is 6 cm<sup>2</sup> at 26 keV, 11 cm<sup>2</sup> at 81 keV, 7 cm<sup>2</sup> at 356 keV, and 2.5 cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.115 MeV. A 0.54 cm thick lead collimator limits the field of view to a  $45^\circ$  half-angle vertical cone.

At count rates below 500 c/s, every energy deposition in D0 and D1 was measured with 12 bit precision (4096 channels with 0.337 keV per channel) and telemetered to the ground. Above 500 c/s, the energy depositions in D1 were binned into 96 channel spectra every 1/8 s, with channel widths increasing quasi-logarithmically from 2.7 keV at 20 keV to 42.9 keV at 1.365 MeV; only these spectra, together with  $>40$  keV and  $<40$  keV D1 counts every 10 ms, were telemetered.

The GeD was flown together with an X-ray imager (XRI), broad band X-ray detectors, VLF sensors, and tri-axial electric and magnetic field sensors, on the first flight of INTERBOA (INTERBall and Balloon Observations of Aurora), an international campaign to study particle acceleration processes and the coupling of solar, magnetospheric, and ionospheric activity. The balloon was launched at  $\sim 1000$  UT on August 19, 1996 from the ESRANGE facility in Kiruna, Sweden, and stayed aloft for nearly 40 hours at float altitudes between 32.5 km and 35 km. Magnetic activity was low ( $K_p \sim 2$ ,  $D_{st} \sim -10$  nT), and during the first 30 hours the D1 count rate stayed close to background.

<sup>1</sup> Space Sciences Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley CA 94720-7450

<sup>2</sup> Presently, at the Green Institute of Geophysics and Planetary Physics, University of California, San Diego, CA 92093

<sup>3</sup> Also Physics Department, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720

<sup>4</sup> Geophysics Program, AK 50, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195

<sup>5</sup> Center d'Etude Spatiale des Rayonnements, B.P. 4346, 31209 Toulouse Cedex, France

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An intense hard X-ray burst was detected at 1532 UT (1815 MLT) when the balloon was at 117.6 E, 65.5 N magnetic ( $L=5.7$ ) with  $\sim 6$  g/cm<sup>2</sup> of overlying atmosphere. The  $>20$  keV D1 count rate (Figure 1a, upper) exhibited a series of seven smooth peaks, reaching a maximum of  $\sim 2400$  c/s at 1547 UT. The peak durations (FWHM) ranged from  $\sim 60$  to  $\sim 90$  s and the time between peaks varied from 105 s (peaks 2 and 3) to 225 s (peaks 3 and 4). The count rate then returned smoothly to background by 1555 UT.

The tops of the peaks show fast, quasi-periodic ( $\sim 10$ -20 s) modulations of up to  $\sim 10\%$  of the total count rate (e.g. at  $\sim 1546$  UT). These are more evident in the residual (1 s) count rate (Figure 1a, bottom) obtained by subtracting a 20 s running average. Power spectra of the residual count rate were obtained every 5 s, using a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) routine supplied with the IDL software package. To match the approximate duration of the modulation, the FFT window was chosen to be 35 s long, resulting in 17 frequency bands centered on 28.6 mHz, 57.1 mHz, ..., 486 mHz.

To identify significant contributions in a particular FFT, a statistically equivalent data set without significant periodicities was constructed by summing the count rate during pre-

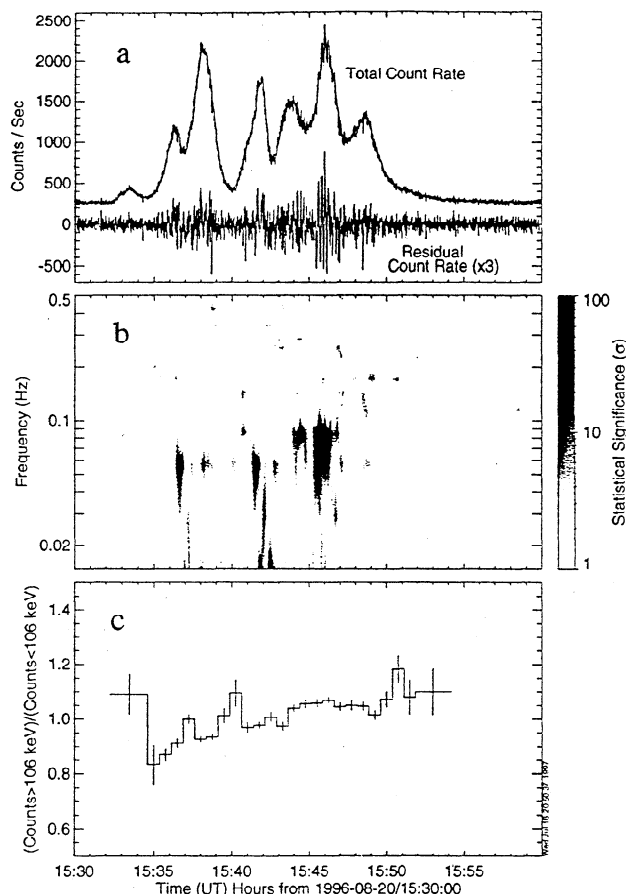


Figure 1. Relativistic electron precipitation event of August 20, 1996. (a) The upper trace is the 1 s average of the  $>20$  keV count rate. The lower trace is the residual count rate after a 20 s running average has been removed. (b) Dynamic spectral analysis of the residual count rate. A Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) with a 35 s window is plotted every 5 s in units of the standard deviation  $\sigma$  for that FFT window. (c) The (background subtracted) ratio of counts between 20 keV to 106 keV to those between 106 keV and 1.365 MeV.

event background over a fixed interval chosen to provide the same average number of counts per bin as seen in that FFT window. A 20 bin running average was then subtracted from this data set, and the same FFT analysis performed on the residual rate. The resulting distribution of spectral power was used to define the  $1\sigma$  standard deviation power level.

Figure 1b plots the spectral power in terms of the  $\sigma$  for each FFT window. Significant ( $>3\sigma$ ) modulation is observed around 57.1 mHz before  $\sim 1544$  UT ( $10\sigma$ ,  $7\sigma$ ,  $20\sigma$ , respectively for peaks 2, 3, 4), shifting to around 85.7 mHz after ( $20$  and  $\sim 100\sigma$  for peaks 5 and 6), but peaks 1 and 7 show no significant modulation. Significant power at frequencies lower than 57.1 mHz appears only at  $\sim 1542$  UT, when the total count rate has a large second derivative; presumably this is due to subtracting the 20 s running average.

Simultaneously with the change in modulation frequency at 1544 UT, the X-ray spectrum also changes. Figure 1c shows the ratio of the background subtracted count rates between 106 keV and 1.365 MeV to that between 20 and 106 keV (the total event has about equal number of counts above and below 106 keV). Peak 1 corresponds to a relatively hard spectrum, while the following minimum,  $\sim 1535$  UT, has the softest spectrum in the event. For the peaks 2, 3, and 4 the spectrum becomes progressively harder but the intervening minima are harder than the maxima. At  $\sim 1544$  UT, the X-ray spectrum abruptly hardens and then stays essentially constant through both maxima and minima for the peaks 5, 6, 7.

The background count spectrum (Figure 2 bottom) before the burst (1430-1530 UT) shows lines at  $\sim 75$  keV and  $\sim 85$  keV from  $K_{\alpha}$  and  $K_{\beta}$  emissions of the lead collimator, at 198 keV from neutron inelastic scattering off  $^{71}\text{Ge}$  inside the detector, and at 511 keV from  $e^{+}e^{-}$  annihilation of positrons produced by cosmic rays and their secondaries interacting with the atmosphere and instrument. Figure 2 (middle) shows background subtracted count spectra for the burst, before (crosses) and after 1544 UT (diamonds). The  $^{71}\text{Ge}$  and  $e^{+}e^{-}$  lines are eliminated by the background subtraction, but the lead lines are still present since the enhanced  $>>100$  keV X-ray flux in the burst produces K shell excitation. The spectra before and after 1544 UT differ significantly only above  $\sim 160$  keV, and both spectra show a significant number of counts up to the instrumental limit of  $\sim 1.4$  MeV.

The count rate falls off below  $\sim 60$  keV due to attenuation by the overlying atmosphere. To obtain the photon spectrum at the top of the atmosphere, the absorption and scattering in the instrument and atmosphere is modeled using Monte Carlo simulations (see Smith *et al.*, 1995). The atmosphere is modeled as 10 different concentric shells of varying thickness and density. Photons emitted isotropically above the atmosphere are propagated down to the balloon where their angles and energies are recorded. The response of the GeD system, modeled as 20 different regions of material, is then simulated. The result is a set of matrices which yield the GeD response for an arbitrary X-ray energy spectrum at the top of the atmosphere and elevation angle of the source.

Preliminary analysis of the XRI observations (Lorentzen *et al.*, 1997) indicate that the source was approximately uniform over XRI's  $45^{\circ}$  half angle conical aperture, with no significant spatial variability through the burst. The observed count spectrum for the entire event was therefore multiplied by the inverse of the response matrices for a uniform photon distribution over the aperture, to obtain the bremsstrahlung source spectrum (top of Figure 2) at the top of the atmosphere. This

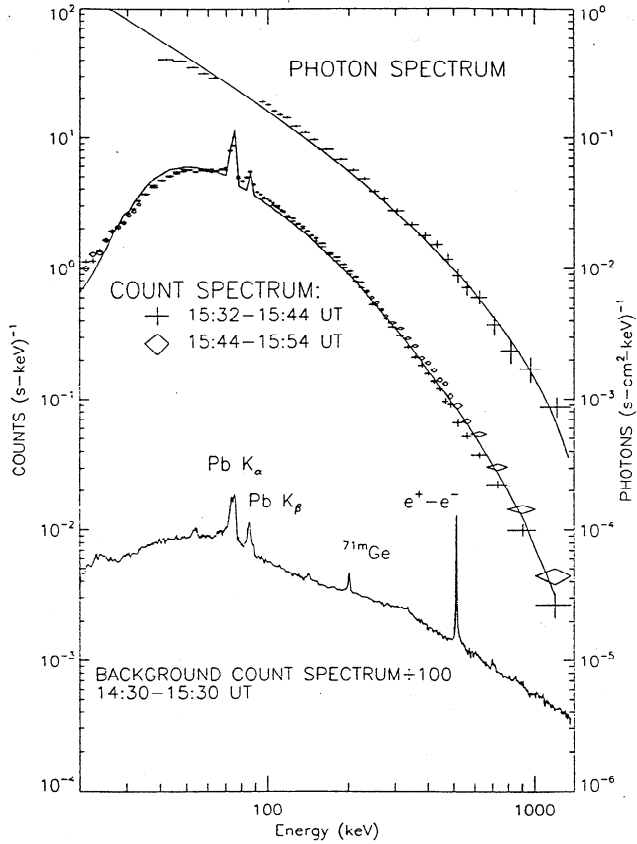


Figure 2. The bottom trace is a background count spectrum (divided by 100) before the event (14:30-15:30 UT). In the middle are event count spectra (background subtracted) for 15:32-15:44 UT (crosses) and 15:44-15:54 UT (crosses with dots). At the top is the source photon spectrum (averaged over the entire event) obtained by removing atmospheric absorption and detector response effects from the measured count spectrum. The curves through the photon spectrum and count spectra are model fits calculated assuming a precipitating electron population that is monoenergetic at 1.7 MeV.

fits a power law spectrum  $dJ/dE \propto E^{-\delta}$  with  $\delta=1.6$  from  $\leq 100$  to 250 keV, steepening to  $\delta = 2.8$  above  $\sim 400$  keV. A single exponential [ $dJ/dE \propto \exp(-E/E_0)$ ] does not fit; the e-folding energy  $E_0$  varies from  $\sim 75$  keV at low energies to  $\sim 400$  keV at high energies.

With high resolution measurements of the photon spectrum, the corresponding X-ray producing electron spectrum can be derived by the method of Johns and Lin [1992], in which a response matrix is calculated for the bremsstrahlung emission process and inverted directly. Then, a continuity equation for the electrons can be solved to obtain the precipitating electron population, if the electron loss mechanism (presumably, Coulomb collisions in the atmosphere) is known [Lin and Johns, 1994]. When the detailed spatial distribution of the precipitation source becomes available from the XRI, this procedure will be carried out, but in the meantime the observations can be compared to model calculations.

The solid curves through the points in Figure 2 (upper and middle) are the photon and count spectra computed for monoenergetic 1.7 MeV electrons precipitating uniformly over that part of the sky viewed by the GeD. The calculation takes into account electron slowing by collisions, bremsstrahlung pro-

duction, and atmospheric and instrumental scattering/absorption of the photons. The fit is good except at energies below  $\sim 100$  keV, where the corrections for atmosphere and GeD window absorption are poor, and the neglect of screening effects in the bremsstrahlung cross section may no longer be valid (Koch and Motz, 1959). Other model precipitating electron spectra were tried, but the spectrum is so hard that the bulk of the precipitating electrons must be at high energies, above  $\sim 1$ -2 MeV. The observed hardening of the spectrum at 1544 UT is consistent with an increase in the peak energy of the precipitating electrons.

During this event, no spacecraft were on the same field line as the balloon, but the trapped electron spectrum between 0.6 and 4 MeV measured by the geosynchronous GOES-9 satellite ( $L=6.6$ ,  $225^\circ$  East longitude) is steeply falling, with  $dJ/dE \propto E^{-5}$ . Thus, if the source is the trapped electron population, only the highest energy,  $> 1$ -2 MeV electrons, are precipitated. Since precipitating  $\sim 1$ -2 MeV electron can penetrate down to  $< \sim 55$  km altitude (Berger and Seltzer, 1972), only  $\sim 20$  km above the balloon, the source could be as small as  $\sim 40$  km diameter and still fill the GeD and XRI apertures.

Using the average precipitating electron flux of  $J_p \sim 300$  ( $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) and the  $\sim 2$  MeV electron flux of  $J_r \sim 4 \times 10^3$  ( $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) measured at GOES-9, we estimate the mean electron lifetime to be about  $10^2$  s (see O'Brien 1962). In this time the local flux tube would be replenished several times over by electrons drifting in longitude.

## Discussion

Spacecraft observations show that MeV electron precipitation events occur predominantly around local midnight,  $\sim 2000$  - 0400 MLT. The precipitating electron spectrum is often peaked at MeV energies, possibly due to the magnetic field lines connecting into the magnetotail where their radius of curvature may be small enough to scatter and isotropize the highest energy electrons (Imhof et al., 1997; Sergeev and Malkov, 1988). Afternoon relativistic electron precipitation (REP) events are rare - only six out of 313 REP events observed by the S3-3 satellite (Thorne and Andreoli, 1980) - and afternoon field lines are unlikely to extend into the magnetotail.

The observed 10-20s period modulation of the X-rays in this burst suggests the possibility that the relativistic electrons may have been scattered into the loss cone by gyro-resonance with Doppler shifted electromagnetic ion-cyclotron (EMIC) waves (Thorne and Andreoli, 1980). From the dispersion relation and the relativistic resonance condition, the dependence of the resonant electron energy  $E_r$  on wave frequency  $\omega$  is

$$\frac{E_r}{m_e c^2} = \left[ 1 + \frac{2E_m}{m_e c^2} \left( \frac{m_i}{m_e} \right) \left( \frac{\Omega_i}{\omega} \right)^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\omega}{\Omega_i} \right) \right]^{1/2} - 1$$

where  $E_m = B^2/8\pi n$  is the magnetic energy per particle,  $n$  is the ambient plasma density, and  $\Omega_i$  is the ion cyclotron frequency (here, taken at the equator). For the observed modulations  $T = 2\pi/\omega \sim 20$ s and 10s,  $E_r \sim 2$  MeV, and  $W_i \sim 18$  rad/s for protons at  $L=5.7$ , we obtain densities  $n \sim 5.2 \times 10^4$  and  $1.2 \times 10^4$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , respectively, a factor of  $\sim 10^2$  higher than typical for the plasmasphere. For  $0^+$ ,  $\Omega_i \sim 1.1$  rad/s, and the corresponding densities would be  $n \sim 150$  and  $28$   $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , respectively. In this picture the decrease in  $T$  and increase in  $E_r$  at 1544 UT could be due to a sudden decrease in plasma density. However, for this magnetically quiet time such high proton densities or substantial  $0^+$

densities are unlikely. On the other hand, no significant modulation was detected in the burst at the EMIC resonant frequencies (~1 Hz) for normal plasmaspheric densities. The X-ray burst reported by Parks *et al.* (1979) was also detected at L=4.5-5 in the mid-afternoon (~1400 MLT). It also consisted of a series of ~100 sec FWHM peaks separated by ~100-200 sec. Although the highest energy threshold was only ~120 keV, the spectrum was comparably hard below 120 keV, strongly suggesting it was the same type of event as reported here. Whistler perturbations were observed (West and Parks, 1984) which may explain the diffusion of MeV electrons and their subsequent precipitation in both events.

The 2-12 keV channel of the PIXIE X-ray imager (Chenette, private communication) and the UVI imager on the Polar spacecraft detected emissions at 1515 UT (possibly a small substorm intensification) near midnight but not near Kiruna. By 1545 UT, neither instrument detected any precipitation. However, imaging riometer data from Kilpisjärvi in Northern Finland (IRIS) show a clear absorption feature ~100 km(N-S) by ~200 km (E-W) size (at 90 km altitude) over the balloon. The absorption increased at 1535 UT reaching a maximum between 1536-1537 UT and then decreased. It then increases again at about 1544 UT, the same time that the hardening of the X-ray spectrum and change in modulation frequency were observed.

A ULF field line resonance (FLR) was identified from analysis of data from the International Monitor for Auroral Geomagnetic Effects (IMAGE) magnetometer network (Viljanen and Häkkinen, 1997), which includes Kiruna and from the Iceland East coherent scatter HF radar of the Super Dual Auroral Radar Network (SuperDARN) (Greenwald *et al.*, 1995). From 1400 to 1700 UT, the power spectra of the IMAGE data showed peaks at a number of discrete frequencies, i.e. 1.3 mHz, 1.8 mHz, 3.8 mHz, and 4.9 mHz, extending over many stations, and SuperDARN identified a 1.6-1.8 mHz FLR from 1545 to 1645 UT. The 4.9 mHz FLR, whose period is comparable to the peak spacing of the X-ray burst, was observed at all stations from 57° to 75° magnetic latitude with peak power at 65.9°. We speculate that a disturbance related to the FLR may have triggered motion of the plasmasphere boundary and/or detachment of plasma. How this led to resonant scattering of MeV electrons into the loss cone is presently unknown.

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