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THE EFFECT OF A SOLAR PROTON EVENT ON THE MINOR NEUTRAL CONSTITUENTS OF THE SUMMER POLAR MESOSPHERE

AUGUST 1978

By

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20. ABSTRACT (cont)

ionization during the peak 24-hour period of the August 1972 SPE is capable of increasing the OH concentration and decreasing the O and O₃ concentrations up to an order of magnitude near 80 km, with smaller changes evident throughout the mesosphere. An exact determination of the immediate products of ionization events are necessary for correct assessment of Army nuclear weapons' effects (NWE) computer codes. Modeling a naturally occurring phenomenon such as solar proton event provides the opportunity to partially validate the sections of NWE codes which deal with post-burst effects in the middle atmosphere.



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INTRODUCTION

The measurements of mesospheric ozone by Weeks et al. [1] during the course of the November 1969 solar proton event showed an intriguing decrease in ozone. Other studies [2, 3] have indicated that such a decrease in mesospheric odd oxygen can be attributed to an increase in odd hydrogen due to enhanced ionization. The hydration of O_2^+ ions and the chain of reactions which leads to the hydronium ions $H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_n$ produce an OH radical, and subsequent electron-ion recombination frees atomic hydrogen (see for example Reid [4]). These species of odd hydrogen, along with the concomitantly produced HO_2 , serve as catalysts in an effective chain reaction which destroys odd oxygen in the mesosphere.

Various forms of odd nitrogen are also produced either directly during the actual ionization of air or rapidly thereafter via fast ion-molecule interactions. While catalytic destruction of odd oxygen by NO_x is important in the stratosphere, the destruction of odd oxygen is dominated by the HO_x chain reactions in the mesosphere.

In this study the time varying history of the particle induced ionization rates during the peak period of the August 1972 solar proton event is used to construct a detailed history of the odd hydrogen sources. A comparison is then made between the concentrations of H, OH, HO_2 , O, and O_3 for the 4-5 August 1972 period of the solar proton event (SPE) and the same time period with the SPE sources removed. Attention is limited to the subsequent effects in the mesosphere.

The emphasis of this study is to determine the immediate products of ionization for later use as lumped parameters in large-scale nuclear weapons effects (NWE) simulation codes. Solar proton events, which produce large amounts of ionization in the middle atmosphere, are analogous to late-time effects of nuclear bursts. Successful modeling of such naturally occurring events serves to validate the sections of NWE codes which deal with post-burst effects in the middle atmosphere.

ION PRODUCTION RATES AND CHEMISTRY

The time dependent ion-pair production rate profiles are taken from Reagan and Watt [5] and Watt [6]. These profiles are shown in Fig. 1 for a few selected altitudes. The ionization profiles have been computed from satellite measurements of particle fluxes, but often these measurements are for widely divergent longitudes. The Chatanika radar showed a large enhancement of ionization mainly above 70 km, around 2200 UT on 4 August 1972 [5]; consequently, several points in Fig. 1 have been interpolated to match this feature. Since the satellite measurements have been made at varying longitudes, some uncertainty is introduced into the values when they are compiled for use at one location, particularly when auroral electrons make significant contributions.

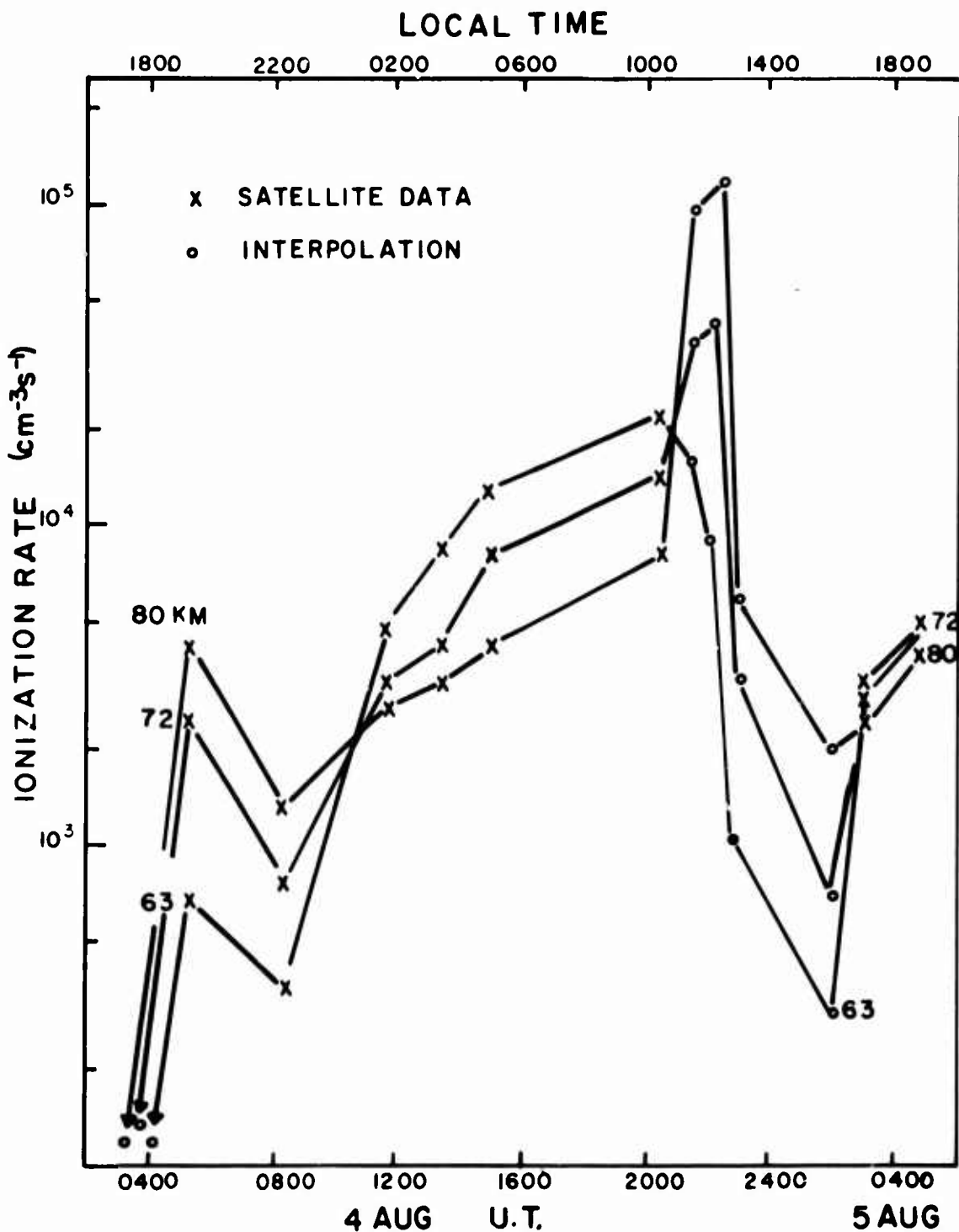


Figure 1. The time history of ionization rates during the August 1972 particle event at 80, 72, and 63 km.

In addition, the particle deposition profiles have been calculated for the CIRA 1965 mean reference atmosphere [7]. A comparison with a high latitude model for August (CIRA 1972 [8]) shows that these latter mesospheric densities are larger than those given in the mean reference atmosphere. Because of uncertainties in longitudinal correlation and auroral enhancements, the ion-pair production should be considered accurate only within approximately 20 percent (J. B. Reagan, private communication), which generally encompasses the uncertainties due to different model atmospheres. The ionization rates are therefore used as originally calculated, even though they may tend to somewhat underestimate actual values.

In the subsequent calculations dealing with the ion and neutral chemistries, the model atmosphere used for the major neutral constituents is the CIRA 1972, August 65° N model, with the corresponding temperature profile. The H₂O density is set at 5 ppm of the neutral number density. The initial densities of several minor neutral constituents are shown in Fig. 2. The boundaries of the 24-hour period under study, 03:06 UT 4 August to 03:06 UT 5 August, or 17:06 local time, have been chosen to match with available satellite data.

The neutral and ion chemistries are calculated by use of a large multi-species chemistry code called DIARCHEM (for D-region air chemistry) [9]. For the present study a configuration of 64 ion and neutral species and 493 reactions has been used which encompasses oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen, and limited carbon chemistry. Suitable reviews of the neutral chemistry are available in the literature [10, 11]; the emphasis here will be on the ion-neutral chemistry.

The majority of odd nitrogen is produced directly during the ionization of N₂ by incident protons and (mainly) secondary electrons. Following the work of Porter et al. [12], the initial ratios are taken as 1.04 N atoms per ion pair (apportioned among the 4S, 2D, and 2P states) and 0.154 N⁺ atoms per ion pair. The baseline production of odd nitrogen may then be taken as 1.2 N atoms per ion pair, some of which are in excited and ionized states. These atoms are then converted to NO through rapid neutral reactions, ion-atom interchanges, and subsequent recombination. Roble and Rees [13] provide a good review of the two-body ion and neutral chemistries.

Additional odd nitrogen is formed by charge exchange and ion-atom interchanges by the other primary ions of the initial ionization occurrence. Table 1 lists the pertinent reactions which are involved in the formation of odd nitrogen after the initial ionization. At mesospheric heights, essentially all of the N₂⁺ formed undergoes charge exchange with O₂ to form O₂⁺, as does a majority of the O⁺. About 20 to 25 percent of the O⁺ undergoes an ion-atom interchange with N₂ to form NO⁺ + N. Since

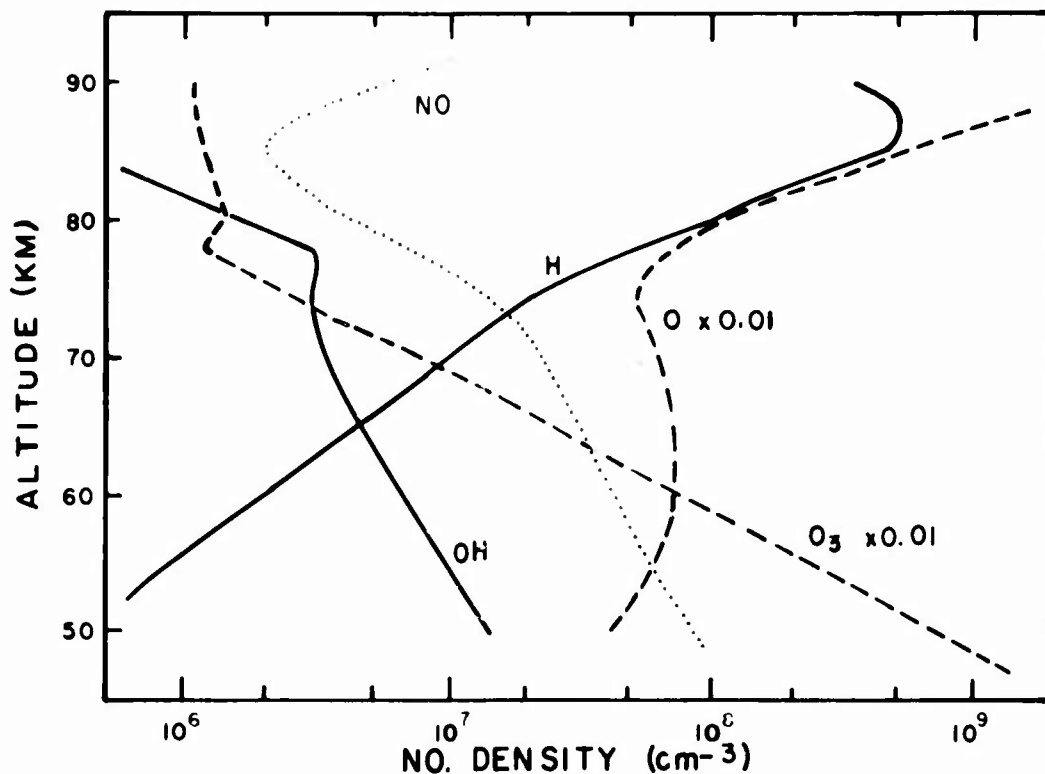


Figure 2. The densities of several minor neutral species at the beginning of the 24-hour period 03:06 UT 4 Aug (17:06 local time). Solar zenith angle is 69°.

TABLE 1. MAJOR ION-MOLECULE REACTIONS LEADING TO ODD NITROGEN

<u>Reaction</u>	<u>Rate Constant</u>
$N_2^+ + O_2 \rightarrow N_2 + O_2^+$	$5.0 (-10) (300/T)^{0.8*}$
$O^+ + O_2 \rightarrow O + O_2^+$	$2.0 (-11) (300/T)^{0.4}$
$O_2^+ + N_2 \rightarrow NO^+ + NO$	$<1.0 (-15)^\dagger$
$O^+ + N_2 \rightarrow NO^+ + N$	$1.2 (-12) (300/T)^{0.5}$
$O^+ + N_2 + M \rightarrow NO^+ + H + M$	$1.6 (-29) (300/T)^{2.0}$

*Read as $5.0 \times 10^{-10} (300/T)^{0.8} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, units of $\text{cm}^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for three-body reactions.

†Reaction has never been observed; the rate constant, if the reaction proceeds, is below detection threshold.

there are 0.063 O^+ atoms formed per ion pair, the ratio of odd nitrogen formed per ion pair may be raised to 1.22.

In the stratosphere the three-body reaction $O^+ + N_2 + M \rightarrow N + NO^+ + M$ becomes important and below 40 km is most likely the dominant loss process for O^+ , based on the four-fold increase in the apparent bimolecular rate of the three-body reaction over the same two-body reaction [14]. There may be a three-body charge transfer process $O^+ + O_2 + M \rightarrow O + O_2^+ + M$ which would continue to transfer the O^+ charge to O_2 , but it has not been observed due to the fast rate for the two-body $O^+ + O_2$ charge exchange reaction. The potential $O^+ + O_2 + M$ reaction rate is probably the same order of magnitude as the measured $O^+ + N_2 + M$ rate (F. C. Fehsenfeld, private communication), so that the ion-atom interchange to form odd nitrogen is still the most likely loss process for O^+ . Therefore, the odd nitrogen per ion pair ratio may well rise to 1.32 in the stratosphere.

The one other reaction which may produce odd nitrogen is $O_2^+ + N_2 \rightarrow NO^+ + NO$. The reaction rate is below measurement threshold and has been set at $< 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ [15]. For the purpose of this study, a value of 10^{-16} has been chosen. At this rate the $O_2^+ + N_2$ reaction is a negligible loss of O_2^+ in the stratosphere, but may become of some importance in the upper mesosphere under quiet to moderately disturbed conditions. Normally the major losses of O_2^+ in the mesosphere are recombination with electrons, charge transfer with NO, and processes leading to hydration. In the upper mesosphere the lifetime of O_2^+ is long enough that a fraction of the O_2^+ may undergo the ion-atom interchange with N_2 . This fraction decreases with increasing ionization levels so that in the mesosphere the odd nitrogen production ratio will exceed 1.22, but will fall back toward this figure as the level of ionization increases.

In summary, the lower bound for the odd nitrogen per ion pair ratio is 1.22, but may be somewhat higher in the upper mesosphere due to the unmeasured $O_2^+ + N_2$ reaction. In the stratosphere the ratio may increase to 1.32, which can reasonably serve as an upper limit throughout the entire middle atmosphere.

The eventual formation of odd hydrogen from the initial ionization occurrence follows a less direct and correspondingly somewhat slower route than that of odd nitrogen. The primary ion-neutral and ion-recombination reactions which lead to the production of odd hydrogen and the subsequent neutral reactions which destroy odd oxygen are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2. SELECTED REACTIONS AND THEIR RATE
CONSTANTS LEADING TO ODD HYDROGEN

a.	$O_2^+ + O_2 + M \rightarrow O_4^+ + M$	3.9 (-30) $(300/T)^{3.2^*}$
b.	$O_4^+ + H_2O \rightarrow O_2^+ \cdot H_2O + O_2$	1.5 (-9)
c.	$O_2^+ \cdot H_2O + H_2O \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot OH + O_2$	1.0 (-9)
d.	$O_2^+ \cdot H_2O + H_2O \rightarrow H_3O^+ + OH + O_2$	2.0 (-10)
e.	$H_3O^+ \cdot OH + H_2O \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot H_2O + OH$	1.4 (-9)
f.	$H_3O^+ + N_2 + M \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot N_2 + M$	1.4 (-30) $(300/T)^{4.0}$
g.	$H_3O^+ \cdot N_2 + H_2O \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot H_2O + N_2$	1.0 (-9)
h.	$H_3O^+ \cdot OH(\text{or } N_2) + e \rightarrow H + OH(\text{or } N_2) + H_2O$	2.0 (-6) $(300/T)^{0.2}$
i.	$H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_n + e \rightarrow H + (n+1) \cdot H_2O$	1.3 - 7.4 (-6) $(300/T)^{0.2}$
j.	$H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_n^- + X^- \rightarrow \text{products}$	6.0 (-8)
k.	$H_3O^+ \cdot H_2O + H_2O + M \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_2 + M$	2.3 (-27) $(300/T)^{4.0}$
l.	$NO^+ \cdot (H_2O)_3 + H_2O \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_2 + HNO_2$	7.0 (-11)
m.	$H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_n + H_2O + M \rightarrow H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_{n+1} + M$	2.4 - 0.9 (-27) $(300/T)^{4.0}$
n.	$O + OH \rightarrow H + O_2$	4.2 (-11)
o.	$H + O_3 \rightarrow OH + O_2$	1.2 (-10) $\exp(-562/T)$
p.	$H + O_2 + M \rightarrow HO_2 + M$	2.1 (-32) $\exp(+290/T)$
q.	$HO_2 + O \rightarrow OH + O_2$	3.0 (-11)

*Read as $3.9 \times 10^{-30}(300/T)^{3.2}$; units in cm^3s^{-1} for two-body reactions,
 cm^6s^{-1} for three-body reactions.

Figures 3a and 3b illustrate the flow of ion reactions which produce odd hydrogen and the flow of neutral reactions which consume odd oxygen. Only the major paths have been shown; and although many ion reactions have appreciable reverse rates [16], only the forward directions are illustrated. However, the alternate paths and reverse rates have been included in the detailed calculations. The values for the production rates at noon (local time) for the SPE and quiet day cases at 80 km are given in Table 3. In each case these values represent maxima in ion-pair production and are the net values in the direction indicated.

RESULTS

Table 3 shows that a solar proton event results in a tremendous flow of charge through the positive ion chain, with the main channel being the two-step hydration of O_2^+ to $H_3O^+ \cdot OH$, subsequent hydrations to $H_3O^+ \cdot H_2O$, and then ion-electron recombination. Reaction paths 18 and 19 in Fig. 3b, which sum the effects of all hydration and recombination reactions producing odd hydrogen, show that the SPE induced production of H and OH can exceed the normal sunlight production through dissociation of H_2O by more than a factor of 20.

Figure 4 shows the altitude profiles of the SPE induced H and OH production rates as well as the normal sources due to the dissociation of water by sunlight and $O(^1D)$. Also shown are the electron and summed hydronium ion densities. The hydration and recombination of the SPE induced ionization are obviously the dominant sources throughout most of the mesosphere. These sources of H and OH are controlled by the rather sharp $H_3O^+ \cdot (H_2O)_n$ ledge at 82 km, by the decreasing effect of electron-ion recombination due to decreasing electron density, and finally by the increasing importance of ion-ion recombination, which potentially serves as an additional source of OH, as one nears the stratopause.

The effect of the increased production of odd hydrogen on the odd oxygen densities can best be illustrated by plotting the ratio of the disturbed day SPE densities to the quiet day densities as is done in Fig. 5. The relative effect is greatest near 80 km, which correlates with the maximum in odd hydrogen production shown in Fig. 4. Normally the greatest loss process for atomic oxygen is its recombination with O_2 to form ozone. The greatly increased production of odd hydrogen causes a large drop in atomic oxygen density due to the reactions $O + OH$ and $O + HO_2$ becoming the larger loss processes above 65 km. The reduced atomic oxygen results in a lowered ozone density because of the decrease in the recombination of O with O_2 . Loss of ozone through odd hydrogen reactions is secondary to photodestruction processes. Therefore the relative changes in the ozone profile are closely coupled to those in the atomic oxygen profile, as is illustrated in Fig. 5. Likewise, the speed of the reaction $H + O_2 + M$ in converting H to HO_2 is sufficient to insure that

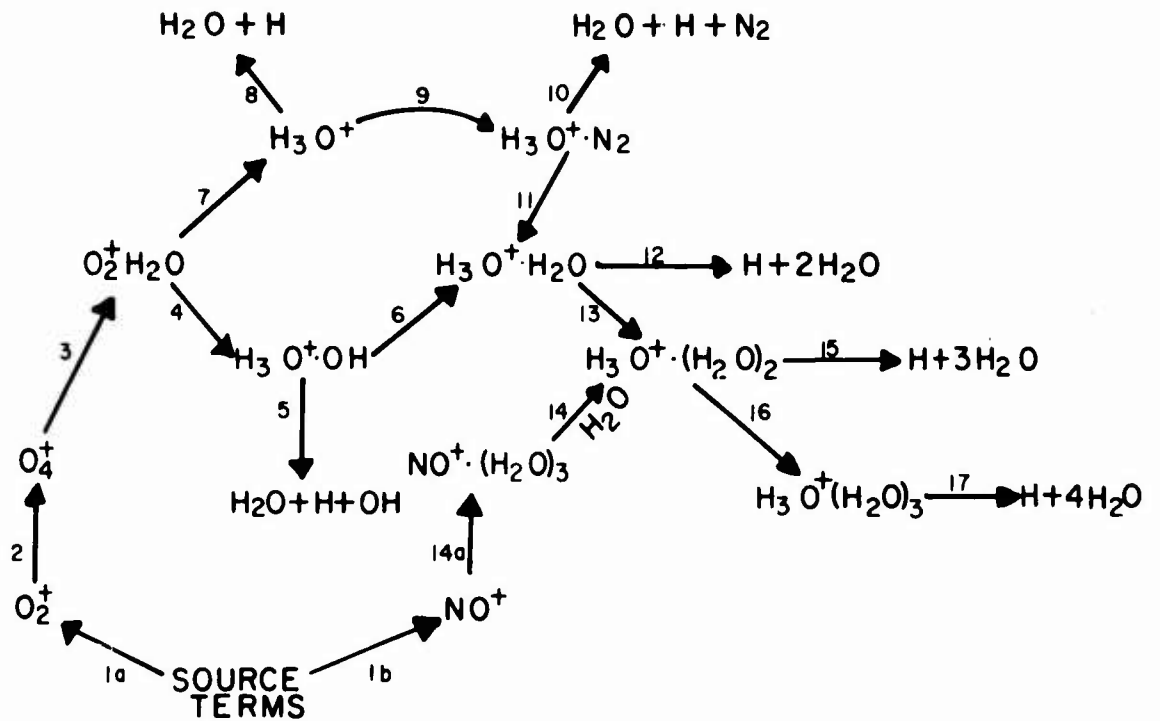


Figure 3a. The reaction paths in the positive ion chain. Odd hydrogen is produced at steps 4 to 8, 10, 12, 15, and 17. The production rates at 80 km, local noon, are given in Table 3 for each of the steps.

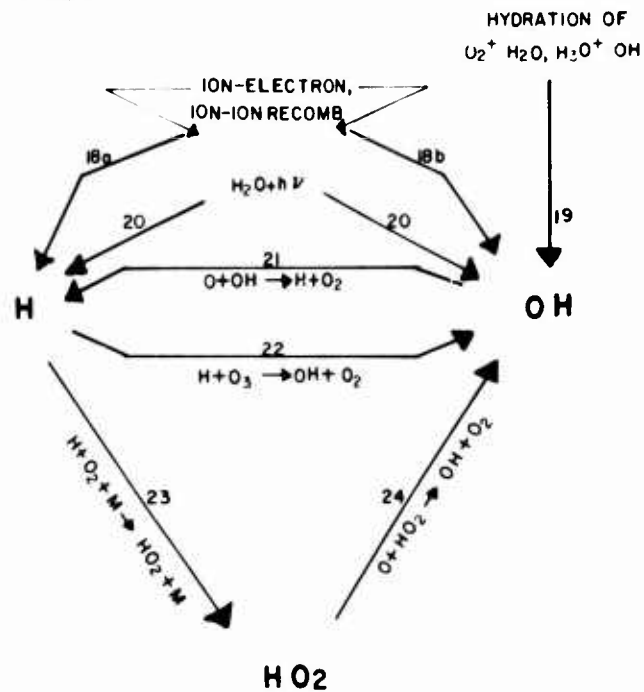


Figure 3b. The reaction paths in the positive ion, neutral chain. Nascent odd hydrogen is introduced at steps 18 to 20. The production rates at 80 km, local noon, are given in Table 3 for each of the steps.

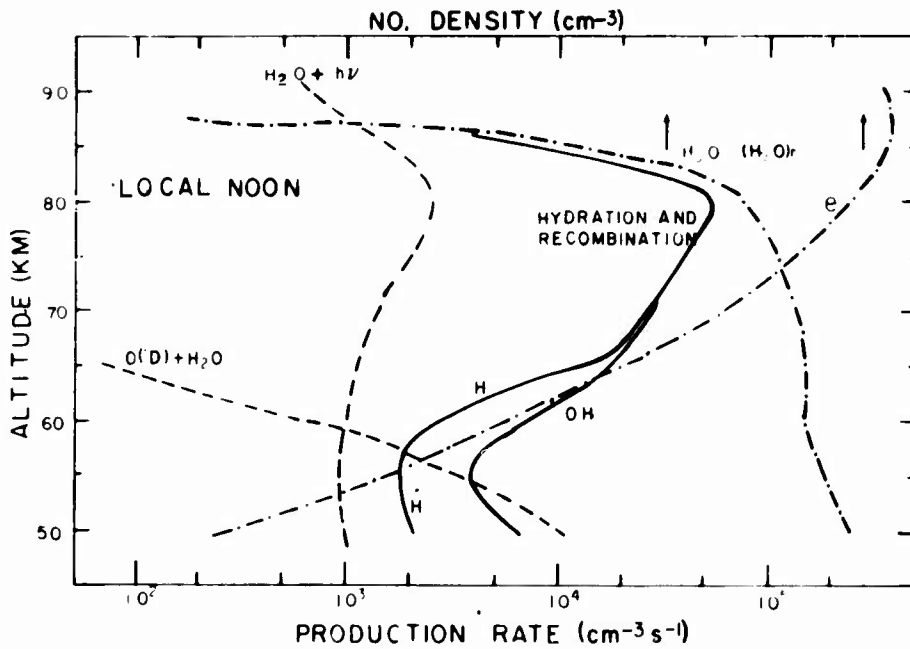


Figure 4. The electron and total hydronium ion densities (dotted lines) at local noon during the August 1972 SPE. Also shown are the H and OH production rates due to photodissociation of water, hydration, and recombination of ions, and action of $O(^1D)$ on water.

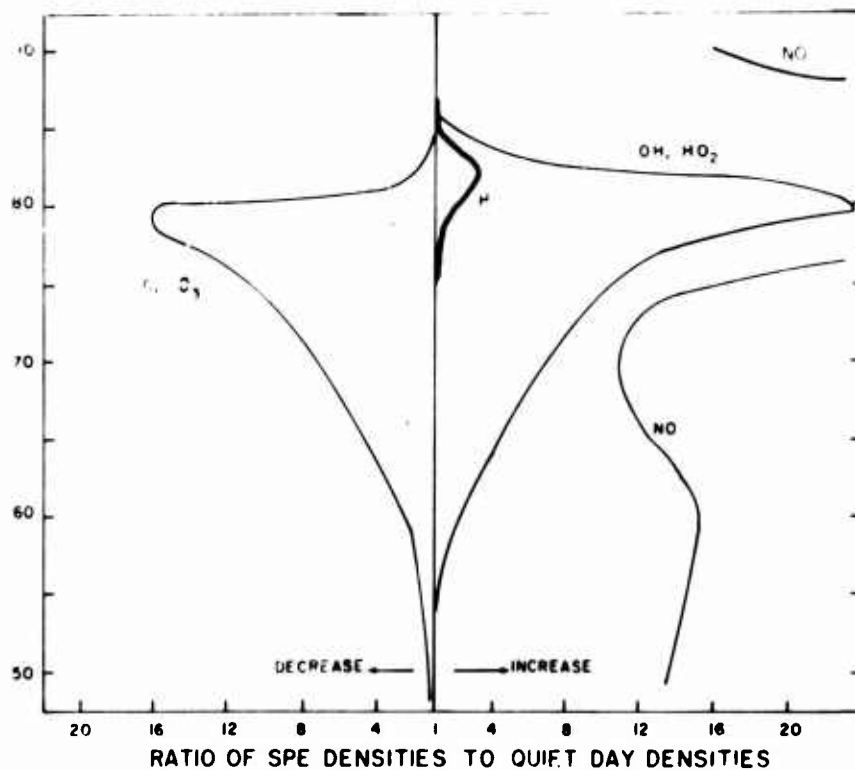


Figure 5. The ratio of the SPE disturbed day densities of O, H, OH, and NO to those for the corresponding quiet day. The ratios for the O_3 and HO_2 densities are very similar to the O and OH ratios, respectively.

TABLE 3. PRODUCTION RATE VALUES

Path (Figs. 3a + b)	Reaction Table 2	Production Rates at 80 km ($\text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$)	
		SPE	Quiet Day
1a	(see Fig. 1)	1.0 (5)*	1.7 (-2)
1b		1.9 (4)	9.1 (-1)
2	a	8.6 (4)	1.7 (-2)
3	b	6.5 (4)	1.7 (-2)
4	c	4.7 (4)	1.3 (-2)
5	h	6.9 (3)	<1. (-4)
6	e	4.0 (4)	1.3 (-2)
7	d	9.4 (3)	2.6 (-3)
8	i	1.0 (3)	<1. (-4)
9	f	8.4 (3)	3.5 (-1)**
10	h	1.3 (3)	<1. (-4)
11	g	7.1 (3)	3.5 (-1)
12	i,j	4.5 (4)	1.2 (-2)
13	k	1.7 (3)	3.5 (-1)
14a	(see Reid, 1977)	3.2 (1)	5.3 (-1)
14b	l	5.3 (0)	5.2 (-1)
15	i,j	1.7 (3)	5.1 (-2)
16	m	3.6 (1)	8.2 (-1)
17	i,j	3.6 (1)	8.2 (-1)
18a	i,j	5.6 (4)	8.9 (-1)
18b	i,j	6.9 (3)	<1. (-4)
19	c,d	4.9 (4)	1.6 (-2)
20	(see Fig. 4)	2.5 (3)	2.7 (3)
21	n	1.2 (6)	6.9 (5)
22	o	1.2 (4)	7.6 (4)
23	p	1.2 (6)	6.1 (5)
24	q	1.1 (6)	6.1 (5)

*Read as $1.0 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$

**The increase in this production rate is due to another source of H_3O^+ via the reaction $\text{NO}^+ \cdot (\text{H}_2\text{O})_2 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{HNO}_2$ to which a tentative cross section of $\sim 3 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2$ has been assigned.

most of the odd hydrogen created below 80 km resides as HO_2 and OH, while the similar rates of reaction: 21 and 24 insure that relative changes in the HO_2 and OH profiles are closely coupled. Only above 78 km does the three-body conversion of H to HO_2 begin to slow sufficiently to allow a buildup in the H concentration, but even this increase is limited by the rapid decrease in the SPE sources of odd hydrogen above 82 km shown in Fig. 4.

The number of H atoms and OH molecules produced per ion pair is a useful quantity and one which is readily derivable when the detailed chemistry is considered. The upper limit is nominally two odd hydrogens per ion pair, one OH being produced during the hydration of O_2^+ and an H atom being liberated during subsequent recombination of $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$. In practice the recombination and charge-exchange of the precursor ions yield a value less than two. Figure 6 shows the ratio of (H + OH) and odd nitrogen per ion pair for two values of the ion-pair production rate. For altitudes above 70 km, the higher ion-pair production rate yields a noticeably smaller ratio of (H + OH), due mainly to the more rapid rate of ion-electron recombination for precursor ions. Even below 70 km, the ratio remains slightly lower for higher production rates because of increased charge exchange with enhanced NO concentrations found under more disturbed conditions. The net result is that the odd hydrogen production ratio has an effective upper limit of about 1.8 per ion pair below 80 km with appreciably lower values possible as the ion-pair production rate increases. The relative proportion of OH to H increases below 60 km, as can be seen in Fig. 4, due to recombination of $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$ with the more prevalent negative ions CO_3^- and NO_3^- , which is felt to yield an OH radical rather than separate H and O atoms.

DETAILED VARIATIONS IN TIME

The detailed time history of the odd oxygen and odd hydrogen species during the 4-5 August SPE maximum can best be understood if the normal quiet day variations are first examined. The time history of the densities at 80 km for the 24-hour period under study are shown in Fig. 7. The atomic oxygen density, under solar control to a great degree, is rapidly decreasing because of the growing attenuation of the solar flux shorter than 250 nm. By 17:00 local time, the loss processes $\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$ and $\text{O} + \text{OH}$, shown as reaction paths 23 and 24 in the odd hydrogen catalytic cycle in Fig. 3b, have become the dominant losses for atomic oxygen, exceeding even the $\text{O} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M}$ recombination mechanism. The ozone profile closely follows the atomic oxygen profile (they are essentially in photochemical equilibrium) until the solar flux < 310 nm is absorbed at a solar zenith angle > 91 degrees. At this point the ozone density briefly, but rapidly, increases at the expense of atomic oxygen until the still declining atomic oxygen density can no longer support such

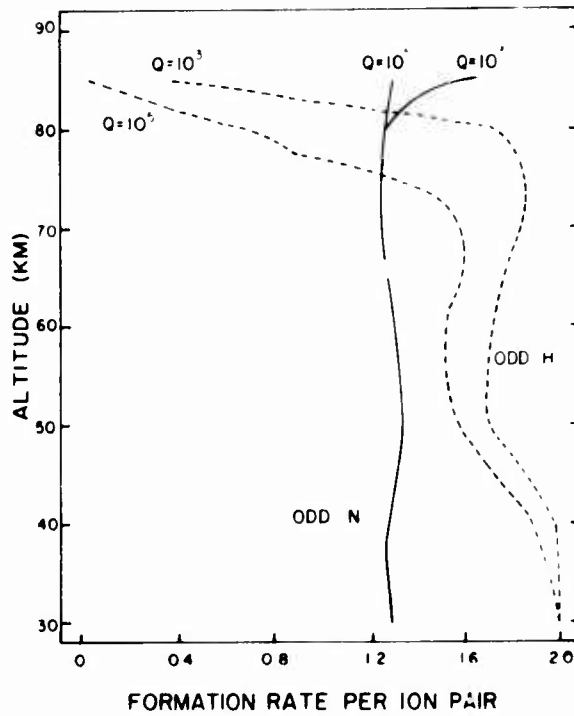


Figure 6. The ratio of (H + OH) and odd nitrogen production per ion pair for high and low values of the ion-pair production rate Q.

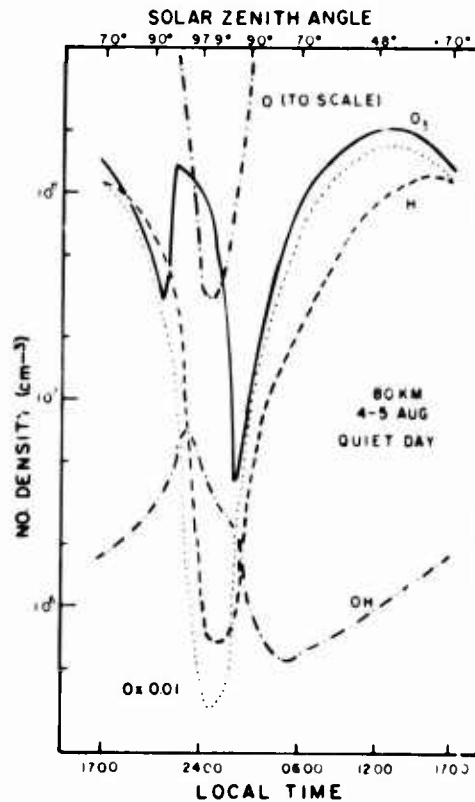


Figure 7. The O, O₃, OH, and H density time-profiles at 80 km for the simulated quiet day densities during 4-5 August. Note that the O density profile is shown twice, once to scale and again multiplied by a factor of 0.01.

growth. This fluctuation in ozone is accentuated by the "slow" sunset due to the high latitude, summer conditions. (At 80 km the sun does not dip below the horizon at this time of year, although the solar UV flux is absent for approximately 3 hours about local midnight.) Ozone is dissociated by visible light at all times, which accounts for its decay during the midnight period.

The initial source of atomic hydrogen is the photodissociation of water vapor, though the total density is essentially controlled by the $O + OH \rightarrow H + O_2$ reaction in the odd hydrogen cycle. Consequently, the atomic hydrogen density profile closely follows that of atomic oxygen. The afternoon decrease in atomic oxygen also causes an increase in the OH concentration because the same $O + OH$ reaction is the dominant loss process for OH. The abundance of H relative to OH (and HO_2) insures that there is sufficient flow along the $H + O_2 + M$ and $HO_2 + M$ paths to keep the OH density increasing until it is larger than the rapidly declining H density. The sharpness of the peak in the OH density is due to the twilight increase in O_3 and the increased relative importance of the $H + O_3 \rightarrow OH + O_2$ reaction.

The continuing decrease in atomic oxygen carries through until shortly after midnight because of the dominance of the odd hydrogen losses. The first increase in atomic oxygen comes from the continuing visible photodissociation of ozone followed by a much steeper increase about an hour later due to the returning dissociation of O_2 . The ozone density does not begin to increase until the atomic oxygen density has built up enough to reestablish photochemical equilibrium. Throughout the late afternoon until past midnight, the total odd hydrogen is decreasing because the reactions among the species of odd hydrogen themselves, forming mainly H_2O , are proceeding faster than the photodissociation of water vapor. Shortly past midnight, the increasing atomic oxygen density begins to build up the H density, principally at the expense of OH (and HO_2), through reaction path 21, $O + OH \rightarrow H + O_2$. Subsequent increase of the atomic hydrogen density and the eventual growth of the OH density beginning in the early morning are now due to the increasing photodissociation of water vapor into H and OH. The large amounts of atomic oxygen present during the day insure that most of the "new" H and OH produced are eventually stored as H.

In summary, for the quiet-day situation, atomic oxygen exhibits a large degree of solar control and is the dominant minor neutral species. Ozone is entirely controlled by atomic oxygen and direct solar influence. OH and HO_2 serve as the major loss processes for atomic oxygen in the late afternoon through midnight period, with decreasing O concentrations leading to increasing OH and HO_2 concentrations in a positive feedback mechanism. The H density serves essentially as a reservoir of odd hydro-

gen and closely follows the O density time profile, thus limiting the positive feedback between O and OH.

The disturbed time density profiles follow a pattern similar to the quiet-day profiles and it is more instructive to examine the ratio of disturbed-day densities to quiet-day densities for the 4-5 August period as shown in Fig. 8. The relative rise in OH (with most of the odd hydrogen being stored in the atomic hydrogen reservoir) causes a decline in the O density and, consequently, the O₃ density. Falling odd oxygen densities and secondarily a declining ion-pair production rate then cause the H reservoir to begin to empty and a corresponding rapid rise in the relative OH density. Rapidly declining H densities cause the ratio of the OH densities to begin decreasing about an hour later. The net effect is that the enhanced odd hydrogen production causes initial drop in odd oxygen with the result that the relative amount of atomic hydrogen during the nighttime period is lower; i.e., the daytime reservoir of atomic hydrogen is more completely drained. During the midnight period, the relative ratio of atomic oxygen actually increases because the particle induced dissociation of O₂ exceeds the solar photon induced dissociation [17]; this effect is enhanced by the increasing ion-pair production rate during this late night period. The relative concentrations of H and in turn OH and HO₂ begin to rapidly increase again. The increase in odd hydrogen gradually halts the relative increase in odd oxygen; the growing depletion of atomic oxygen causes the relative rate of increase in odd hydrogen to decline (note, however, that the total amount of odd hydrogen is increasing).

The sudden peak in the ion-pair production rate at local noon serves as perhaps the clearest example of what enhanced ionization can do. The response time of the H density (i.e., that time it would take to replace the H density from the SPE generated odd hydrogen) is ~ 2000 s, that of OH ~ 400 s, at this peak period. Lifetimes against being transformed by reaction paths 21 and 23 (Fig. 3b) are about 20 s for OH and 140 s for H. The response of the odd hydrogen densities to the changing SPE source is therefore limited by the H response time, and most of the odd hydrogen is initially stored as H. The lifetime of O against destruction by OH and HO₂ is ~ 500 s during these disturbed conditions (as opposed to ~ 13,000 s for a quiet day noon); therefore, the O density begins to decrease as rapidly as the OH and HO₂ densities increase - at essentially the H atom density response time. During the peak of the ion pair production, the lifetime of odd hydrogen species (principally H) against recombination to even hydrogen species (principally H₂O) is ~ 4000 s, much longer than the drop-off time associated with this particular ionization peak. The increase in odd oxygen is governed by the solar photon dissociation of O₂ which has a time constant of ~ 400 s near noon for these reduced odd oxygen densities. The main loss of odd oxygen is to the odd hydrogen, and odd hydrogen decays with the above stated lifetime of ~ 400 s.

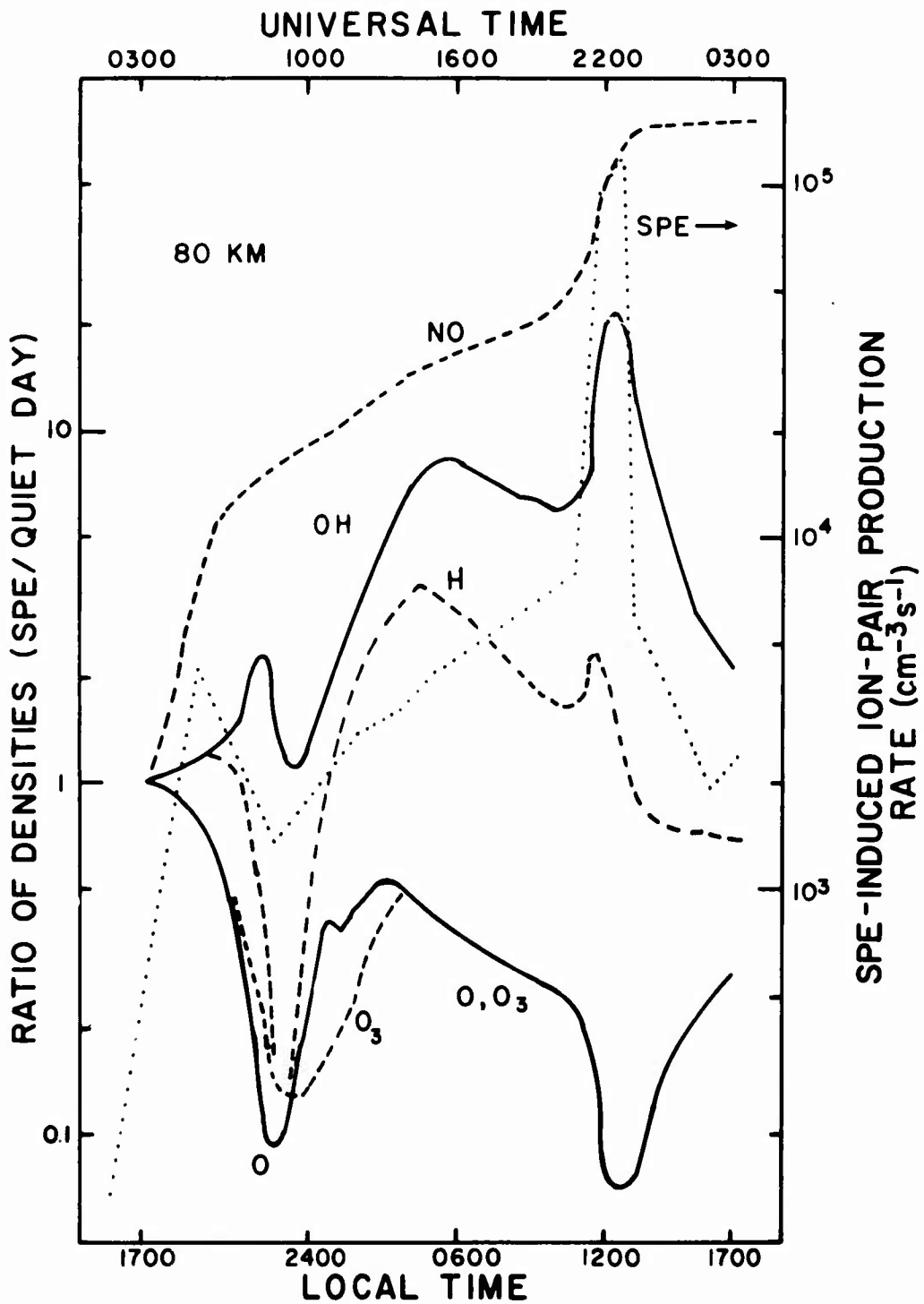


Figure 8. The ratio of the disturbed day (SPE) densities to the quiet day densities for the 4-5 August 1972 time period. Also shown is the SPE induced ion-pair production rate for the same 24-hour period.

To summarize, the density of odd hydrogen species can respond to changes in the ion-pair production rate on time scales of less than an hour near 80 km. In the upper mesosphere the odd hydrogen produced is mainly stored as H. In the lower mesosphere OH and HO₂ gradually becomes the reservoir for odd hydrogen. The decay time for odd hydrogen is somewhat more than an hour near 80 km. The odd oxygen is principally under solar control for its production, but its major loss processes during disturbed conditions are with odd hydrogen, and therefore changes in odd oxygen densities generally follow the time scales of the odd hydrogen. In sunrise/sunset situations, the rapidly changing solar influence may dominate particle precipitation effects or, as is more likely, make it difficult to clearly separate the two effects.

CONCLUSIONS

The greatly enhanced number densities of ionized species during a solar proton event affect the concentrations of several of the important minor neutral species in the mesosphere. The change is brought about through the enhanced production of odd hydrogen and odd nitrogen in the positive ion chain. A practical upper limit for (H + OH) production per ion pair below 80 km is 1.8. This ratio rapidly decreases above 80 km, more so for increased ionization rates. The odd nitrogen production ratio varies within the narrower limits of 1.2 to 1.3. Within the mesosphere, the production of odd hydrogen drives the changes in the minor neutral constituent chemistry.

The increased ionization during the peak 24-hour period of the August 1972 SPE is capable of increasing the OH concentration and decreasing the O and O₃ concentrations up to a factor of 20 near 80 km, with smaller changes apparent throughout the mesosphere.

The time constants associated with the creation of odd nitrogen, and the resultant increase in the NO concentration, are rapid enough (< 1 s) to be considered simultaneous with the ionization event. However, the removal of NO in the mesosphere is very slow so that enhanced NO concentrations persist for days, finally to be altered by large-scale transport phenomena. The time constants associated with increases in odd hydrogen, and consequently with decreases in odd oxygen, are $\approx 2 \times 10^3$ s, while removal times of odd hydrogen in the mesosphere are $\approx 4 \times 10^3$ s. Thus the response of the oxygen-hydrogen chemistries and densities to an ionizing event is on the time scale of a few hours, while the return to photochemical equilibrium is on the time scale of several hours to a few days.

It is important to be able to determine the immediate products and effects of enhanced ionization in the atmosphere so that they may be used as lumped parameters in large-scale NWE simulation codes. Solar proton events produce ionization effects which are analogous to late-time effects of nuclear bursts. Successful modeling of such naturally occurring events serves to validate the sections of NWE codes which deal with post-burst effects in the middle atmosphere.

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