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EFFECTS OF IMPULSIVE HEATING EVENTS ON F-REGION CHEMISTRY AND ELECTRON DENSITY

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John D. Kelly SRI International 333 Ravenswood Avenue Menlo Park, California 94025

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20. ABSTRACT (Continued)

the dominant F-region ion from atomic to molecular species. As a result, a significant depletion of the F-region electron density occurs. Currently, these effects are not accurately predicted by the nuclear codes, as the function of the codes is to predict the large-scale perturbations. The Chatanika radar data can be used to improve the ambient ionospheric models and to improve the predictions of F-region changes resulting from sudden heating events.

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I INTRODUCTION

There has been substantial effort to model, and subsequently predict, the ionospheric effects of nuclear explosions at high altitudes. The effects which will have serious impact on both satellite and groundbased communications include sudden enhancement of electron density, and sudden heating of both neutral and charged species resulting in atmospheric heave.

Large electric fields of magnetospheric origin have substantial influence on the state of the ionosphere. These electric fields, through the process of joule heating, produce dramatic increases in the ion and neutral temperatures. In some instances the heating is sudden, and results in an upwelling or heave of the neutral atmosphere. This results in a change in ion chemistry, so that a depletion of electron density occurs.

Impulsive heating events have been observed by the Chatanika incoherent scatter radar (Chatanika, Alaska). Increases in ion temperatures of a few thousand degrees kelvin occur. Whether the heat source is a distant nuclear explosion or a large joule heating event, the resulting ionospheric modification should be similar. However, we find that the nuclear effects code, WEPH VI for example, does not predict similar effects. In fact, given sufficient time following a nuclear "event" the code never returns all of the parameters to ambient values.

The intent of the code is to predict only large scale perturbations. As a result, the less dramatic, but still significant, effects of heating the ionosphere outside of the fireball are generally ignored. These effects, though, affect a large volume of ionosphere changing the ion chemistry, and thus result in sufficient ionosphere depletion to limit HF propagation.

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As the Chatanika radar can continuously measure ionospheric parameters before, during, and after impulsive joule heating events, the data should be very useful to improve the predictions made by nuclear effects codes.

II BACKGROUND

The high-latitude thermosphere, in contrast with the midlatitude thermosphere, is strongly coupled to the magnetosphere. As a result, large amounts of energy and momentum are transferred from the magnetosphere to the ionosphere. These energy inputs have a significant effect on the morphology, thermodynamics, and chemistry of the high-latitude ionosphere. In some cases, the magnitude of the energy deposition is similar to that of a distant nuclear explosion, i.e., the temperature enhancements are similar to those expected from nuclear sources. Energetic auroral particles are responsible for both heating effects and the production of ionization. Electric fields are responsible for joule heating. The relationship between the auroral processes and their manifestation in the high-latitude ionosphere is outlined in Figure 1.



FIGURE 1 AURORAL BLOCK DIAGRAM (adapted from Rees, 1975)

A. Particle Precipitation and Electron Temperature

On the left side of the auroral diagram we indicate the heating process due to auroral electrons. A flux of energetic electrons bombards the upper atmosphere, the depth of penetration depending on the electron energy. Most of the energy is deposited between 100- and 120-km altitude. The energetic primary electrons transfer energy through the ionization of the ambient neutral constituents (N_2 , O_2 , and O). The collision reactions are:

N ₂ + e → 2	$N_2^+ + 2e$	(1)
N ₂ + e → 1	$N^+ + N + 2c$	(2)
0 ₂ + e → → 0	$0^+_2 + 2e$	(3)
0 ₂ + e → 0	$0^{+} + 0 + 2e$	(4)
0 + c	$0^{+} + 2c$	(5)

In the above ionizing reactions some of the energy from primary electrons goes into the production of excited states of N^+ , 0^+ , N, and O. Enhanced vibrational and rotational levels of N_2^+ , O_2^- , and O_2^+ are also produced. The secondary electrons have energies of tens of electron volts. Much of this energy is lost in inelastic collisions with neutrals and finally the remaining energy is shared with the ambient electrons producing a temperature enhancement.

B. Joule Heating and Ion Temperature

Referring again to Figure 1, the right side indicates the process of heating by electric fields perpendicular to the magnetic field. Magnetospheric $\vec{-E}$ fields are mapped down along magnetic field lines and are consequently applied to the ionosphere. The field produces $\vec{E} \times \vec{B}$ drift of both ions and electrons As the ions drift through the neutral atmosphere they collide with neutrals and frictional heating (or joule heating) results.

The ion temperature can exceed both the neutral and electron temperatures at ionospheric heights. Temperature enhancements of 2000 K (3 times ambient) have been observed as the result of heating by a 60-mV orthogonal $\vec{-E}$ field.

C. Ionospheric Heating From Nuclear Effects

The radiation from high altitude nuclear explosions will have similar effects on the upper atmosphere as auroral particle precipitation. The UV radiation from the debris kinetic energy and X-ray from prompt and delayed radiation are the primary sources. The prompt and delayed radiation is less important at F-region altitudes. Figure 2 indicates the ionization process and the resultant heating.



FIGURE 2 IONOSPHERE HEATING FROM NUCLEAR EFFECTS

D. Auroral Zone Ion Composition

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In addition to the ionization reactions, the principal auroral ionosphere reactions are as follows:

$$N_2^+ + 0 \longrightarrow NO^+ + N \tag{6}$$

$$N_2^+ + O_2^- \longrightarrow O_2^+ + N_2^-$$
 (7)

$$N^{+} + 0_{2} \longrightarrow N0^{+} + 0$$
 (8)

$$N^{+} + O_{2} \longrightarrow O_{2}^{+} + N$$
 (9)

$$0_2^+ + N_2 \longrightarrow N0^+ + N0$$
 (10)

$$O_2^+ + N \longrightarrow NO^+ + O$$
 (11)

$$O_2^+ + NO \longrightarrow NO^+ + O_2$$
 (12)

$$0^+ + N_2 \longrightarrow N0^+ + N \tag{13}$$

$$0^{+} + 0_{2} \longrightarrow 0_{2}^{+} + 0$$
 (14)

$$N_2^+ + e \longrightarrow N + N$$
 (15)

$$0'_2 + c \longrightarrow 0 + 0$$
 (16)

$$NO^{+} + e \longrightarrow N + 0 \tag{17}$$

There are also reactions involving excited states-- $0^+(^2D, ^2P)$, $0_2^+(a^4)$ which produce N_2^+ by

$$O^{+} (^{2}D) + N_{2} \longrightarrow N_{2}^{+} + 0$$
 (18)
 $O^{+} (^{2}P) + N_{2} \longrightarrow N_{2}^{+} + 0$ (19)

$$D_2^+$$
 (a⁴) + N₂ --- N₂⁺ + O₂. (20)

There are, of course, other reactions, but those listed above are the principal ones.

We have investigated the effects of large \vec{E} fields on the concentrations of NO⁺ and O⁺ at high latitudes. The measurements indicate that during periods of large \vec{E} fields the dominant F-region ion becomes NO⁺ instead of O⁺. As a result of this change in ion composition, the F-region ionization rapidly decays because of recombination of the molecular ions.

The following processes contribute to increasing the NO^+ abundance; these are:

- enhanced [N_]
- enhanced ion temperatures
- enhanced N₂ vibrational temperatures.

Enhanced $[N_2]$ arises because, during periods of large joule heating, it is expected that the neutral atmosphere should be heated by ion-neutral collisions. Hays, et al., [1973], have shown that a heated volume element of neutral particles will rise with a vertical velocity which increases with altitude. This expansion will cause an upwelling of N₂ molecules, thereby increasing the number density of N₂ at higher altitudes. In the nuclear case, this phenomena is called "heave." The number density of NO⁺ will be enhanced because more N₂ is available to either react with O⁺ to form NO⁺ (Eq. 13), or be ionized to form N⁺₂ (Eq. 1), which in turn reacts with O to form NO⁺ (Eq. 6).

The second contributing factor to the enhancement of NO^+ ions is the dependence of certain reaction rate coefficients on ion temperature. The rate coefficient (K_1) for the reaction $O^+ + N_2 \rightarrow NO^+ + N$ from Banks et al., [1974], is

$$K_{1} = \begin{cases} 1.2 \times 10^{-12} \left(\frac{300 \text{ K}}{\text{T}_{\text{eff}}}\right) \text{ cm}^{3}/\text{s} & \text{T}_{\text{eff}} < 750 \\ \\ \\ 8.0 \times 10^{-14} \left(\frac{\text{T}_{\text{eff}}}{300 \text{ K}}\right)^{2} \text{ cm}^{3}/\text{s} & \text{T}_{\text{eff}} > 750 \end{cases}$$

where $T_{eff} = T_n + 0.329 \vec{E'_{\perp}}^2$, and $\vec{E'_{\perp}}$ is the orthogonal \vec{E} -field measured in the neutral-wind frame. This is a simplified form assuming $v_i/\Omega_i <<1$ and B = 0.5 gauss (Polar region). As an example, for an \vec{E} field of 50 mV/m, and $T_n = 900$ K, T_{eff} will be increased by a factor of 1.9, as compared to T_{eff} for no \vec{E} field. This in turn increases K_1 by a factor of 3.7. The result should be an enhancement in the number of NO⁺ ions. The ions are lost through dissociative recombination. The recombinationrate coefficient decreases with increasing electron temperature [Walls and Dunn, 1974]; consequently, the net result is an increase in the number density of molecular ions.

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The third point relative to the production of NO^+ concerns the reaction $O^+ + N_2^* \rightarrow NO^+ + N$, where N_2^* is vibrationally excited N_2 . The reaction rates for this reaction are enhanced as compared to $O^+ + N_2$ [Banks et al., 1974]. In the auroral oval, N_2 becomes vibrationally excited through the process

e (energetic electrons) +
$$N_2 \rightarrow N_2^*$$
 + e (21)

$$N + NO \rightarrow N_2^* + 0$$
 (22)

$$0 ({}^{1}D) + N_{2} \rightarrow N_{2}^{*} + 0 ({}^{3}P).$$
 (23)

All of these processes--i.e., (1) enhanced number density of N_2 , (2) enhanced reaction rate coefficients due to elevated T_i , and (3) enhanced reaction coefficients due to vibrational excitation of N_2 , act jointly to increase the NO^+ abundance in the F region. The first and second processes are mainly a result of joule heating, and the third process results from electron precipitation.

The nominal lifetime of molecular ions in the presence of moderate electron densities (10^5 el/cm^3) is only a few seconds, whereas the 0^+ lifetime is minutes. Consequently, changing the dominant F-region ion to $N0^+$ results in a depletion of electron density. During the event examined in the study, the critical frequency decreased to about 2.7 MHz from 4.7 MHz.

III MEASURED AURORAL ZONE IONOSPHERIC RESPONSE

The geomagnetic coordinates of the Chatanika incoherent-scatter radar are given in Table 1, and its parameters are given in Table 2.

Table 1

GEOMAGNETIC COORDINATES OF THE CHATANIKA INCOHERENT-SCATTER RADAR

Geographic Coordinates			eomagnetic linates	Magnetic Field		
Latitude Longitude		Latitude Longitude		Dip Angle	Declination	
65.103 [°] N 147.451 [°] W		64.75 ⁰ N	105.0 ⁰ W	76.5 ⁰	29.0 ⁰	

Table 2

PARAMETERS OF THE CHATANIKA INCOHERENT-SCATTER RADAR

Operating frequency	1290 MHz
Transmitted peak power	3 to 4 MW
Pulsewidths	$60~{\rm Hs},~160~{\rm Hs},~320~{\rm Hs}$
Effective antenna aperture	180 m ²
Antenna on-axis gain	47.1 dB
Antenna 1/ 2- powe r-full- width beamwidth	0.60
Transmit polarization	Right circular
Receive polarization	Left circular
System noise temperature	110 K
A/D converter sample spacing	10 , ; s
On-line computer system	XDS 930

The geometrical relationship between Chatanika and the auroral oval for moderate geomagnetic activity is shown in Figure 3. The oval is usually far north of Chatanika at local noon and is often overhead near midnight. The circle (arbitrarily located at 1500 UT) indicates the E-region coverage typical for these experiments.

The Chatanika radar measures the following ionospheric parameters:

- (1) Electron density (N_{e})
- (backscatter power)
- (2) Ion velocity (V_i)
- (doppler shift)

(spectral shape)

(3) Temperature ratio (T_e/T_i) (4) Ion temperature

From these measurements other parameters, such as the electric field, currents, and conductivities, are derived.



FIGURE 3 CHATANIKA LOCATION (65°N) AND FELDSTEIN'S 1967 AURORAL OVAL. (Source: Feldstein and Starkov, 1967.)

A. Radar Measurements

A representative joule heating event of interest occurred on 13 August 1976. The radar was operated continuously for the entire day. The operating mode was an azimuth scan at a fixed elevation angle of 76.5° (the magnetic dip angle). The time for one antenna scan was about 6 minutes, and the data were integrated over two antenna scans giving 12-minute averages of all the parameters.

The ambient electron density profile is shown in Figure 4. This profile was measured about 45 minutes prior to a large joule heating event. It can be seen that an auroral E-region of about 3×10^5 el/cm³ and a moderate F region (2×10^5 el/cm³) existed.

The electric field was computed for the 24-hour period and it shows the characteristic pattern of auroral zone electric fields. In the evening prior to local midnight, the field is directed to the north. Near midnight the field reverses and is directed south during the early morning. The north-south field is plotted in Figure 5. The field becomes quite large at 1400 UT--nearly 60 mV/m. The resulting joule heating is plotted in Figure 6. At 1400 UT the energy input is about 30 ergs/cm^2 -s, which is substantial. This is one of the largest joule heating events analyzed in detail and, as will be seen, its effects are considerable.

The electron and ion temperatures at 277 km altitude are shown in Figure 7. At the start of the run, 0000 UT, the ion temperature is fairly constant with a value of 900 K. There is little change in the ion temperature until about 1000 UT, when the joule input begins. There is an obvious enhancement in ion temperature at 1400 UT--the peak of the joule input. The temperature remains elevated even after the joule heat source terminates at 1500 UT, being about 150 K higher than the earlier temperatures. The temperature gradually decreases and it returns to initial conditions by 2300 UT.

The electron temperature shows the effect of the changing Solar-Zenith-Angle (SZA). Initially the temperature is about 2200 K and it gradually decreases with increasing SZA (from 0430 to 0800 UT).





FIGURE 5 AVERAGE ELECTRIC FIELD FOR 13 AUGUST 1975. The Large E_x field (~55 mV/m) at 1400 UT produced substantial joule heating.

The ratio of the number densities of 0^+ ions to the total number of ions, $[0^+]/N_e^-$, is used to describe the ion composition vs. altitude. Figure 8 shows contours of $[0^+]/N_e^-$ as a function of time for the 13 August event. The transition altitude, the altitude where half the ions are atomic $([0^+]/N_e^- = 0.5)$, is seen to be near 190 km at the beginning of the observation. However, at 1400 UT, the peak of the heating event, this altitude increases by 50 km--molecular ions dominate below 240 km.



FIGURE 6 HEIGHT-INTEGRATED JOULE HEATING FOR 13 AUGUST 1975

An important consequence of this alteration of ion composition is an immediate decrease of electron density. Molecular ions, 0^+_2 and $N0^+$, recombine much more rapidly than atomic ions and the result is a decay of the lower F region.

Electron density profiles, measured before, during, and after the joule heating event are shown in Figure 9. The F-region depletion can easily be seen. The critical frequency prior to the depletion was about 4.1 MHz. During the heating, the critical frequency dropped to 2.7 MHz and 30 minutes later, it is 3.5 MHz.

To aid in the interpretation of these measurements, we performed a numerical analysis in which we varied parameters such as electron density, production rate, and joule heating rate. The resulting effects on the ion composition agree with the observed data, and are described below.





B. Numerical Modeling of Transition Altitude Variation

The initial conditions include quiet day and night parameters in order to establish background composition profiles. The change in ion composition can be examined with the aid of an expression derived using the following simplified system of reactions and continuity equations:



FIGURE 8 ION COMPOSITION CONTOURS FOR 13 AUGUST 1975. At a fixed altitude the ratio of O^{+} to total ionization decreased markedly during the joule heating event and increased slowly thereafter. The transition altitude computed during the event is a lower bound with a 5 km uncertainty.

 $0^{+} + 0_{2} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{1}} 0_{2}^{+} + 0 \qquad \gamma_{1} = 2 \times 10^{-11} \left(\frac{300}{T_{i}}\right)^{1/2}$ $0_{2}^{+} + e \xrightarrow{\alpha_{1}} 0 + 0 \qquad \alpha_{1} = 2.2 \times 10^{-7} \left(\frac{300}{T_{e}}\right)$ $0^{+} + N_{2} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{2}} N0^{+} + N \qquad \gamma_{2} = 1 \times 10^{-12} \left(\frac{300}{T_{i}}\right)$ $N0^{+} + e \xrightarrow{\alpha_{2}} N + 0 \qquad \alpha_{2} = 4.1 \times 10^{-7} \left(\frac{298}{T_{e}}\right)$ $N_{2}^{+} + 0 \xrightarrow{\gamma_{3}} N0^{+} + N \qquad \gamma_{3} = 1.4 \times 10^{-10}$ $N_{2}^{+} + e \xrightarrow{\alpha_{3}} N + N \qquad \alpha_{3} = 2.9 \times 10^{-7} \left(\frac{300}{T_{e}}\right)^{1/3}$

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$$\frac{\partial [0^{+}]}{\partial t} = q(0^{+}) - \gamma_{1}[0_{2}][0^{+}] - \gamma_{2}[N_{2}][0^{+}] = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial [N0^{+}]}{\partial t} = \gamma_{2}[N_{2}][0^{+}] + \gamma_{3}[N_{2}^{+}][0] - \alpha_{2}[N0^{+}]N_{e} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial [0^{+}_{2}]}{\partial t} = q(0^{+}_{2}) + \gamma_{1}[0_{2}][0^{+}] - \alpha_{1}[0^{+}_{2}]N_{e} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial [N_{2}^{+}]}{\partial t} = q(N_{2}^{+}) - \gamma_{3}[N_{2}^{+}][0] - \alpha_{3}[N_{2}^{+}]N_{e} = 0$$

where q(x) is the production rate of species x. If steady state is assumed, the number densities of the various ions are expressed as:

$$[No^{+}] = \frac{\gamma_{2}[N_{2}][o^{+}]}{\alpha_{2}N_{e}} + \frac{\gamma_{3}[N^{+}][o]}{\alpha_{3}N_{e}}$$
$$[o^{+}_{2}] = \frac{q(o^{+}_{2}) + \gamma_{1}[o_{2}][o^{+}]}{\alpha_{3}N_{e}}$$
$$[N^{+}_{2}] = \frac{q(N^{+}_{2})}{\gamma_{3}[o] + \alpha_{e}N_{e}} .$$

Substitution of the above into the expression for charge neutrality,

$$N_{O} = [O^{+}] + [NO^{+}] + [O^{+}]$$

and solving for $[0^+]/N_c^{-}$, gives

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$$\frac{[0^{+}]}{N_{e}} = \frac{1}{\frac{\gamma_{1}[0_{2}] + \gamma_{2}[N_{e}]}{q(0^{+})} \left[\frac{\gamma_{3}[N_{2}^{+}][0]}{\alpha_{2}N_{e}} + \frac{q(0_{2}^{+})}{\alpha_{1}N_{e}}\right] + \frac{\gamma_{2}[N_{2}]}{\alpha_{2}N_{e}} + \frac{\gamma_{1}[0_{2}]}{\alpha_{1}N_{e}} + 1}$$

where

$$q(0^+) = \frac{0.56[0]\eta}{1.15[N_2] + 1.5[0_2] + 0.56[0]}$$

$$q(O_2^+) = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} O_2 \end{bmatrix}^n}{1.15 \begin{bmatrix} N_2 \end{bmatrix} + 1.5 \begin{bmatrix} O_2 \end{bmatrix}^n}$$

$$[N_{2}^{+}] = \frac{q(N_{e}^{+})}{\gamma_{3}[0] + \alpha_{3}N_{e}}$$

$$= \left[\frac{0.92[N_2]^{\gamma}}{1.15[N_2] + 1.5[0_2] + 0.56[0]} \right] / (\gamma_3[0] + \alpha_3 N_e)$$

and γ_1 = total ion production rate [Jones and Rees, 1973]. The effects on the transition altitude of varying the atmospheric density, electron density, production rate, and temperature can then be assessed.

1. Quiet Conditions--Diurnal Variation

The model atmosphere used in all cases was taken from Banks and Kockarts for an exospheric temperature of 1000 K, and the ionospheric parameters were obtained from Chatanika radar data. The model atmospheric and ionospheric data are given in Table 3. The calculated composition profiles are shown in Figure 10. The difference in the profiles is most pronounced above 180 km. Above that altitude, the daytime electron density is at least an order of magnitude larger than the nighttime density. The transition altitude increases by about 20 km at night.

	Alt	Ne	Τ _i	т _е	[0 ₂]	[0]	[N ₂]
	(km)	(cm ⁻³)	(K)	(K)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)
ĺ	140	7.5E4*	596	650	4.40E9	2.44E10	5.37E10
	160	1.0E5	765	1000	1.20E9	1,13E10	1.67E10
	180	1.2E5	861	1600	4.43E8	6.45E9	6.88E9
	200	1.5E5	9 16	1800	1.87E8	4.07E9	3.22E9
	220	2.0E5	948	2000	8.48E7	2,69E9	1.60E9
	240	3.0E5	967	2000	4.00E7	1,83E9	8.26E8
	2 60	2.5E5	979	2 000	1.93E7	1.26E9	4.36E8
	280	2.45E5	986	2 000	9.43E6	8.80E8	2,33E8
	300	2.0E5	99 1	2 000	4.67E6	6.20E8	1, 26E8
		1)		

Table 3

MODEL ATMOSPHERE AND IONOSPHERIC DATA FOR QUIET DAY AND NIGHT

Quiet Day

Quiet Night

Alt	Ne	т i	т _е	[0 ₂]	[0]	^{[N} 2]
(km)	(cm ⁻³)	(K)	(K)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)
140	8,6E4	596	596	4.40E9	2.44E10	5.37E10
160	7.0E4	765	765	1.20E9	1.13E10	1.67E10
180	5.6E4	861	861	4.43E8	6.45E9	6.88E9
200	5.0E4	916	916	1.87E8	4.07E9	3.22E9
220	3.4E4	948	943	8.48E7	2.69E9	1.60E9
2 40	3.0E4	965	965	4.00E7	1.83E9	8.26E8

 $*7.5E4 = 7.5 \times 10^4$.

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2. Active Conditions--Particle Precipitation

The effects of electron precipitation that are considered are enhanced N_e , electron temperature, and vibrational temperature of N_2 . The atmospheric and ionospheric parameters are given in Table 4. The first case considered uses temperature and N_e profiles from data taken on 18 February 1976. The particle energy input rate was approximately 20 ergs/cm²-s. The composition profiles shown in Figure 11 indicate that, relative to the background profile (quiet night), the transition altitude is lower by more than 20 km. In fact, the transition altitude is lower in this case than it was using daytime conditions.

The effects of enhanced vibrational temperatures of N_2 are examined using the above (active night) model. According to Schunk and Banks [1975], the vibrational temperatures during an auroral substorm can be in the range 1400 to 2200 K. These temperatures will increase the N_2 and O⁺ reaction-rate coefficient (γ_2) by 1.5 to 3.6 times the groundstate coefficient. Consequently, the composition profiles were recomputed applying those factors to γ_2 . The results are shown in Figure 12. There is a substantial increase in the transition altitude for the case when $T_{v} = 2200$ K.

Table 4

Alt	N _c	т _і	Т _с	[0 ₂]	[0]	^{[N} 2 []]
(km)	(cm ⁻³)	(к)	(к)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)
140	2.0E5	596	750	4.40E9	2.44E10	5.37E10
160	1.3E5	765	1120	1.20E9	1.13E10	1.67E10
180	1.5E5	861	1300	4.43E8	6.45E9	6.88E9
200	1.8E5	916	1800	1.87E8	4.07E9	3.22E9
220	1.9E5	948	2000	8.48E7	1.83E9	1.60E9

MODEL ATMOSPHERE AND IONOSPHERIC DATA FOR ACTIVE (AURORA) NICHT







3. Effect of Joule Heat Input

The atmospheric model and ionospheric data used to evaluate the effect of joule heat are given in Table 5. The ionospheric data-i.e., electron density, and electron/ion temperatures were taked from 13 August 1975 data. The composition profile (Figure 13) corresponding to the active data indicates that more molecular ions exist at all altitudes as compared to the quiet period. The transition altitude increased by 20 km. The active period was characterized by elevated ion temperature and decreased electron density; both factors contribute to the increase of the transition altitude.

Table 5 MODEL ATMOSPHERE AND IONOSPHERIC DATA USED TO EVALUATE THE EFFECT OF JOULE HEAT Active Day (Joule Heating)

Alt	N _c	т _і	т _е	[0 ₂]	10]	[N ₂]
(km)	(cm ⁻³)	(к)	(к)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)
160	2.0E5	830	965	1.20E9	1.13E10	1.67E10
190	1.2E5	1050	1400	2.85E8	5.08E9	4.66E9
220	1.5E5	1 200	2 000	8.48E7	2.69E9	1.60E9
276	1.0E5	1800	2 000	9.6026	9.00E8	2.50E8

Quiet Day

Alt	Ne	T _i	т _е	[0 ₂]	[0]	[N ₂]
(km)	(cm ⁻³)	(K)	(K)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)	(cm ⁻³)
160	2.0E5	765	965	1.20E9	1.13E10	1.67E10
190 220	2.3E5 3.5E5	$\frac{1100}{1600}$	1784 2000	2.85E8 8.48E7	5.08E9 2.69E9	4.66E9 1.60E9



C. Summary of Numerical Modeling

We have just shown that the ion composition at a given altitude changes as a function of the production and loss rates. Factors that contribute to the enhancement of the production rate tend to increase the relative abundance of 0^+ ions. These factors are Solar EUV radiation during the day and energetic auroral electron bombardment at night. Both the radar data and the numerical modeling indicate lower transition altitudes during these periods.

Factors that contribute to the enhancement of the loss rate tend to increase the relative abundance of molecular ions. These factors include elevated ion and neutral temperatures, and enhanced vibrational temperatures of N₂ molecules. The ion temperature and the N₂ vibrational temperature determine the rate coefficient and the neutral temperature defines the N₂ number density.

IV CONCLUSIONS

Impulsive ionospheric heating events resulting from auroral energy input have been observed by the Chatanika radar. In some cases, the time--and height--integrated auroral energy deposition is comparable to that expected from a high altitude nuclear event outside the fireball region.

In the auroral event, virtually all ionospheric parameters (electron density, ion, electron and neutral temperatures, and ion and neutral composition) are strongly affected. This would also be the case for extended regions outside a nuclear fireball. The increased temperatures and the resulting atmospheric heave contribute to a change in ion composition such that molecular ions (NO^+, O_2^+) dominate over atomic ions (O^+) . Since molecular ions recombine much more rapidly than atomic ions, the net electron density decreases. The region affected by this depletion is larger than the region affected by the fireball and debris.

The nuclear effects codes do not attempt to accurately model this region. Consequently, they do not accurately predict ionospheric effects of nuclear explosions beyond the fireball region. In fact, the ambient atmosphere and ionosphere models are not realistic compared to observed parameters.

The Chatanika radar provides relevant information concerning both the ambient and aurorally disturbed ionosphere. These results can be used to improve the nuclear effects codes so that the much larger region beyond the fireball is more realistically modeled.

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