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NEW ZEALAND

Particle Precipitation and Climate Coupling

Department of Physics

SPACE PHYSICS GROUP

University of Otago

Thanks to Annika Seppälä (British Antarctic Survey & Finnish Meteorological Institute) for helping me with material for this presentation!



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Dunedin

NEW ZEALAND

WUN Workshop
St John's, Canada
1540-1610, Saturday 23 July 2011

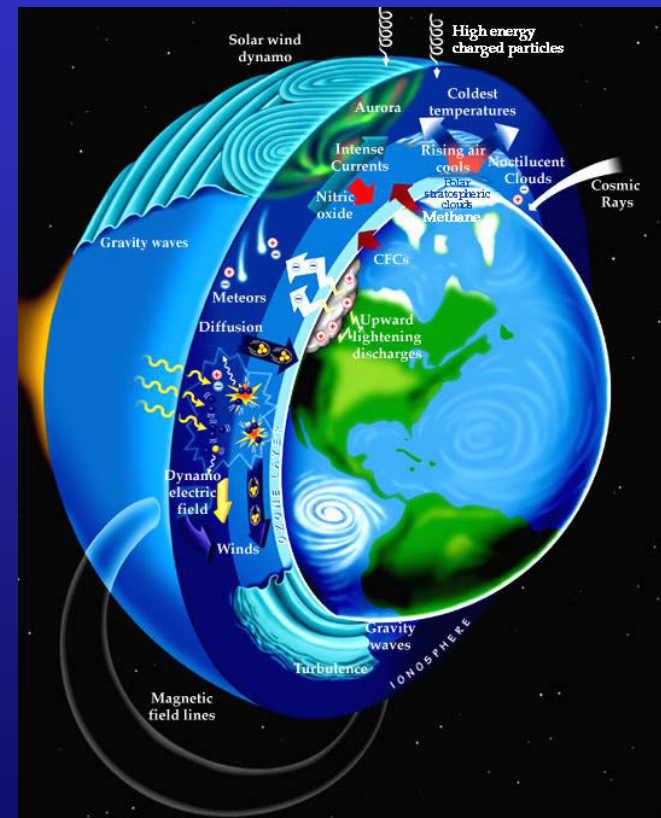


Energetic Particle Precipitation

Losses: overall response of the RB to geomagnetic storms are a "delicate and complicated balance between the effects of particle acceleration and loss" [Reeves *et al.*, GRL, 2003].

Thus while there has been a lot of focus on the acceleration of radiation belt particles, it is also necessary to understand the losses to understand the radiation belts.

Space Weather links to the atmosphere (and beyond?). In addition, particle precipitation is one way that changes at the Sun, and around the Earth, can couple into the atmosphere - and possibly into the climate.



There are multiple "**important**" questions which need to be answered to understand RB-losses & the significance of Energetic Particle Precipitation.

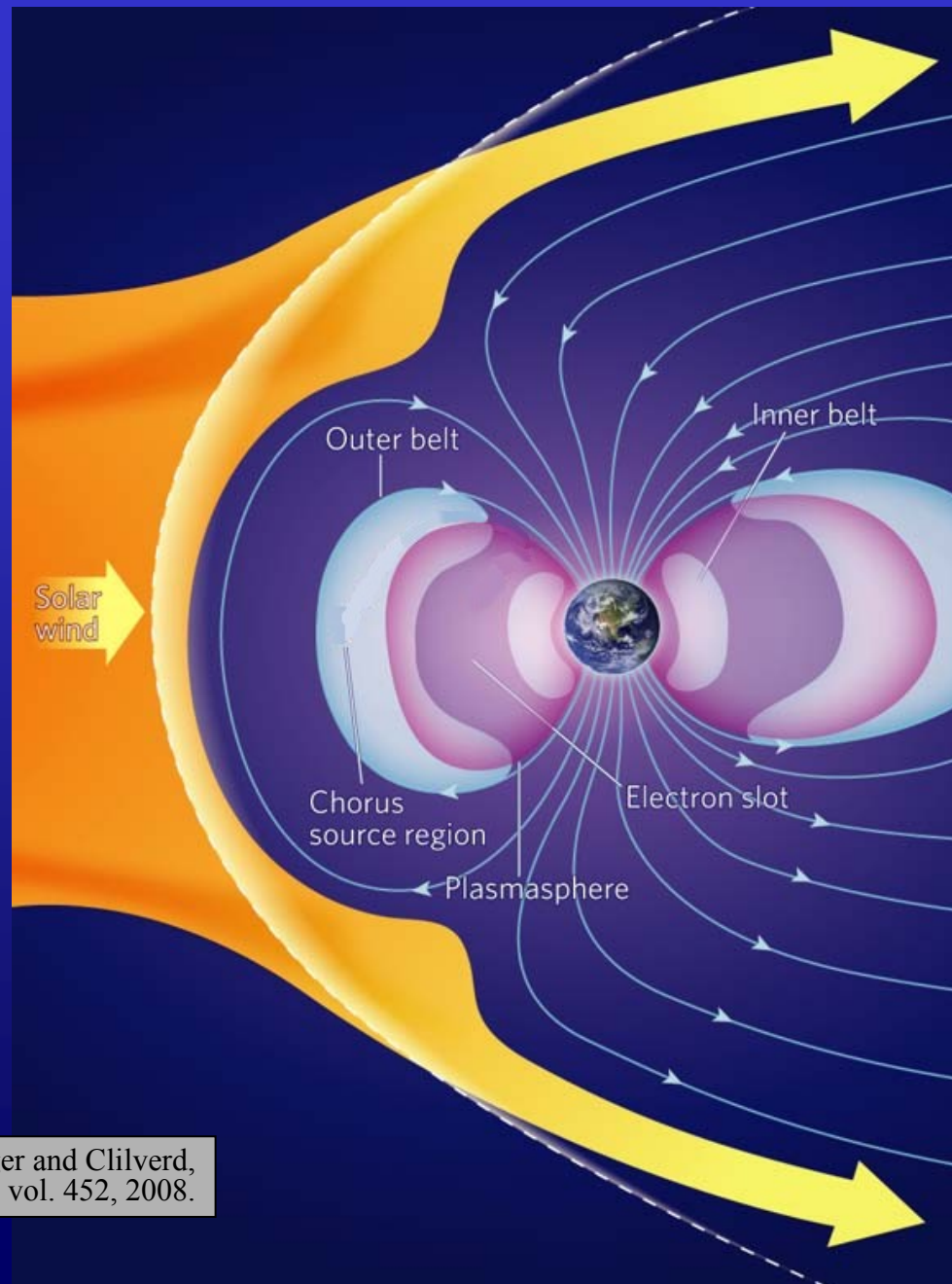
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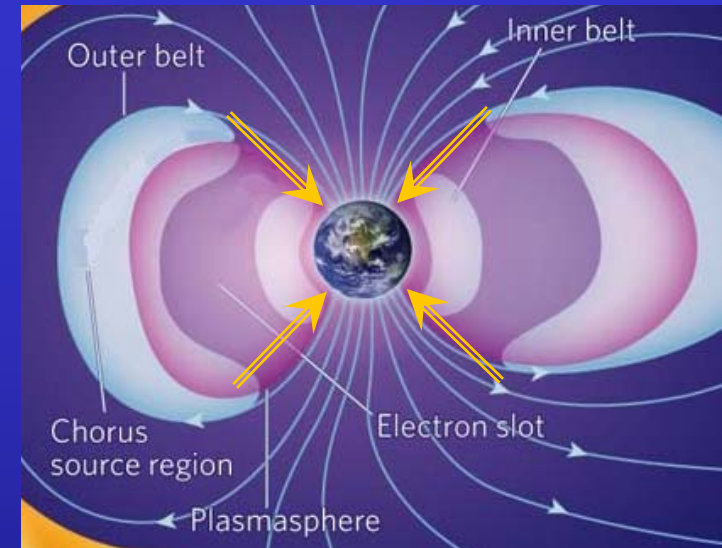
Van Allen belts - coupling to the polar atmosphere



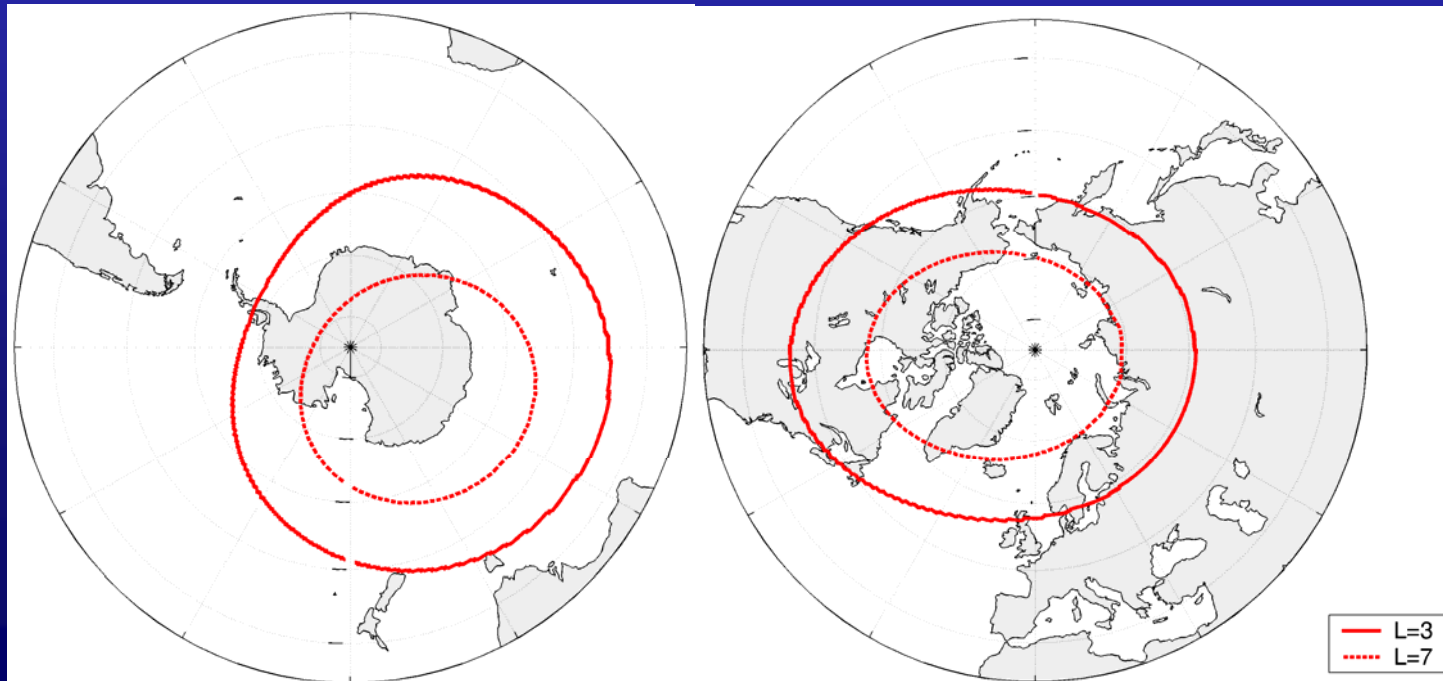
Adapted from Rodger and Clilverd,
Nature, vol. 452, 2008.

Particle access to the upper atmosphere

Losses: The outer radiation belt deposits energy into the polar atmosphere in both the Arctic and Antarctic (primarily due to wave-particle interactions with ULF & VLF waves).



Radiation Belt Precipitation



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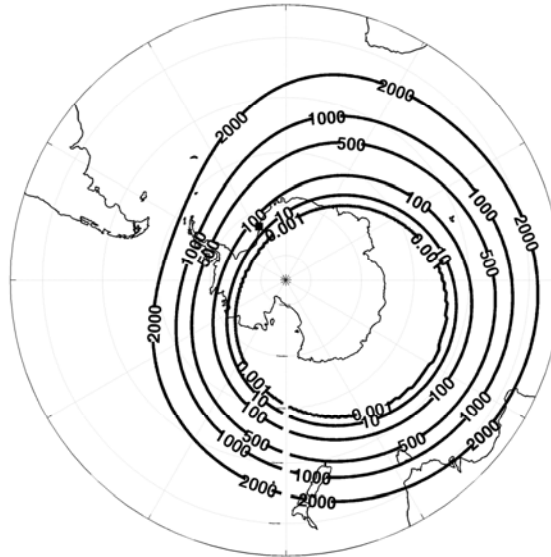


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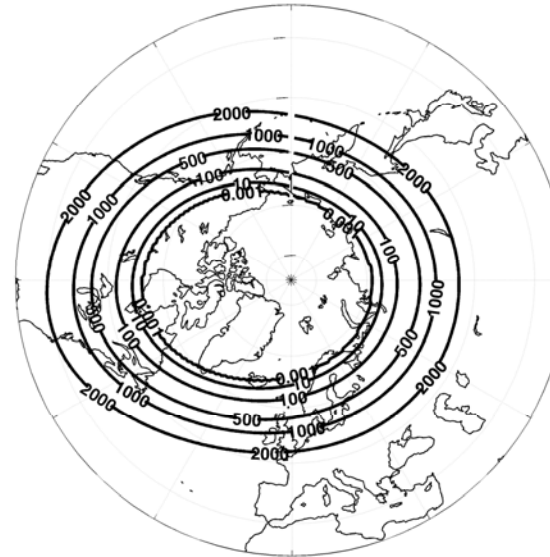
**Radiation
Belt
Precipitation**

Particle access to the upper atmosphere

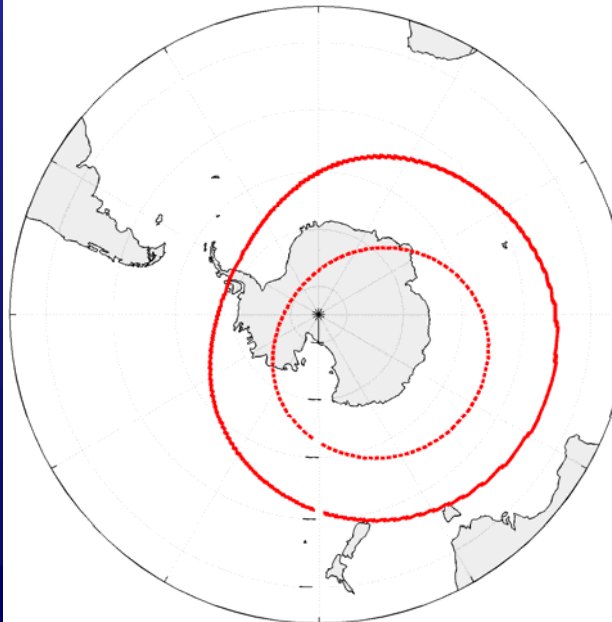
Proton Cutoff Energies at 100km altitude: Kp=4



Proton Cutoff Energies at 100km altitude: Kp=4



**Solar
Proton
Events**



— L=3
..... L=7

Particle access to the upper atmosphere

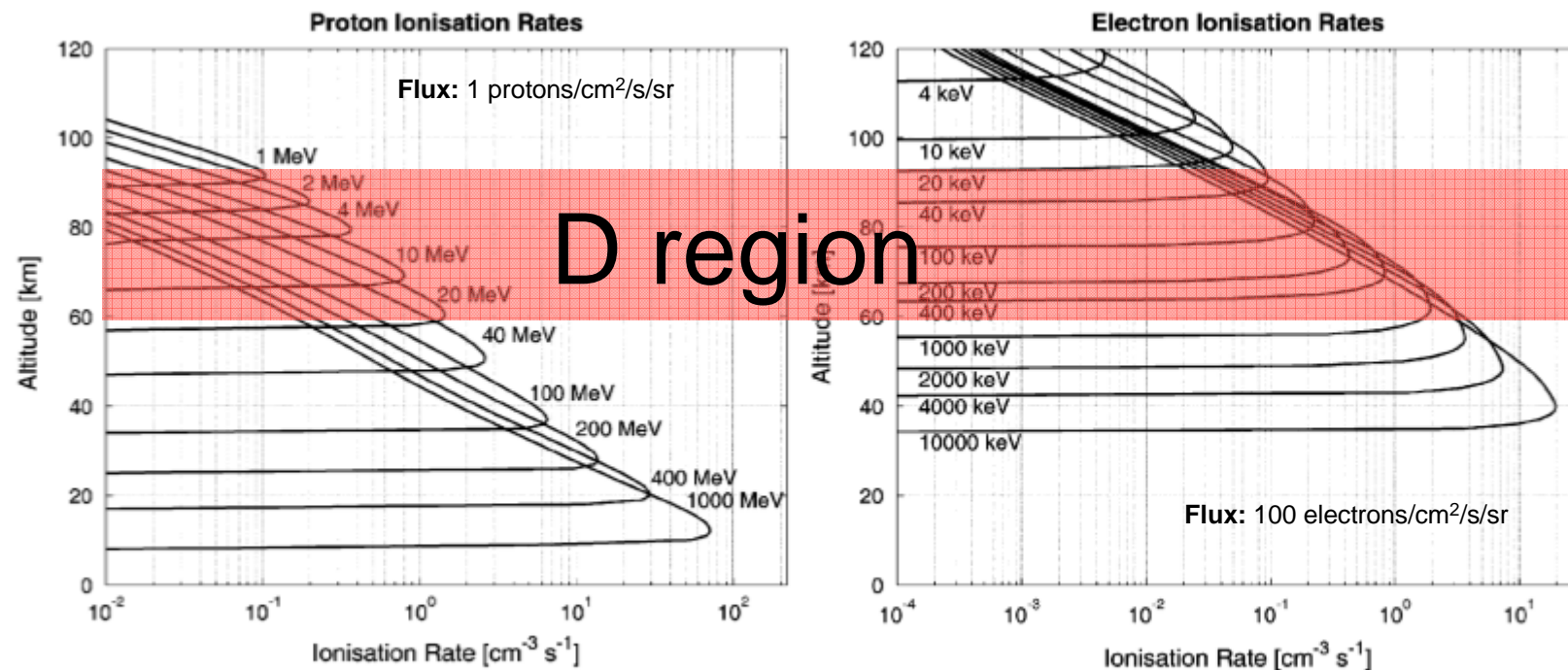
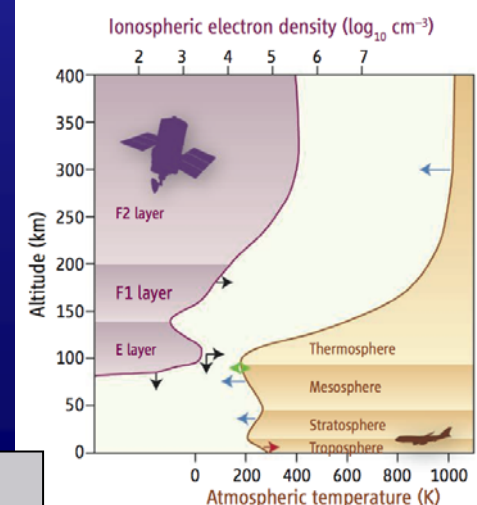


Fig. 3. Altitude versus ionisation rates for monoenergetic beams of protons 1–1000 MeV (left) and electrons 4–4000 keV (right).

Turunen et al., JASTP, 2009.

To produce 1 ion pair/ cm^3/s at **60km** altitude
 $1 \times 20\text{MeV}$ proton/ cm^2/s
 or $100 \times 1\text{MeV}$ electrons/ cm^2/s

Lastovicka et al., Science, 2006



Particle access to the upper atmosphere

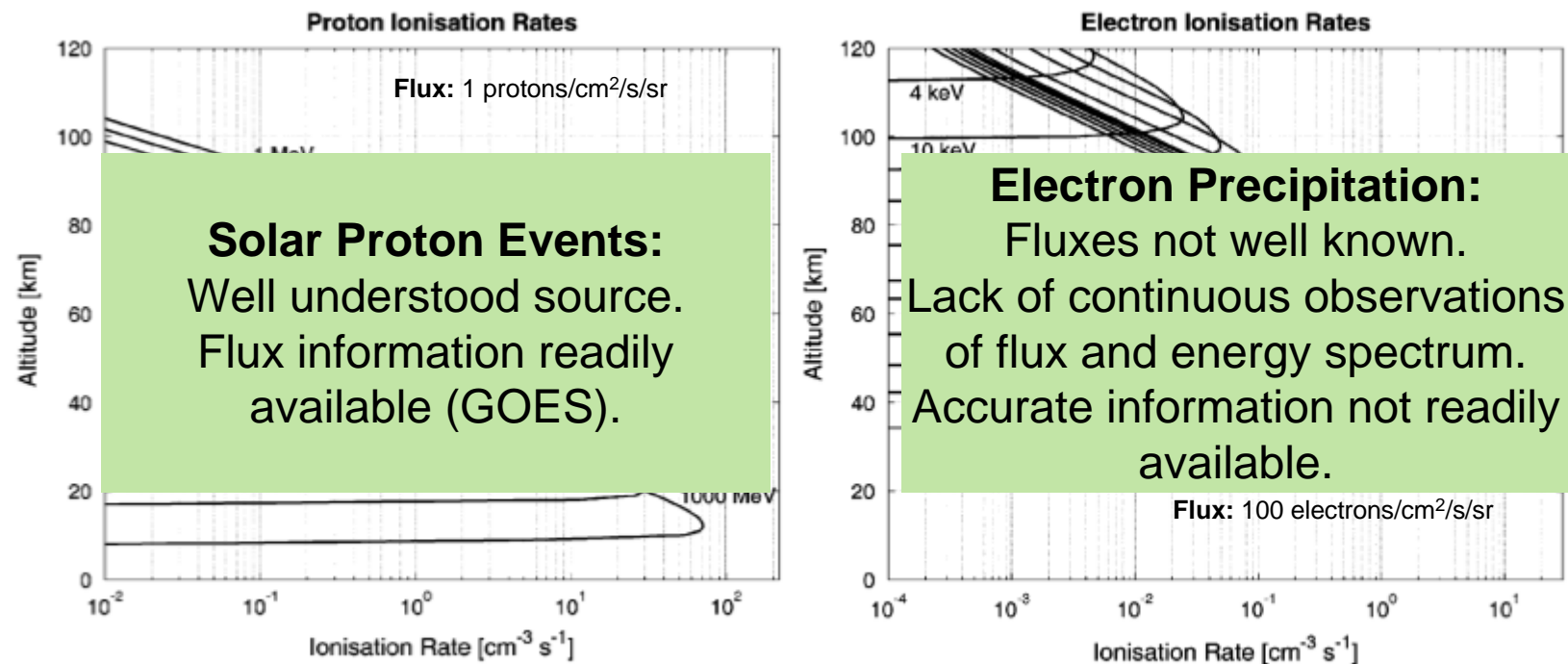


Fig. 3. Altitude versus ionisation rates for monoenergetic beams of protons 1–1000 MeV (left) and electrons 4–4000 keV (right).

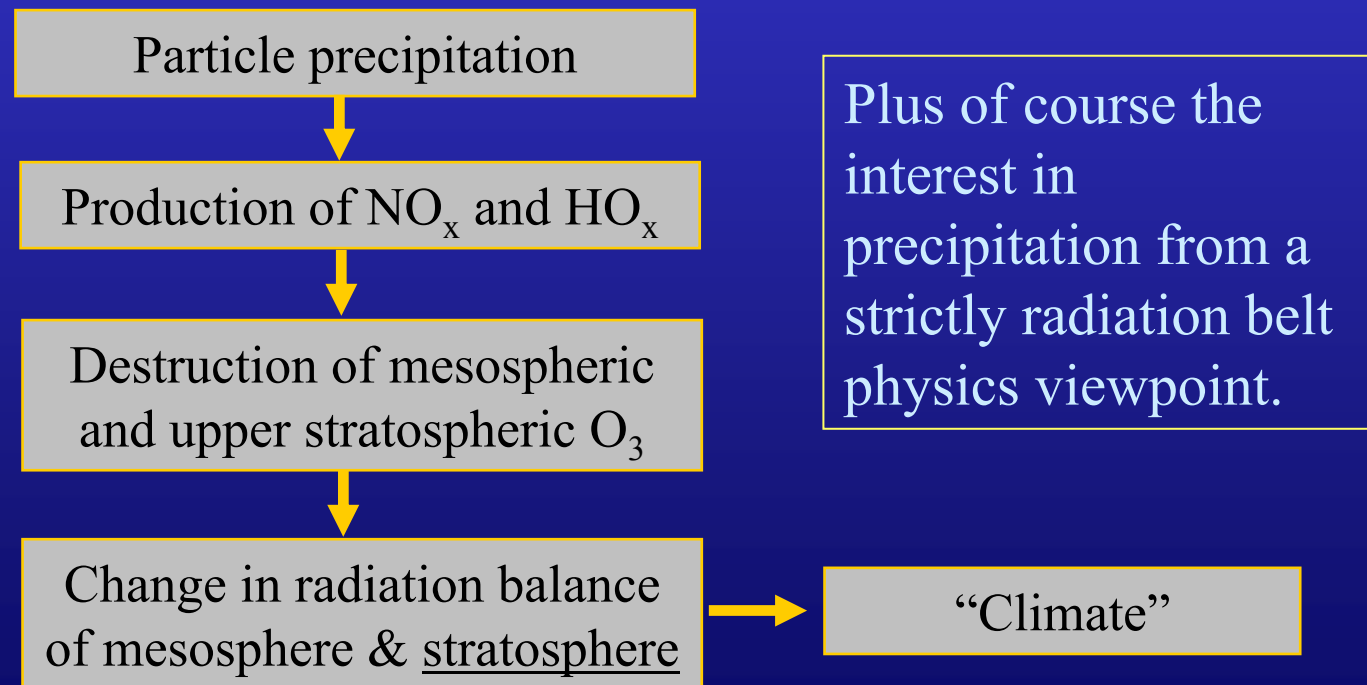
Turunen et al., JASTP, 2009.

To produce 1 ion pair/cm³/s at **60km** altitude
1 x 20MeV proton/cm²/s
or 100 x 1MeV electrons/cm²/s



The potential importance of particle precipitation

Particle precipitation is one of the routes by which the Sun can link to the climate – energetic electrons and protons can change the atmospheric chemistry. And in an environment where humanity is changing the climate, and the polar ozone levels, we need to know about the “natural” variation too!

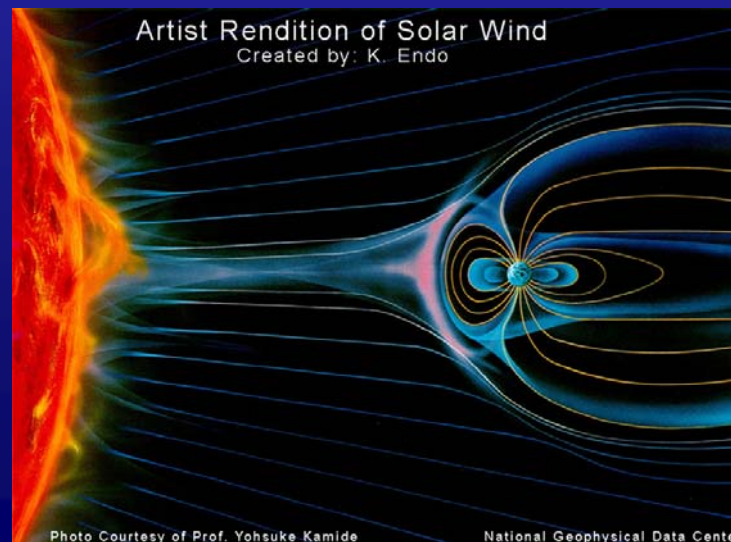
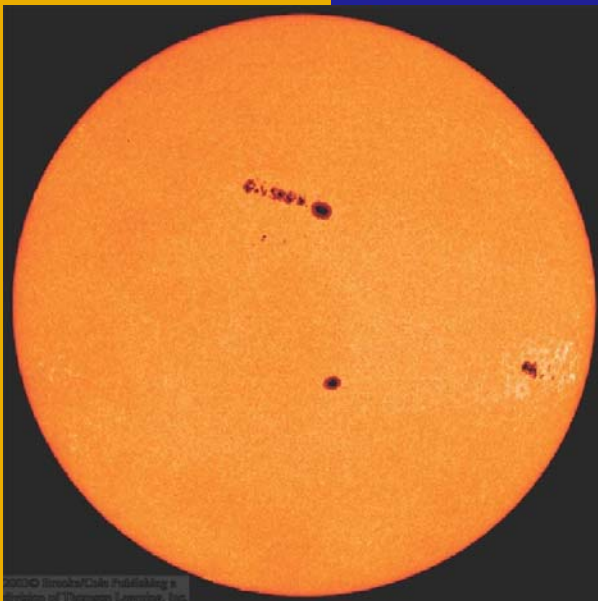


What about solar variability?

There is clear evidence for some link to the Sun, in long term climate records. One good example in the long-term climate record the Maunder minimum. There are also evidence that the 11-year sunspot cycles appears in global temperature data.

The Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change Working Group 1 (IPCC WG1) recently concluded that:

- in the 700 years prior to 1950 observed climate changes were very likely to be caused by solar irradiance changes & volcanoes.

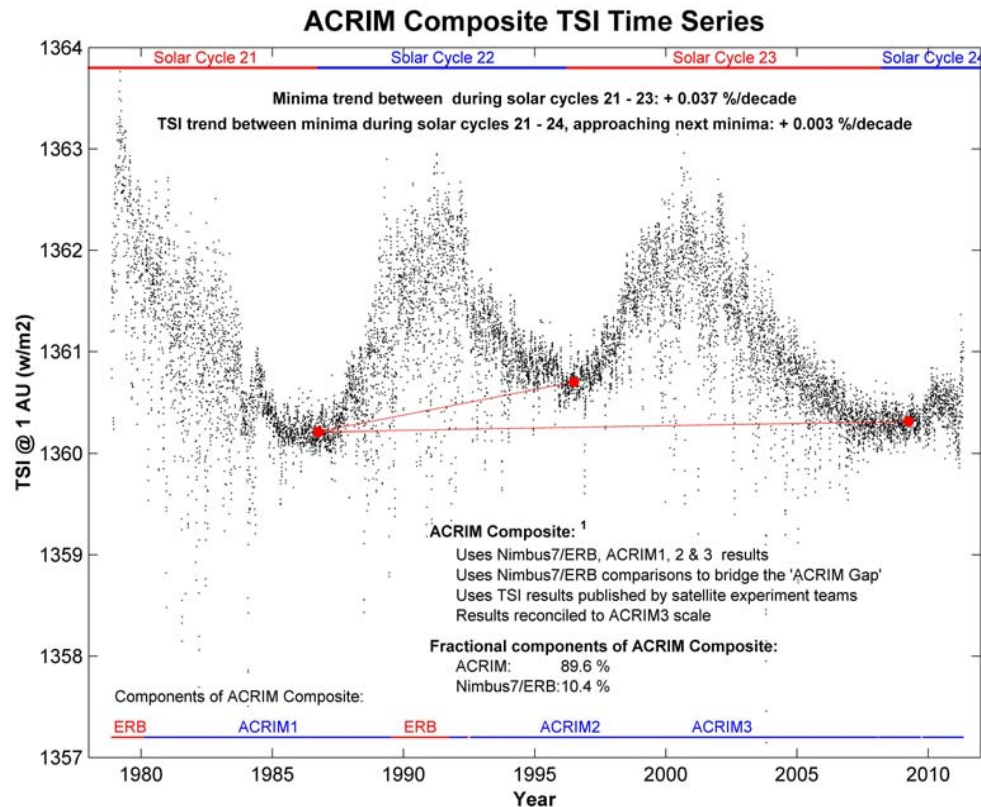


Here "**very likely**" is
>90% probability and
"**likely**" is >66%
probability.



Total Solar Irradiance

Of course **total solar irradiance** (summed over all wavelengths) hardly changes. This used to be known as the solar constant, but satellite measurements show that it varies by $\sim 0.08\%$ over the 11-year sunspot cycle (less power during solar minimum).

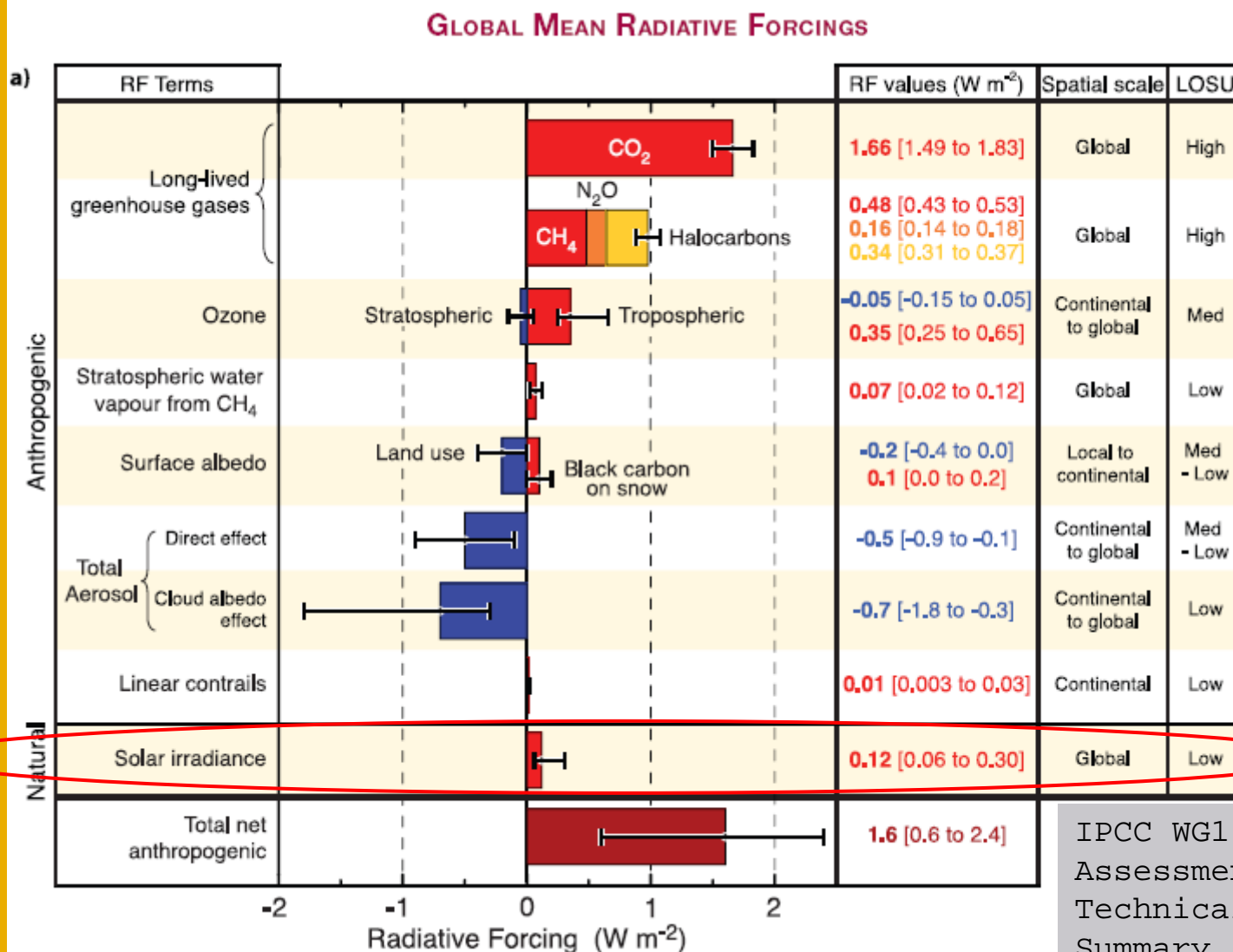


¹ Willson & Mordvinov, GRL, 2003

By the way, the total solar power arriving at the Earth from the Sun is $\sim 1.7 \times 10^{17}$ W, roughly the same as the output from 2 million billion 100 watt lightbulbs distributed just above the atmosphere of the Earth. **Its a useful number to know!**



WG1-AR4 Summary Plot



IPCC WG1 4th
Assessment:
Technical
Summary, 2007



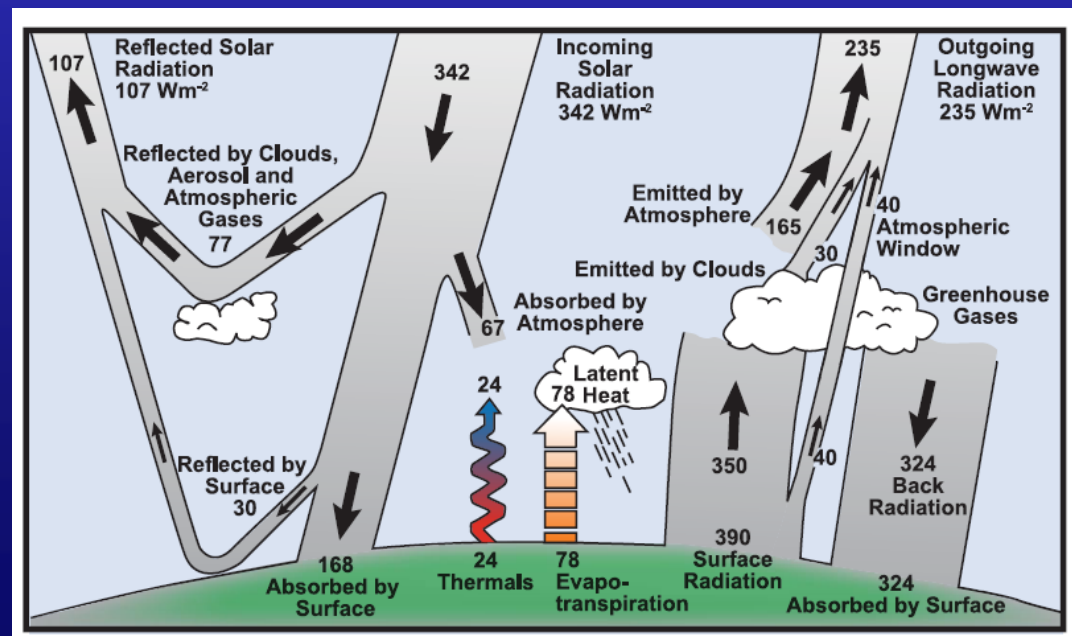
Solar variability mechanisms: End of Story?

Actually, no. The 2007 WG1 4AR focuses strongly on **Total Solar Irradiance**, and not much else. It briefly considers another possible mechanism, **clouds and cosmic rays**.

“Empirical associations have been reported between **solar-modulated cosmic ray ionization of the atmosphere** and **global average low-level cloud cover** but evidence for a systematic indirect solar effect remains **ambiguous**. ...

Together with the lack of a proven physical mechanism and the plausibility of other causal factors affecting changes in cloud cover, this makes the association between galactic cosmic ray-induced changes in aerosol and cloud formation **controversial**.”

IPCC WG1
4th
Assessment:
Technical
Summary,
2007



Solar variability mechanisms: End of Story? - II

Chapter 1 of the WG1 4AR includes a section on solar variability which ends with the statement:

“The effects of galactic cosmic rays on the atmosphere (via cloud nucleation) and those due to shifts in the solar spectrum towards the ultraviolet (UV) range, at times of high solar activity, are largely unknown. The latter may produce changes in tropospheric circulation via changes in static stability resulting from the interaction of the increased UV radiation with stratospheric ozone. **More research to investigate the effects of solar behaviour on climate is needed before the magnitude of solar effects on climate can be stated with certainty.** “

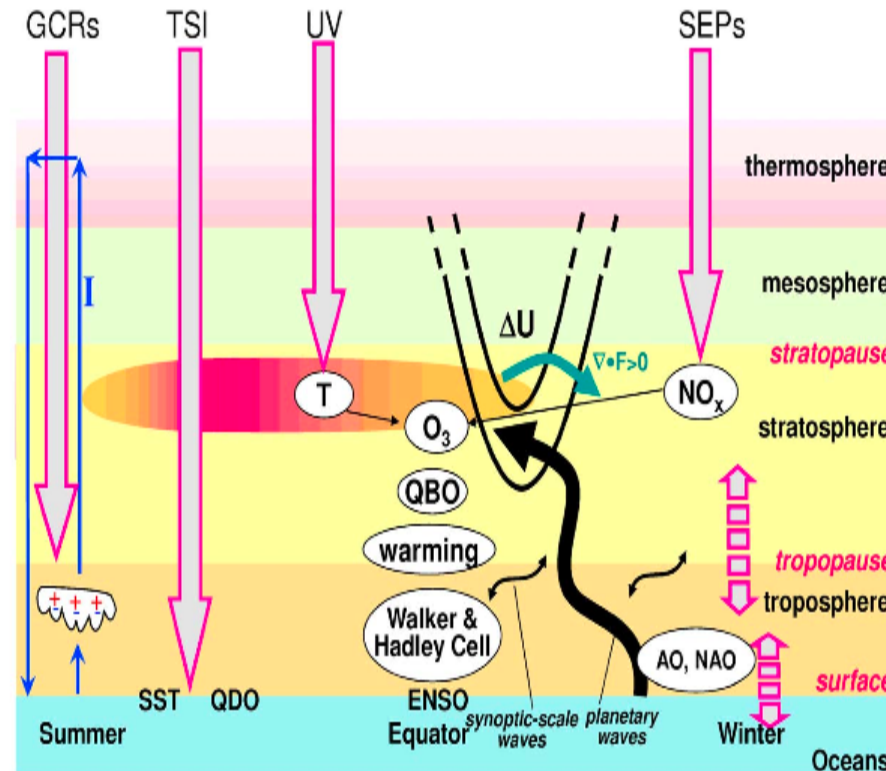
Which actually leaves us considerably more relevance than I realized when these documents originally came out!

In fact, the WG1 4AR doesn't seem to address all the mechanisms which have been forward, providing comments only on cosmic rays/clouds and UV (and TSI).



Gray et al., *Rev. Geophys.*,
doi:10.1029/
2009RG000282, 2010

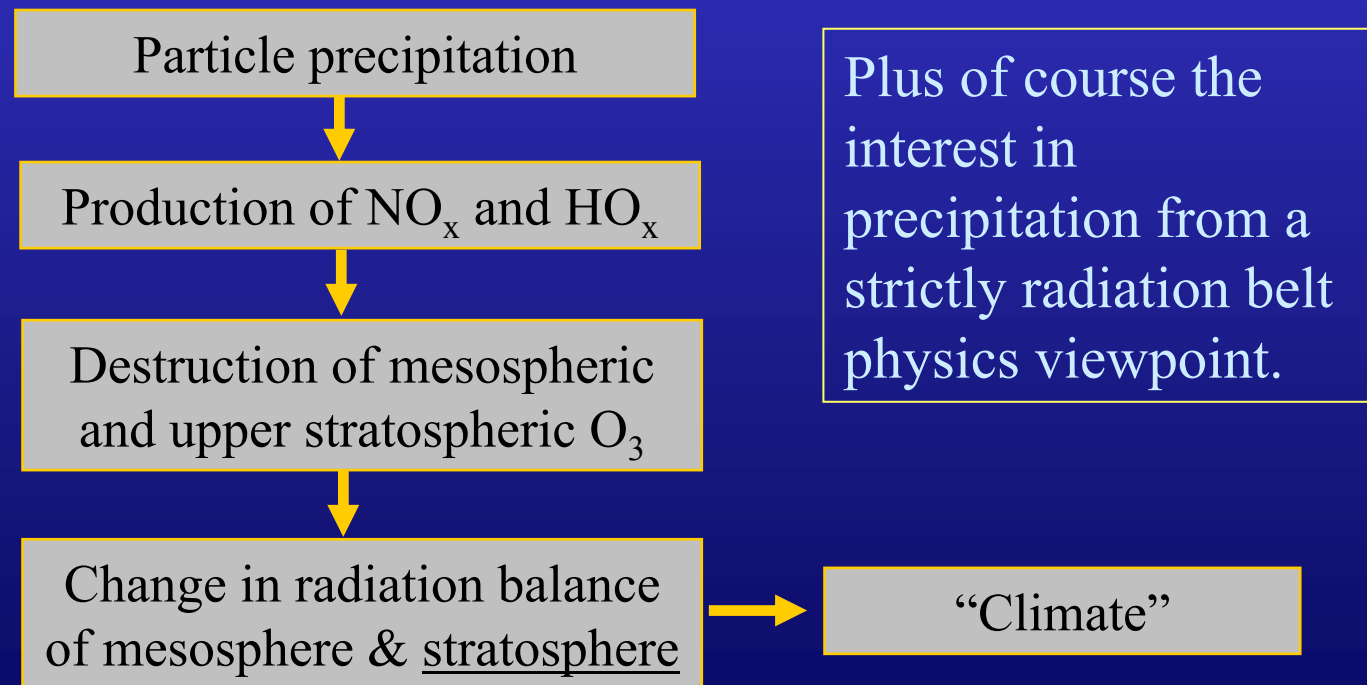
Solar influences on Climate



Two broad categories of solar forcing mechanisms, involving solar irradiance variations (TSI & UV) and the modulation of corpuscular radiation (GCR, Solar protons, electron precipitation). In both cases the forcing is likely to be very small. “However, even a very weak forcing can cause a significant climate effect if it is present over a long time or if there are non-linear responses giving amplifying feedbacks.”

The potential importance of particle precipitation

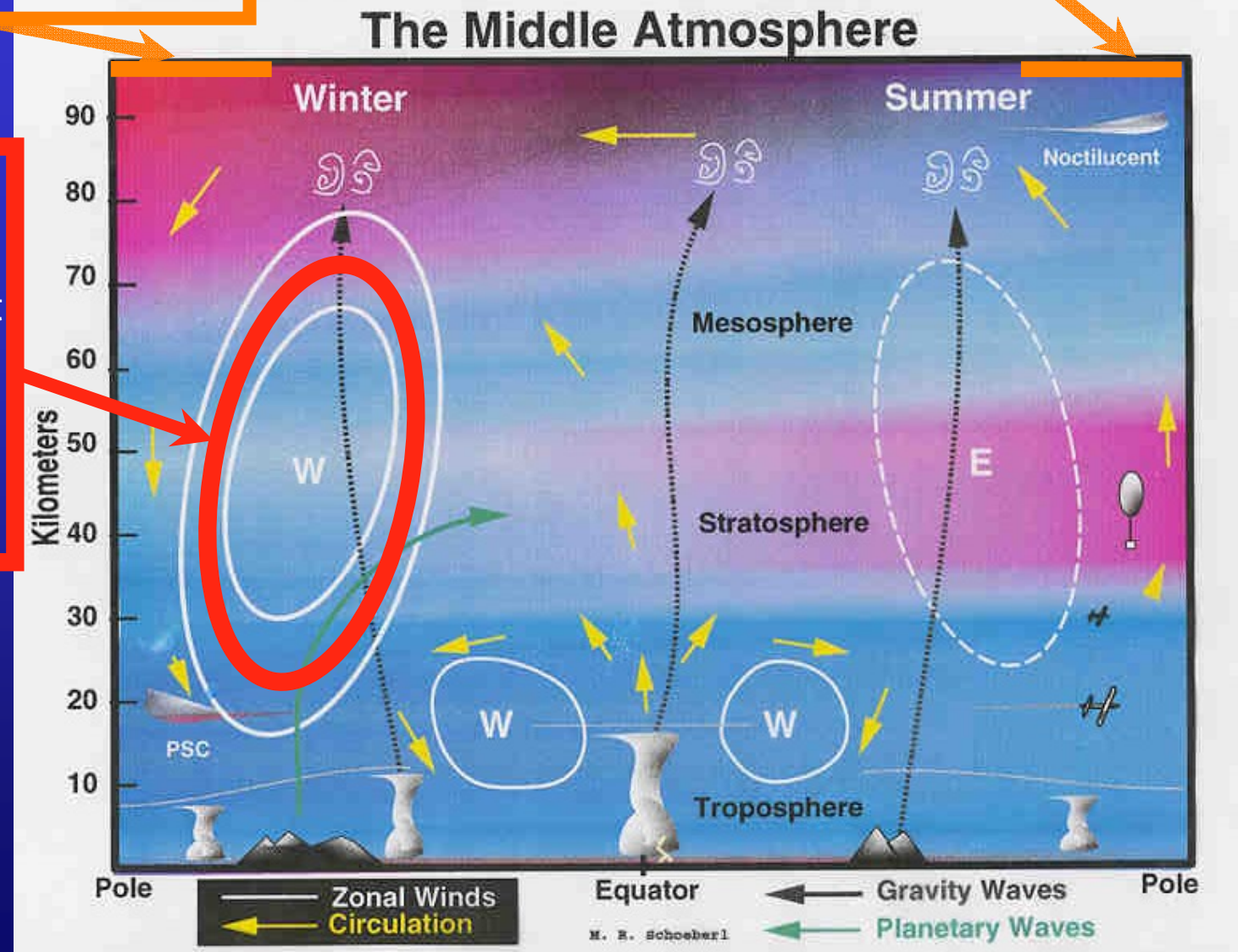
Particle precipitation is one of the routes by which the Sun can link to the climate – energetic electrons and protons can change the atmospheric chemistry. **And in an environment where humanity is changing the climate, and the polar ozone levels, we need to know about the “natural” variation too!**



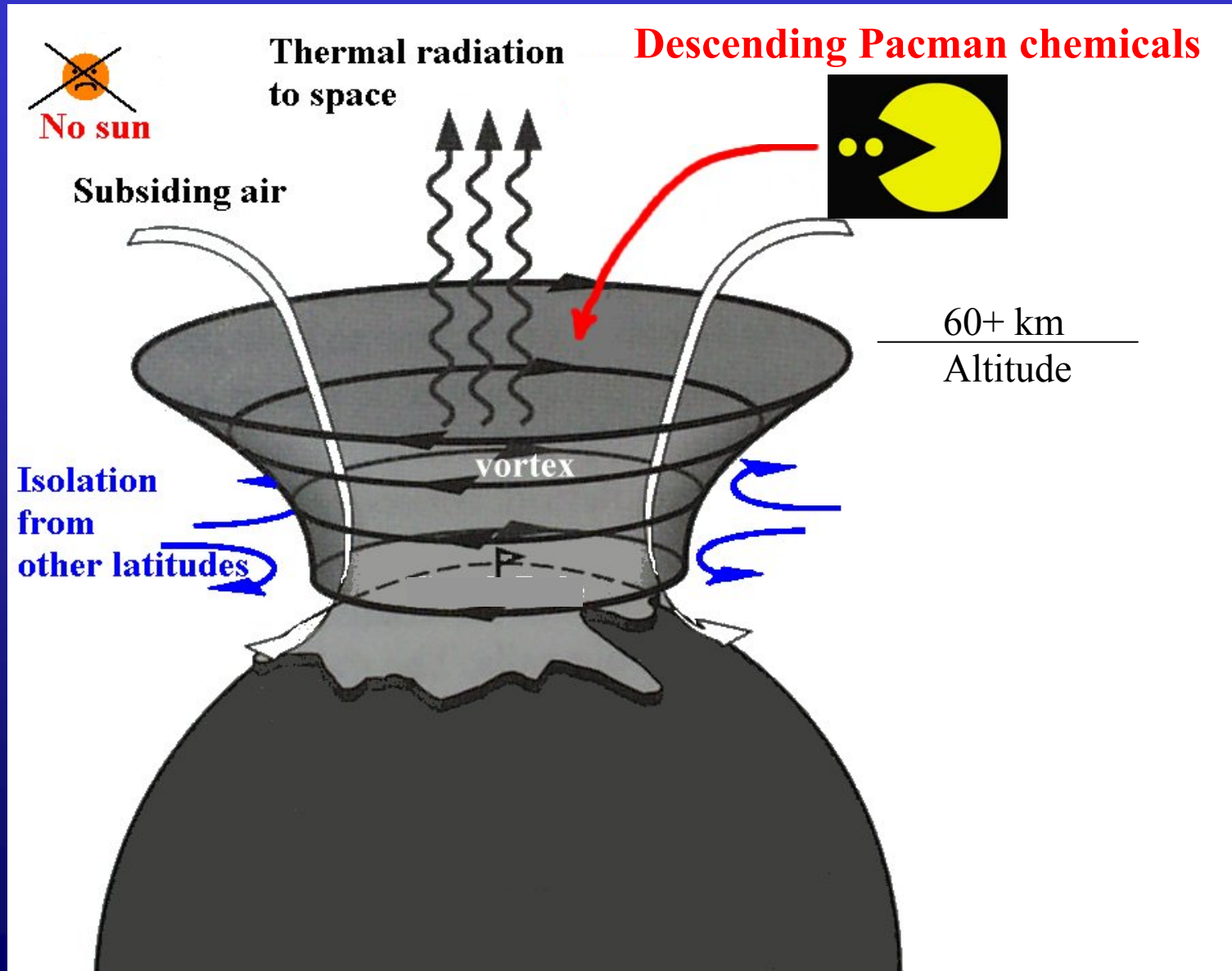
Lets look at this chain and what we know now, i.e., what we can see happening in data.

Polar caps - access regions for particle precipitation

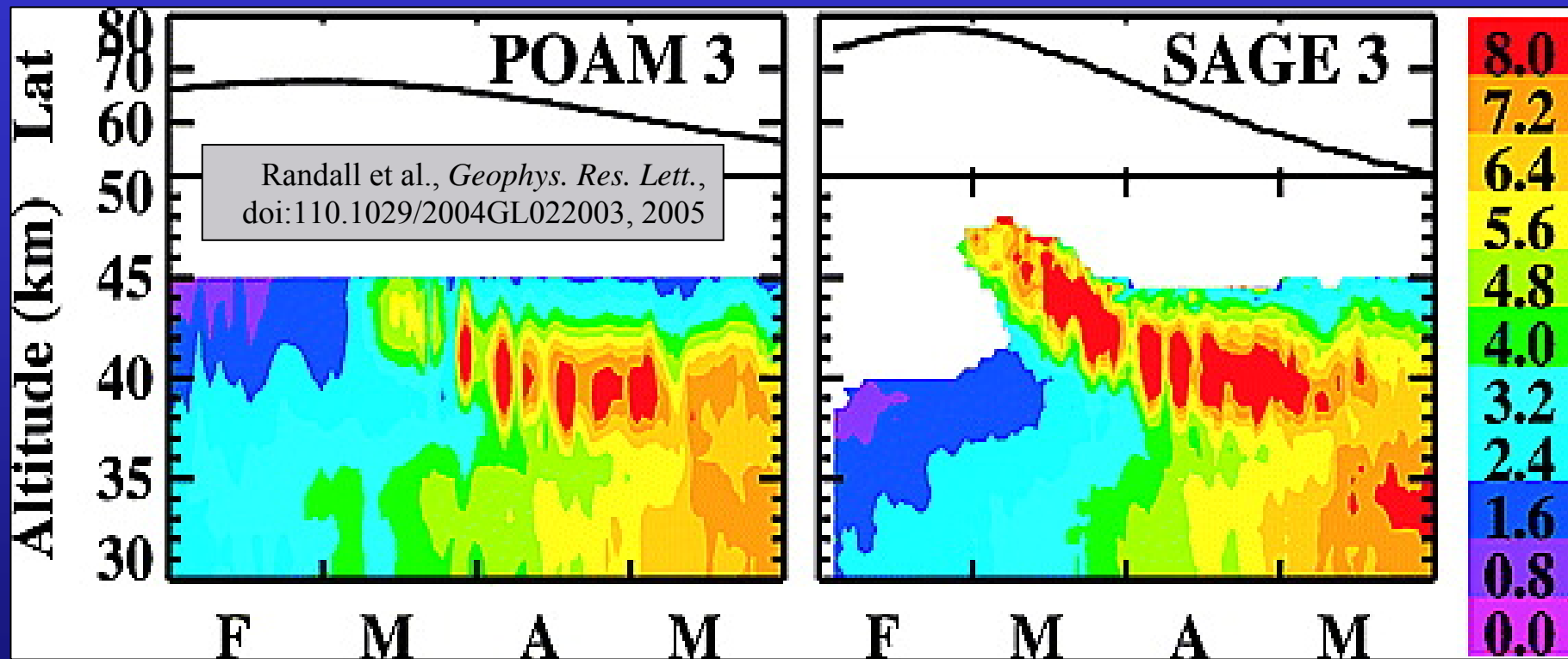
Strong winds acting as a transport barrier. Isolates polar air forming the Polar vortex.



The Northern Polar Vortex



Spring-time descent inside the polar vortex

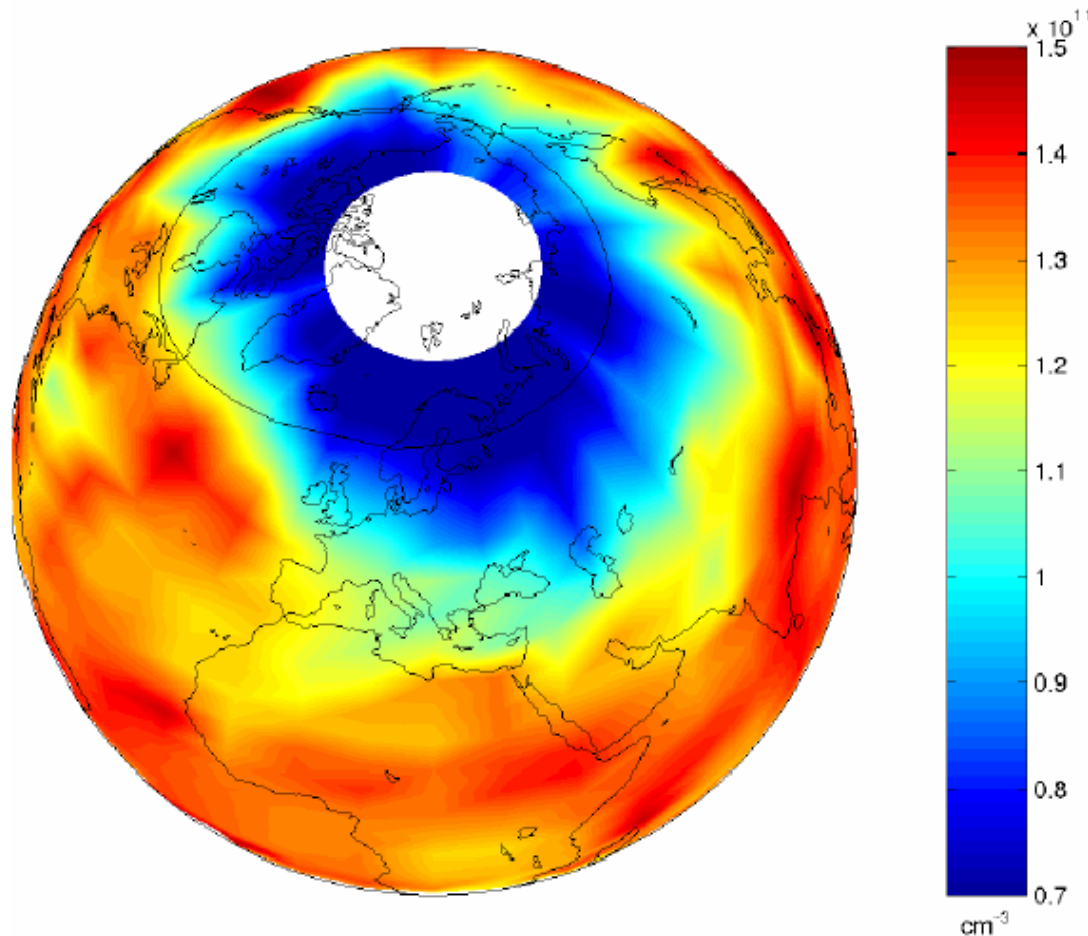


Northern hemisphere, 2004 NO₂ mixing ratio

These measurements couldn't determine the true source of the NO₂ because there has been a lack of measurements in the polar cap during the winter. The NO₂ was linked to a decrease in stratospheric O₃.

We know some of this chain happens:
solar proton event-driven O_3 losses in the Arctic

Observed Mesospheric Ozone Depletion



GOMOS onboard ENVISAT is a star
occultation measurement
--> good global data coverage



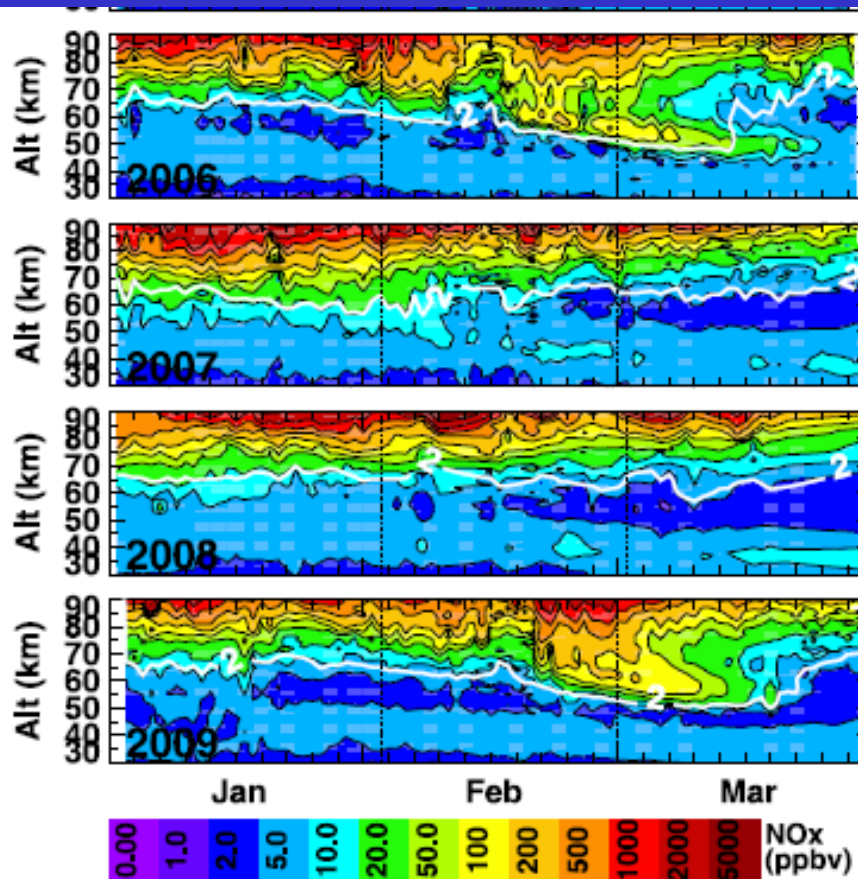
GOMOS observed losses
after a Solar Proton Event
(SPE) proving that large
ionisation increases can
cause polar O_3 losses.

GOMOS data on northern hemispheric O_3 after the Oct/Nov 2003 SPE (from A.Seppala, 2005)



Randall et al., *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, doi:10.1029/2009GL039706, 2009.

Indirect EPP effect

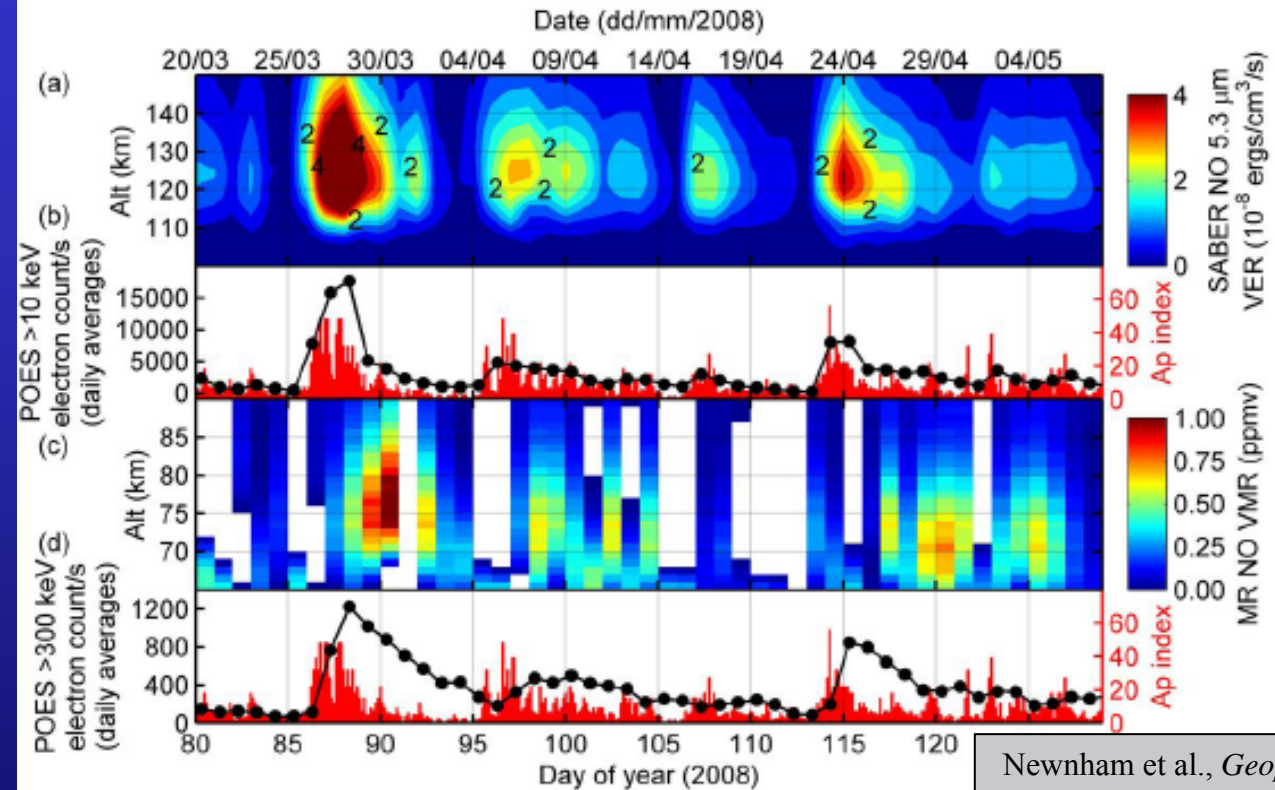


Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) solar occultation observations of descending NO_x in the Arctic winters. The primary source for the indirect effect is believed to be low-energy particle precipitation (i.e., auroral electrons and protons producing NO_x at $\sim 100\text{km}$ or so).



Direct EPP effect

Figure 2. (a) SABER NO 5.3 μm VER for 65°S-75°S; (b) POES/SEM-2 trapped and quasi-trapped electron flux for >10 keV channel and 3-hour average A_p index; (c) Microwave radiometer daily average NO VMR; (d) POES/SEM-2 trapped and quasi-trapped electron flux for >300 keV channel and 3-hour average A_p index.

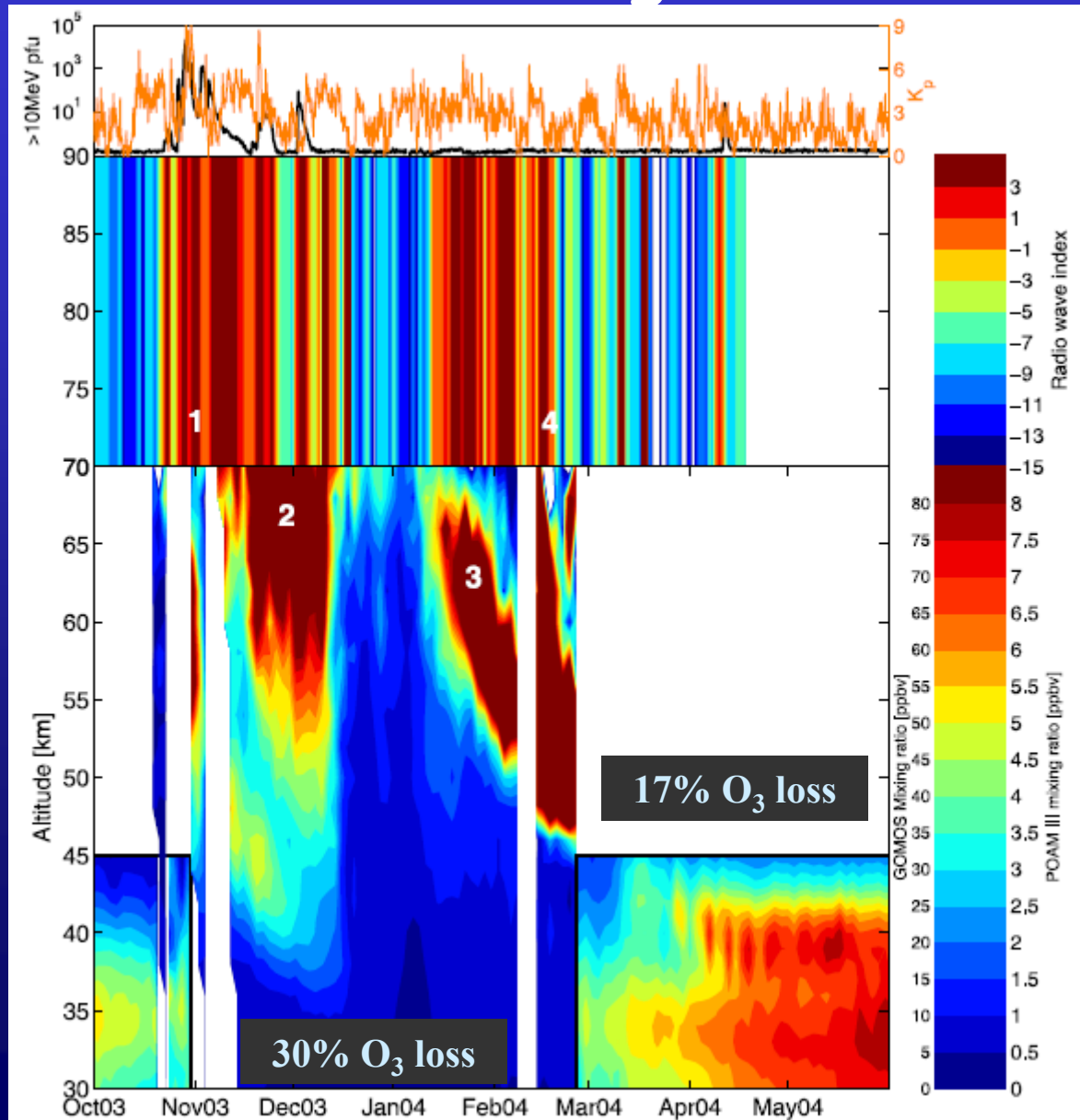


Newnham et al., *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, (in review), 2011.

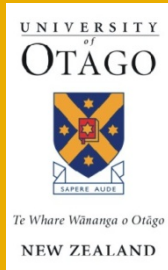
NO observations from the British Antarctic Survey radiometer located at Troll station, Antarctica (65° geomagnetic latitude). NO increases at ~75km by 2-3 orders of magnitude due to multiple days of ~300keV precipitation. This effect is far too fast for transport.



NO_x decent and stratospheric O₃ loss has been observed together too.

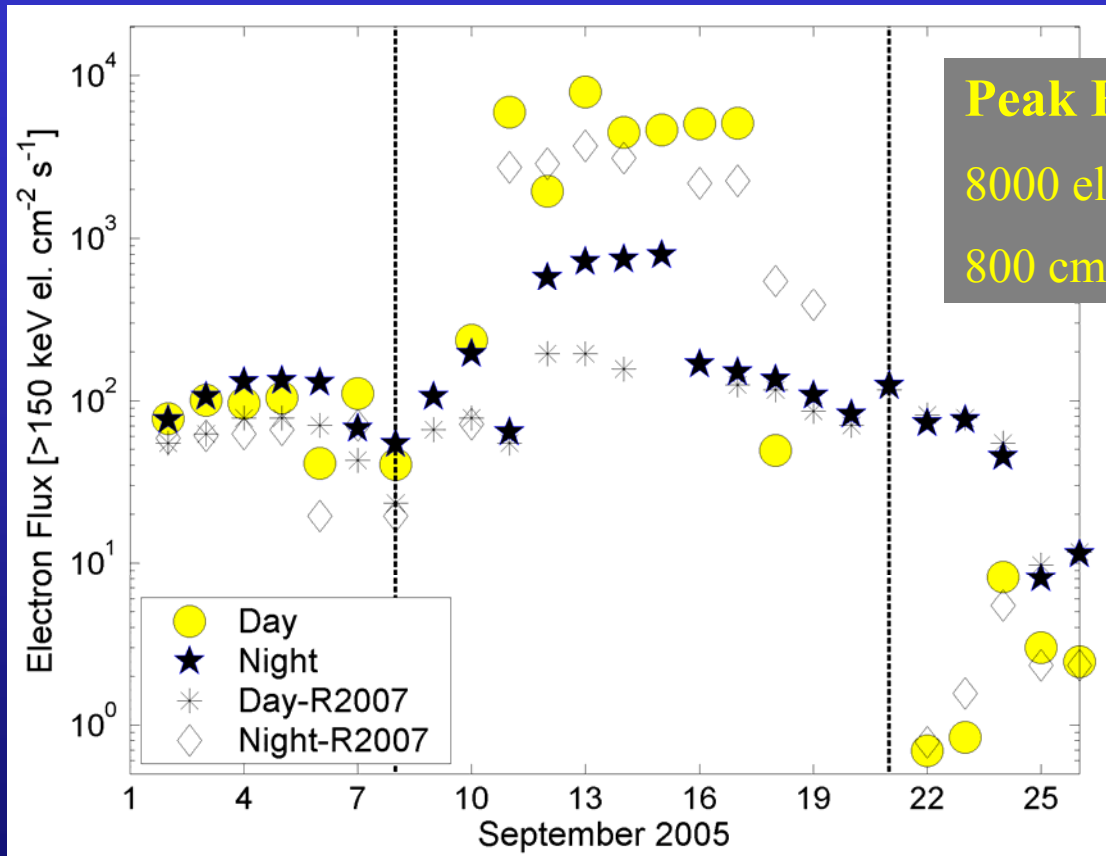


Seppälä et al., *J. Geophys.*
Res., doi:10.1029/
2006JD008326, 2007.



Updated Electron Precip. Flux Values

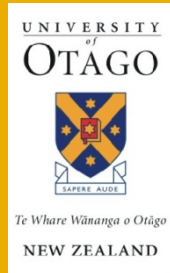
Precipitation fluxes required to reproduce the changes in subionospheric propagation observed (NAA -> CAM).



This work is taken from:

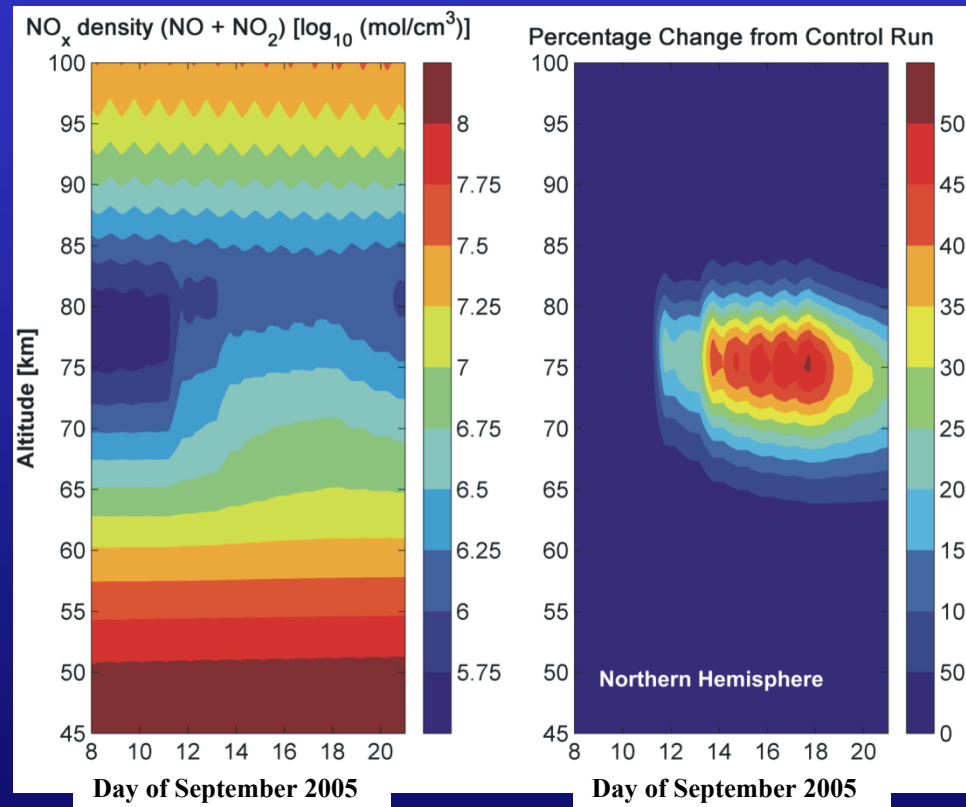
R-2007; Rodger et al., *JGR*, A11307, doi:10.1029/2007JA012383, 2007.

and Rodger et al., *JGR*, 115, A11320, doi:10.1029/2010JA015599, 2010.



Model the neutral atmosphere changes: NO_x

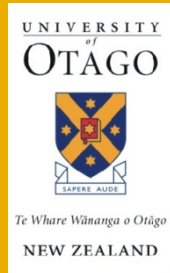
Energetic electron precipitation results in the enhancement of odd nitrogen (NO_x) and odd hydrogen (HO_x), which play a key role in the ozone balance of the middle atmosphere. Using SIC, we can look at the electron precipitation produced changes, during this storm period.



Factor of 5-6 increase that is most significant in the ~65-85 km altitude range

Looks impressive, but it is important?

The NO_x increase builds up primarily across the time-span when the >150 keV electron precipitation fluxes peak, and then start to recover due to photodissociation.

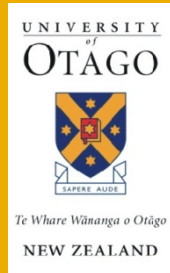


Model the neutral atmosphere changes: O_3

NO_x and HO_x increases caused by energetic particle precipitation have been associated with in-situ ozone loss in the polar middle atmosphere. This has been experimentally observed during Solar Proton Events. So what about for electron precipitation?

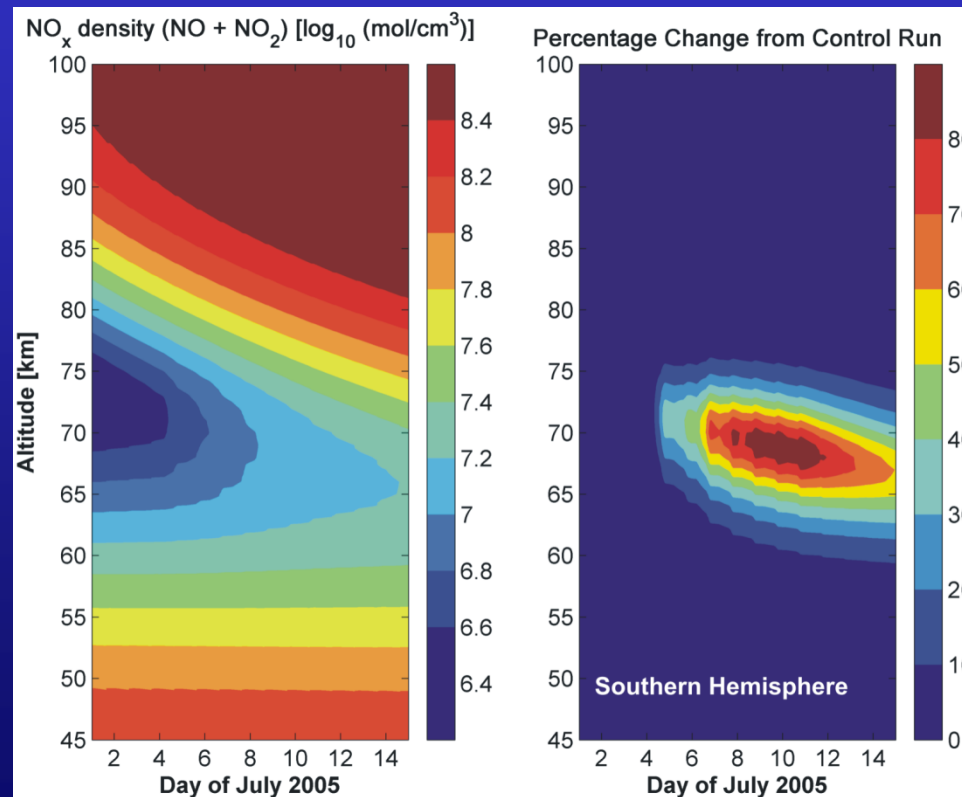


In the case studied here there is an **essentially insignificant** level of ozone loss (<1% most of the time, brief peaks at ~3%).



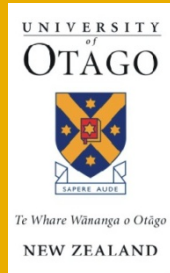
Model the neutral atmosphere changes: NO_x

However, we considered the Northern Hemisphere during late summer-early autumn. The dark atmosphere, particularly the polar winter atmosphere, is very different. So let's take a Southern Hemisphere case (same *L*-shell) in deep SH winter.



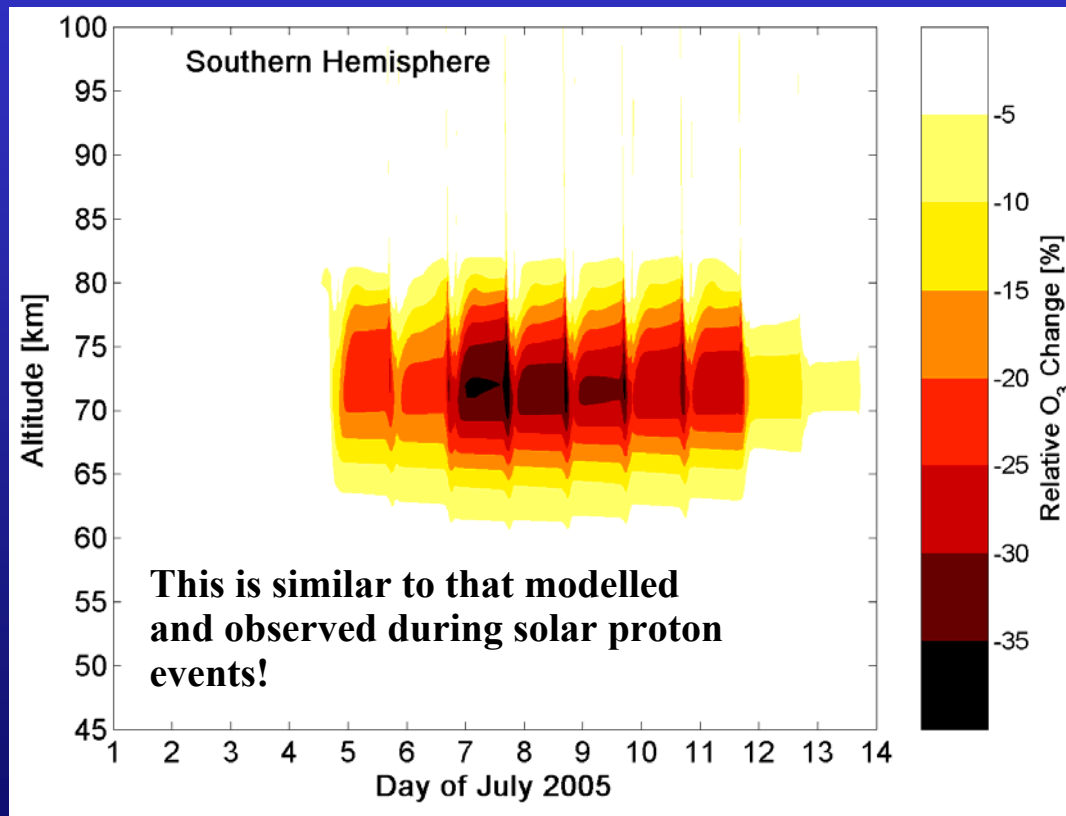
While the percentage change is not so big, the absolute changes are larger, and persist longer.

Again, looks a bit impressive, but it is important?



Model the neutral atmosphere changes: O_3

We know the response to particle precipitation is dependent upon hemisphere and season (**this has also been experimentally observed during Solar Proton Events**). So if we look at the Southern Hemisphere and winter, then yes, it's a very different picture!



In this case, because of seasonal asymmetries in background chemical composition, we get a **significant *in-situ* O_3 change!**



And a link to Climate?

Rozanov *et al.* [GRL, 2005] fed their chemistry-climate model (CCM) with NO_x changes calculated on a daily basis from particle fluxes reported by the NOAA/TIROS Space Environment Monitor (SEM-1) onboard the POES spacecraft for 1987. The two hemispheres were treated separately, and only “high latitude” data from $L=5-10$ was considered. They then looked at the change when NO_x was included in the model run (relative to when it wasn't).

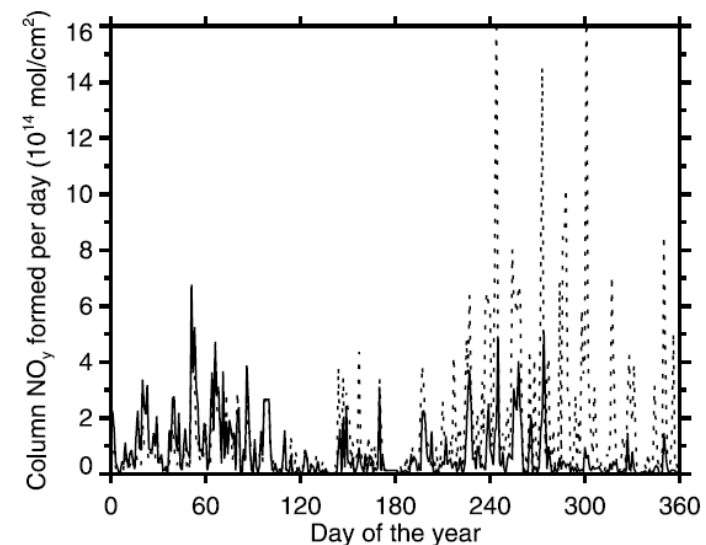
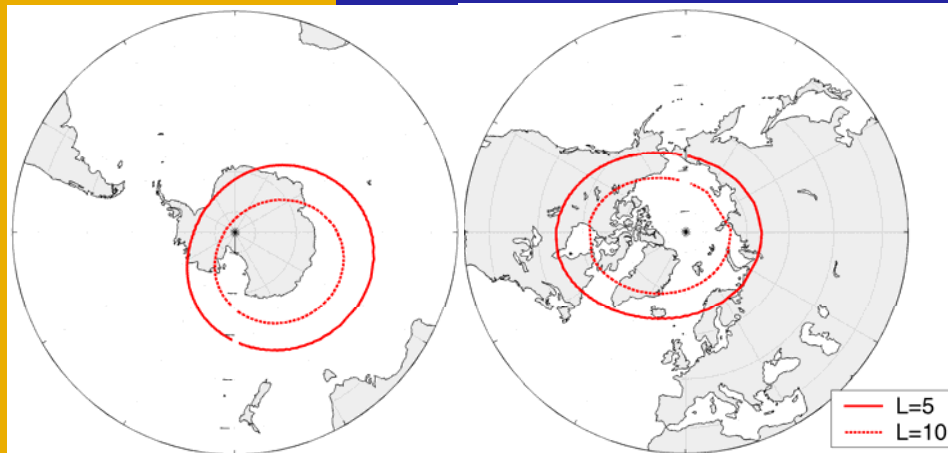
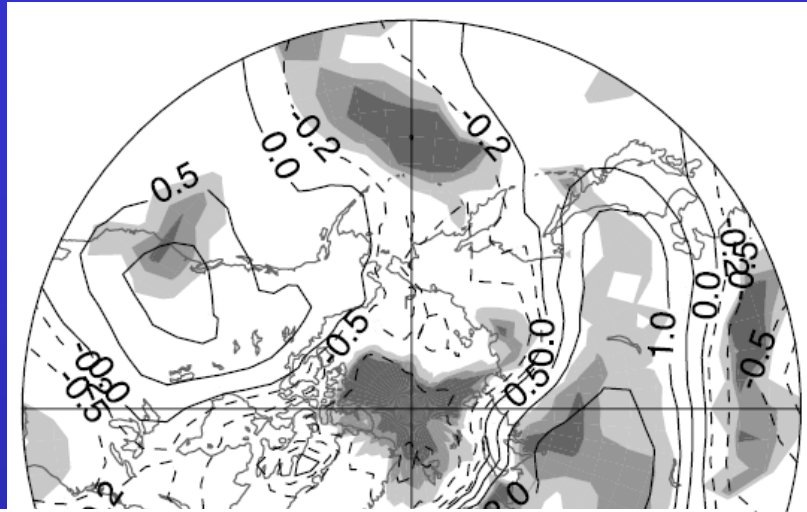


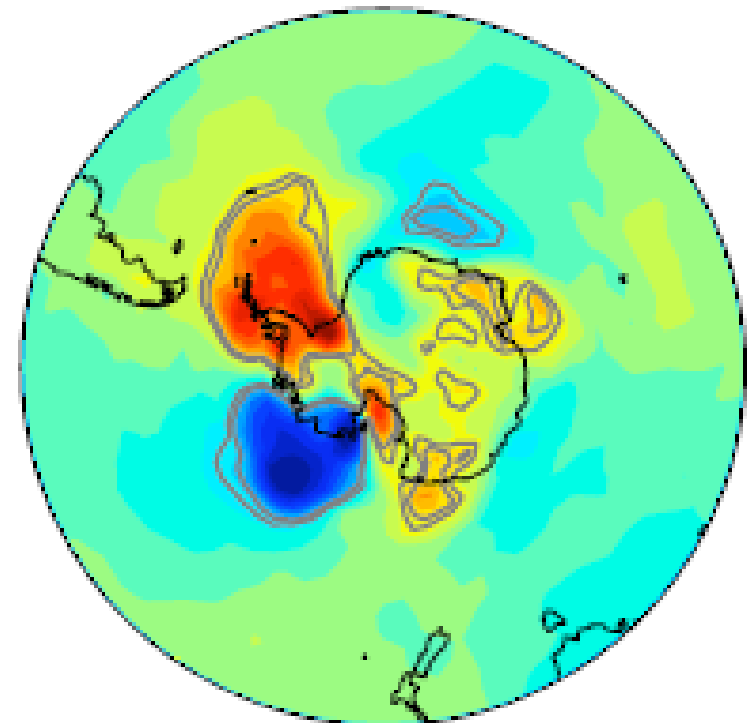
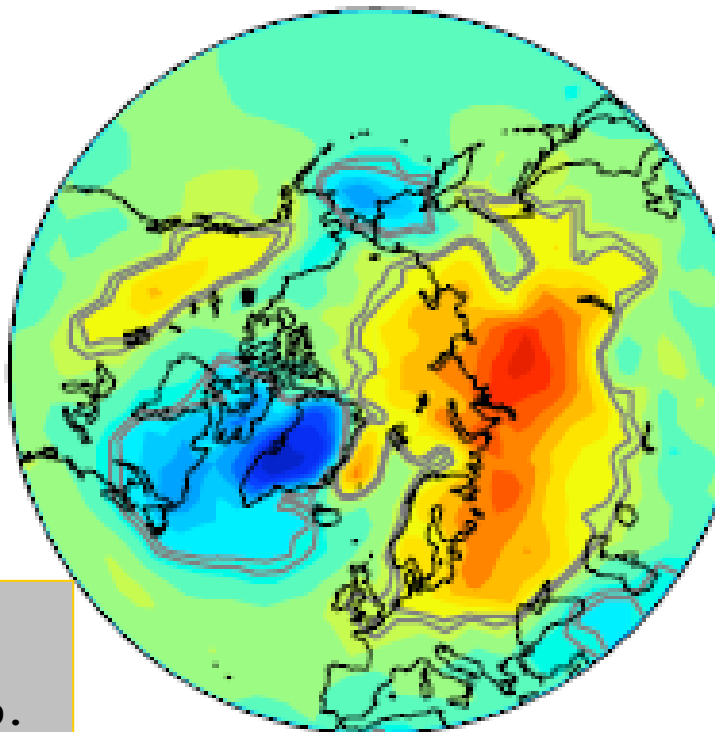
Figure 1. Daily formation of column NO_y during 1987 for the Northern (solid line) and Southern (dotted line) hemispheres between 60 and 90 km, and for values of the McIlwain parameter between 5 and 10.



DJF

The calculations presented in *Rozanov et al.* [GRL, 2005] lead to a particle precipitation driven surface air temperature variation of -0.5 to +2 K, relative to the no precipitation case. They argued that their

JJA



Rozanov et al., *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, doi:10.1029/2005GL023041

Seppälä et al.,
J. Geophys. Res.,
doi:10.1029/
2008JA014029, 2009.



Why is energetic particle precipitation (possibly) important?

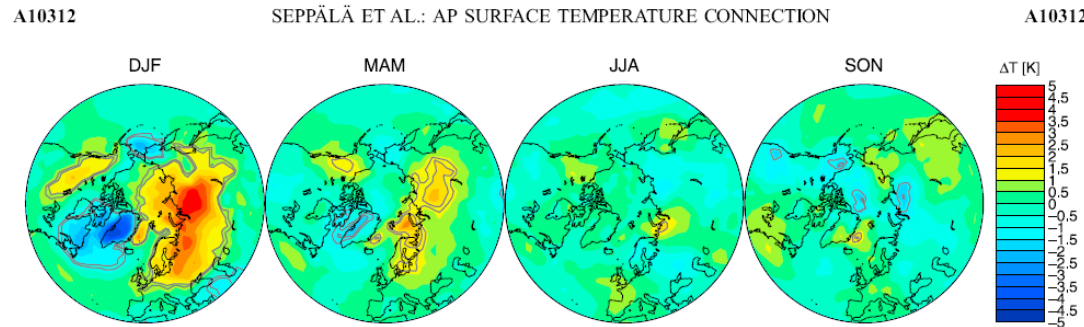


Figure 3. Northern hemisphere seasonal differences in SAT ($\Delta T = \text{High } A_p - \text{Low } A_p$) for Case N1 with SSW years excluded for the seasons denoted.

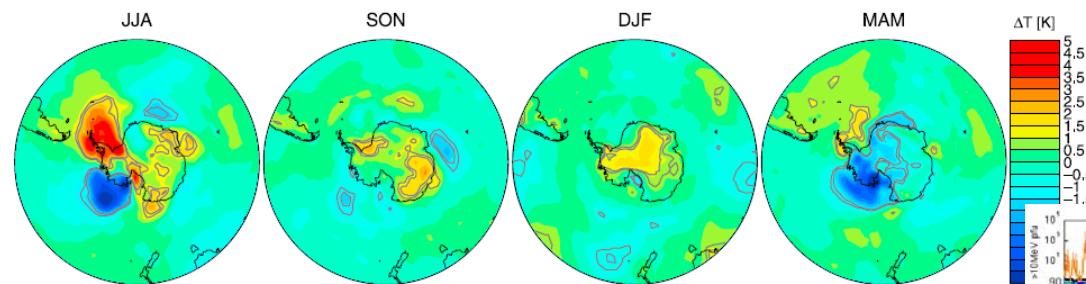
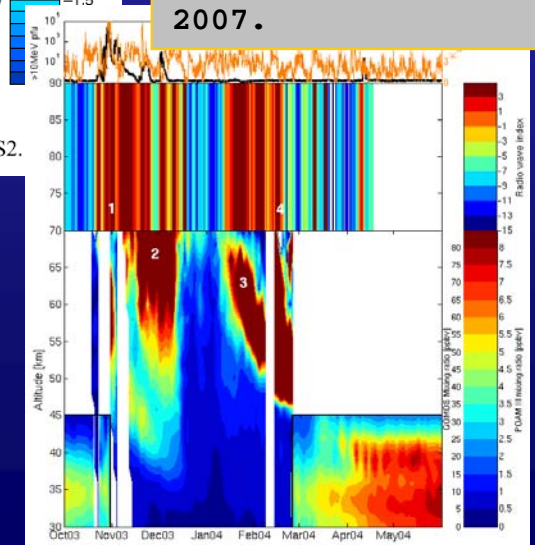


Figure 7. Southern hemisphere seasonal differences in SAT ($\Delta T = \text{High } A_p - \text{Low } A_p$) for Case S2.

Seppälä et al.,
J. Geophys. Res.,
doi:10.1029/
2008JA014029, 2009.

Seppälä et al.,
J. Geophys. Res.,
doi:10.1029/
2006JD008326,
2007.

Thus we need to measure energetic particle precipitation, and examine EEP consequences, to see if it can explain the experimentally observed link between geomagnetic storms and polar surface temperatures.





More Modelling

Baumgaertner et al. [ACP, 2011] added an EPP-NO_x source (here Ap-index driven parameterization) into the ECHAM5/MESSy chemistry general circulation models to see how dynamics and temperature respond – holding all other conditions fixed to avoid SST or UV variations.

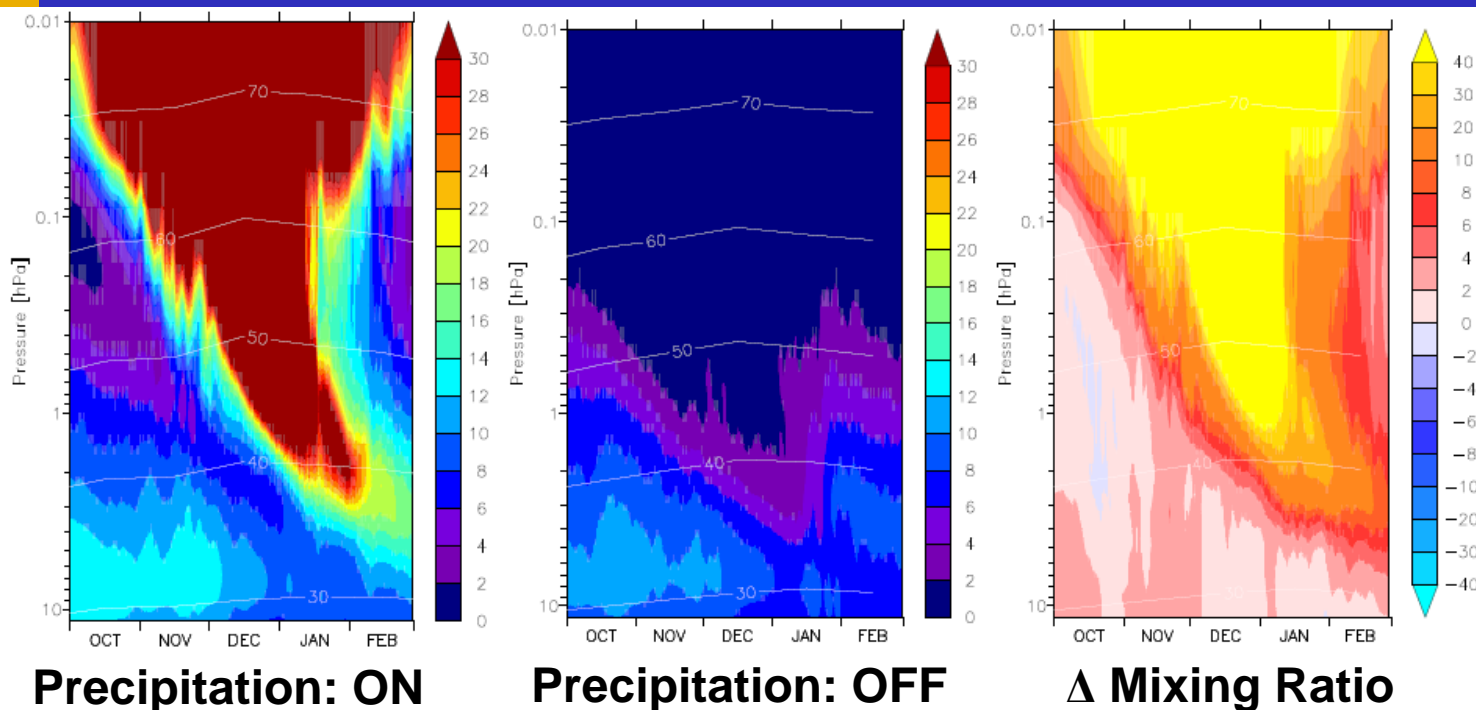


Fig. 6. Left: zonal mean NO_x mixing ratios (nmol mol⁻¹) from simulation S-EPP for an exemplary Northern Hemisphere winter poleward of 60° N. Middle: as left panel, but from simulation S-noEPP. Right: mixing ratio difference NO_x^{S-EPP} – NO_x^{S-noEPP}. Red-yellow/blue colours indicate positive/negative differences. The white contour lines denote the altitude in km in all panels.

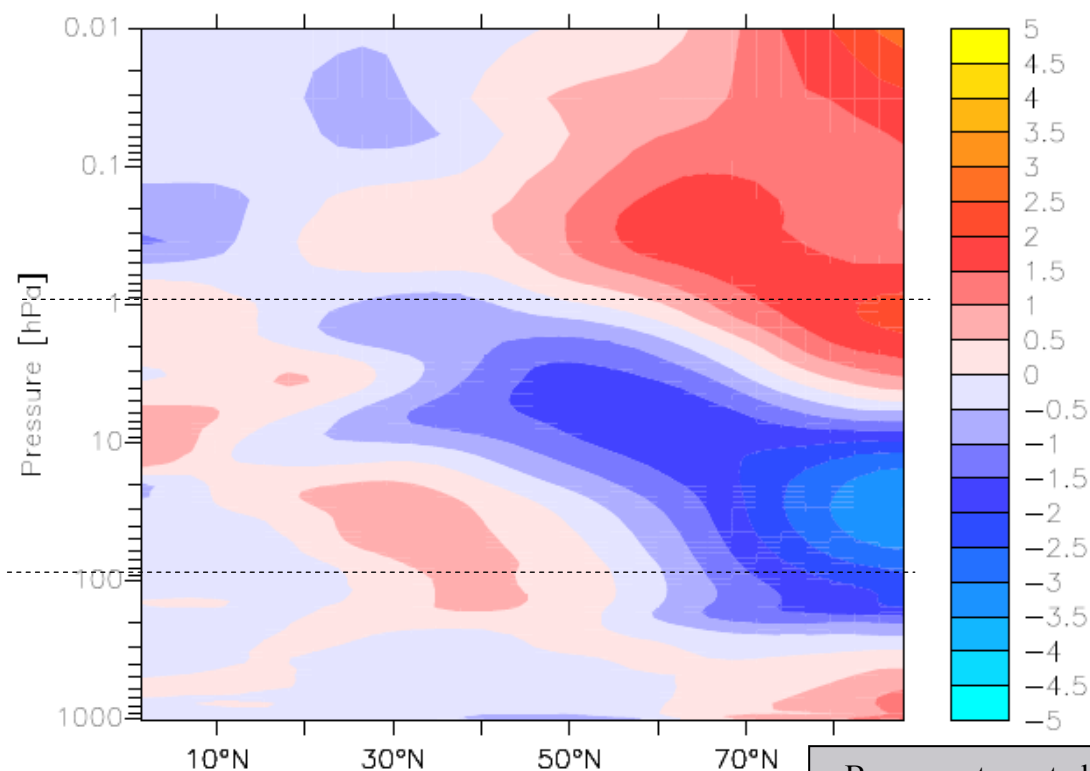


More Modelling

Baumgaertner et al. [ACP, 2011] added an EPP-NO_x source (here driven by an Ap index linked parameterization) into the ECHAM5/MESSy models.

50km

15km



Baumgaertner et al., *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*,
doi:10.5194/acp-11-4521-2011, 2011

Fig. 9. Climatological DJF change of temperature (K), $\Delta T = T^{\text{S-EPP}} - T^{\text{S-noEPP}}$. Red-yellow/blue colours indicate positive/negative differences.

How enhanced NO_x in mesosphere and stratosphere communicates to surface level changes is currently under investigation.

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More Evidence – complex response?

There is a question as to how the “geomagnetic storm” response (which could well be the NO_x/HO_x produced ozone changes in the mesosphere and stratosphere) couples to the troposphere and surface.

This is an active research area. I am aware of some work looking for evidence of changes in planetary wave and gravity wave filtering.

Working in this area, some collaborators of mine have been looking for changes in **temperature**, **zonal winds**, and **Eliassen-Palm flux** (which can be used as a measure of wave activity). They have shown large changes in the dynamics of the polar vortex location depending on:

the solar cycle (assumed to be UV changes) AND
geomagnetic storm activity (arranged by Ap)

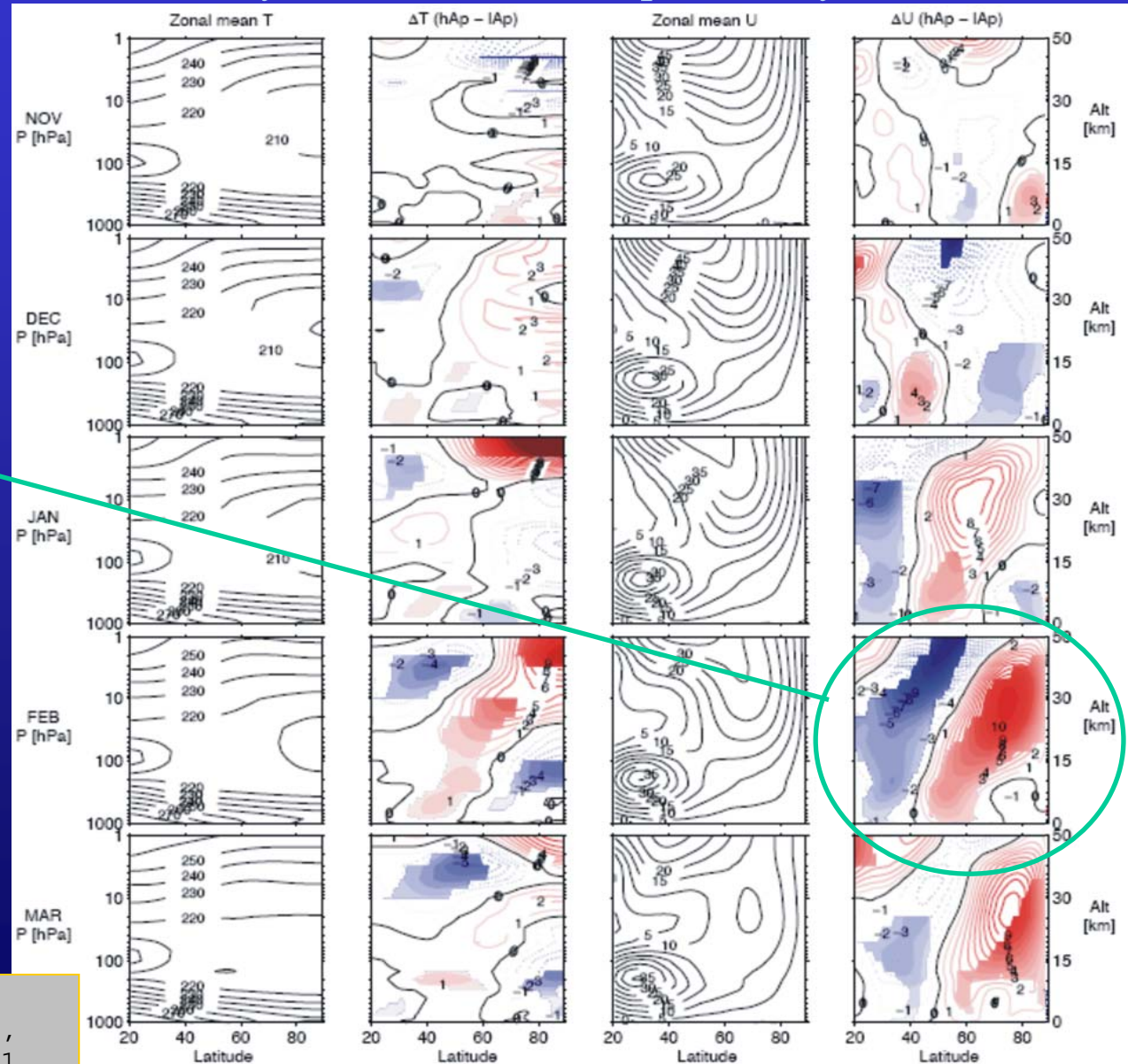
we assume the latter is a rough proxy for particle precipitation from the radiation belts.



More Evidence - complex response?

ERA40 re-analysis, northern hemisphere only. **HIGH SOLAR CYCLE**

HS cycle case
shows large
zonal wind
response to
geomagnetic
activity in late
winter →
pole-ward shift
of the jet?



Seppälä et al.,
Geophys. Res. Lett.,
in preparation, 2011.

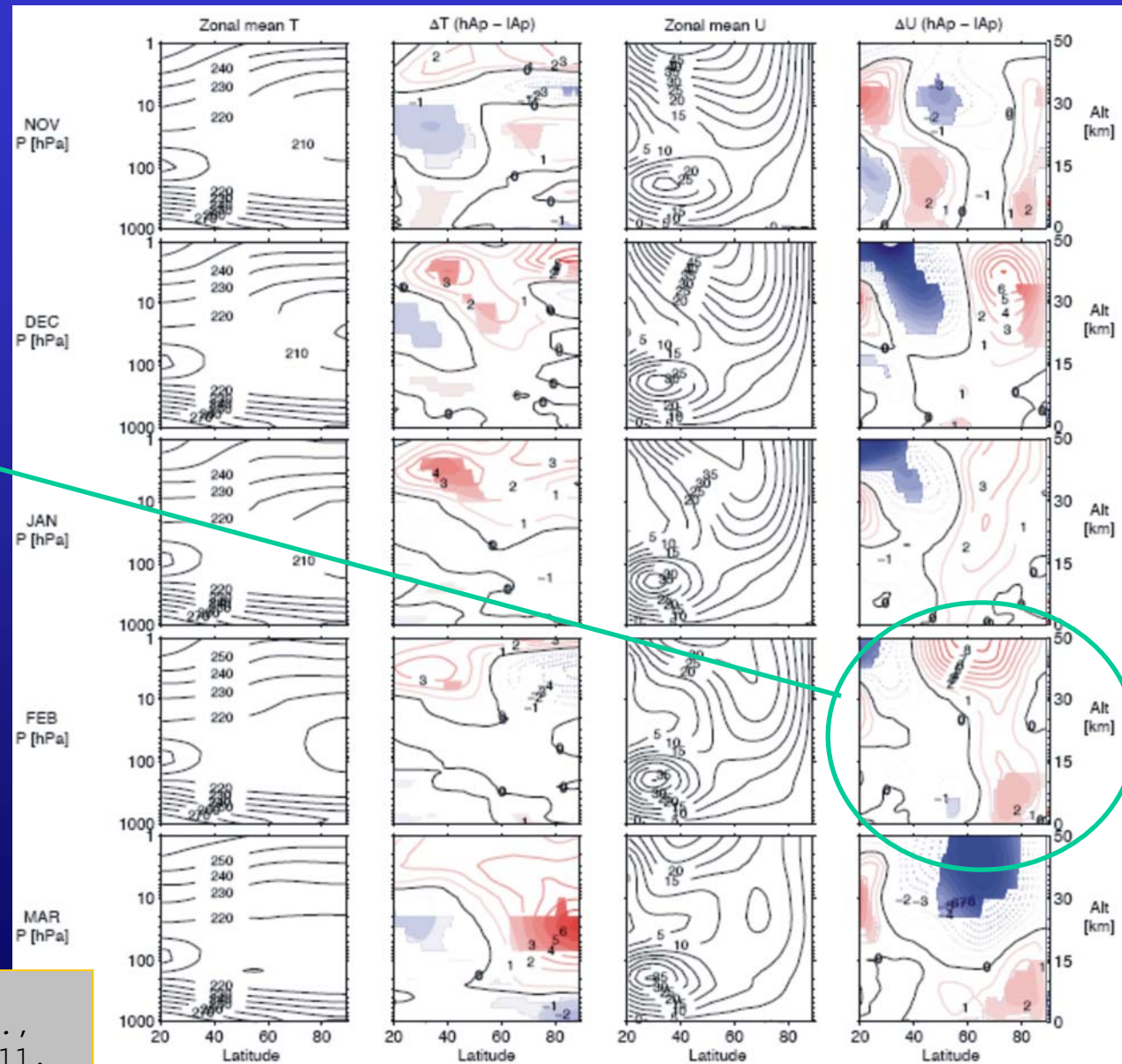


VERY different
response to
geomagnetic
storms for **low**
solar cycle
conditions –
evidence for
preconditioning
and a complex
response.

Seppälä et al.,
Geophys. Res. Lett.,
in preparation, 2011.

More Evidence – complex response?

ERA40 re-analysis, northern hemisphere only. **LOW SOLAR CYCLE**



Measuring Particle Precipitation is "Tricky"

In order to feed atmospheric, ionospheric and coupled chemistry models, researchers would like access to long-time scale databases of time resolved particle precipitation measurements. **There is a gap for observations of precipitation of electrons at energetic ($>10\text{keV}$) and relativistic ($>300\text{keV}$) energies.**

One's first instinct is to turn to satellites to provide these.

However, there is currently no appropriate satellite database available!

Definitive answers are very difficult to provide from satellite measurements alone because of the complexity in measuring electron fluxes unambiguously in the whole bounce-loss cone without contamination from fluxes in the drift-loss cone or trapped fluxes.

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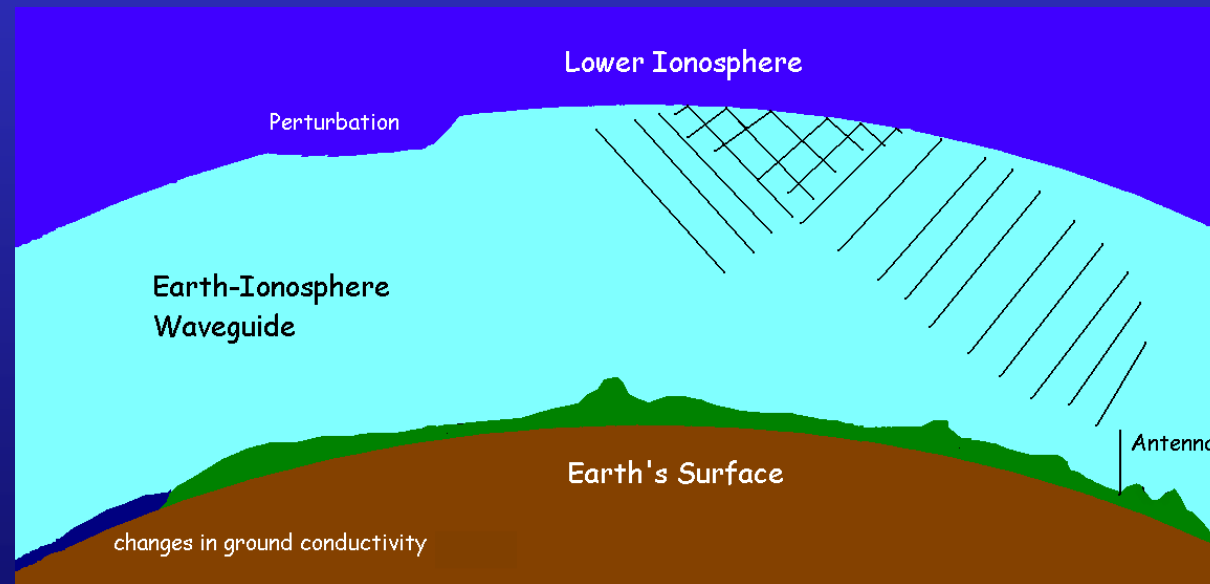
MARSDEN FUND

TE PŪTEA RANGAHAU
A MARSDEN

We have been awarded a New Zealand Marsden Funded project to investigate this very issue:

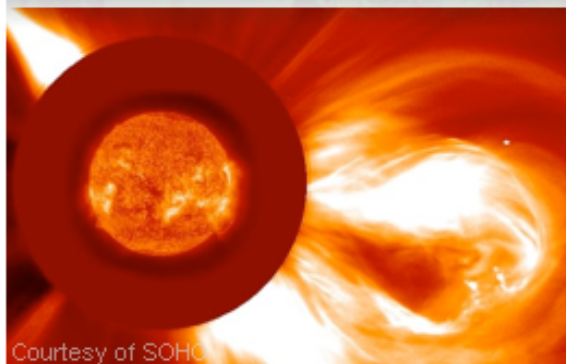
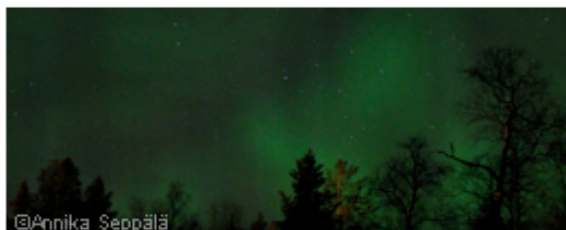
“Evaluating the Impact of Excess Ionization on the Atmosphere (EI EI A)”

For electrons $>100\text{keV}$, the bulk of the precipitated energy is deposited into the middle and upper atmosphere (30-100km), and can be detected through changes in subionospheric VLF propagation.



We rely upon the idea that while the bounce loss cone might be hard to fully measure from space, the atmosphere detects the entire bounce loss cone by definition, and we use the atmosphere as a BLC detector.

Geospace Coupling to Polar Atmosphere



How does the forcing from the Sun and the near-Earth space induce changes in the polar atmosphere from low to high altitudes, particularly through precipitation of high energy particles?

The International ISSI team

Geospace coupling to Polar Atmosphere aims to bring together a team of scientist to study the impact of the near-Earth space to the polar atmosphere and lower ionosphere. Our science interests lie on examining how the forcing from the Sun and the near-Earth space induces changes in this region extending from low to high altitudes, particularly through precipitation of high energy particles. Our goal is to use a variety of different data sets from ground based and satellite platforms together with state of the art models of the atmosphere and ionosphere to achieve a unified global picture of the geospace impact on the Earth's atmosphere through the polar regions.

The team

Annika Seppälä, Team Leader, *British Antarctic Survey, United Kingdom*

Mark Clilverd, *British Antarctic Survey, United Kingdom*

Thomas Ulich, *University of Oulu/Sodankylä Geophysical Observatory, Finland*

Carl-Fredrik Enell, *University of Oulu/Sodankylä Geophysical Observatory, Finland*

Antti Kero, *University of Oulu/Sodankylä Geophysical Observatory, Finland*

Daniel Marsh, *National Center for Atmospheric Research, United States*

Craig Rodger, *University of Otago, New Zealand*

Eugene Rozanov, *PMOD/WRC and IAC ETHZ, Switzerland*

Tatiana Egorova, *PMOD/WRC and IAC ETHZ, Switzerland*

Pekka Verronen, *Finnish Meteorological Institute, Finland*

Sanna-Mari Salmi, *Finnish Meteorological Institute, Finland*

Esa Turunen, *EISCAT Scientific Association, Sweden*

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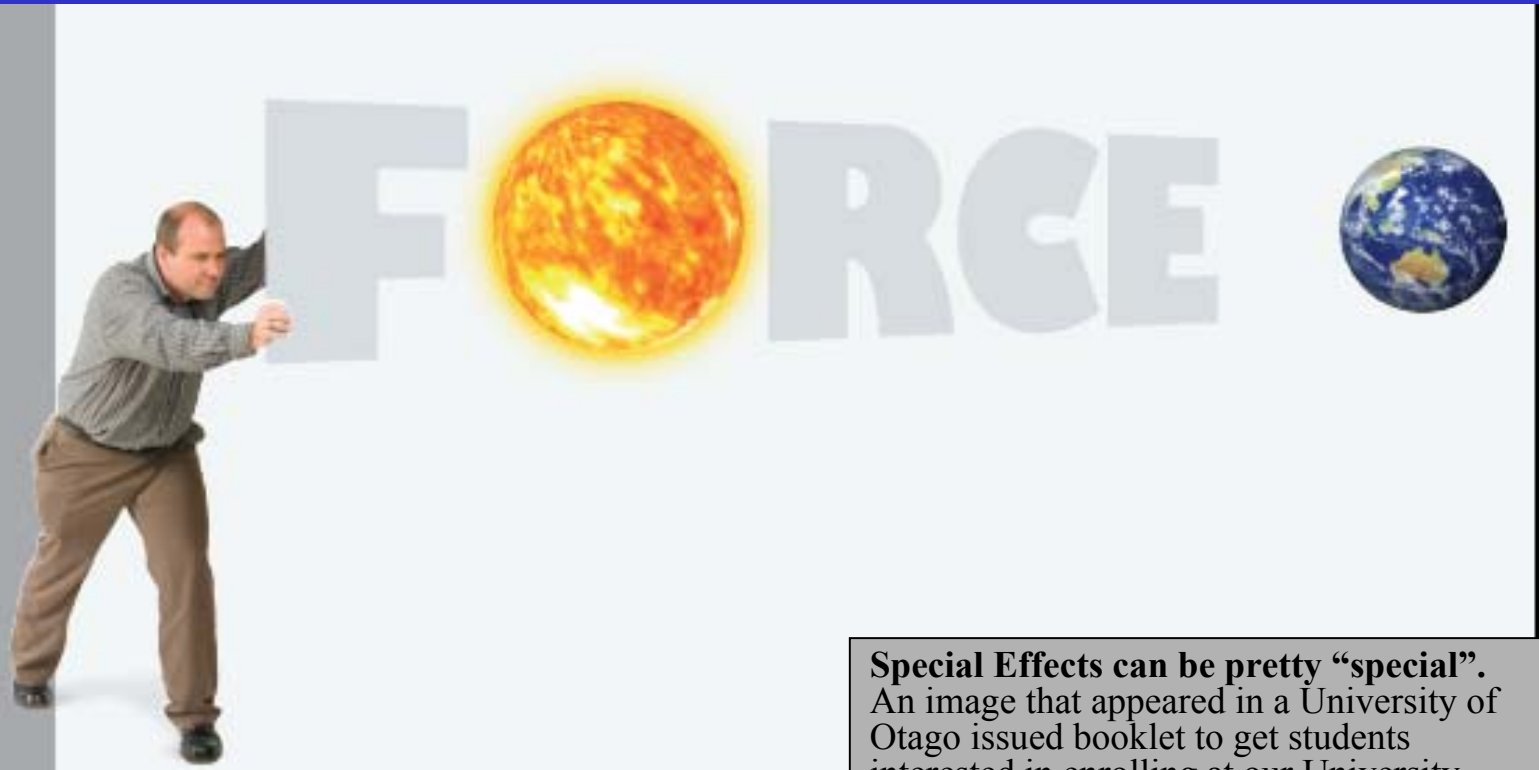


Tē Whare Wānanga o Ōtāgo

NEW ZEALAND

Thankyou!

Acknowledgement: The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Union Seventh Framework Programme [FP7/2007-2013] under grant agreement n°263218.



Special Effects can be pretty “special”.
An image that appeared in a University of Otago issued booklet to get students interested in enrolling at our University.

Are there any questions?

Conclusions

- Energetic particle precipitation couples to the atmosphere through production of NO_x (and HO_x).
- Links to natural solar climate variability.
- Particle effects on atmospheric chemistry are being added to climate models.
- Proton precipitation well known and good measurements exist. ✓
- Electron Precipitation levels not known well enough
- mostly using proxies i.e. A_p or K_p indices ✗