

Near real-time assimilation in IRI of auroral peak E-region density and equatorward boundary

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Abstract

The paper describes the method and initial results of assimilating the auroral peak E-region density (NmE) and the auroral equatorward boundary (EB) into the International Reference Ionosphere (IRI). The NmE and EB are obtained using a FUV based auroral model or FUV measurements in near real-time. Initial results show that the auroral NmE is often significantly larger than the NmE due to the solar EUV. This indicates the importance of including the contribution of precipitating electrons in IRI. The global equatorial boundary helps to improve the specification of the sub-auroral ionosphere trough in IRI. An IDL software package has been developed to interactively display the IRI parameters with assimilated NmE and EB. It can serve as an operational tool for space weather monitoring.

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1. Introduction

The International Reference Ionosphere (IRI) is a widely used empirical model for ionospheric parameters and the de facto international standard for the ionosphere. IRI describes monthly averages of electron and ion densities and temperatures in the ionospheric altitude range from about 50 km to 1500 km. The development of the model was initiated in the late sixties by the international scientific unions in charge of ionospheric physics, the International Union of Radio Science (URSI) and the Committee on Space Research (COSPAR). Since then the model has steadily evolved from reference tables for specific times and locations to a global model that describes the variation of the ionospheric plasma in space and time. By charter IRI is an empirical model being based primarily on measure-

ments from ground and space; theoretical considerations are used to establish appropriate mathematical functions to describe the dominant variation patterns and they are also used to fill data gaps. The latest version of the model is IRI-2007 as described by Bilitza and Reinisch (2008). The prime focus of the early development was on the middle latitudes because that is where most of the IRI users were in need of a reliable representation of ionospheric characteristics. Combining data from almost all available ground and space data sources the model has now reached a high level of reliability in the mid-latitude ionosphere as documented in extensive comparisons with newer data and in many successful applications ranging from ionospheric corrections for remote sensing from Earth-observing satellite to background ionosphere for testing tomographic techniques and global navigation satellite system (GNSS) mappings to list just two of the many applications of the model. With mid-latitudes well represented efforts are now directed towards an accurate representation of the low and high latitudes. In both regions the modeling pro-

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cess is complicated by the multitude of processes and the many characteristic structures observed in these parts of the globe.

At high latitude or auroral regions, energetic electron precipitation enhances ionospheric electron densities. During magnetic storms, the ionospheric density due to the precipitating electrons could be significantly larger than the electron density due to the solar EUV flux at high latitudes. The enhanced electron density leads to an increase of ionospheric conductance which affects the Joule heating and plays a very important role in the magnetosphere–ionosphere (M–I) coupling. The magnetospheric energy input (Joule heating and particle heating) is the major source for disturbance in the ionosphere and thermosphere during magnetic storms (Pröls and Craven, 1998; Zhang et al., 2003, 2004). Specification of the ionosphere condition in the auroral region is urgently needed.

A representation of auroral characteristics in IRI has long been an important issue on the agenda of IRI developers (Bilitza, 1995) and users (Szuszczewicz et al., 1993). As a first step towards this goal a model description of auroral boundaries needs to be included in IRI to specify the location of the auroral oval on the globe and to describe the expansion of the oval with increasing magnetic activity. The first generation of auroral oval representations was based on all sky imager observations, e.g., Holzworth and Meng (1975). Next came a series of models that described the precipitating particle flux distribution in the auroral oval based on satellite in situ particle measurements (Wallis and Budzinski, 1981; Spiro et al., 1982; Hardy et al., 1987; Fuller-Rowell and Evans, 1987). Using appropriate flux threshold values one can deduce auroral boundaries from these flux maps. Szuszczewicz et al. (1993) and Bilitza (1995) compared some of these boundary models with data and with each other and made recommendations regarding their use in IRI, but no clear favorite evolved. The most complete representation of auroral electron fluxes and boundaries can be achieved with FUV imagers like GUVI and SSUSI that simultaneously measure UV intensities in several wavelength bands including N₂ LBHS (140–150 nm) and LBHL (165–180 nm). The model of Zhang and Paxton (2008) is the latest and most advanced of these models and will be the base model for introducing auroral boundaries into IRI. Introduction of the boundaries will also not only allow the inclusion of a realistic auroral E-peak model but also other typical high-latitude features like the sub-auroral trough (Pröls, 2007) and the co-located enhancement in electron temperature (Pröls, 2006a,b).

The current version of IRI (Bilitza, 2001; Bilitza and Reinisch, 2008) does not include the contribution from the particle precipitation (mainly electrons (Hardy et al., 1987)) in the auroral oval. The shortcomings in the specification of the high latitude ionosphere, especially the E-region in the auroral oval, are becoming a significant obstacle in improving our understanding and ability to accurately forecast disturbances in the ionosphere and thermosphere

during magnetic storms. The IRI community also has already recognized the need for auroral oval information (e.g., auroral boundary) in IRI for many years (Bilitza, 1995). The availability of a large volume of optical and particle data sets from recent satellite missions allows near real-time global auroral specification and the development of a new auroral model (Zhang and Paxton, 2008). In this paper, we focus on assimilating auroral products (peak auroral E-region density and equatorward auroral boundary) from global spectrographic FUV auroral measurements or the FUV based auroral model into IRI. The FUV (or GUVI) based empirical auroral model can be driven by Kp or measured equatorward auroral boundary. Inclusion of the FUV auroral model allows flexibility in auroral specification in IRI.

2. Auroral data and model

2.1. Auroral data

Global FUV spectrograph instruments, such as TIMED/GUVI (Paxton and Meng, 1999; Christensen et al., 2003) and DMS/SSUSI (Paxton et al., 2002), simultaneously measure FUV emissions in a few bands including N₂ LBHS (140–150 nm) and LBHL (165–180 nm) at same locations with a high spatial resolution (~7–9 km at nadir). The simultaneous measurements provide a reliable and unbiased way to retrieve the characteristics (mean energy and energy flux) of precipitating electrons. Techniques have been developed to estimate the above two key auroral electron parameters, mean electron energy (E_0) and electron energy flux (Q), from the FUV auroral data. Strickland et al. (1983) proposed use of the N₂ LBHS and LBHL emissions to estimate E_0 and Q . Since the emissions of the LBHS and LBHL originate from the same species, their ratio is nearly independent of compositional changes. The key step in transforming the observed auroral LBHS and LBHL intensities into E_0 and Q of precipitating electrons is to establish a relationship between the observed intensities and these parameters. We first run the Boltzman Three Constituent (B3C) auroral transport code (Daniell, 1993) for Gaussian-distributed precipitating electrons with a fixed energy flux of 1 erg/(cm² s) and mean energies varying from 2 to 20 keV. Neutral atmospheric density profiles were taken from the MSIS86 model at a latitude of 60° (typical auroral latitude) with fixed F10.7 (150) and Ap (1) values. The Atmospheric Ultraviolet Radiance Integrated Code (AURIC) (Strickland et al., 1999) is then used to calculate the atmospheric radiance from the profiles of the volume emission rate generated by B3C. The GUVI E_0 and Q products have been routinely produced and posted on the GUVI website (<http://guvi.jhuapl.edu>). These products were used to develop a FUV based auroral model that covers the whole Kp range (0–9) (Zhang and Paxton, 2008). The same technique also produces peak auroral E-region density (NmE) and its associated height (hmE). The SSUSI instrument is nearly identical to GUVI.

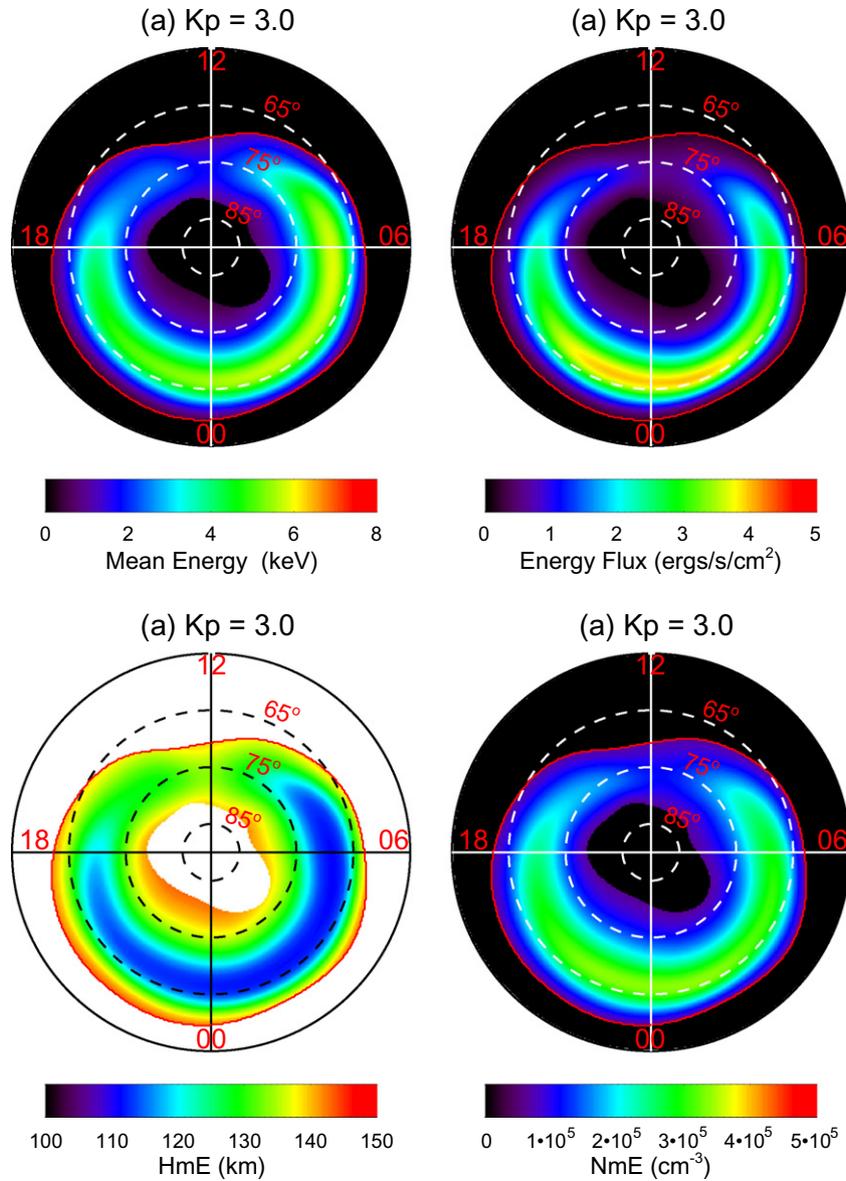


Fig. 1. Results from the GUVI based auroral model: (a) mean energy and (b) energy flux of precipitating electrons, (c) height (hmE) of the peak E-region density, and (d) NmE for $Kp = 3$. The plots are in magnetic coordinates (noon at top, mid-night at bottom, dawn at right, dusk at left). The red line shows the auroral equatorward boundary at a fixed flux threshold (0.2 ergs/s/cm^2). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

GUVI and SSUSI auroral products (E_o , Q , hmE , NmE and boundary) have been routinely produced in near real-time.

Therefore, it is ideal to use the GUVI and SSUSI auroral products in updating IRI.

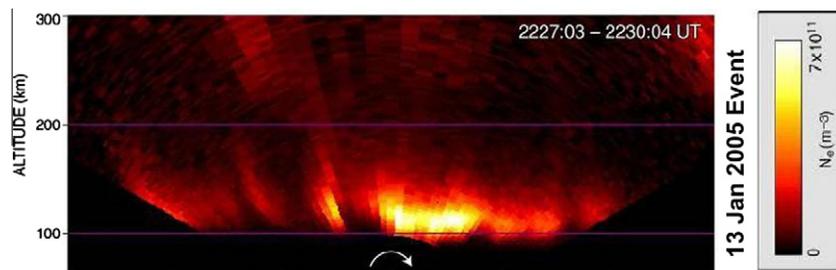


Fig. 2. Auroral ionospheric E-layer electron density profiles obtained from the Sondrestrom Incoherent Scattering Radar between 22:27 and 22:30 UT on January 13, 2005.

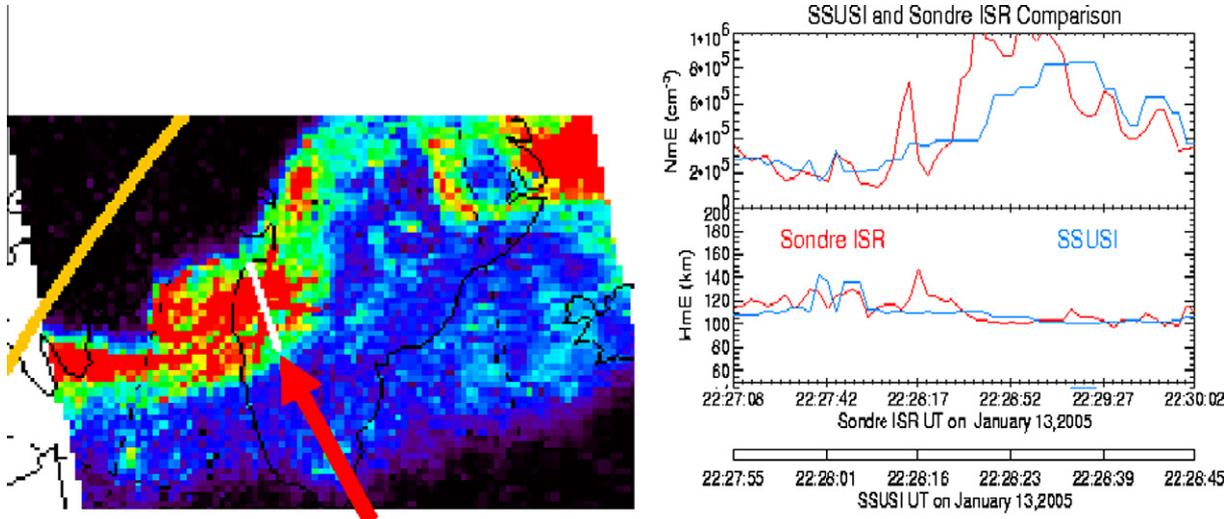


Fig. 3. Left panel: DMSP F16 SSUSI auroral image over Greenland. The white bar over intense aurora (indicated by a solid red arrow) shows the scan track of the Sondrestrom Incoherent Scatter Radar. Right: NmE , hmE along the white bar from SSUSI (blue line) and the radar (red line). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2.2. Auroral model

The FUV based auroral model (Zhang and Paxton, 2008) will also be used in updating IRI. The model is also called GUVI based model as it uses GUVI data. Details of the model description can be found in the reference. Here we show one example of the model outputs for a given

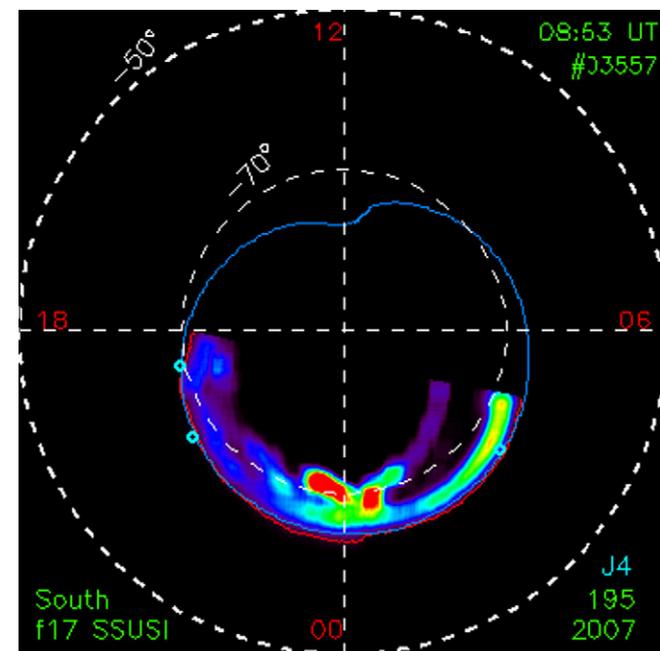


Fig. 4. Individual image of electron energy flux obtained from DMSP F17 SSUSI around 08:53 UT on July 14, 2007 (day of year: 195) in the southern hemisphere. The red line highlights the equatorward boundary. The blue line is the FUV model boundary that has the best fit to the SSUSI boundary. The three small blue circles show the equatorward boundary determined from simultaneous DMSP particle measurements. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Kp . The outputs (Fig. 1, $Kp = 3$) include Eo , Q , hmE , NmE and the equatorward boundary in the magnetic latitude (Mlat) and local time (MLT) coordinates. Fig. 1a indicates that the mean energy gradually increases from the dusk side to the night side and the dawn side. The mean energy reaches its minimum on the dayside. On the other hand, the energy flux (Fig. 1b) peaks on the nightside and reaches its minimum on the dayside. These features are consistent with dynamics and the drift path effect of high energy electrons in the central plasmas sheet and day-side cusp electrons with low energy and flux. The flux map also allows us to find the equatorward boundary (see red line in Fig. 1) of the auroral oval at a fixed flux threshold (0.2 ergs/s/cm^2). The corresponding hmE and NmE are shown in Figs. 1c and d. It is clear that the mean energy determines the hmE (e.g. $Eo > 6 \text{ keV}$ leads to low hmE ($\sim 110 \text{ km}$)). The NmE is mostly controlled by the energy flux and thus Fig. 1b and d is similar with each other. Using the FUV based auroral model in IRI provides the benefit of global specification of the aurora in IRI as measurements often have limited spatial coverage. In addition to Kp , the auroral model can be driven by near real-time measured equatorward auroral boundary.

3. Validation of auroral NmE , hmE and equatorward boundary

To validate the FUV auroral NmE and hmE , the NmE and hmE from coincident incoherent scattering radar (ISR) measurements were compared with DMSP F16 SSUSI NmE and hmE . Fig. 2 shows one example of the Sondrestrom ISR electron density profiles between 22:27 and 22:30 UT, January 13, 2005. During the period, the ISR scans from South to North (see the white bar in the left panel of Fig. 3 for the scan track). The left panel of Fig. 3 indicates part of the SSUSI auroral image over Greenland. The Son-

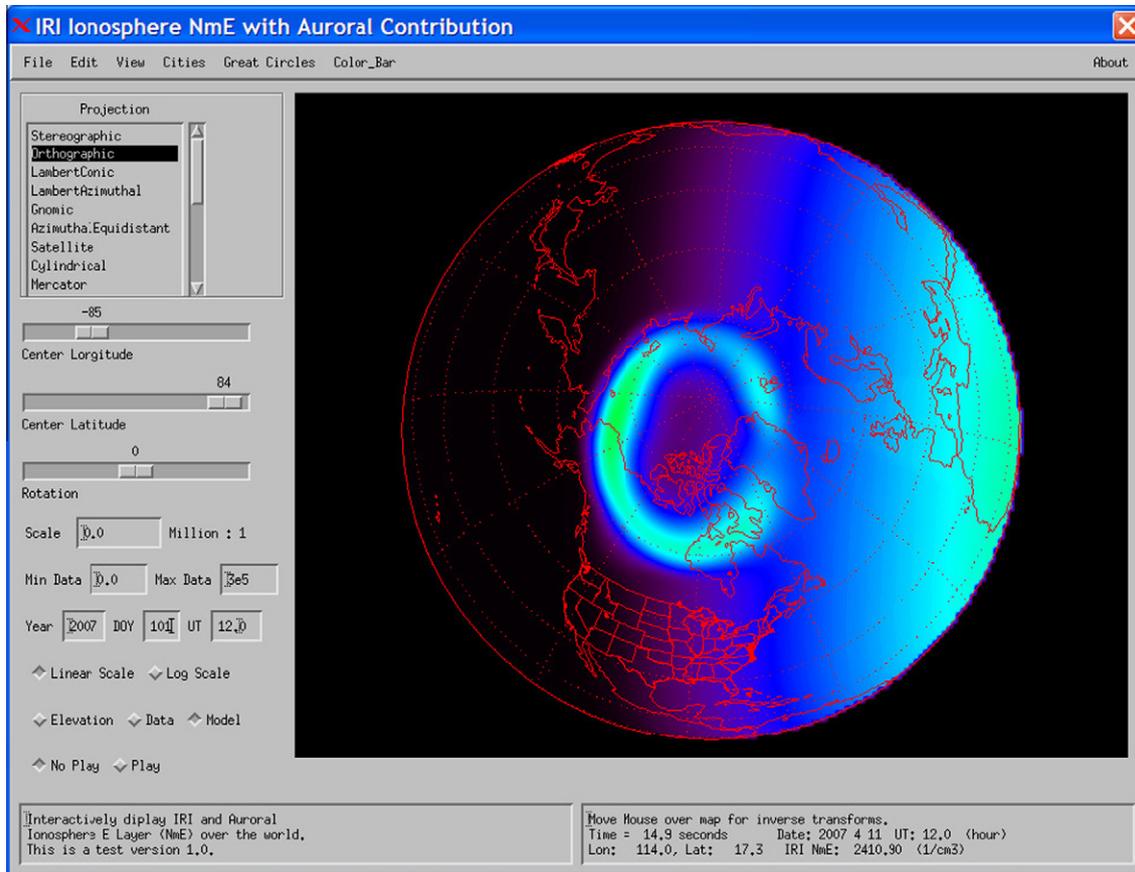


Fig. 5. IRI peak E-region electron density with assimilated auroral NmE based on the GUVI auroral model. The model was driven by measured Kp index. The display was realized through the IDL interactive software.

drestron ISR was scanning through intense auroras. The right panels in Fig. 3 show the comparison between SSUSI and ISR NmE and hmE along the ISR scanning track. Considering the different time and spatial resolutions and techniques used in SSUSI and ISR, and the dynamics of the discrete auroras, the SSUSI NmE and hmE agree remarkably well with those from the ISR. This is a typical example among a number SSUSI and ISR coincident events.

The DMSP F16 SSUSI calibration and validation effort has concluded that FUV based NmE and hmE values have a fairly good agreement with simultaneous independent incoherent scatter radar measurement during nighttime when the solar contribution is negligible and E-layer ionization is predominantly due to electron precipitation. All these indicate that the FUV based NmE and hmE are reliable products that can be used to update IRI in auroral regions.

The location of the auroral oval is also important and needs to be specified as it affects the global ionosphere and thermosphere response to the heating in the auroral region. The oval location is best specified by its equatorward boundaries. There are a number of ways to determine the boundaries. Here, we use a fixed flux threshold (0.2 ergs/s/cm^2) to find the boundaries as this is the most meaningful way in view of geophysical effectiveness. Fig. 4 shows one example of the electron energy flux map in Mlat-MLT coordinates based on DMSP F17 SSUSI data around 08:53 UT on July

14, 2007 in the southern hemisphere. Note the SSUSI data or swath just covered half of the auroral oval. The red line is the equatorward boundary of the SSUSI swath. It was called swath boundary, and is used to find the global boundary (blue line) by fitting the GUVI model based boundary (see example in Fig. 1) and the swath boundary. The small blue circles show the location of the equatorward boundary based on simultaneous DMSP particle data. It is clear that there is a very good agreement among the swath, global and independent particle boundaries. A statistical study done as part of the SSUSI calibration and validation effort also concluded that the SSUSI equatorward auroral boundary agrees well with the boundary determined from coincident particle measurements for relatively bright auroras with sharp boundaries.

4. Assimilating NmE and auroral boundary in IRI

4.1. Assimilating modeled NmE in IRI

The IRI outputs are usually specified in geographic coordinates. The GUVI auroral model, however, is based on magnetic latitude and local time. The first step is to transform the modeled NmE and boundary into geographic coordinates. We use AACGM (Altitude Adjusted CGM) (Baker and Wing, 1989) to do the transform by

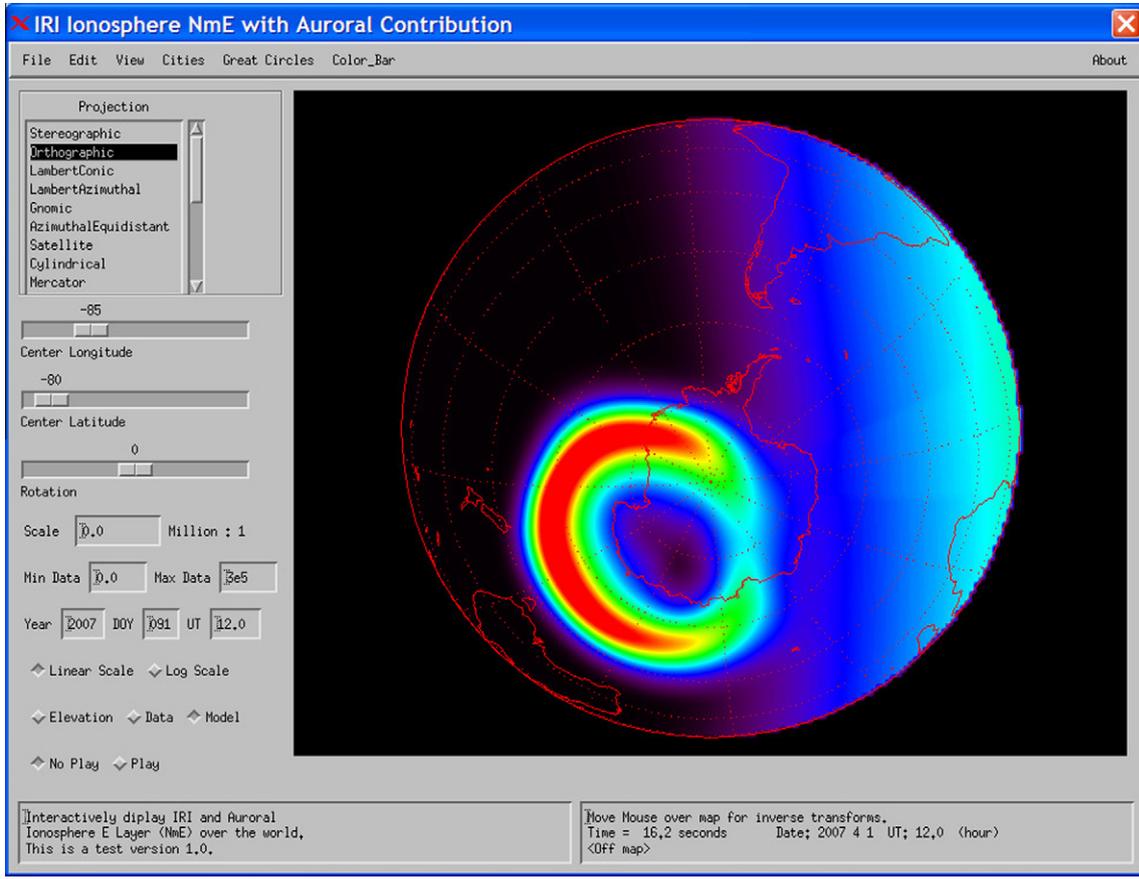


Fig. 6. Similar to Fig. 5 but for different date in the southern hemisphere.

assuming an altitude of 110 km, a typical height of auroral E-region peak density. The second step is to merge the NmE due to electron precipitation and solar EUV flux. In the auroral ionosphere, the electron density (N_e) is determined by the continuity equation (see the Eq. (1)), where V_e is the electron bulk velocity. The P_{ewv} and P_e are the electron production rates due to solar EUV flux and electron precipitation, respectively. The αN_e^2 is the electron loss rate due to ion–electron recombination. In the ionosphere E-region, the strong ion–neutral collision allows to neglect the convection term. We further assume that the ionization process quickly reaches local equilibrium, thus the time variation of N_e is 0. The electron density can then be determined by Eq. (2)

$$\frac{\partial N_e}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (N_e \vec{V}_e) = P_{ewv} + P_e - \alpha N_e^2 \quad (1)$$

$$\alpha N_e^2 = P_{ewv} + P_e \quad (2)$$

Let N_e^{ewv} represent the electron density due to solar EUV only and N_e^e due to electron precipitation only. They satisfy following conditions, similar to Eq. (2)

$$\alpha (N_e^{ewv})^2 = P_{ewv} \quad (3)$$

$$\alpha (N_e^e)^2 = P_e \quad (4)$$

Combining Eqs. (2)–(4) gives:

$$N_e = \sqrt{(N_e^{ewv})^2 + (N_e^e)^2} \quad (5)$$

As the ionosphere E-region peak heights due to solar EUV or typical precipitating electrons (a few keV) are roughly around 110 km, the Eq. (5) can be applied to the NmE . IRI provides solar EUV based NmE and the auroral model gives electron precipitation based NmE . Eq. (5) combines them to provide assimilated NmE (see one example in Fig. 5 in the northern hemisphere). The display in Fig. 5 was created using IDL widgets that call the IRI and the auroral model, assimilate the NmE , and interactively show the location and associated NmE value at the computer mouse position. The IDL widgets also allow free rotation and zoom of the earth for either global or local view. In addition to the model NmE , the near real-time GUVI and SSUSI auroral products have been successfully assimilated to IRI using the IDL software.

Fig. 6 shows another example of model NmE that was assimilated into IRI for different date and in the southern hemisphere. Both of Figs. 5 and 6 indicate that the NmE due to precipitating electrons is much larger than the NmE due to solar EUV radiation at the auroral latitudes. This confirms the importance of including contribution of the precipitating electrons in IRI. The equatorward boundary from the auroral model (see Fig. 1) was not included in Figs. 5 and 6. But the boundary was included with near real-time FUV aurora data (see examples later).

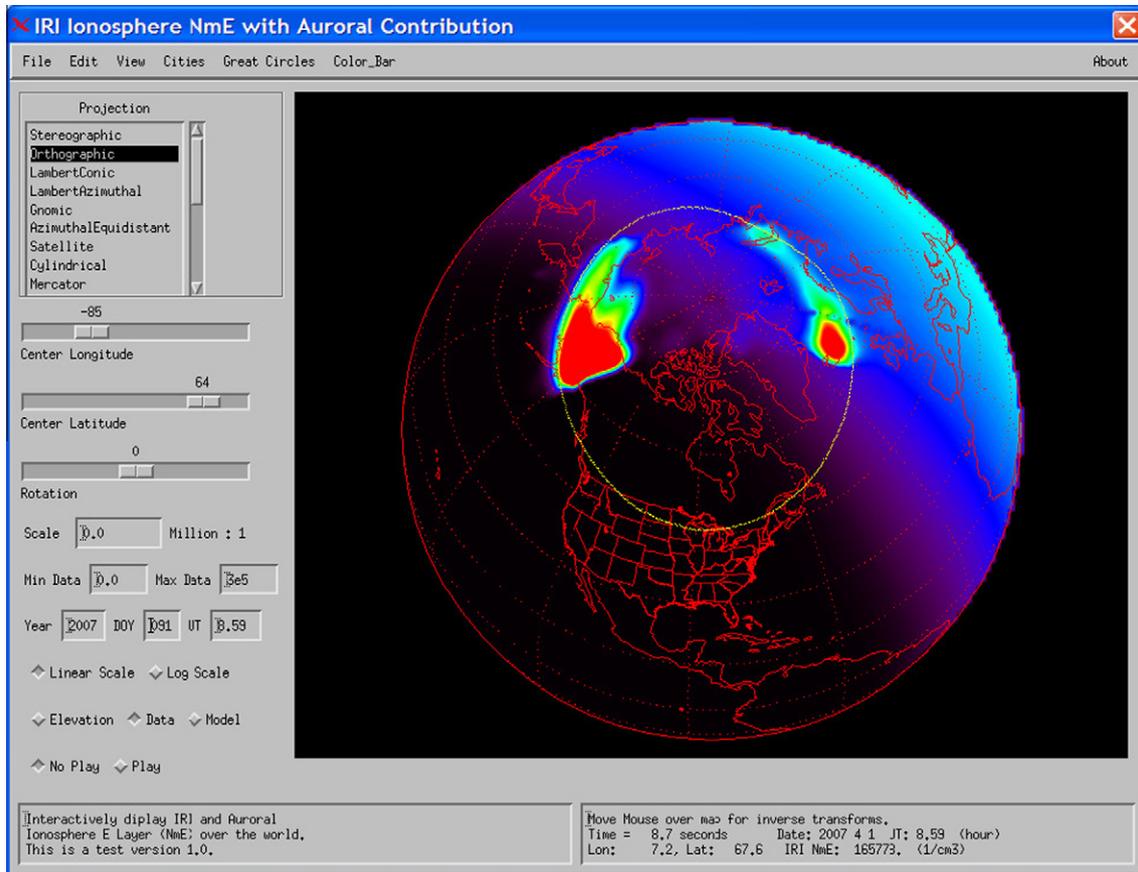


Fig. 7. Near real-time assimilation of SSUSI NmE into IRI on the northern hemisphere. The yellow line is the fitted global equatorial model boundary. The enhanced NmE in polar region indicates the swath of SSUSI measurements. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

4.2. Assimilating near real-time measured NmE and boundary in IRI

Using the same method described in Section 4.1, the near real-time or historical auroral products (NmE and boundary) from SSUSI and GUVI has been assimilated into IRI. Fig. 7 shows one example of IRI with assimilated SSUSI NmE and global boundary (yellow line). Despite of limited spatial coverage of SSUSI data, the SSUSI NmE provide an indicator of magnitude of auroral NmE as well as the global auroral oval location through the boundary. The example in Fig. 7 also demonstrates that the FUV spectrographic imaging technique allows SSUSI and GUVI to detect auroral emissions and generate auroral products under both nighttime and sunlit conditions. Fig. 8 shows another example at different time on the southern hemisphere. Again, these examples indicate that the auroral NmE can be much larger than the solar EUV NmE at high latitudes.

5. Discussion

The advanced FUV spectrographic imaging technique used in SSUSI and GUVI provides accurate atmospheric emission intensities simultaneously from same locations

over different wavelength bands. This technique eliminates the errors due to out of band contribution, non-simultaneous measurements and different fields of view in traditional filter based FUV imagers. With the B3C and AURIC modeling tools, the SSUSI and GUVI data provide unbiased estimation of the characteristics of precipitating electrons and associated ionospheric parameters (NmE , hmE and boundary). The validation of the auroral ionospheric products demonstrated the value of the SSUSI and GUVI auroral products. One important feature from the NmE assimilation is that the auroral NmE is significantly larger than the NmE due to solar EUV. This confirms the urgent need to include auroral contribution in IRI as accurate specification of E-region electron density is very important for a better estimation and understanding of storm time Joule heating, the major driver of the ionosphere and thermosphere space weather.

The above results support the early simulation conclusions. Comparison between TGCM runs (Roble and Ridley, 1987) with and without auroral precipitation shows that relatively soft particles ($\sim 1\text{--}2$ keV) provide sufficient ionization in the lower ionosphere to be competitive with solar photo-ionization and can alter the dynamics in the lower thermosphere in the summer hemisphere. In the winter hemisphere, particle precipitation has a much larger

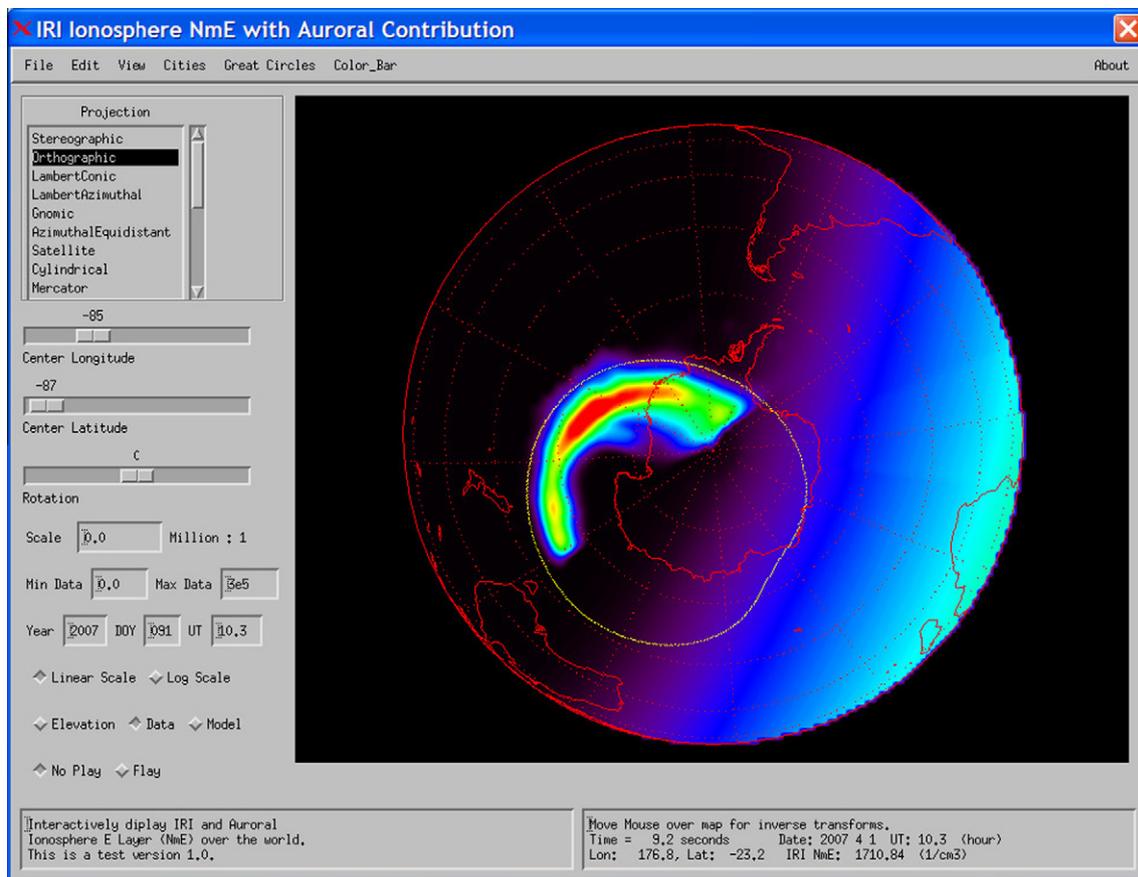


Fig. 8. Similar to Fig. 7 but for different time and southern hemisphere.

influence on the dynamical structure of both the upper and lower thermosphere. Roble and Ridley (1987) found that at the F-region heights (~ 300 km) both the polar cap temperature and wind velocity increased due to auroral precipitation. The dusk cell convection velocities are enhanced and reach a maximum velocity of 70 m/s. Enhanced Joule heating produces a temperature increase of about 50 K in the polar cap. In addition, Roble and Ridley (1987) found that auroral particle precipitation provides sufficient ionization in the lower thermosphere to alter the circumpolar circulation. Such an effect is more significant in the winter hemisphere. These indicate that the IRI with assimilated auroral NmE could also be useful to specify polar ionosphere conditions in global ionosphere, thermosphere, or magnetosphere simulations.

In addition to the NmE , location of the enhanced ionization or auroral oval is also important. It is expected that the ionosphere and thermosphere will have different responses if the enhanced NmE with the same magnitude is located at different latitudes. Inclusion of the equatorward auroral boundary in IRI (as shown in Figs. 7 and 8) will also improve the specification of auroral ionosphere in IRI and help all applications that use IRI in high latitudes.

The interactive IDL display tool demonstrates that the NmE and auroral boundary assimilation in IRI can be done in near real-time. Furthermore, when a predicted

Kp is available, the FUV auroral model could be used to forecast the auroral products.

6. Summary and future work

The global IRI community has been continuously working on improving the International Reference Ionosphere. Assimilation auroral NmE and equatorward boundary in IRI is part of the improvement efforts. The FUV auroral data and products from SSUSI and GUVI as well as the FUV based auroral model provide unique data sources and tool to update the IRI in near real-time. The interactive IDL display package provides a useful way to monitor the polar and global E-region peak density in near real-time. It can also be used as space weather operation tool.

The next step is to assimilate auroral E-region density profiles in IRI. This will remove the requirement that the hmE due to precipitating electron is around 110 km, the IRI hmE . We also plan to translate the FUV auroral model (currently in IDL) to FORTRAN and make it a part of future IRI.

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