Modelling He and H Isotopes in the Radiation Belts

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Nuclear interactions between inner zone protons and atoms in the upper atmosphere produce energetic H and He nuclei that are an additional radiation belt source. We calculate production rates of these isotopes from models of the inner zone proton intensity, the upper atmosphere drift averaged composition and densities, and cross-sections for the various interaction processes. For comparison with observations of radiation belt H and He isotopes, the production rates are combined with a model of the energy loss rate in the residual atmosphere to calculate particle intensities. Although the calculations are in principle straightforward, they depend on a detailed knowledge of the various model inputs, including models for radiation belt protons, and may also depend on the phase of the solar cycle. On the other hand, the results of the calculations, when compared with the observational data, can provide useful tests of the model inputs. Preliminary results show that the atmosphere is a significant source for inner zone $^4$He, $^3$He, and d.

1. INTRODUCTION

The inner radiation belt is composed primarily of protons that were produced locally by the cosmic ray albedo neutron decay (CRAND) process, due to collisions between cosmic rays and the neutral atmosphere. The trapped protons similarly create a secondary source of trapped particles by their own nuclear interactions with the atmosphere. This process is less efficient than CRAND for producing protons because the particles must be injected directly whereas the neutrons can propagate to high altitudes, where the atmospheric density is low, before decaying. However, because CRAND produces only protons and electrons, the secondary process can be a significant source of other trapped particles such as isotopes of H and He.

The CRAND source has been the subject of several theoretical calculations for comparison with the trapped proton data (e.g. Dragt [1971]; Farley and Walt [1971]; Jentsch and Wibberenz [1980]; Jentsch [1981]). However, probably due to a lack of data on the composition of the high energy trapped ions, the secondary source has not been studied in detail. The new data from SAMPEX [Cummings et al., 1995; Looper et al., 1995] prompted us to begin such an investigation. Although the calculation is analogous to the CRAND case, it is complicated by the need to calculate the source function due to each of the many possible nuclear interactions. In the CRAND calculations the neutron source was generally an empirical model based on neutron flux measurements.

2. CALCULATIONS

If the atmospheric production of trapped particles is balanced only by ionization energy loss in the atmosphere, then their intensity $j$ satisfies a continuity equation [Jentsch and Wibberenz, 1980]

$$\frac{1}{v} \frac{\partial j}{\partial t} = S + \frac{\partial}{\partial E} \left( j \left| \frac{dE}{dx} \right| \right),$$

(1)

where $v = dx/dt$ is the (non-relativistic) speed of the trapped particle at time $t$ and kinetic energy $E$. The production rate in $(\text{cm}^3 \text{s} \text{sr MeV})^{-1}$ is $S$. The intensity $j$ can be time dependent through $S$ which generally varies due to the solar cycle. In the steady-state case, or if the particle lifetimes are short
compared to the 11 year solar cycle, the solution is

\[
j = \int_0^\infty S \frac{dE}{dx} \, dE.
\]  

The integral should be cut-off at the maximum energy of adiabatically trapped particles, but this is not significant for a sufficiently soft spectrum. The solution (2) also applies to particles with lifetimes that are long compared to the solar cycle time if \( S \) is interpreted as the solar cycle average value. For cases where the lifetimes are comparable to the solar cycle time, a time dependent solution is possible [Jentsch and Wibberenz, 1980]. For protons, the continuity equation (1) is valid for low \( L \) shells \( (L \leq 1.3) \) beyond which radial diffusion from an external source becomes significant at low energies \( (\lesssim 30 \text{ MeV}) \) [Jentsch, 1981].

The production rate of secondaries is

\[
S = \sum_i \int dE_p \int d\Omega_p n_i j_p \frac{d^2\sigma_i}{d\Omega dE}.
\]

The summation extends over all interactions that lead to a given type of secondary particle and the integrals cover the range of proton energies \( E_p \) and solid angle \( \Omega_p \) that kinematically can produce secondaries with energy \( E \), pitch-angle \( \alpha \) in a solid angle \( \Omega \), and at a given \( L \) shell. The atmospheric density, \( n_i \), of target atoms for the interaction \( i \) is averaged over the drift path of protons for each \( L \) and proton pitch angle \( \alpha_p \). The proton intensity is \( j_p \) and the cross section for interaction \( i \) is \( \sigma_i \). Both \( n_i \) and \( j_p \) may be functions of time due to solar cycle variations. Calculating \( S \) from Eq. (3) requires knowledge of the atmospheric densities, the trapped proton intensities and drift paths, and the interaction cross-sections. In addition, calculating \( j \) from (3) requires knowledge of the energy loss rate in the atmosphere.

For the atmosphere we use the Mass-Spectrometer-Induced-Scatter-1986 (MSIS-86) neutral atmosphere model [Hedin, 1987] as encoded by the National Space Science Data Center (NSSDC), which provides number densities of He, O, N\textsubscript{2}, O\textsubscript{2}, Ar, H, and N as functions of day-of-year, local time, altitude, geodetic latitude and longitude, solar 10.7 cm flux \( (F_{10.7}) \) for the previous day and a 3 month average, and the magnetic \( A_p \) index. For the Earth's magnetic field we use the International Geomagnetic Reference Field (IGRF) model extrapolated to 1992 [Langel, 1991] from the NSSDC. To calculate the drift averaged densities for each element, trajectories of 100 MeV protons were calculated numerically for a given \( L \) shell starting from the minimum magnetic field \( B \) on that \( L \) shell at a given altitude and continuing for one complete drift in longitude around the Earth. The minimum \( B \) was converted to an equatorial pitch angle and the starting altitude was varied to provide the drift-averaged densities as a function of \( \alpha_p \). A typical value of \( F_{10.7} = 140 \) was used to simulate solar average conditions.

The drift averaged atmospheric densities were also used to calculate energy loss rates in the atmosphere using the formulas compiled by Salamon [1980]. We assume that the secondary particles have no bound electrons. Note that for \( L \gtrsim 1.3 \) energy loss to free electrons in the ionosphere and plasmasphere can be significant [Jentsch, 1981], but this is not included in the model. Trapped particle lifetimes against energy loss in the atmosphere can be calculated from \( dE/dx \).

They are generally short at low altitudes (small equatorial pitch-angles) but can be long at high altitudes and \( L \) shells. Note that the trapped particles observed by a satellite orbiting at low altitude must all have relatively short lifetimes regardless of \( L \) shell because all of these particles must reach that altitude.

The proton intensities were derived from the empirical NASA AP-8 models obtained from NSSDC. These provide proton omnidirectional integral intensities, \( J_p \), as a function of \( L \) and \( B/B_0 \), the ratio of local to equatorial magnetic fields, for solar minimum and solar maximum conditions, although significant solar cycle variations were not found for our region of interest. The equatorial directional differential intensity was calculated by numerically evaluating

\[
j_p = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial E \partial x} \int_0^\infty J_p(E, x') \frac{dx'}{(x - x')^{3/2}},
\]

where \( x = B_0/B \). Sample proton energy spectra are shown in Figure 1.
The final input to the source function (3) is the cross-section data for a given nuclear interaction. This should be differential in energy and solid-angle. If the interaction has only two in-going and two out-going particles then the kinematics can be used to simplify the calculation. For the reaction designated $1(2,3)4$ involving particles of rest mass $m_1$, $m_2$, $m_3$, and $m_4$, where $m_1$ collides with $m_2$ which is at rest in the laboratory system, the initial 4-momenta are $(E_1, \mathbf{p}_1), (m_2, 0)$ in the lab and $(\epsilon_1, \mathbf{k}), (\epsilon_2, -\mathbf{k})$ in the center-of-mass, while the final 4-momenta are $(E_3, \mathbf{p}_3), (E_4, \mathbf{p}_4)$ and $(\epsilon_3, \mathbf{k'}), (\epsilon_4, -\mathbf{k'})$ respectively. If $m_4$ is the secondary particle of interest, then the scattering angles in the center-of-mass, $\Theta$, and the lab, $\theta_4$ are related to the energies by the Lorentz transformation

$$E_4 = \gamma \epsilon_4 - \gamma \beta k' \cos \Theta$$

and to each other by

$$\tan \theta_4 = \frac{\sin \Theta}{\gamma (-\cos \Theta + \frac{\beta}{\beta_4})},$$

where $\beta = p_1/(\gamma E)$ and $\gamma = (E_1 + m_2)/E$ are the center-of-mass speed and Lorentz factor, $E = (2E_1m_2 + m_1^2 + m_2^2)^{1/2}$ and $\beta_4 = k'/\epsilon_4$ are the total energy and $m_4$ speed in the center-of-mass. From Eq. (5)

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_4} = \frac{2\pi}{\gamma \beta k'} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_c},$$

where $\Omega_c$ is the center-of-mass solid angle. In this case the double differential cross-section can be expressed in terms of either of the single differential cross-sections. For example

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{d\Omega dE_4} = \frac{d\sigma}{dE_4} \frac{\delta(\theta_4 - \theta_4(E))}{2\pi \sin \theta_4}$$

where $\theta_4(E)$ is given by Eq. (6).

To do the source integral (3) over the $\delta$-function in Eq. (8) we change variables from $\alpha_0$ and the proton gyrophase angle to $\theta$ and the initial proton phase angle $\phi_p$ around the secondary particle direction, by a rotation of the axes:

$$S = \sum_i \int dE_p \frac{d\sigma_i}{dE} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi d\phi_p n_i j_p,$$
where \( \cos \phi_p = (\cos \alpha_p - \cos \alpha \cos \theta)/(\sin \alpha \sin \theta) \) and \( \theta \) is the scattering angle \( \theta_4 \) from Eq. (6). Note that if \( n_i \) and \( J_p \) are independent of \( \alpha_p \) then (9) leads to the expected result

\[
S = \sum_i \int dE_p n_i J_p \frac{d\sigma_i}{dE}
\]  

(10)

for the source function due to an isotropic proton flux in a homogeneous atmosphere.

The first interaction that we consider is \( p + ^4\text{He} \rightarrow ^4\text{He} \), elastic scattering of atmospheric \(^4\text{He}\). The maximum kinetic energy of the scattered \(^4\text{He}\) is approximately 16/25 times the proton kinetic energy, so that a 100 MeV proton can produce a \(^4\text{He}\) of up to 16 MeV/nucleon. Cross-section data are shown in Figure 2 from various sources listed in the figure caption. They are generally peaked in the direction where protons are forward scattered, but the most efficient direction for trapping the scattered \(^4\text{He}\) is where the protons are scattered backward (\( \cos \Theta = -1 \)), and the scattered \(^4\text{He}\) follow the original proton trajectories. However, small and intermediate angle scattering can also lead to significant particle trapping if the pitch angle is approximately conserved, especially at the high proton energies where the cross-sections are strongly forward-peaked.

Results of the calculation using Eqs. (9) and (2) for elastic scattering of \(^4\text{He}\) are shown in Figures 3. The \(^4\text{He}\) intensity at a given energy-per-nucleon varies with equatorial pitch angle due the corresponding variation in the relative concentration of \(^4\text{He}\) in the drift-averaged atmosphere. It varies with \( L \) primarily due to the variation in the proton intensity. The pitch angle distribution changes from being strongly peaked at 90° for \( L = 1.2 \) to being peaked near the edge of the loss cone for \( L = 2.1 \).

We next consider the pickup reaction \( p + ^4\text{He} \rightarrow ^3\text{He} + d \). Cross-section data are shown in Figure 4. The backward direction \( (\cos \Theta = -1) \) is again most efficient for trapping \(^3\text{He}\) while the forward direction \( (\cos \Theta = 1) \) is most efficient for trapping \( d \). The \(^3\text{He}\) and \( d \) intensities are shown in Figures 5 and 6 respectively.

The \(^3\text{He}\) has a harder spectrum than the \(^4\text{He}\) from elastic scattering due to the differing energy dependencies of the cross sections at backward angles. The deuterium intensity is much higher than those of \(^4\text{He}\) and \(^3\text{He}\) because the cross sections are forward peaked.

There are other reactions that can also produce the isotopes considered above. For example, protons can collide with atmospheric \( O \), which is relatively dense at low altitudes, producing evaporation and direct knock-out products including
$^4\text{He}, ^3\text{He}, \text{and } d$. The kinematics are not determined as in Eq. (5). Instead, cross-sections and the energy distribution of the products are measured. However, the data are sparse and several approximations must be made. Detailed measurements at $E_p = 90$ MeV have been made by Wu et al. [1979]. They found that the evaporation products are generally isotropic and low-energy, so they are not significant here, while the knock-out products are forward-peaked and higher energy. To simplify the calculation we assume that they are produced in the forward direction only:

$$
\frac{d^2\sigma}{d\Omega dE} = \sigma(E_p) \frac{\delta(\theta)}{2\pi \sin \theta} F(E_p, E).
$$

For the energy distribution $F$ we assume an exponential independent of $E_p$ except for a cutoff at the maximum energy $E_{\text{max}}$ which differs from $E_p$ by the binding energy of the knock-out product in the original nucleus

$$
F(E_p, E) = \frac{1}{E_0} \frac{e^{-E/E_0}}{1 - e^{-E_{\text{max}}/E_0}} H(E_{\text{max}} - E).
$$

The $e$-folding energy is $E_0$ and $H$ is a unit step function. The values of $E_0$ are taken from the angle-integrated spectra of Wu et al. and are 15.9 MeV for $^4\text{He}$, 29.5 MeV for $^3\text{He}$, and 77.8 MeV for $d$. The total cross sections $\sigma(E_p)$ are taken from Cucinotta et al. [1996].

The source function based on the approximation Eq. (11) is

$$
S = \int dE_p n_p \sigma F,
$$

where $n$, the drift averaged $O$ density, and $j_p$ are evaluated at $\alpha_p = \alpha$. The resulting $^3\text{He}$ intensities are shown in Figure 7. Atmospheric $O$ appears to be a significant source at $L = 1.2$ only. At the higher $L$ shells the $O$ products are significant only in a narrow range of equatorial pitch angles near the edges of the loss cones, corresponding to the altitude range where $O$ is the dominant component of the atmosphere. Similar results are obtained for $d$ and $^4\text{He}$. However, because of the differing energy spectra (different values of $E_0$) the atmospheric $O$ source is relatively more significant for $d$ and less significant for $^4\text{He}$, compared with $^3\text{He}$. Compared with the atmospheric He source at $L = 1.2$, atmospheric $O$ appears to be a comparable source of $^4\text{He}$ and $d$, and a dominant source of $^3\text{He}$. However, the $O$ source is uncertain due to the lack of cross-section data and should be considered only a rough estimate.
3. DISCUSSION

The $^4$He, $^3$He, and d intensities described above are comparable in magnitude to the results from SAMPEX reported by Cummings et al. [1995] and Looper et al. [1995], and to the higher energy CRRES data reported by Wefel et al. [1995]. Detailed comparisons between the data and model results will be reported elsewhere. However, it is clear that the atmosphere is a significant and possibly dominant source of these isotopes for the inner zone.

While the elastic scattering and pick-up reactions involving atmospheric He are reasonably well understood, the primary uncertainty in the calculations is due to the lack of experimental cross-section data for the reactions with atmospheric O. Other reactions may also be significant, such as p(d,$\pi$) for producing high energy d, while elastic scattering of atmospheric constituents other than He, such as H and O, may also be significant sources for their corresponding radiation belt components.

Other possible improvements in the calculation would be to include solar-cycle variations, to evaluate the time dependence in cases where the lifetimes are comparable to the solar cycle time [Jentsch and Wibberenz, 1980], and to evaluate the role of radial diffusion, which is probably significant at the higher L shells [Jentsch, 1981].

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DISCUSSION

Q: J.B. Blake. Has tritium abundance been calculated?

Q: J.B. Blake. Do you understand why we don’t see tritium in the PET data?
A: R.A. Mewaldt. The available cross sections suggest that $^3$H should be at least an order of magnitude less abundant than $^2$H. It may be there in the data but not resolved.