

Ion and electron heating at quasi-parallel bow shocks

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Abstract

Measurements from the Magnetospheric Multiscale (MMS) mission indicate that the density gradients associated with nonlinear compressional structures (shocklets) in a quasi-parallel bow shock trigger sequentially two instabilities that heat ions and electrons. The Lower-Hybrid-Drift (LHD) instability, triggered by the diamagnetic drift of ions, produces electric fields and ExB drift of electrons that triggers the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift (ECD) instability. Both instabilities create large amplitude electric fields $\sim 20\text{--}200$ mV/m at wavelengths comparable to the electron gyroradius. Strong gradients of the electric field lead to stochastic heating of both ions and electrons, controlled by a dimensionless function $\chi = m_i q_i^{-1} B^2 \mathop{\mathrm{div}}(\mathbf{E}_{\perp})$, which represents a universal, non-resonant heating mechanism for particles species with mass m_i and charge q_i , independent of the type of waves and instabilities.

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Key Points:

- Density gradients of nonlinear compressional structures (shocklets) in quasi-parallel shocks trigger the Lower-Hybrid-Drift (LHD) instability.
- The LHD instability creates fast ExB drifts of electrons, which trigger the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift (ECD) instability.
- Both LHD and ECD instabilities create large amplitude electric fields, which via a stochastic mechanism lead to ion and electron heating at shock waves.

Abstract

Measurements from the Magnetospheric Multiscale (MMS) mission indicate that the density gradients associated with nonlinear compressional structures (shocklets) in a quasi-parallel bow shock trigger sequentially two instabilities that heat ions and electrons. The Lower-Hybrid-Drift (LHD) instability, triggered by the diamagnetic drift of ions, produces electric fields and ExB drift of electrons that triggers the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift (ECD) instability. Both instabilities create large amplitude electric fields $\sim 20\text{--}200$ mV/m at wavelengths comparable to the electron gyroradius. Strong gradients of the electric field lead to stochastic heating of both ions and electrons, controlled by a dimensionless function $\chi = m_i q_i^{-1} B^{-2} \text{div}(\mathbf{E}_\perp)$, which represents a universal, non-resonant heating mechanism for particles species with mass m_i and charge q_i , independent of the type of waves and instabilities.

Plain Language Summary

Collisionless shocks in space represent amazing natural phenomena associated with a number of physical problems that attract a great deal of attention: turbulence, stochasticity, wave-particle interactions, nonlinear structures, shocklets, particle heating and acceleration. In astrophysics, shock acceleration is considered to be the primary acceleration mechanism. Using measurements from the Magnetospheric Multiscale (MMS) mission we demonstrate that ion and electron heating at the bow shock is caused by a stochastic mechanism related to gradients of the electric fields produced by the Lower-Hybrid-Drift (LHD) instability and the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift (ECD) instability.

1 Introduction

Collisionless shocks in space represent amazing natural phenomena associated with a number of physical problems that attract a great deal of attention: turbulence, stochasticity, wave-particle interactions, nonlinear structures, shocklets, particle heating and acceleration. In astrophysics, shock acceleration is considered to be the primary acceleration mechanism. Wherever energetic particles are produced, shocks are either observed to occur or are expected to do so, e.g., solar flares, corotating interaction regions in the solar wind, supernovae remnants, and accreting binary systems.

The most investigated plasma shock wave is the terrestrial bow shock formed at a distance of $14 R_E$ in front of the Earth, where the solar wind collides with the outermost regions of the magnetosphere. It is well known that shocks thermalise incoming solar wind, and produce also some energetic particles. There are a variety of processes that can heat and energise particles in a collisionless plasma. In reviews by Wu et al. (1984); Gary (1993); Treumann (2009); Burgess et al. (2012) one can find a long list of instabilities that could play a role in ion and electron heating – however, insufficient support from observations put the question on the dominant mechanism into inconclusive state.

On the basis of measurements from the Magnetospheric Multiscale MMS mission (Burch et al., 2016), it has been shown (Stasiewicz, 2020) that particle heating at quasi-perpendicular bow shocks is related to two drift instabilities: the Lower-Hybrid-Drift, and the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift instability. The LHD instability is a cross-field current-driven instability generated on the density gradients, when the diamagnetic drift of ions (assumed protons) $V_d = T_p(m_p\omega_{cp}L_n)^{-1} = v_{tp}(r_p/L_n)$ is comparable to the thermal ion speed, $v_{tp} = (T_p/m_p)^{1/2}$, or equivalently when the scale of the density gradient $L_n = (N^{-1}|\nabla N|)^{-1}$ is comparable to the ion cyclotron radius $r_p = v_{tp}/\omega_{cp}$. Here, T_p , m_p , ω_{cp} are proton temperature, mass, and cyclotron frequency. The maximum growth rate is at $k_\perp r_e \sim 1$, i.e., at wavelengths of a few electron gyroradii (Davidson et al., 1977; Huba et al., 1978; Daughton, 2003).

60 The LHD instability creates electric fields, which lead to strong ExB drifts of elec-
 61 trons only, because ions are not subject to this drift due to the large gyroradius in com-
 62 parison to the width of drift channels, and also due to frequency much greater than the
 63 ion gyrofrequency. When the electron drift speed becomes comparable to the thermal
 64 speed, $V_E \sim v_{te}$, the ECD instability is initiated, which produces shorter wavelengths
 65 and occurs at the resonance $k_{\perp} V_E \sim n\omega_{ce}$ that couples electron Bernstein modes with
 66 ion-acoustic waves (Forsslund et al., 1972; Lashmore-Davies, 1971; Muschietti & Lembége,
 67 2013). The ECD waves have been identified at the bow shock in measurements from STEREO,
 68 Wind and MMS (Wilson III et al., 2010; Breneman et al., 2013; Goodrich et al., 2018).
 69 It is interesting to note that the same ExB drift of electrons excites the ECD instabil-
 70 ity in space and in Hall ion thrusters (Boeuf & Garrigues, 2018).

71 These two instabilities generate large amplitude electric fields 20–200 mV/m on short
 72 spatial scales ($\sim r_e$) that perturb orbits of gyrating ions and electrons by breaking the
 73 magnetic moments and causing chaotic particle movements. This facilitates efficient stochas-
 74 tic heating by the present electric fluctuations, and even by the DC field. The condition
 75 for stochastic heating of particles with mass m_i , charge q_i is (Stasiewicz, 2020)

$$\chi_i(t, \mathbf{r}) = \frac{m_i}{q_i B^2} \text{div}(\mathbf{E}_{\perp}); |\chi_i| > 1. \quad (1)$$

76 This condition with divergence reduced to the directional gradient $\partial_x E_x$, has been used
 77 by several authors to explain heating of particles in laboratory and space (Cole, 1976;
 78 McChesney et al., 1987; Karney, 1979; Balikhin et al., 1993; Gedalin et al., 1995; Mishin
 79 & Banaszekiewicz, 1998; Stasiewicz et al., 2000; Stasiewicz, 2007; Vranjes & Poedts, 2010;
 80 Stasiewicz et al., 2013; See et al., 2013; Yoon & Bellan, 2019). The heating function can
 81 be regarded as a quantitative measure of the demagnetisation of the particle species m_i .
 82 It is also related to the charge non-neutrality, because $\chi = (N_c/N)(c^2/V_{Ai}^2)$, where $V_{Ai}^2 =$
 83 $B^2/(\mu_0 N m_i)$, upon substitution $\text{div}(\mathbf{E}) = N_c q_i / \epsilon_0$. However, only \mathbf{E}_{\perp} is put into (1)
 84 to exclude modes with E_{\parallel} , like Langmuir or ion acoustic waves that do not contribute
 85 to the stochasticity.

86 The scenario outlined above has been deduced from the analysis of MMS measure-
 87 ments at a quasi-perpendicular shock, so it would be interesting to check whether it is
 88 applicable also for quasi-parallel shocks, which is the purpose of this Letter.

89 2 Observations

90 We use here plasma parameters provided by the Fast Plasma Investigation (Pollock
 91 et al., 2016) on MMS, measurements of the electric field (Lindqvist et al., 2016; Ergun
 92 et al., 2016; Torbert et al., 2016) and the magnetic field measured by the Fluxgate Mag-
 93 netometer (Russell et al., 2016).

94 When the interplanetary magnetic field is in the direction quasi-parallel to the shock
 95 normal, instead of a single ramp of the perpendicular bow shock, an extended foreshock
 96 region is formed, filled with nonlinear compressional structures (shocklets) similar to those
 97 shown in Fig. 1a. These shocklets have spatial scales of $\sim 1,000$ km and represent com-
 98 pressions of the plasma density and the magnetic field by a factor 2–10 times the back-
 99 ground values (Schwartz & Burgess, 1991; Stasiewicz et al., 2003; Lucek et al., 2008; Wil-
 100 son III et al., 2013). The large amplitude shocklets are standing against the solar wind
 101 flow and move with respect to spacecraft with speed of ~ 10 km/s. In the vicinity of
 102 the shocklets in Fig. 1a we observe intense electron heating shown in panel 1b (increase
 103 of T_e by a factor of 4), and the ion heating shown in panel 1c (increase of $T_i = T_p$ by
 104 a factor of 8).

105 Figure 1a indicates presence of strong gradients of the density, so we expect that
 106 the region may be unstable for the LHD instability. To verify that this is the case we
 107 compute the gradient scale $L_N = (N^{-1} |\nabla N|)^{-1}$ for the plasma density using a gen-

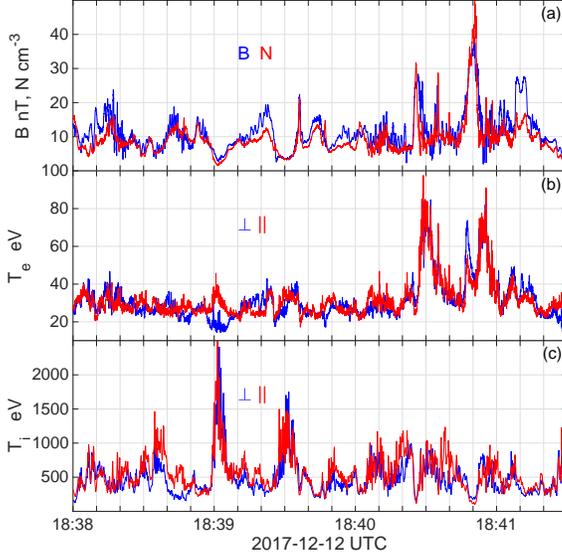


Figure 1. MMS-1 measurements from a 3.5 min time interval of a quasi-parallel bow shock: (a) magnetic field B , and electron number density N that form large amplitude compressional structures (shocklets) – typical for parallel shocks. Perpendicular and parallel temperatures of electrons (b), and ions (c) exhibit spectacular heating events.

108 eral method for computing gradients from 4–point measurements developed for Cluster
 109 (Harvey, 1998). The same method is applied to compute $\text{div}(\mathbf{E}_\perp)$, used in the function
 110 χ . This function is computed with the electric field in the frequency range 0.15–4096 Hz.
 111 The lowest frequencies were removed to avoid DC calibration offsets and possible effects
 112 of the satellite spin period ($f=0.05$ Hz, and harmonics). The mean characteristic fre-
 113 quencies in this interval are: the proton cyclotron $f_{cp}=0.2$ Hz, the lower hybrid $f_{lh}=7$
 114 Hz, the electron cyclotron $f_{ce}=300$ Hz, and the proton plasma $f_{pp}=620$ Hz.

115 The result of L_N determination is shown in Fig.2a. In most of the region, $L_N/r_p <$
 116 1, indicating that the region is strongly unstable for the LHD instability.

117 In the next step, we compute $V_E = \mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}/B^2$ to check if electrons are prone to
 118 the ECD instability. The result in panel 2b shows that in a significant part of the region
 119 we have condition $V_E > v_{te}$, that would produce strong ECD instability. The ExB drift
 120 is computed with the full spectrum of the measured electric field, including frequencies
 121 $> f_{ce}$, which would invalidate the drift approximation. Therefore it should not be as-
 122 sumed that bulk electrons attain everywhere the computed values of V_E .

123 The electric fields developed by LHD and ECD instabilities (maximum = 220 mV/m)
 124 produce stochastic heating function χ shown in panel 2c that has maximum value $\chi =$
 125 $\chi_p=11,355$, computed with the proton mass. This is equivalent to the electron $\chi_e=6.1$,
 126 indicating favourable conditions for strong stochastic heating of electrons, which is in-
 127 deed observed in Fig. 1b. Because the separation of the MMS constellation is about 15
 128 km, we cannot properly compute gradients on scales less than 10 km, which means that
 129 the computed values of χ may underestimate the real ones, because the ECD waves are
 130 expected to have wavelengths on the order of the electron cyclotron radius ~ 1 km (Muschiatti
 131 & Lembége, 2013). Other errors in derivation of χ are the same as in measurements of
 132 the electric field, i.e. ca 10% (Torbert et al., 2016).

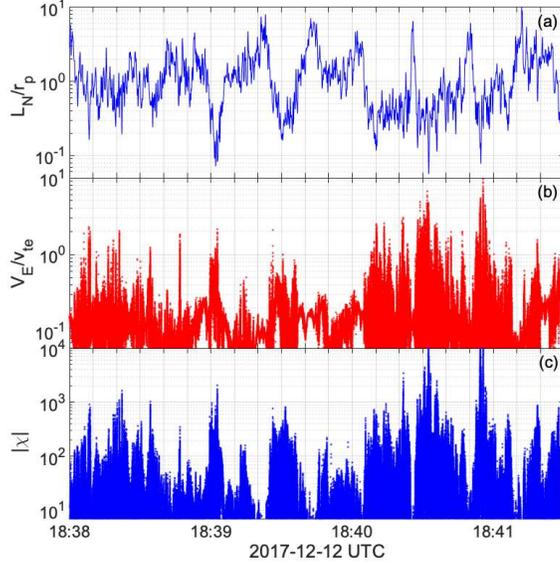


Figure 2. Diagnostic parameters for the case of Fig. 1: (a) The gradient scale of the plasma density L_N is normalised with thermal ion gyroradius r_p (mean = 250 km). $L_N/r_p < 1$ implies that the region is strongly unstable for the LHD instability. (b) The computed ExB drift normalised with the electron thermal speed v_{te} (mean = 2300 km/s). $V_E/v_{te} > 1$ implies that the region is strongly unstable for the ECD instability. (c) Function χ (maximum = 11,355) derived from the data with equation (1) for the electric field 0.15–4096 Hz, and the proton mass, m_p .

133 Minima of L_N in Figure 2a correspond to the maxima of V_E in panel 2b, and also
 134 with maxima of the heating function in panel 2c. This indicates that the heating of both
 135 ions and electrons is initiated by the LHD instability on density gradients that evolves
 136 in place into the ECD instability created by V_E drifts, as seen in panel 2b. It is also seen
 137 that the regions with $L_N/r_p > 4$ have reduced V_E in panel 2b (weak electric field), and
 138 small values of the heating function in panel 2c. This means that the observed onset of
 139 the LHD instability is surprisingly close to the theoretical threshold, $L_N/r_p < (m_p/m_e)^{1/4} \approx$
 140 6, derived some 40 years ago (Huba et al., 1978).

141 Generally, all diagnostic parameters shown in Figure 2 are consistent with the heat-
 142 ing observed in Figure 1, and also with the scenario described in the Introduction. The
 143 highest temperatures of electrons in Fig. 1b correspond to $\chi_e=6.1$ in Fig. 2c, which clearly
 144 associates electron heating with function χ .

145 In the following we shall investigate in detail properties of waves responsible for
 146 electron and ion heating observed in Fig. 1.

147 2.1 Electron heating and ECD waves

148 In Figure 3 we show some details of the electron heating event from Fig. 1b. The
 149 maximum of the electron temperature corresponds to $\chi_e = 6.1$. Such a large value for
 150 the heating function is related to the local minimum of B . Heating of both electrons and
 151 ions (see also Fig. 6) occur preferentially in the local minima of B , consistent with χ as
 152 the controlling function, because of dependence $\chi \propto B^{-2}$. Quenching of the heating
 153 at $B > 20$ nT is also consistent with this mechanism.

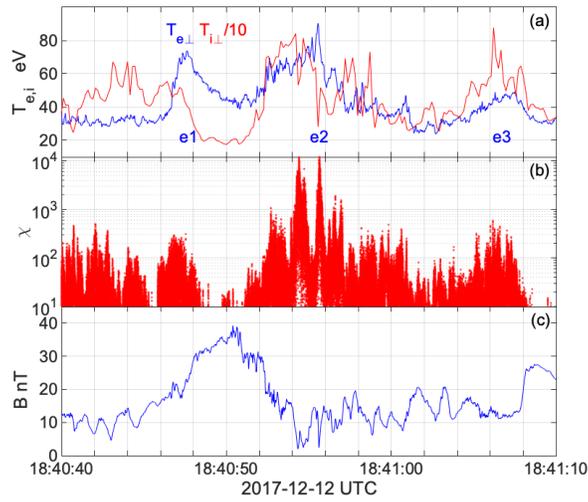


Figure 3. Zoom (30 s) of the electron heating event from Fig. 1: (a) Electron and ion temperatures ($T_{i\perp}/10$), (b) χ function, (c) magnetic field B .

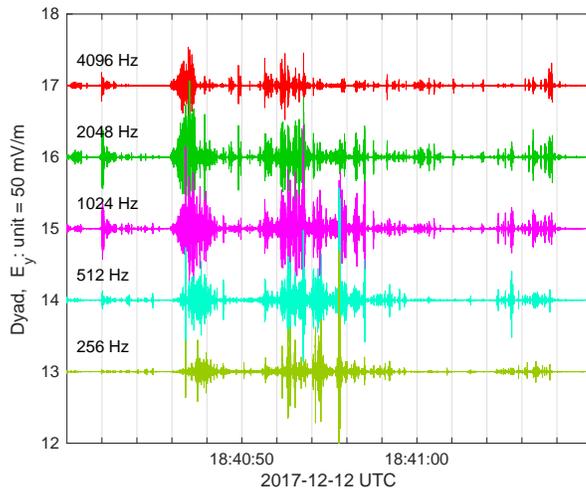


Figure 4. Waves measured by MMS-1 in the region of Fig. 3. The electric field perpendicular component $E_{y\perp}$ is decomposed in discrete frequency dyads in the range 256–4096 Hz that correspond to the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift waves.

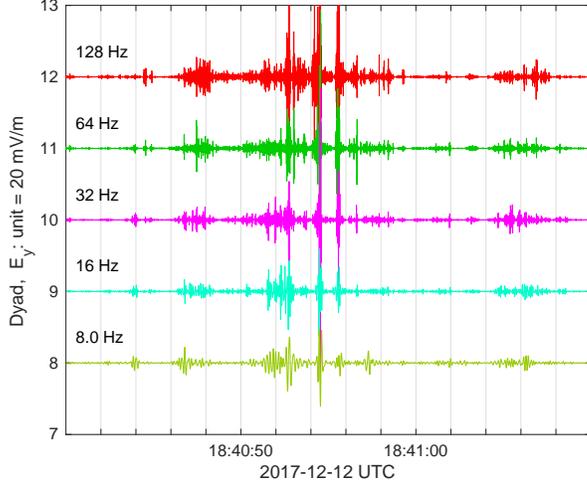


Figure 5. Continuation of Fig. 4 to lower frequencies that cover Lower-Hybrid-Drift waves, 8–128 Hz.

154 Figure 4 shows the measured signal $E_{y\perp}$ decomposed into discrete frequency dyads
 155 with orthogonal wavelets (Mallat, 1999). Orthogonality means that the time integral of
 156 the product of any pair of the frequency dyads is zero, and the decomposition is exact,
 157 i.e., the sum of all components gives the original signal. This frequency range corresponds
 158 to the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift waves that start around $f_{ce} \sim 300$ Hz and extend to the
 159 upper frequency of the measurements. The border frequencies should not be regarded
 160 as strict, because Doppler shifts of short wavelengths would produce considerable spread
 161 and overlap of modes. The labels on the y-axis represent dyad numbers, and the unit
 162 range corresponds to the amplitude 50 mV/m. Waves in this frequency range have been
 163 analyzed with use of high-time resolution measurements obtained by THEMIS (Mozer
 164 & Sundqvist, 2013; Wilson III et al., 2014), who noted large parallel electric field components
 165 in these modes and attributed it to ion acoustic waves. The presence of elec-
 166 tron cyclotron harmonics in the spectra has led to their identification as ECD waves (Wilson
 167 III et al., 2010; Breneman et al., 2013; Goodrich et al., 2018; Stasiewicz, 2020).

168 2.2 Ion heating and LHD waves

169 Figure 5 is the extension of Fig. 4 to lower frequencies covered by Lower-Hybrid-
 170 Drift waves that start from $f_{lh} \sim 7$ Hz and extend to f_{ce} . They exhibit perpendicular
 171 direction for the Poynting flux and rapidly diminishing magnetic component with increas-
 172 ing frequency. Obliquely propagating whistler and/or magnetosonic waves are also ob-
 173 served in this region at frequencies below f_{lh} . LH and LHD waves have been observed
 174 also in other regions of the magnetosphere (Bale et al., 2002; Vaivads et al., 2004; Nor-
 175 gren et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2017).

176 The LHD waves in Fig. 5 maximise at the minima of L_N , i.e., at the maxima of
 177 the density gradients, and have theoretical maximum growth rate at $k_{\perp} r_e \sim 1$. The elec-
 178 tric field of these waves generates ExB drift of electrons that ignites the ECD instabil-
 179 ity via the resonance $k_{\perp} V_E \sim n\omega_{ce}$. This resonance condition can be expressed equiv-
 180 alently by $k_{\perp} r_e \sim nv_{te}/V_E$, which means that the ECD waves resonate/couple with struc-
 181 tures created by the LHD instability, $k_{\perp} r_e \sim 1$ when $nv_{te}/V_E = 1$. There is smooth
 182 transition and co-location of LHD, and ECD waves, seen in Figures 4,5 which is possi-
 183 bly related to the matching condition between these two instabilities. The $n=1$ ECD mode

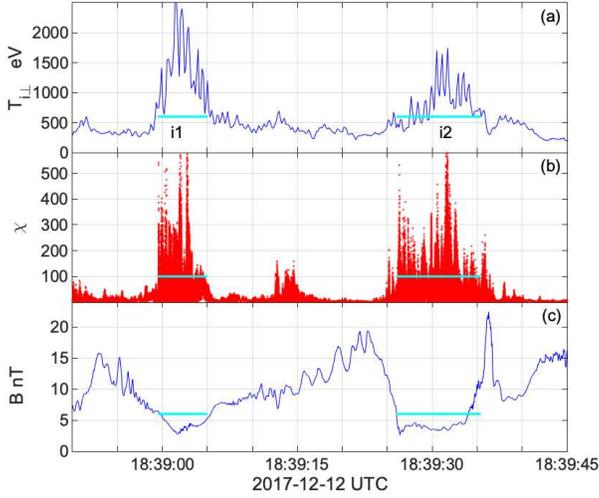


Figure 6. Zoom at the ion heating event from Fig. 1: (a) Ion temperature, (b) χ function, (c) magnetic field B . Note that heating occurs preferentially in depressions of B , consistent with Equation (1).

184 can be naturally excited in drift channels created by the LHD instability when $V_E =$
 185 v_{te} .

186 In Figure 6 we concentrate on the ion heating event from Fig. 1c. The ion heating
 187 is remarkably strong in this event but the amplitude of LHD waves in this case is
 188 only ~ 10 mV/m, significantly smaller than for waves shown in Fig. 5. The heating func-
 189 tion is, however, quite large because B drops below 5 nT in this case. Ions perturbed
 190 stochastically by $\chi_p \gg 1$ can be energised either by fluctuating, wave fields, and/or by
 191 the DC field,

$$\Delta W = q_i \langle \mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{E}_0 + \delta \mathbf{E}) \rangle. \quad (2)$$

192 The quasi-DC field (below $f_{cp} \approx 0.2$ Hz) in this region is $E_0 \sim 2.5$ mV/m, while the gy-
 193 roradius is $r_p \sim 800$ km. On the distance of r_p we have potential of 2000 V, sufficient
 194 to explain the observed energisation of ions. The stochastic acceleration on fluctuating
 195 fields would represent a diffusive process, requiring longer times with statistically sig-
 196 nificant number of interactions, while the DC acceleration, or generally by the electric
 197 field of waves with frequencies lower than the gyrofrequency and wavelengths larger than
 198 the gyroradius, could be a rapid, single step event (Stasiewicz, 2007). In this model a
 199 cold particle is convected on a single $\partial_x E_x$ structure and acquires large gyroradius after
 200 encounter. The perpendicular energisation is done by the convection potential after
 201 stochastic demagnetisation by $\chi > 1$. Details of the heating process, the relative im-
 202 portance of the DC- and wave- acceleration, dependence on the ratio of scales of the struc-
 203 tures/gyroradius, and the frequency of waves/gyrofrequency can be resolved by suitable
 204 simulations, which will be the subject of a separate publication.

205 3 Conclusions

206 The analysis of the MMS measurements leads to the following conclusions on the
 207 heating mechanism at quasi-parallel shock waves:

208 Large amplitude shocklets, i.e., compressions of N and B observed at quasi-parallel
 209 shocks are associated with density gradients on spatial scales exceeding the threshold for
 210 the onset of the Lower-Hybrid-Drift instability, $L_N < r_p$.

211 The LHD instability creates electric fields, $E \sim 20$ mV/m in the frequency range
 212 $[f_{lh}, f_{ce}]$, that cause ExB drift of electrons in narrow channels, $k_{\perp} r_e \sim 1$, with speed $V_E >$
 213 v_{te} , that leads to the Electron-Cyclotron-Drift instability.

214 The ECD instability creates larger electric fields, $E \sim 200$ mV/m at frequencies
 215 $f \geq f_{ce}$, on wavelengths $\sim r_e$, and smaller, Doppler spread over wide frequency range.

216 Large gradients of the electric fields created by LHD and ECD instabilities produce
 217 conditions such that the heating functions (1) become $\chi_p \gg 1$, and $\chi_e \gg 1$, which leads
 218 to the stochastic heating of ions and electrons.

219 The non-adiabatic heating of ions and electrons occurs preferentially at the local
 220 minima of B , consistent with Equation (1).

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 225 oratory for Atmospheric and Space Physics (LASP) at the University of Colorado, Boul-
 226 der: <https://lasp.colorado.edu/mms/sdc/public/>.

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Figure1.

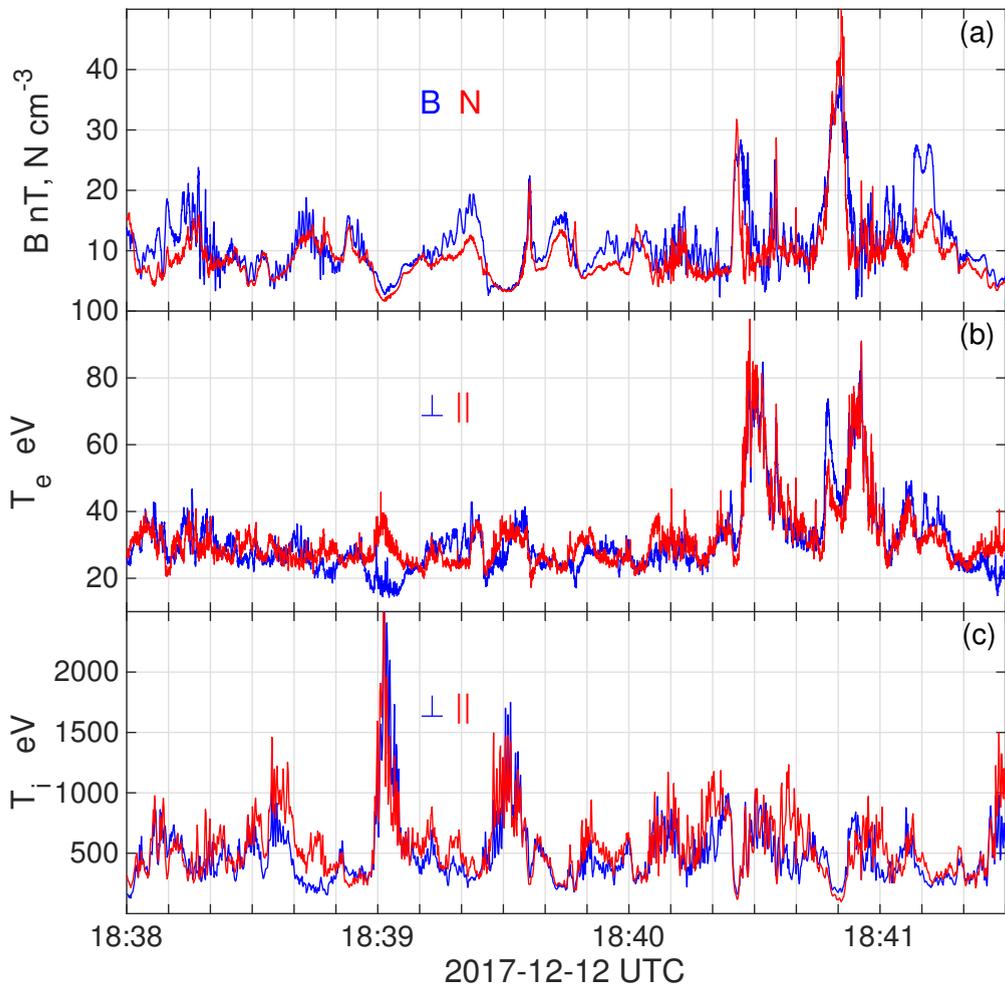


Figure2.

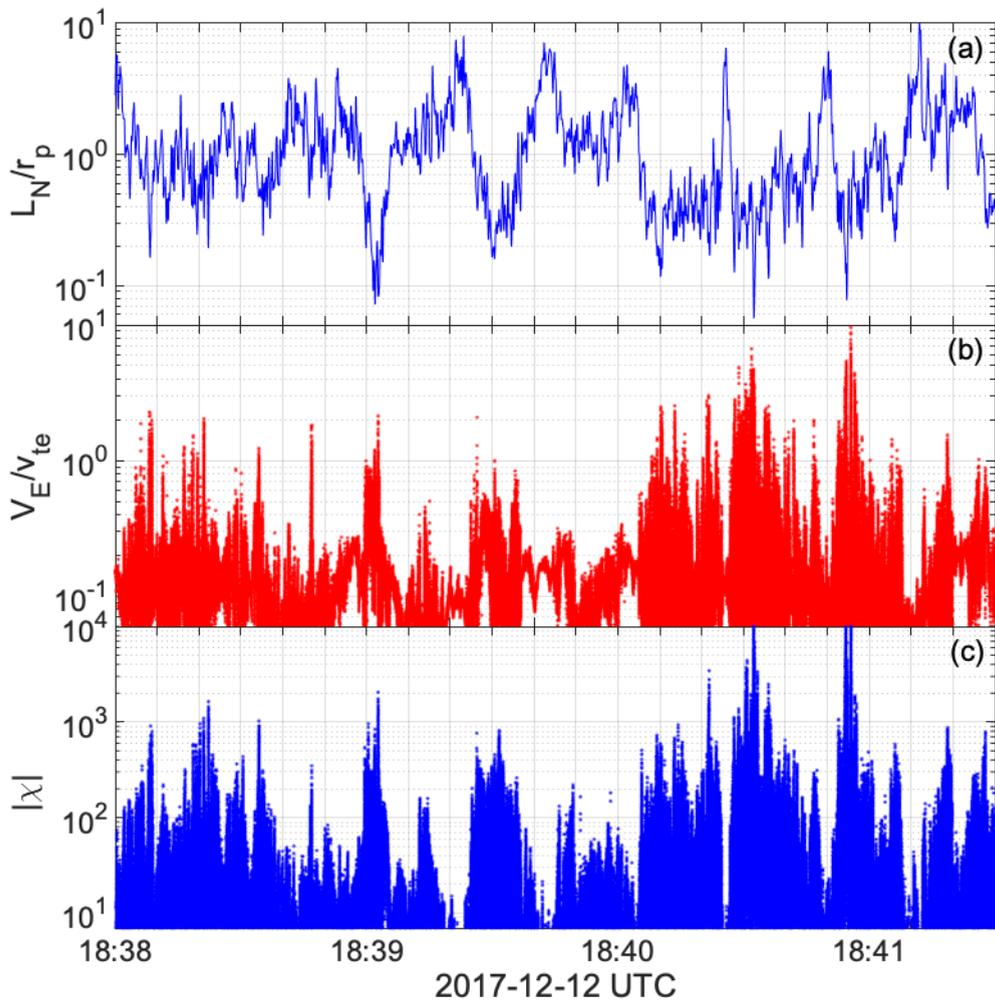


Figure3.

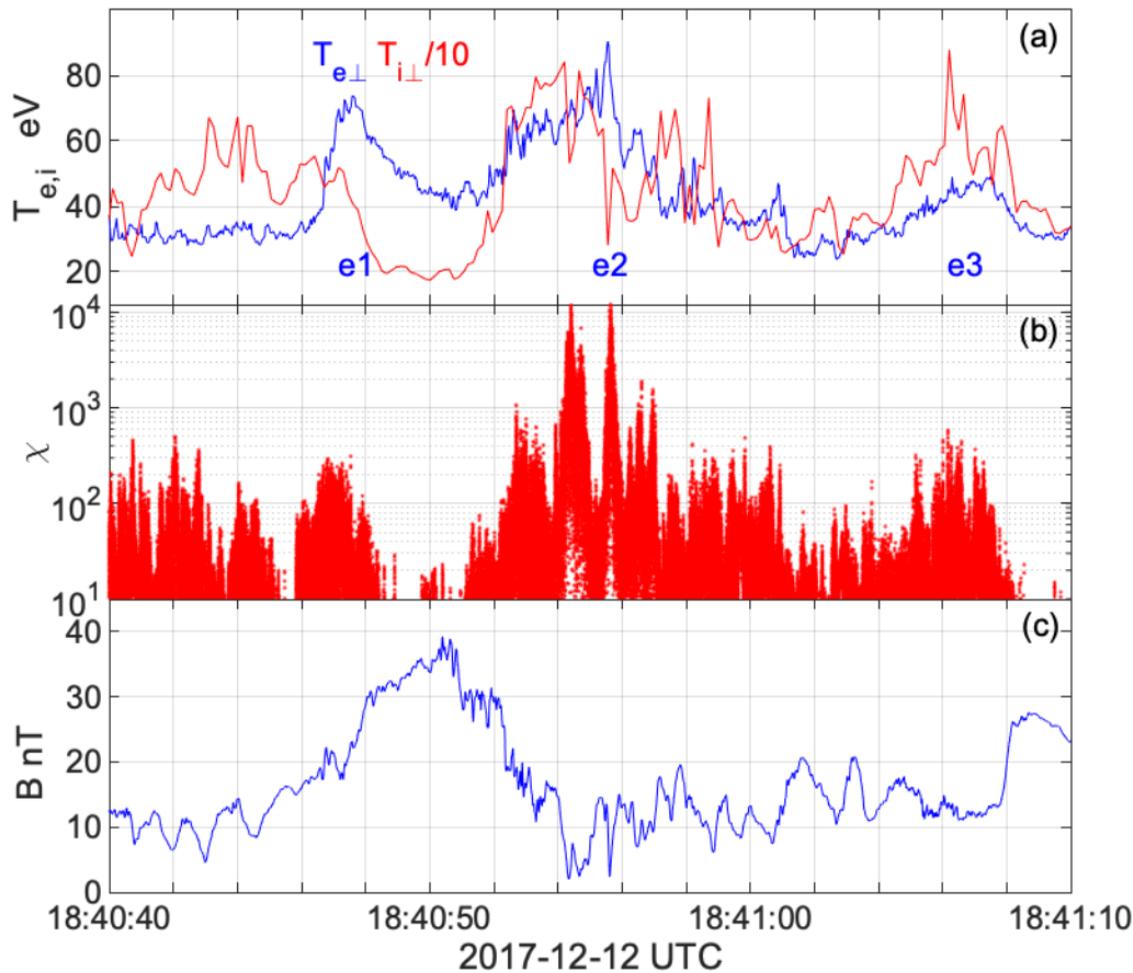


Figure4.

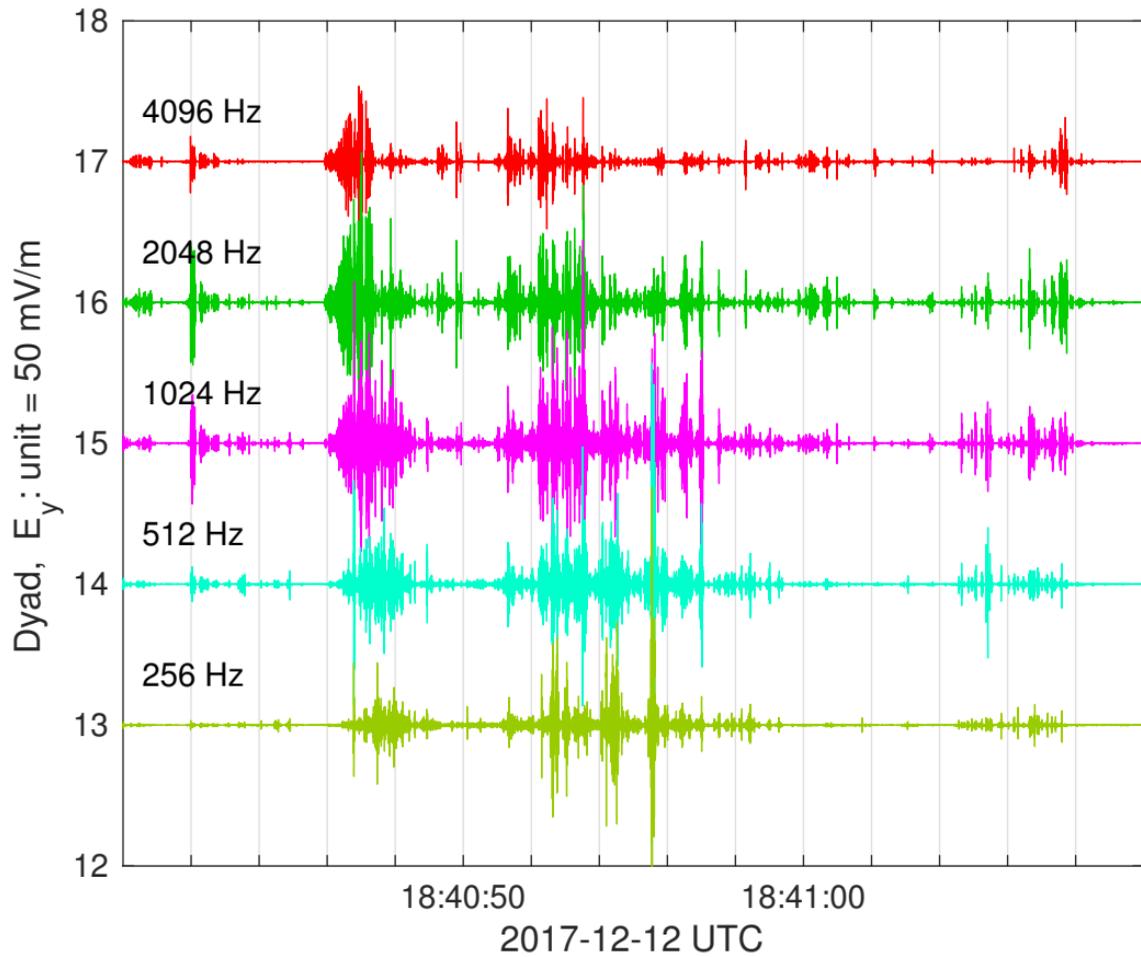


Figure 5.

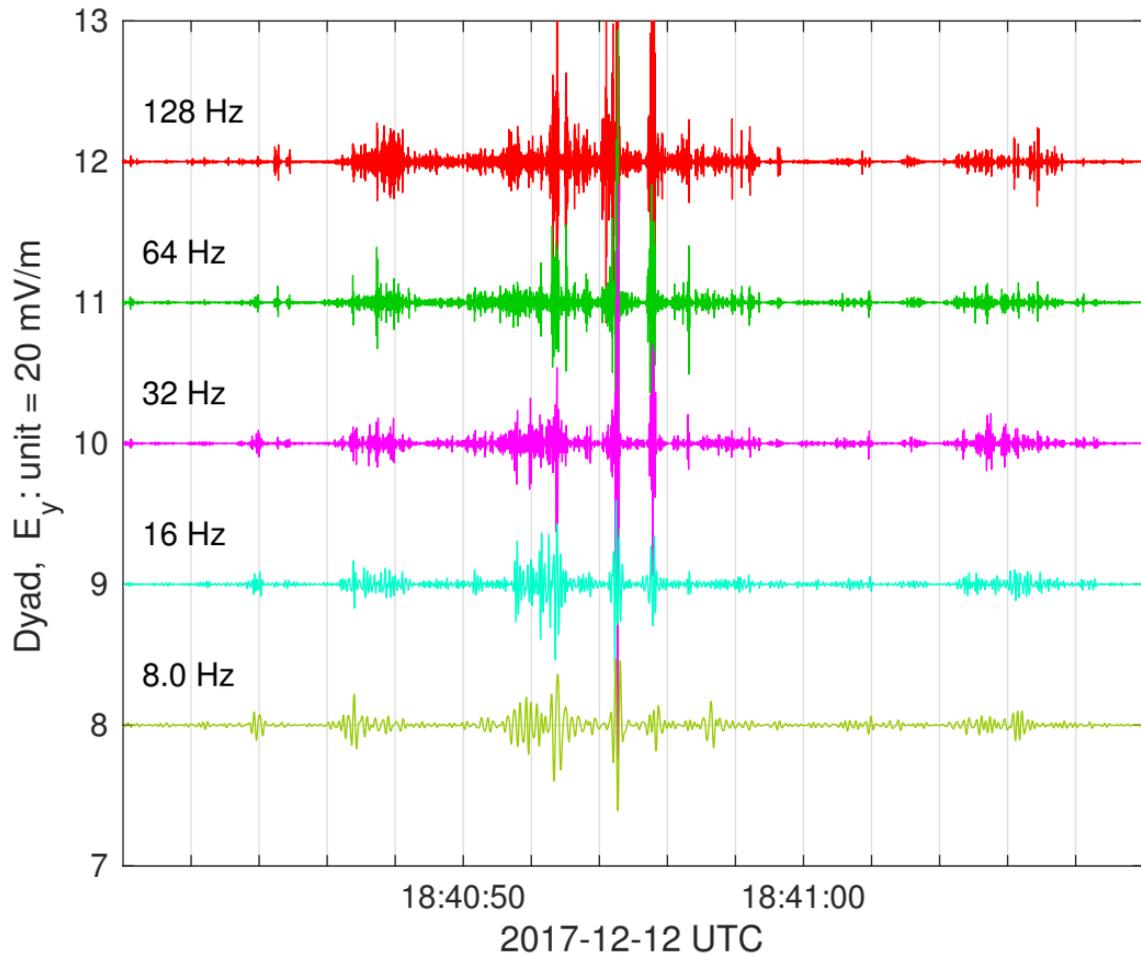


Figure6.

