https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae Discussions
Open Access
EGU

On the relationship between the mesospheric sodium layer and the meteoric input function

Yanlin Li[1], Tai-Yin Huang[2], Julio Urbina[1], Fabio Vargas[3], Wuhu Feng[4]

1. Department of Electrical Engineering, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, USA
2. Department of Physics, Penn State Lehigh Valley, Center Valley, PA, USA
3. Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign, Champaign, IL, USA
4. National Centre for Atmospheric Science, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

Correspondence to: Tai-Yin Huang (tuh4@psu.edu)

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between the concentration of atmospheric sodium and its Meteoric Input Function (MIF). We use the measurements from the Colorado State University (CSU) Lidar and the Andes Lidar Observatory (ALO) with a new numerical model that includes sodium chemistry in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere (MLT) region. The model is based on the continuity equation to treat all sodium-bearing species and runs at a high temporal resolution. The model simulation employs data assimilation to compare the MIF inferred from the meteor radiant and the MIF derived from the new sodium chemistry model. The simulation captures the seasonal variability of sodium number density compared with lidar observations over the CSU site. However, there were discrepancies for the ALO site, which is close to the South Atlantic Anomaly (SAA) region, indicating it is challenging for the model to capture the observed sodium over ALO. The CSU site had significantly more lidar observations (27,930 hours) than the ALO sites (1872 hours). The simulation revealed that the uptake of the sodium species on meteoric smoke particles was a critical factor in determining the sodium concentration in MLT, with the sodium removal rate by uptake found to be approximately three times that of the $NaHCO_3$ dimerization. Overall, the study's findings provide valuable information on the correlation between MIF and sodium concentration in the MLT region, contributing to a better understanding of the complex dynamics in this region. This knowledge can inform future research and guide the development of more accurate models to enhance our comprehension of the MLT region's behavior.

Keywords: Sodium layer, sodium chemistry, Meteor radiant distribution, Meteoroid input function

Key points:

- A high-time resolution, time-dependent Na chemistry model is developed.
- Ablated global meteoroid material inputs inferred from ALO and CSU observations are 116.85 t d^{-1} and 61.4 t d^{-1}, respectively.
- Meteoroid material input by mass and by occurrence may differ.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

1. Introduction

Micro-meteoroids enter the Earth's atmosphere day and night, depositing their constituents into the atmosphere via ablation, creating a region that hosts various metal species, for example, Fe, K, Si, Mg, Ca, and Na, in both neutral and ion form (Plane et al., 2015; Plane et al., 2021; and references therein). The region is commonly referred to as the mesosphere and lower thermosphere (MLT), located between 75 and 110 km altitude. The metal layers in the MLT often serve as the tracers that facilitate the investigation of the dynamical and chemical processes within the region (Takahashi et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2021). Quantitative measurements of metal atoms have been made since the 1950s (Hunten, 1967) through a variety of ground or space-borne technologies (Julia et al., 2022). The large resonant scattering cross-section (Bowman et al., 1969) and the substantial presence of the sodium atom in the MLT make it one of the most researched metal layers in the atmosphere (Yu et al., 2022).

The sodium layer is usually studied via observations carried out by resonance lidars, satellites, and through Na D-line emission at 589.0nm and 589.6nm (Plane, 2010; Plane et al., 2012; Hedin and Gumbel, 2011; Langowski et al., 2017; Andrioli et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a). The sodium vertical profiles retrieved by lidars have been commonly used as a tracer to study atmospheric dynamics, e.g., gravity waves, wind shear, etc. The long-term seasonal and short-term diurnal variability of metallic species have been investigated by several studies (Feng et al., 2013; Marsh et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2019a, b; Yu et al., 2022). A typical sodium chemistry scheme consists of neural chemistry, ion chemistry, and photolysis. The sodium chemistry research in recent years has primarily been based on the sodium chemistry model by Plane (2004), which has been cited in various subsequent works, including Bag et al. (2015) and references therein.

As meteoroids are the primary source of metal layers in the atmosphere, including the sodium layer, the Meteoroid Input Function (MIF) plays a crucial role in the modeling of metallic layers in the atmosphere. Sporadic meteors are estimated to make up more than 95% of the total meteoroid population by comparing the number of meteors originating in sporadic sources to those originating in known shower meteor sources (Chau and Galindo, 2008). This highlights the importance of incorporating sporadic meteor data in the MIF to accurately understand sodium concentration in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere (MLT) region and its correlation with meteoroid material input. It's well established that there are six apparent sources of sporadic meteors, namely North and South Apex (NA and SA); North and South Toroidal (NT and ST); and Helion and Anti-Helion sources (H and AH) (Campbell-Brown, 2008; Kero et al., 2012; Li et al., 2022). However, the relative strength of these meteor radiant sources varies among the studies. For example, the NA and SA sources are found to be much stronger than other sources in results obtained with High Power Large Aperture (HPLA) radars (Chau et al., 2007; Kero et al., 2012; Li and Zhou, 2019), while specular meteor radars found the difference to be much smaller (Campbell-Brown and Jones, 2005; Campbell-Brown, 2008). The detection sensitivity varies among different facilities by several orders of magnitude, as evidenced by Arecibo Observatory (AO, 18° N. 66° W) detecting about 20 times more meteors per unit area per unit time than the Jicamarca Radio Observatory (JRO, 12°S 77°W) despite both being HPLA facilities with similar radar pulse schemes (Li et al., 2020).

Consequently, the radiant mass distribution of the meteors that enter the Earth's atmosphere is subject to significant uncertainties. In the existing WACCM-Na global sodium model (Dunker et al., 2015), the meteor input function was modeled by placing a flux curve on each radiant meteor source with a

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

definite ratio (more details can be found in Marsh et al., 2013). The flux curve model is based on observations carried out exclusively by the Arecibo Observatory. Although the model can reproduce some of the flux characteristics of the meteors observed at Arecibo, it is a relatively simple model and therefore has several limitations (Li et al., 2022). One of the limitations is that the model cannot reproduce the velocity distribution of the meteors in observations.

This study introduces a new numerical model for sodium chemistry that utilizes the continuity equations for all Na-related reactions without steady-state approximations. The main objective is to investigate the relationship between the apparent sodium concentration and the Meteoroid Input Function (MIF) in the MLT region. We then compare the results of the new model with measurements from two lidar instruments, namely the Colorado State University (CSU) and the Andes Lidar Observatory (ALO). Additionally, we compare the MIF obtained from the new sodium chemistry model with the results of the high-resolution meteor radiant distribution recently inferred from observations made with the Arecibo Observatory. Finally, we discuss the implications of these comparisons and suggest possible explanations for the observed discrepancy between the MIF derived from radar and those obtained from lidar observations.

2. The sodium chemistry model (NaChem)

2.1 Sodium chemistry

Numerical airglow models have been extensively used to investigate atmospheric airglow chemistry and gravity waves (Huang and Hickey, 2008; Huang and Richard, 2014; Huang, 2015). A new numerical sodium chemistry model, hereafter referred to as NaChem, was developed for this study. Table 1 lists the complete reactions and their corresponding rate coefficients used in NaChem, which includes neutral chemistry, ion chemistry, and photochemistry. The dimerization reaction of $NaHCO_3$ (reaction 25 in Table 1) is the outlet that removes Na atoms in the chemistry scheme. The Na atoms can also be removed by the uptake of sodium species onto meteoric smoke particles (Hunten et al., 1980; Kalashnikova et al., 2000; Plane, 2004), a process that can be turned on or off in the model. This study estimates the MIF in the numerical model by matching the dimerization reaction to maintain the observed sodium present in the MLT. Throughout the rest of the paper, the MIF estimated from the sodium chemistry numerical model will be referred to as MIF(s). On the other hand, the MIF derived from meteor radiant distribution will be referred to as MIF(m). The MIF(m) is determined through a 3-D meteoroid orbital simulation based on the meteor radiant distribution.

The numerical model utilizes the continuity equation to track the time evolution of all 14 Na-related species. Table 2 presents a comprehensive list of these species, along with their corresponding production and loss rates. The background major gas species, including O3, O2, O, H, H2, H20, etc., and the temperature are provided by the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM). Here we use the dynamic version of WACCM nudged with NASA's Modern Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Application MERRA2 reanalysis data set (Hunziker & Wendt, 1974; Molod et al., 2015; Gettelman et al., 2019). The WACCM reference profiles are linearly interpolated to a resolution of one minute and updated every minute during the simulation. It is worth noting that the Na-related reactions, which are illustrated in Table 2, do not significantly impact the background gas species, as the

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

effect is orders of magnitude smaller than the variation of the major gas species themselves. Therefore, the major gas species are simulated independently of Na-related reactions.

2.2 Numerical scheme

As discussed earlier, it is worth noting that the reactions of sodium chemistry in NaChem share similarities with those in previous models (e.g., Plane et al., 2015 and references therein); however, the implementation of the numerical chemistry scheme differs. NaChem uses continuity equations to treat all chemicals involved, including short-lived intermediate species. Treating all species with the continuity equation is a more straightforward yet accurate approach than using steady-state approximations. Moreover, by treating all species in a uniform procedure, the numerical model is more compact and easier to interpret. The computational capability of a personal computer nowadays has advanced enough to process an ultra-fine time step (microseconds) that is necessary for numerical simulations of short-lived species in a reasonable duration. Still, the differential equations for production and loss of short-lived species can be numerically unstable unless microsecond or even sub-microsecond time step is used (Higham, 2002). The concern of the differential equation instability can be largely mitigated by a first-order exponential integrator (Hochbruck and Ostermann, 2010), i.e.,

$$c = x_0 - \frac{a_0}{b_0}$$
$$x_1 = \frac{a_0}{b_0} + ce^{-b_0 \Delta t} \qquad (1)$$

Where x_0 is the value of the current step, a_0 is the production of the species, b_0 is the loss of the species, Δt is the step size in time, and x_1 is the value of the next step.

The exponential integrator, expressed in Equation 1, provides the solution to the continuity equation, with the exception of reaction 25 listed in Table 1. It is worth noting that reaction 25 is the sole mechanism for removing Na from the chemistry simulation, apart from the uptake of sodium species. Nevertheless, our testing suggests that either the exponential integrator or explicit Euler integrator produces nearly identical results, however the explicit Euler integrator was running in four orders of magnitude smaller step size (1us). The default time step of NaChem is 0.1 seconds with the exponential integrator.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae Discussions Open Access EGU

Table 1. Reactions in NaChem. f_a and f_x are branching ratios.

	Reaction	Rate Coefficient	reference
	neutral chemistry		
1	$Na + O_3$ -> $NaO(A) + O_2$	$K_1 = 1.1 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-116/T)$	1
2	$NaO(A) + O$ -> $Na(^2P) + O_2$	$K_2 = 2.2 \times 10^{-10}(T/200)^{0.5}$, $f_A = 0.14\pm0.4$	1,3
3	$NaO(A) + O$ -> $Na(^2S) + O_2$	$K_3 = 2.2 \times 10^{-10}(T/200)^{0.5}$, $(1-f_A)$	1,3
4	$NaO(A) + O_2$ -> $NaO(X) + O_2$	$K_4 = 1 \times 10^{-11}$	1
5	$Na + O_2 + M$ -> $NaO_2 + M$	$K_5 = 5.0 \times 10^{-30}(200/T)^{1.22}$	1
6	$NaO_2 + O$ -> $NaO(X) + O_2$	$K_6 = 5 \times 10^{-10}\exp(-940/T)$	1
7	$NaO(X) + O$ -> $Na(^2P) + O_2$	$K_7 = 2.2 \times 10^{-10}(T/200)^{0.5}$, $f_X = 0.167$	1,2
8	$NaO(X) + O$ -> $Na(^2S) + O_2$	$k_8 = 2.2 \times 10^{-10}(T/200)^{0.5}$, $(1-f_X)$	1,2
9	$NaO(X) + O_3$ -> $NaO_2 + O_2$	$k_9 = 1.1 \times 10^{-9}\exp(-568/T)$	1
10	$NaO(X) + O_3$ -> $Na + 2O_2$	$k_{10} = 3.2 \times 10^{-10}\exp(-550/T)$	1
11	$NaO(X) + O_2 + M$ -> $NaO_3 + M$	$k_{11} = 5.3 \times 10^{-30}(200/T)$	1
12	$NaO(X) + H$ -> $Na + OH$	$k_{12} = 4.4 \times 10^{-10}\exp(-668/T)$	1
13	$NaO(X) + H_2$ -> $NaOH + H$	$k_{13} = 1.1 \times 10^{-9}\exp(-1100/T)$	1
14	$NaO(X) + H_2$ -> $Na + H_2O$	$k_{14} = 1.1 \times 10^{-9}\exp(-1400/T)$	1
15	$NaO(X) + H_2O$ -> $NaOH + OH$	$k_{15} = 4.4 \times 10^{-10}\exp(-507/T)$	1
16	$NaO(X) + CO_2 + M$ -> $NaCO_3 + M$	$K_{16} = 1.3 \times 10^{-27} (200/T)$	1
17	$NaO_2 + H$ -> $Na + HO_2$	$K_{17} = 1.0 \times 10^{-9}\exp(-1000/T)$	1
18	$NaO_3 + O$ -> $Na + 2O_2$	$k_{18} = 2.5 \times 10^{-10}(T/200)^{0.5}$	1
19	$NaCO_3 + O$ -> $NaO_2 + CO_2$	$k_{19} = 5.0 \times 10^{-10}\exp(-1200/T)$	1
20	$NaCO_3 + H$ -> $NaOH + CO_2$	$k_{20} = 1.0 \times 10^{-9}\exp(-1400/T)$	1
21	$NaOH + H$ -> $Na + H_2O$	$k_{21} = 4.0 \times 10^{-11}\exp(-550/T)$	1
22	$NaOH + CO_2 + M$ -> $NaHCO_3 + M$	$k_{22} = 1.9 \times 10^{-28}(200/T)^1$	1
23	$NaHCO_3 + H$ -> $Na + H_2O + CO_2$	$k_{23} = 1.1 \times 10^{-11}\exp(-910/T)$	1
24	$NaHCO_3 + H$ -> $Na + H_2CO_3$	$k_{24} = 1.84 \times 10^{-13}T^{0.777}\exp(-1014/T)$	1
25	$2NaHCO_3 + M$ -> $(NaHCO_3)_2 + M$	$k_{25} = 8.8 \times 10^{-10}\exp(T/200)^{-0.23}$	1
26	$Na(^2P)$ -> $Na(^2S) + hv$(589.0-589.6 nm)	$K_{26} = 6.26 \times 10^7$	1
	ion-molecule chemistry		
27	$Na + O_2^+$ -> $Na^+ + O_2$	$K_{27} = 2.7 \times 10^{-9}$	1
28	$Na + NO^+$ -> $Na^+ + NO$	$K_{28} = 8.0 \times 10^{-10}$	1
29	$Na^+ + N_2 + M$ -> $NaN_2^+ + M$	$k_{29} = 4.8 \times 10^{-30}(T/200)^{-2.2}$	1
30	$Na^+ + CO_2 + M$ -> $NaCO_2^+ + M$	$k_{30} = 3.7 \times 10^{-29}(T/200)^{-2.9}$	1
31	$NaN_2^+ + O$ -> $NaO^+ + N_2$	$k_{31} = 4.0 \times 10^{-10}$	1
32	$NaO^+ + N_2$ -> $NaN_2^+ + O$	$k_{32} = 1.0 \times 10^{-12}$	1
33	$NaO^+ + O$ -> $Na^+ + O_2$	$k_{33} = 1.0 \times 10^{-11}$	1
34	$NaO^+ + O_2$ -> $Na^+ + O_3$	$k_{34} = 5.0 \times 10^{-12}$	1
35	$NaN_2^+ + X$ -> $NaX^+ + N_2$ ($X=CO_2, H_2O$)	$k_{35} = 6.0 \times 10^{-10}$	1
36	$NaY^+ + e$ -> $Na + Y$ ($Y=N_2, CO_2, H_2O, O$)	$k_{36} = 1.0 \times 10^{-6}(T/200)^{-0.5}$	1
	photochemical reactions		
37	NaO(A)/NaO(X) + hv -> Na + O	$K_{37} = 5.5 \times 10^{-2}$	1
38	NaO2 + hv -> Na + O2	$K_{38} = 1.9 \times 10^{-2}$	1
39	NaOH + hv -> Na + OH	$K_{39} = 1.8 \times 10^{-2}$	1
40	NaHCO3 + hv -> Na + HCO3	$K_{40} = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$	1
41	Na + hv -> Na+ + e-	$K_{41} = 2 \times 10^{-5}$	1

*1:Plane (2004), 2: Plane (2012), 3: Griffin et al. (2001).

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae
Open Access
Discussions
EGU

Table 2. The production and loss terms of the sodium-related species.

	Species	Prod	Loss
a1	Na(2P)	$k_2[a_3][O] + k_7[a_5][O]$;	1*
a2	Na	$k_3[a_3][O] + k_8[a_5][O] + k_{10}[a_5][O_3] + k_{12}[a_5][H] + k_{14}[a_5][H_2] + k_{17}[a_4][H] + k_{18}[a_6][O] + k_{21}[a_7][H] + k_{23}[a_9][H] + k_{24}[a_9][H] + k_{36}[a_{11}][e] + k_{36}[a_{13}][e] + k_{36}[a_{12}][e] + k_{36}[a_{14}][e] + [a_1] + k_{37}[a_3][hv] + k_{37}[a_5][hv] + k_{38}[hv][a_4] + k_{39}[hv][a_7] + k_{40}[hv][a_9]$;	$k_1[O_3] + k_5[O_3] + k_5[O_2][M] + k_{27}[O_2^+] + k_{28}[NO^+] + k_{41}[hv]$;
a3	NaO(A)	$k_1[a_2][O_3]$	$k_2[O] + k_3[O] + k_4[O_2] + k_{37}[hv]$
a4	NaO_2	$k_5[a_2][O_2][M] + k_9[a_5][O_3] + k_{19}[a_8][O]$	$k_6[O] + k_{17}[H] + k_{38}[hv]$
a5	NaO(X)	$k_5[a][O_3]+ k_4[a_3][O_2] + k_6[a_4][O]$	$k_7[O] + k_8[O] + k_9[O_3] + k_{10}[O_3] + k_{11}[O_2][M] + k_{12}[H] + k_{13}[H_2] + k_{14}[H_2] + k_{15}[H_2O] + k_{16}[CO_2][M] + k_{37}[hv]$
a6	NaO_3	$k_{11}[a_5][O_2][M]$	$k_{18}[O]$
a7	NaOH	$k_{13}[a_5][H_2] + k_{15}[a_5][H_2O] + k_{20}[a_8][H]$	$k_{21}[H]+ k_{22}[CO_2][M] + k_{39}[hv]$
a8	$NaCO_3$	$k_{16}[a_5][CO][M]$	$k_{19}[O] + k_{20}[H]$
a9	$NaHCO_3$	$k_{22}[a_7][CO_2][M]$	$k_{23}[H] + k_{24}[H] + 2k_{25}[a_9][M] + k_{40}[hv]$
a10	Na^+	$k_{27}[a_2][O_2^+] + k_{28}[a_2][NO^+] + k_{33}[a_{13}][O] + k_{34}[a_{13}][O_2] + k_{41}[hv][a_2]$	$k_{29}[N_2][M] + k_{30}[CO_2][M]$
a11	$NaN2^+$	$k_{29}[a_{10}][N_2][M] + k_{32}[a_{13}][N_2]$	$k_{31}[O]+k_{35}[CO_2] + k_{35}[H_2O] + k_{36}[e]$
a12	$NaCO2^+$	$k_{30}[a_{10}][CO_2][M] + k_{35}[a_{11}][CO_2]$	$k_{36}[e]$
a13	NaO^+	$k_{31}[a_{11}][O]$	$k_{32}[N2]+k_{33}[O]+k_{34}[O_2]+k_{36}[e]$
a14	$NaH2O^+$	$k_{35}[a_{11}][H_2O]$	$k_{36}[e]$

*In Species 1, as of the current state of the model, all Na(2p) atoms return to their ground state immediately, so the loss term is set to 1. The [hv] is the term that represents loss via photon emission, which follows a sinusoidal function based on the zenith angle of the respective local time.

3. CSU and ALO Sodium Lidar Observations and data processing

3.1 Observations

Several aspects of the current research, i.e., the presence of sodium in the MLT, require cross-validation with the measurements. One primary objective of the present model is to match the observed seasonal variation of the sodium layer. Measurements by the Colorado State University (CSU, 41.4°N, 111.5°W) Lidar, formerly known as Utah State University (USU) Lidar, and the lidar data acquired by the Andes Lidar Observatory (ALO, 30.3°S, 70.7°W), are used to facilitate the research in the current study. We are unable to acquire more ALO data after 2019 as the COVID situation disrupted the site operation.. It contains a total of 27,930 hours of lidar observations carried out between 1990 and 2020, whereas the ALO data consists of 1872 hours between 2014 and 2019.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

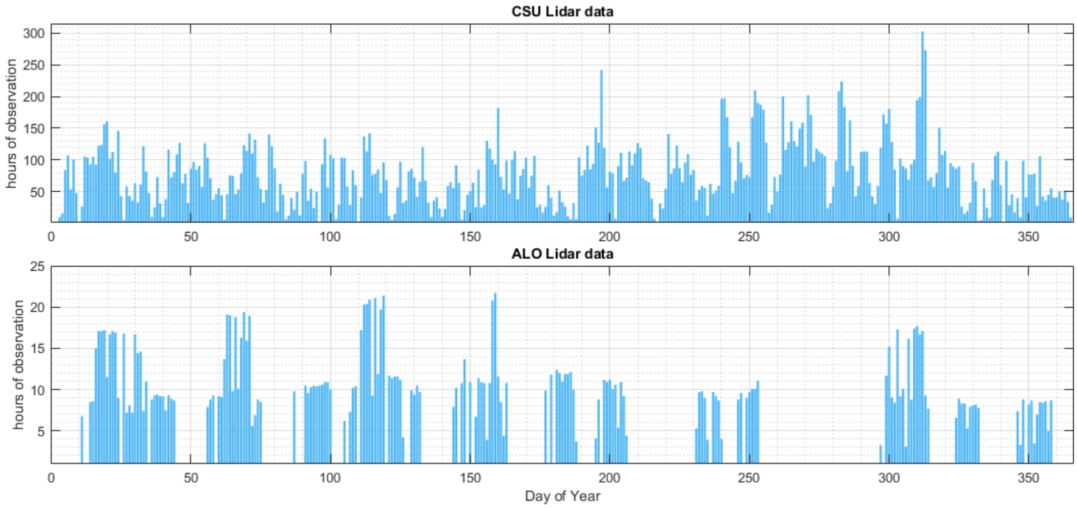

Figure 1. CSU lidar data from 1990 to 2020 (top plot) and ALO lidar data from 2014 to 2019 (bottom plot).

The statistics of CSU and ALO available data are presented in Figure 1. The Lidar observations of both sites consist of nocturnal observations only, and a typical nocturnal observation lasts between 8 and 11 hours. Note that in Figure 1, there could be as many as 300 hours of sodium observations on a single day of year, which means the data of the date comprise observations of many years on that day in different years. The CSU data almost covered every day of the year with only a few exceptions, whereas the ALO data was much more sparse. As a result, due to the significantly larger number of CSU observations, the statistical reliability of the seasonal variation in the sodium layer derived from ALO observations may not be as strong as that of the CSU data. The general seasonal trend of the sodium vertical profile retrieved from the CSU lidar observations is similar to the estimation by simulation made by Marsh et al. (2013), whereas the results of ALO lidar observations differ from the Marsh et al. results.

3.2 Data processing

The sodium layer in atmospheric observations is often affected by perturbations of atmospheric dynamics, which is why sodium is commonly used as a tracer in the study of the MLT dynamics (Plane et al., 2015). However, studying the sodium layer itself can be complicated due to the underlying chemical processes coupled with the dynamics. In order to mitigate the effects of atmospheric dynamics, we process the sodium vertical profiles from observations in three steps. First, we average the profiles by day of the year, meaning we take the average of the data from the same day of the year from different years. Missing data are treated using linear interpolation. Next, we smooth the averaged profiles using a 15-day running average. Finally, we further smooth the profiles by fitting them with a skew-normal distribution using the least squares error method.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

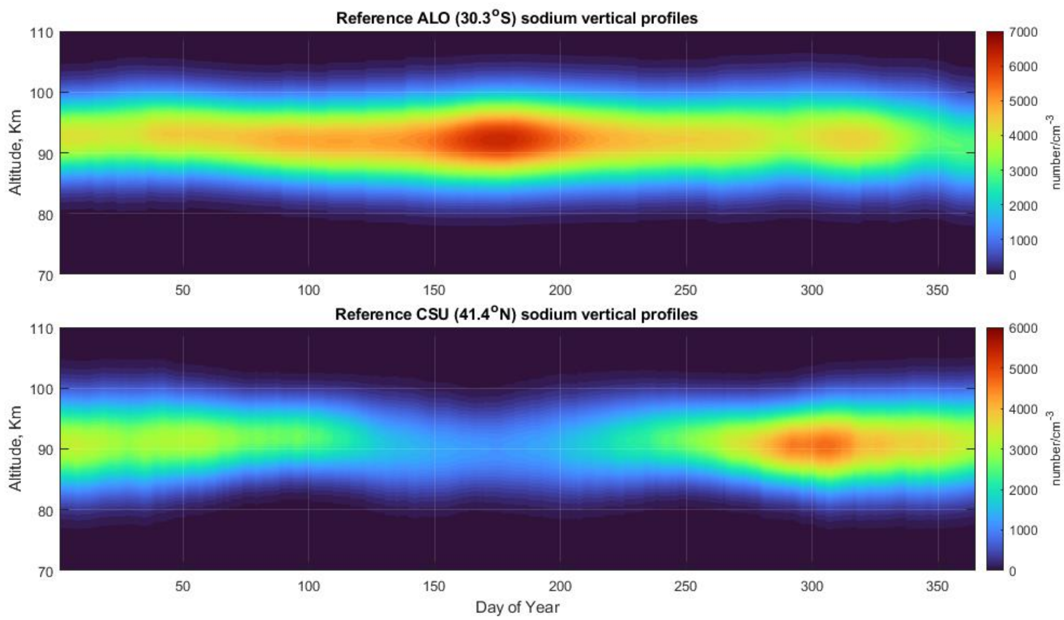

Figure 2. *The reference annual sodium vertical profiles at ALO (top plot) and at CSU (bottom plot). The reference profiles are the averages throughout all the available data on the same days at the respective site, then fitted by a normal distribution that mitigates atmospheric dynamics. In essence, the reference profiles are measurements with small-scale dynamics removed via steps discussed in section 3.2.*

Figure 2 displays the processed annual sodium vertical profiles. These vertical profiles are used as the reference for the model to fit with and provide the background conditions for deriving the required meteor input function. The reference profiles used in the NaChem sodium chemistry numerical model inherently account for the effects of diffusion of sodium species as these observational data are the snapshots of sodium in diffusion at any given time. By constantly matching the observed Na profile to the simulated Na profile, the diffusion is included implicitly in the model. The seasonal column densities of both ALO and CSU profiles are similar to a sinusoidal function, with ALO data peaking near June and CSU data peaking in November. The centroid height of the sodium layer is higher in the ALO data than in the CSU data.

4. Results

4.1 Sensitivity test

Sodium in the atmosphere could manifest in many forms, i.e., in sodium-bearing neutral chemicals and ionic chemicals. The sodium number densities are typically obtained via lidar measurements. Given the complexity of the sodium chemistry, the observed sodium is merely a subset, possibly not even a major constituent, of the total number of all the sodium-bearing species in the atmosphere. The total sodium content is defined as the total number of sodium atoms in all 14 sodium-bearing species, as listed in

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae
Discussions

Table 2. It is important to note that the observable sodium does not necessarily well represent the total sodium content or the total number of sodium-bearing species, as non-observable species like Na+ and $NaHCO_3$ may constitute a substantial portion of the total sodium content.

Understanding the impact of each background species, i.e., species listed in Figure 3., to the share of Na atom to the total sodium content is essential to study the underlying mechanism of the chemical reactions. Therefore, we present a sensitivity test by isolating variables. The sensitivity test is done by altering the number density of background species in question by two orders of magnitude, i.e., with a factor of 0.1 and 10, while keeping the number densities of other background species and sodium fixed. The simulation is kept running until all the numbers are stable. The results of the sensitivity test of the 11 background species and temperatures involved in the numerical simulation are shown in Figure 3. Each panel contains three lines, where the red curve shows the unaltered vertical profile of the total sodium content. The results of the species altered by the factor of 0.1 and 10 are shown in light blue and yellow, respectively.

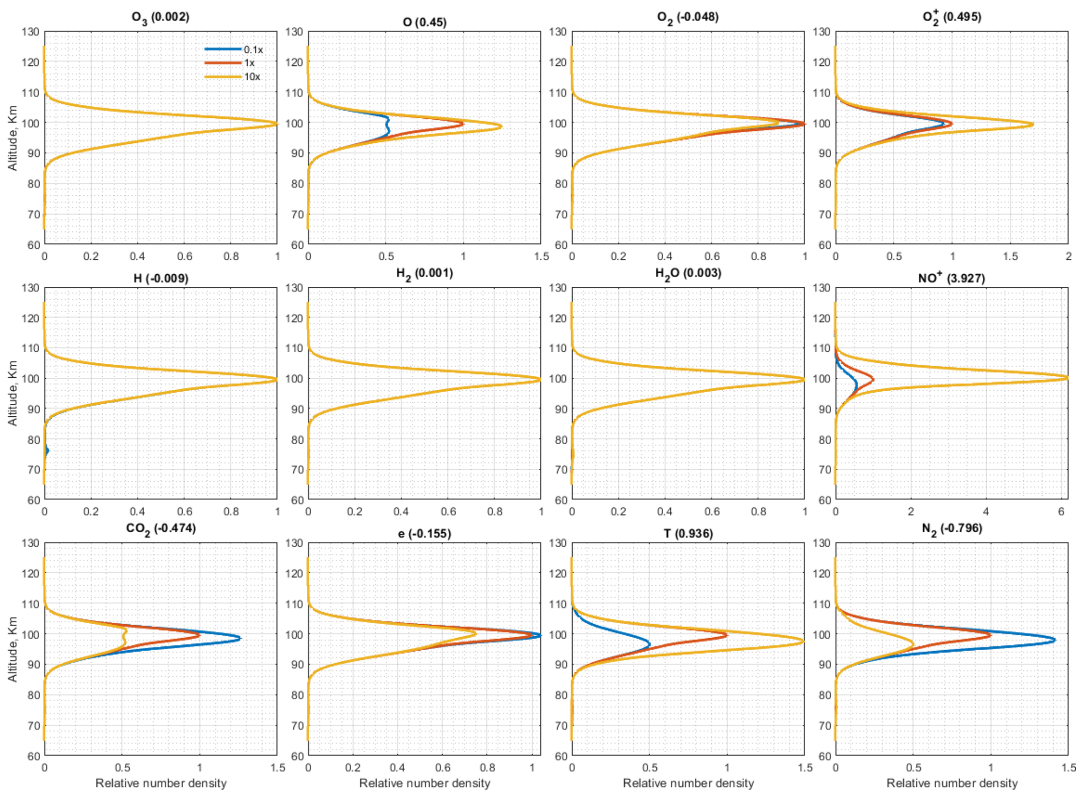

Figure 3. Sensitivity test of 11 background species and temperature on Na chemistry. The total sodium content vertical profile for the respective background species altered by 10x and 0.1x are shown in yellow and light blue. The reference sodium content vertical profiles are shown in red. The numbers in the parentheses are the sensitivity factor. More about the sensitivity factor can be found in equation (2) and the corresponding discussion.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

In Figure 3, only the yellow curve is visible in some of the panels because the three curves are drawn on top of each other, indicating that the change of the respective background species bears little to no effect on the sodium chemistry. A sensitivity factor is defined to better quantify the weight of each background species in sodium chemistry. The factor is measured by the following equation:

$$Sensitivity\ Factor = \frac{NaT_c^{10} - NaT_c^{0.1}}{NaT_c} \quad (2)$$

Where NaT_c^{10} is the column density of the total sodium content with the respective specie altered by a factor of 10, and $NaT_c^{0.1}$ is the same operation as the previous one but altered by a factor of 0.1. The denominator, NaT_c , is the column density of the reference profile. For example, a Sensitivity Factor (SF) of 5 indicates that the total sodium content increases by five times when the respective background species increases 100 times. A positive sensitivity factor indicates the total sodium content is positively correlated to the respective species and vice versa. The reference profile is the total sodium content in steady-state in the background condition of the midnight new year of 2002, giving a typical sodium vertical profile similar to the one shown in Figure 5 of Plane (2004). In the simulation, a greater total sodium content implies that a smaller percentage of the sodium chemicals are present as sodium atoms as the altitude profile of the sodium atoms is fixed. In reality, instead of the sodium atoms, the total sodium content should be more or less conserved. Hence a higher total sodium content in our simulation suggests less sodium can be detected by the lidar.

Although the sensitivity factor could be different upon the change of the reference profile, it still gives an insight into the significance of each background species to the sodium chemistry. Apparently, the weight of some background species, namely O3, H, H2, and H2O, is negligible in sodium chemistry, meaning that removing these species and their associated reactions has no effect on the overall sodium chemistry. Nevertheless, these species are still kept in our numerical model for completeness. The impact of species that converts Na atom to Na^+, as listed in reactions 27 and 28 of Table 1, is generally strong. The effect of NO^+, in particular, is the most significant according to the sensitivity factor, greater than the combined effect of all the other species. Consequently, the number density of the sodium atom by lidar observation is strongly correlated with the fluctuations of the NO^+. In a nutshell, more NO^+ will directly lead to fewer observable Na atoms. That being said, the works of the background species are in a rather complex pattern. The scope of the sensitivity test in the present paper was limited to column density. As a result of such, variations and behaviors of the sodium chemicals by altitude are overlooked. The actual impact of the background species may differ at different altitudes.

4.2 Meteor input function

The estimation of meteoric influx is subject to many uncertainties among different techniques (Li et al., 2022). Moreover, the meteor flux estimated by the sodium chemistry model also varies (Marsh et al., 2014; Plane et al., 2015). The previous model of Plane (2004) and the following similar models indicate that the rate of dimerization, or the speed of removing sodium from the system, is heavily correlated to the vertical transport in the MLT. The NaChem model does not explicitly incorporate vertical transport, but the vertical transport by diffusion is inherently embedded within the input of the observed sodium vertical profile.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae Discussions

Unlike the previous models (Plane 2004; March et al. 2014; and references therein), the present NaChem model took an indirect route to estimate the meteor mass input. During the simulation, the $NaHCO_3$ dimerization and the uptake of the sodium species, which can be turned on or off, create a deficit of sodium atoms. Meanwhile, a meteor input function injects an appropriate amount of sodium atoms so that the present sodium vertical profile always matches the reference profiles. This is carried out by finding the difference between the current sodium profile (with the deficit) and the corresponding reference profile in every iteration and then replacing the former with the latter. The diffusion coefficient is found to be highly correlated with the sink rate of the dimerization reaction with large uncertainties (Plane, 2004). The simulation bypasses such uncertainty by directly using the observational sodium vertical profile, as the diffusion should already be infused within.

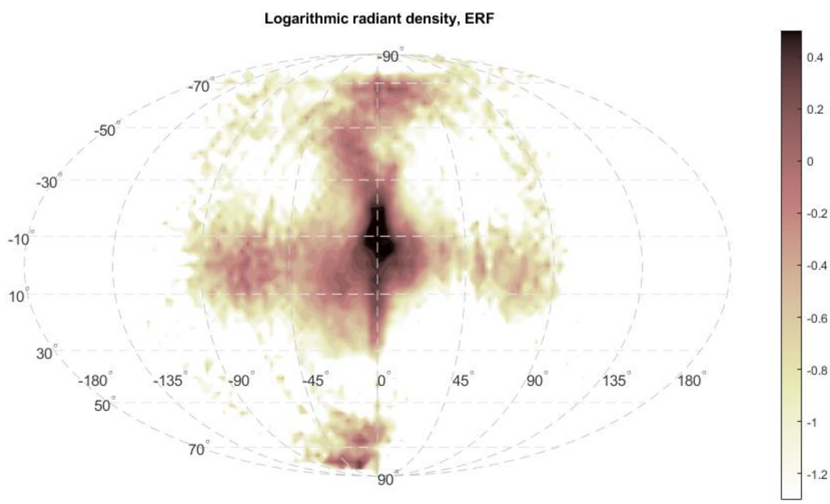

Figure 4. *Meteor radiant source derived from the AO observations. The result is in the Earth Reference Frame (ERF), equivalent to ground-based observations. The radiant distribution is derived from the number of meteor events. Figure reproduced from Li et al. (2022).*

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae
Discussions
Open Access

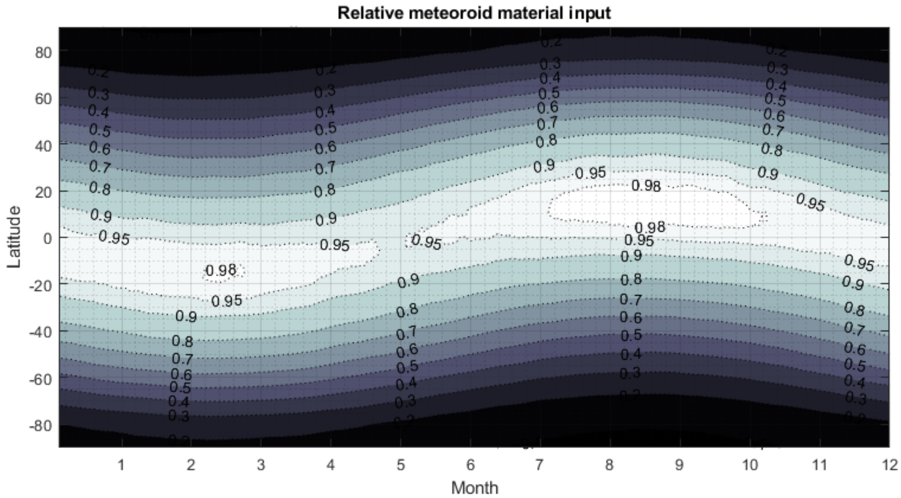

Figure 5. *Relative seasonal and latitudinal meteoroid input, inferred from the radiant source distribution shown in Figure 4.*

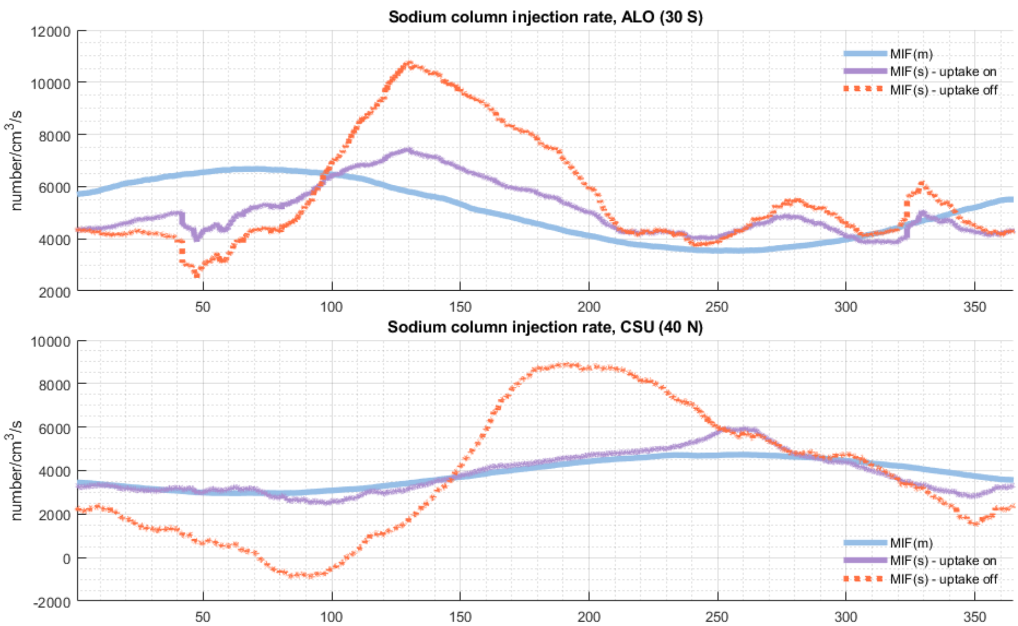

Figure 6. *A comparison between two meteor input functions: MIF(m), which is inferred from micro-meteor radiant distribution, and MIF(s), which is derived using a Na chemistry model. The purple line represents MIF(s) with uptake on, while the orange dotted line represents MIF(s) with uptake off.*

Figure 4 shows the high-resolution meteor radiant source distribution recently inferred from the AO observations (Li et al., 2022). The typical mass of the Arecibo meteors is estimated to be around 10^{-13} Kg based on flux rate (Li and Zhou, 2019). Mathews et al. (2001) estimated the limiting meteor mass of 10^{-14} Kg based on the meteor ballistic parameter. Despite these estimations being based on various simplified assumptions that may lead to inaccurate results, the estimated mass is still at least two orders of magnitude smaller than the estimations of other facilities by similar means. More than 95% of the meteoroid population in the Earth's atmosphere is found to be sporadic meteors by HPLA radar observation (Chau and Galindo, 2007), which typically are low-mass meteors evolved from the outer Solar system due to the Poynting-Robertson drag (Nesvorn'y et al., 2011; Koschny et al., 2019). That being said, the percentage of sporadic meteors, as well as the radiant source distribution, are both estimated based on the occurrence. However, the occurrence of sporadic meteors may not be able to represent their mass distribution. The relative seasonal and latitudinal meteoroid input by the number of events inferred from the new radiant distribution is depicted in Figure 5. The meteoroid input generally follows a sinusoidal pattern and differs from the one used in the previous work, as shown in Figure 1 of Marsh et al. (2013). Although the interplanetary dust (meteor) background on the Earth's orbit could vary in different locations due to a variety of reasons, e.g., Jupiter resonance, it is still safe to assume no change in the interplanetary dust background for our purpose. Taking a stable interplanetary dust background, the MIF(m) 's seasonal sinusoidal pattern should follow the Earth's axis rotation.

Figure 6 shows a comparison between two types of meteor input function: MIF(m), which is inferred from the micro-meteor radiant distribution, and MIF(s), which is derived using the Na chemistry model with sodium input from the lidar observations. For the MIF(s) model simulations, we did two scenarios, one with and one without uptakes by smoke particles, for the ALO and CSU data. The MIF(s) with uptake by smoke particles exhibit a good match with the MIF(m) on the CSU dataset, while it does not show as good of a match on the ALO dataset. The MIF(s) with smoke uptake on is represented by a purple line, while the MIF(s) with smoke uptake turned off is depicted by an orange dotted line. The MIF(s) could go negative when the reference sodium vertical profile decreases faster than the removal rate by the dimerization, as shown in the orange dotted line in Figure 6, indicating that the dimerization process alone is not sufficient enough to account for all the sodium atom depletion in the MLT region. MIF(m) is derived from a global micro-meteor radiant distribution model, as depicted in Figure 4 and Figure 5. The smoke uptake of sodium species in this study is implemented using a methodology similar to Plane (2004), but instead of applying smoke uptake solely to the three major sodium species, namely Na, NaHCO3, and Na+, it is applied to all 14 sodium-bearing species. The optimal uptake factor to obtain the best results was found to be 2×10^{-2}/km/s. The smoke uptake and $NaHCO_3$ dimerization account for approximately 75% and 25% of the Na sink, respectively.

According to the global meteoroid orbital model outlined in (Li et al., 2022), the latitudes spanning 29.5° S to 30.5° S (ALO) account for 0.52% of the total meteor input, while those between 39.5° N and 40.5° N (CSU) represent 0.67%. The CSU site shares more meteor input due to its closer proximity to one of the Apex meteor radiant sources. The global total sodium injection rate inferred from the ALO data-based simulation is 2.83×10^{23} atoms per second, and the CSU-data-based simulation suggests a global sodium injection rate of 1.49×10^{23} atoms per second. Assuming the relative sodium elemental abundance in meteoroid material is 0.8% (Vondrak et al., 2008), the deduced total meteoroid material input of ALO-based simulation was 116.85 t d^{-1}. From CSU-based simulation, the rate is 61.47 t d^{-1}. Both estimations are close to 80-130 t d^{-1}, the value reported by the Long Duration Exposure Facility (Love and Brownlee, 1993; McBride et al., 1999). It's worth noting that the estimated total daily input of meteoroid materials varies among previous studies, ranging from 4.6 t d^{-1} (Marsh et al., 2013) to 300 t d^{-1} (Nesvorn`y et al., 2009), with an intermediate value of 20 t d^{-1} reported by Carrillo-Sánchez et al. (2020). While these estimates seem quite disparate, the variance is relatively small given that the daily input rate is derived from combinations of chemicals that can fluctuate by several orders of magnitude.

5. Discussion

The sodium concentration in the sodium layer in the MLT region is governed by several factors, including chemistry, dynamics, and the MIF. It's difficult to discern which of these three components is more important than the others. In this section, we discuss various factors that may contribute to modeling the sodium concentration in the MLT.

The mass of the meteoroids, which constitute the metal layers in the MLT, has been estimated and measured by various means, e.g., ballistic parameter (Mathews et al. 2001); plasma by meteor ablation model, radar cross-section (Close et al., 2005; Sugar et al., 2021), flux rate (Zhou and Kelley, 1997), and spacecraft observations (Leinert and Grun, 1990), to name a few. The mass estimated by the meteor ballistic parameter is commonly referred to as momentum or dynamical mass. The mass estimated by the meteor ablation model is usually called the scattering mass. The meteor momentum mass from Arecibo Ultra-High-Frequency (UHF) radar observation is estimated to be 10^{-14} – 10^{-7} kg, with the typical mass being 10^{-13} kg. On the other hand, the meteor scattering mass is estimated to be 10^{-9} – $10^{-5.5}$ kg by data from EISCAT UHF radar (Kero et al., 2008) and 10^{-7} – $10^{-4.5}$ kg by data from ALTAIR UHF radar (Close et al., 2005). While the detection sensitivity among different facilities differs, these estimations are still off by many orders of magnitude. The assessments of either momentum mass or scattering mass are based on a variety of simplified assumptions. They are subject to errors due to the complexity of radar beam patterns, background atmosphere conditions, aspect sensitivity, meteor radiant sources, and many other possible factors. For example, radar meteor observation is subject to bias against low-mass, low-velocity meteors (Close et al., 2007; Janches et al., 2015).

Another aspect that may contribute to the MIF(m)'s uncertainty is the meteor radiant distribution. The meteor radiant distributions shown in Figure 4 and many others (Chau et al., 2004; Campbell-Brown and Jones, 2006; Kero et al., 2012) are inferred or measured by meteor occurrence instead of mass input. Currently, retrieving a more accurate estimation of the meteor mass input is still a topic under active research, and there is no quantitative study on the disparities between meteor occurrence and meteor mass input. The radiant sources of the meteors are expected to differ by mass as their orbital evolution is highly correlated to their mass. The interplanetary dust interacts with the solar wind while in the Solar System, losing its momentum in the process and evolving into orbits with a smaller semi-major axis and lower eccentricity. The effect is called the Poynting-Robertson effect (Robertson and Russell, 1937), which behaves like a drag force and defines the evolution of interplanetary dust, and it could be the major reason for the existence of sporadic meteors (Li and Zhou, 2019; Koschny et al., 2019). The importance of the Poynting-Robertson effect is highly dependent on the density and mass of the object. By and large, the orbits of the smaller particles evolve exponentially faster. The orbital dynamics of interplanetary particles have been very well summarized in section 2.2 of (Koschny et al., 2019). For the reasons above, the meteor radiant distribution of mass could deviate from the radiant distribution of occurrence. Therefore, the meteor input rates as shown in the blue curves of Figure 6 could be different

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

from those derived from the meteor radiant distribution of mass since they were derived from the meteor radiant distribution by occurrence.

In the sodium chemistry model presented in this work, the MIF is the sole source of sodium, while the sodium sink comprises $NaHCO_3$ dimerization and smoke uptake. The MIF(s) is determined by matching the sink rate of the sodium atoms with the rate of sodium injection. In other words, MIF(s) represents the amount of sodium injection needed to keep the sodium concentration equal to the reference sodium profiles. If the chemical lifetime of sodium in the MLT is short, then the seasonal variation of both the MIF and sodium concentration in the MLT should be similar. After examining Figures 3, 5, and 6, it can be observed that the averaged seasonal variation of sodium over the years at both sites (ALO and CSU) does not correspond to the trend of the MIF(m) at their respective latitudes. This may indicate that the chemical lifetime of sodium in the MLT should be relatively long, as there is no immediate effect of MIF(m) on the sodium concentration. The MIF displays a sinusoidal pattern which peaks in March at the ALO's latitude and in August at the CSU's latitude, whereas the sodium layer shows dual peaks in the CSU's lidar observations and one peak in June in the ALO's lidar observations.

In our simulation, the MIF(s) inferred by NaChem was consistent with the MIF(m) derived from the meteor radiant distribution. Although the model does not directly incorporate any dynamical processes, the vertical transport by diffusion would have been implicitly included. The model forces the sodium layer to be the same as the data, which are averaged by the observations of many years, in which the diffusions are inherently embedded. The combination of observational data with the numerical chemistry model in this paper is a relatively straightforward application of data assimilation (Bouttier & Courtier 2002). The lidar data of both sites (CSU and ALO) indicate that the sodium column density consistently increases by about 20% from 22:00 to 4:00 LT the next day. This can be attributed to the fact that, during nighttime, the large deposits of Na^+ formed by daytime reactions slowly neutralized to Na. As a result, the sodium column density consistently increases throughout the night. The same effect can be reproduced in the NaChem simulation, albeit with a smaller amplitude. The simulation shows the increase to be about 8%. This number is obtained by turning the sodium sink off and keeping the total number of sodium in the system conserved.

While meridional transport or atmospheric dynamics both contribute to the seasonal variation of the sodium layer in the MLT, the diurnal sodium profile is the mean of observations of thousands of days, of which the variation by atmospheric dynamics should be much less prominent. The lack of explicit dynamics in the model may be one of the sources of inconsistency when compared to the observations. Further, the WACCM, which supplied the background species to the NaChem, is an older version that does not fully incorporate the dynamics of each ion species. Despite our results showing good agreement between the MIF(s) and the MIF(m), there might be several plausible factors that could lead to potential errors. For example, the Na sink by $NaHCO_3$ dimerization varies by the diffusion rate or the vertical transport of sodium atoms in the chemistry model (Plane, 2004). Likewise, the MIF(m) may also differ if the meteoroid mass input differs from the radiant source distribution by the occurrence of meteors, as discussed in the aforementioned paragraph.

5. Conclusion

This work introduced a new sodium chemistry model that simulates the time evolution of all sodium-bearing species using the continuity equation without making any steady-state assumption. The model employs an exponential integrator and runs in high-time resolution to maintain numerical stability. The

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

model is simple to maintain in such a configuration and can be scaled up to include additional capabilities more easily. The model is highly optimized for processing efficiency and benefits from the use of an exponential integrator. Therefore, within an acceptable total CPU time, the NaChem can afford a time resolution of up to milliseconds, several orders of magnitude smaller than those used in other Na models. During our testing, the CPU time to simulated real-time ratio is about 1 to 100 using a 10-millisecond time step.

The model simulation was able to reproduce the seasonal variation of the sodium layer in the MLT by simulations of chemical reactions. The simulation results at the CSU's latitude capture the general trend of the seasonal variation at the location. The MIF(s) based on the ALO data exhibited less conformity with the corresponding MIF(m), which could be attributed to inadequate statistics of the observational data. Comparably, the CSU dataset is more reliable as the insufficient lidar hours in the ALO dataset may lead to inaccurate statistics. In the simulation, when forcing the sodium layer to be the observation-based reference profile, the inferred MIF is 116.85 t d^{-1} at ALO and 61.47 t d^{-1} at CSU. The numerical simulation by NaChem could reproduce the general trend of diurnal and seasonal variation of the sodium layer compared to the observations by the CSU Lidar. There are some inconsistencies in MIF(m) and MIF(s) based on data obtained from ALO Lidar. These inconsistencies may have originated from poor statistics resulting from insufficient observation hours.

In summary, a new sodium chemistry model has been developed in this work to investigate the relationship between MIF and the sodium layer. We also compared the MIF(m) derived from radar meteor observation to the MIF(s) derived from the chemistry model and lidar observations. Our results indicate that the uptake of sodium species onto meteoric smoke particles removes approximately three times more sodium than the dimerization of $NaHCO_3$. Our future work will focus on incorporating the plausible factors that may lead to potential errors discussed above into the chemistry model.

Acknowledgment

The study is supported by NSF Grant AGS-1903346. T.-Y. Huang acknowledges that her work is supported by (while serving at) the National Science Foundation. WF was supported by the UK Natural Environment Research Council (grant no. NE/P001815/1). Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation. The lidar data used in this paper are obtained from The Utah State University (USU) Sodium LIDAR facility and the Andes Lidar Observatory.

Code/Data availability

The code and data used in this work are available upon request to Yanlin Li, yxl875@psu.edu.

Author contribution

All authors have equal contributions to the work.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Reference

Andrioli, V., Xu, J., Batista, P., Pimenta, A., Resende, L., Savio, S., . . . others (2020). Nocturnal and seasonal variation of na and k layers simultaneously observed in the mlt region at 23 s. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 125 (3), e2019JA027164.

Bag, T., Sunil Krishna, M., & Singh, V. (2015). Modeling of na airglow emission and first results on the nocturnal variation at midlatitude. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 120 (12), 10–945.

Bowman, M., Gibson, A., & Sandford, M. (1969). Atmospheric sodium measured by a tuned laser radar. Nature, 221 (5179), 456–457.

Bouttier, F., & Courtier, P. (2002). Data assimilation concepts and methods March 1999. Meteorological training course lecture series. ECMWF, 718, 59.

Cai, X., Yuan, T., Eccles, J. V., Pedatella, N., Xi, X., Ban, C., & Liu, A. Z. (2019). A numerical investigation on the variation of sodium ion and observed thermospheric sodium layer at cerro pachon, chile during equinox. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 124 (12), 10395–10414.

Cai, X., Yuan, T., Eccles, J. V., & Raizada, S. (2019). Investigation on the distinct nocturnal secondary sodium layer behavior above 95 km in winter and summer over logan, ut (41.7 n, 112 w) and arecibo observatory, pr (18.3 n, 67 w). Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 124 (11), 9610–9625.

Campbell-Brown, M. (2008). High resolution radiant distribution and orbits of sporadic radar meteoroids. Icarus, 196 (1), 144–163.

Campbell-Brown, M., & Jones, J. (2006). Annual variation of sporadic radar meteor rates. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 367 (2), 709–716.

Carrillo-Sánchez, J. D., Bones, D. L., Douglas, K. M., Flynn, G. J., Wirick, S., Fegley Jr, B., ... & Plane, J. M. (2020). Injection of meteoric phosphorus into planetary atmospheres. *Planetary and Space Science*, *187*, 104926.

Chau, J. L., & Galindo, F. (2008). First definitive observations of meteor shower particles using a high-power large-aperture radar. Icarus, 194 (1), 23–29.

Chau, J. L., Woodman, R. F., & Galindo, F. (2007). Sporadic meteor sources as observed by the jicamarca high-power large-aperture vhf radar. Icarus, 188 (1), 162–174.

Close, S., Brown, P., Campbell-Brown, M., Oppenheim, M., & Colestock, P. (2007). Meteor head echo radar data: Mass–velocity selection effects. Icarus, 186 (2), 547–556.

Close, S., Oppenheim, M., Durand, D., & Dyrud, L. (2005). A new method for determining meteoroid mass from head echo data. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 110 (A9).

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Dunker, T., Hoppe, U.-P., Feng, W., Plane, J. M., & Marsh, D. R. (2015). Mesospheric temperatures and sodium properties measured with the alomar na lidar compared with waccm. Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics, 127 , 111–119.

Feng, W., Marsh, D. R., Chipperfield, M. P., Janches, D., H offner, J., Yi, F., & Plane, J. M. (2013). A global atmospheric model of meteoric iron. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 118 (16), 9456–9474.

Griffin, J., Worsnop, D., Brown, R., Kolb, C., & Herschbach, D. (2001). Chemical kinetics of the nao (a 2σ+)+ o (3p) reaction (Vol. 105) (No. 9). ACS Publications.

Gettelman, A., Mills, M. J., Kinnison, D. E., Garcia, R. R., Smith, A. K., Marsh, D. R., ... & Randel, W. J. (2019). The whole atmosphere community climate model version 6 (WACCM6). *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, *124*(23), 12380-12403.

Hedin, J., & Gumbel, J. (2011). The global mesospheric sodium layer observed by odin/osiris in 2004–2009. Journal of atmospheric and solar-terrestrial physics, 73 (14-15), 2221–2227.

Higham, N. J. (2002). Accuracy and stability of numerical algorithms. SIAM.

Hochbruck, M., & Ostermann, A. (2010). Exponential integrators. Acta Numerica, 19 , 209–286.

Huang, T.-Y., & Hickey, M. P. (2008). Secular variations of OH nightglow emission and of the OH intensity-weighted temperature induced by gravity-wave forcing in the MLT region. *Advances in Space Research*, doi:10.1016/j.asr.2007.10.020.

Huang, T.-Y. & George, R. (2014). Simulations of Gravity Wave-induced Variations of the OH(8,3), O_2(0,1), and O(^{1}S) Airglow Emissions in the MLT Region, *J. Geophys. Res. Space Physics*, **119**, doi:10.1002/2013JA019296.

Huang, T.-Y. (2015). Gravity waves-induced airglow temperature variations, phase relationships, and krassovsky ratio for oh (8, 3) airglow, o2 (0, 1) atmospheric band, and o (1s) greenline in the mlt region. Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics, 130, 68–74.

Hunten, D. M. (1967). Spectroscopic studies of the twilight airglow. Space Science Reviews, 6 (4), 493–573.

Hunten, D. M., Turco, R. P., & Toon, O. B. (1980). Smoke and dust particles of meteoric origin in the mesosphere and stratosphere. Journal of Atmospheric Sciences, 37(6), 1342-1357.

Hunziker, H. E., & Wendt, H. R. (1974). Near infrared absorption spectrum of HO2. The Journal of Chemical Physics, 60(11), 4622-4623.

Janches, D., Swarnalingam, N., Plane, J., Nesvorny, D., Feng, W., Vokrouhlicky, D., & Nicolls, M. (2015). Radar detectability studies of slow and small zodiacal dust cloud particles. ii. a study of three radars with different sensitivity. The Astrophysical Journal, 807 (1), 13.

Kalashnikova, O., Horanyi, M., Thomas, G. E., & Toon, O. B. (2000). Meteoric smoke production in the atmosphere. Geophysical research letters, 27(20), 3293-3296.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae
Discussions

Kero, J., Szasz, C., Nakamura, T., Meisel, D., Ueda, M., Fujiwara, Y., . . . Watanabe, J. (2012). The 2009–2010 mu radar head echo observation programme for sporadic and shower meteors: radiant densities and diurnal rates. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 425 (1), 135–146.

Kero, J., Szasz, C., Pellinen-Wannberg, A., Wannberg, G., Westman, A., & Meisel, D. (2008). Three-dimensional radar observation of a submillimeter meteoroid fragmentation. Geophysical Research Letters, 35 (4).

Koch, J., Bourassa, A., Lloyd, N., Roth, C., She, C.-Y., Yuan, T., & von Savigny, C. (2021). Retrieval of mesospheric sodium from osiris nightglow measurements and comparison to ground-based lidar measurements. Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics, 216, 105556.

Koschny, D., Soja, R. H., Engrand, C., Flynn, G. J., Lasue, J., Levasseur-Regourd, A.-C., . . . others (2019). Interplanetary dust, meteoroids, meteors and meteorites. Space science reviews, 215 (4), 1–62.

Langowski, M. P., von Savigny, C., Burrows, J. P., Fussen, D., Dawkins, E., Feng, W., . . . Marsh, D. R. (2017). Comparison of global datasets of sodium densities in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere from gomos, sciamachy and osiris measurements and waccm model simulations from 2008 to 2012. Atmospheric Measurement Techniques, 10 (8), 2989–3006.

Leinert, C., & Gr¨un, E. (1990). Interplanetary dust. In Physics of the inner heliosphere i (pp. 207–275). Springer.

Li, J., Williams, B. P., Alspach, J. H., & Collins, R. L. (2020a). Sodium resonance wind-temperature lidar at pfrr: Initial observations and performance. Atmosphere, 11 (1), 98.

Li, Y., & Zhou, Q. (2019). Velocity and orbital characteristics of micrometeors observed by the arecibo 430 mhz incoherent scatter radar. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 486 (3), 3517–3523.

Li, Y., Zhou, Q., Scott, M., & Milla, M. (2020). A study on meteor head echo using a probabilistic detection model at jicamarca. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 125 (1), e2019JA027459.

Li. Y., Zhou, Q., Urbina, J., Huang T.-Y., (2022). Sporadic micro-meteoroid source radiant distribution inferred from the Arecibo 430 MHz radar observations, Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society

Love, S., & Brownlee, D. (1993). A direct measurement of the terrestrial mass accretion rate of cosmic dust. Science, 262 (5133), 550–553.

Marsh, D. R., Janches, D., Feng, W., & Plane, J. M. (2013). A global model of meteoric sodium. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 118 (19), 11–442.

Mathews, J., Janches, D., Meisel, D., & Zhou, Q.-H. (2001). The micrometeoroid mass flux into the upper atmosphere: Arecibo results and a comparison with prior estimates. Geophysical Research Letters, 28 (10), 1929–1932.

McBride, N., Green, S. F., & McDonnell, J. (1999). Meteoroids and small sized debris in low earth orbit and at 1 au: Results of recent modelling. Advances in Space research, 23 (1), 73–82.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Molod, A., Takacs, L., Suarez, M., & Bacmeister, J. (2015). Development of the GEOS-5 atmospheric general circulation model: Evolution from MERRA to MERRA2. *Geoscientific Model Development*, *8*(5), 1339-1356.

Nesvorn`y, D., Vokrouhlick`y, D., Pokorn`y, P., & Janches, D. (2011). Dynamics of dust particles released from Oort cloud comets and their contribution to radar meteors. The Astrophysical Journal, 743 (1), 37.

Nesvorný, D., Jenniskens, P., Levison, H. F., Bottke, W. F., Vokrouhlický, D., & Gounelle, M. (2010). Cometary origin of the zodiacal cloud and carbonaceous micrometeorites. Implications for hot debris disks. The Astrophysical Journal, 713(2), 816.

Plane, J. (2004). A time-resolved model of the mesospheric na layer: constraints on the meteor input function. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 4 (3), 627–638.

Plane, J., Oetjen, H., de Miranda, M., Saiz-Lopez, A., Gausa, M., & Williams, B. (2012). On the sodium d line emission in the terrestrial nightglow. Journal of atmospheric and solar-terrestrial physics, 74 , 181–188.

Plane, J. (2010). A reference atmosphere for the atomic sodium layer. Atmos. Chem. Phys, 470 .

Plane, J. M., Daly, S. M., Feng, W., Gerding, M., & G´omez Mart´ın, J. C. (2021). Meteor-ablated aluminum in the mesosphere-lower thermosphere. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 126 (2), e2020JA028792.

Plane, J. M., Feng, W., & Dawkins, E. C. (2015). The mesosphere and metals: Chemistry and changes. Chemical reviews, 115 (10), 4497–4541.

Qiu, S., Wang, N., Soon, W., Lu, G., Jia, M., Wang, X., . . . Dou, X. (2021). The sporadic sodium layer: a possible tracer for the conjunction between the upper and lower atmospheres. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 21 (15), 11927–11940.

Robertson, H. (1937). Dynamical effects of radiation in the solar system. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 97, 423.

Sugar, G., Marshall, R., Oppenheim, M., Dimant, Y., & Close, S. (2021). Simulation-derived radar cross sections of a new meteor head plasma distribution model. Journal of Geophysical Research: Space Physics, 126 (7), e2021JA029171.

Takahashi, T., Nozawa, S., Tsutsumi, M., Hall, C., Suzuki, S., Tsuda, T. T., . . .others (2014). A case study of gravity wave dissipation in the polar mlt region using sodium lidar and radar data. In Annales geophysicae (Vol. 32, pp. 1195–1205).

Vondrak, T., Plane, J., Broadley, S., & Janches, D. (2008). A chemical model of meteoric ablation. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 8 (23), 7015–7031.

Yu, B., Xue, X., Scott, C. J., Jia, M., Feng, W., Plane, J., . . . Dou, X. (2022). Comparison of middle-and low-latitude sodium layer from a ground-based lidar network, the odin satellite, and waccm-na model. EGUsphere, 1–34.

https://doi.org/10.5194/angeo-2023-20
Preprint. Discussion started: 17 July 2023

Annales Geophysicae Discussions

Zhou, Q. H., & Kelley, M. C. (1997). Meteor observations by the arecibo 430 mhz incoherent scatter radar. ii. results from time-resolved observations. Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-Terrestrial Physics, 59 (7), 739–752.110