




**Solar-Energetic-Particle Track-Production Rates at 1 au:  
Comparing In-Situ Particle Fluxes with Lunar Sample-Derived Track Densities**

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8 ABSTRACT

9 Heavy ( $Z > 26$ ) solar energetic particles (SEPs) with energies  $\sim 1$  MeV/nucleon are  
10 known to leave visible damage tracks in meteoritic materials. The density of such ‘solar  
11 flare tracks’ in lunar and asteroidal samples has been used as a measure of a sample’s ex-  
12 posure time to space, yielding critical information on planetary space weathering rates,  
13 the dynamics and lifetimes of interplanetary dust grains, and the long-term history of  
14 solar particle fluxes. Knowledge of the SEP track accumulation rate in planetary ma-  
15 terials at 1 au is critical for properly interpreting observed track densities. Here, we  
16 use in-situ particle observations of the 0.50–3.0 MeV/nuc Fe-group SEP flux taken by  
17 NASA’s Advanced Composition Explorer (ACE) to calculate a flux of track-inducing  
18 particles at 1 au of  $6.0 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ str}^{-1}$ . Using the observed energy spectrum  
19 of Fe-group SEPs, we find that the depth distribution of SEP-induced damage tracks

20 inferred from ACE measurements matches closely to that recently measured in lunar  
 21 sample 64455; however, the magnitude of the ACE-inferred rate is approximately  $25\times$   
 22 higher than that observed in the lunar sample. We discuss several hypotheses for the  
 23 nature of this discrepancy, including inefficiencies in track formation, thermal annealing  
 24 of lunar samples, erosion via space weathering processing, and variations in the SEP flux  
 25 at the Moon, yet find no satisfactory explanation. We encourage further research on  
 26 both the nature of SEP track formation in meteoritic materials and the flux of Fe-group  
 27 SEPs at the lunar surface in recent and geologic times to resolve this discrepancy.

## 28 1. INTRODUCTION

29 Objects exposed to the harshness of space are subjected to a wide range of charged-particle irra-  
 30 diation that can physically and chemically alter their nature. In particular, fluxes of  $\sim 1$  MeV/nuc,  
 31 high-Z ( $Z > 26$ , typically Fe and heavier) solar energetic particles (SEPs) have been shown to leave  
 32 observable damage tracks in meteoritic minerals, including interplanetary dust grains (e.g., [Bradley  
 33 et al. 1984](#); [Thiel et al. 1991](#)), meteorites (e.g., [Goswami 1981](#)), and returned lunar and asteroidal  
 34 samples (e.g., [Croaz et al. 1972](#); [Blanford et al. 1974](#); [Keller & Berger 2014](#)). The characterization  
 35 of these tracks, including their overall density as well as their depth profiles, informs us about both  
 36 the exposure age of planetary materials to space (e.g., [Bradley et al. 1984](#); [Sandford 1986](#); [Keller  
 37 et al. 2021](#); [Keller & Flynn 2022](#)) and the solar energetic particle flux over solar system timescales  
 38 (e.g., [Price & O’Sullivan 1970](#); [Zinner 1980](#)).

39 A key question in such studies is the rate at which typical meteoritic minerals accumulate SEP tracks  
 40 at 1 au. [Blanford et al. \(1974\)](#) used acid-etching techniques on Apollo 16 sample 64455 to determine  
 41 an SEP track accumulation rate of  $\sim 6 \times 10^5$  tracks  $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  for an assumed  $2\pi$  exposure; however,  
 42 this analysis required a series of renormalizations and extrapolations, which leaves uncertainty as  
 43 to the robustness of the final results. Recently, laboratory measurements of SEP-induced tracks  
 44 within lunar sample 64455 using more advanced techniques have yielded a re-calibration of the rate  
 45 of SEP track formation in minerals at 1 au of  $4.4 \pm 0.4 \times 10^4$  tracks  $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ , again assuming a  $2\pi$

46 exposure (Keller et al. 2021). In turn, the SEP track-formation rate determined in Keller et al. (2021)  
 47 has led to the conclusion that interplanetary dust grains collected from the terrestrial stratosphere  
 48 with unusually high track densities ( $\gtrsim 10^{11}$  tracks  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) may originate from the Edgeworth-Kuiper  
 49 Belt beyond Neptune (Keller & Flynn 2022). Such a conclusion has significant implications for  
 50 the distribution and dynamics of interplanetary dust grains throughout the solar system (e.g., Liou  
 51 & Zook 1999; Kuchner & Stark 2010; Poppe et al. 2019), yet such conclusions rely critically on  
 52 knowledge of the SEP track accumulation rate.

53 Here, we use a complementary approach to calculating the track-inducing flux of SEPs at 1 au via  
 54 in-situ observations from NASA’s Advanced Composition Explorer (ACE) (Stone et al. 1998), which  
 55 has been in a heliocentric orbit at the solar-terrestrial Lagrange-1 point since 1998. We compare this  
 56 in-situ derived rate to the sample-derived track-formation rate of Keller et al. (2021) and find that  
 57 while the shape of the track density versus depth profile matches the sample data well, the overall  
 58 magnitude of the in-situ derived rate is approximately  $25\times$  higher than the lunar sample-derived  
 59 rate. We assess several possibilities for the discrepancy between these two measurement approaches,  
 60 yet find no obvious explanation and therefore urge additional laboratory and in-situ experiments on  
 61 the nature of SEP track accumulation in meteoritic and lunar minerals.

## 62 2. FE-GROUP SOLAR ENERGETIC PARTICLE FLUX AT 1 AU

63  
 64 To calculate the flux of SEP track-producing particles at 1 au, we use observations taken by the  
 65 Ultra-Low-Energy Isotope Spectrometer (ULEIS) instrument onboard NASA’s Advanced Composi-  
 66 tion Explorer. Launched in 1997, the ACE mission was designed to measure the elemental and isotopic  
 67 composition of space-based particles over a wide range of energies ( $\sim\text{keV/nuc}$  to  $\sim\text{GeV/nuc}$ ) and  
 68 masses (atomic numbers,  $1 \leq Z \leq 28$ ) (Stone et al. 1998). Amongst a broader payload, the ULEIS  
 69 instrument measures the compositionally resolved energy spectra of elements between He ( $Z=2$ ) and  
 70 Ni ( $Z=28$ ) in the energy range,  $\sim 45 \text{ keV/nuc} < E < \sim \text{few MeV/nuc}$  (Mason et al. 1998). Solar-flare  
 71 track production within meteoritic materials only occurs for very heavy nuclei with  $Z \gtrsim 26$  (e.g., Ch.  
 72 1, Fleischer et al. 1975, and refs. therein); thus, we focus our analysis on the Fe-group ( $Z \geq 26$ ) ions

73 measured by ULEIS. We acquired the full dataset of Fe-group flux measured by ULEIS between 1998  
 74 and mid-2023 in the energy range,  $0.035 < E < 3.07$  MeV/nuc, via NASA’s Coordinated Data Anal-  
 75 ysis Website (CDAWeb). Note that while the Fe-group flux reported by ULEIS technically includes  
 76 all species with  $Z > 26$ , the elemental abundance of minor species in the solar wind in this range is  
 77 dominated by Fe ( $Z=26$ ) (e.g., Meyer 1985; Bochsler 1987). We also note that prior to mid-2001, the  
 78 ULEIS data occasionally suffered from saturated count rates for the largest SEP events [*G. Mason,*  
 79 *priv. comm., 2023*]; thus, we restrict our analysis to the  $\sim 21$ -year time period 2002–2023.

80 Figure 1 shows the monthly averaged flux of Fe-group SEPs from 2002 to 2023 over two different  
 81 energy ranges: (i) the full energy range measured by ULEIS,  $0.035 < E < 3.07$  MeV/nuc, and  
 82 (ii) the approximate energy range within which Fe-group SEPs are expected to generate observable  
 83 tracks,  $0.50 < E < 3.07$  MeV/nuc (discussed below; see also Szenes et al. 2010). Note that Fe-group  
 84 SEPs with energies greater than this range will produce tracks deeper within a material once they  
 85 have shed sufficient excess energy and thus, could also contribute to track densities; however, the  
 86 steep slope of the energy distribution (discussed below) implies that the exclusion of such higher-  
 87 energy particles does not overly affect our results. Both curves are similar in shape, displaying both  
 88 short-term variation due to individual impulsive CMEs and/or solar flares and long-term variation  
 89 corresponding to the 11-year solar cycle for solar cycles 23, 24, and the beginning of solar cycle  
 90 25. For both curves, the respective horizontal dotted lines denote the mean flux over this time  
 91 range, specifically  $3.2 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> str<sup>-1</sup> for the full energy range and  $3.8 \times 10^5$  cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> str<sup>-1</sup>  
 92 for the  $E > 0.50$  MeV/nuc range. Figure 2 shows the differential flux as a function of energy-  
 93 per-nucleon for Fe-group SEPs observed by ULEIS averaged over the full time period presented in  
 94 Figure 1. As shown by the fitted curve, the differential spectrum is well described by a power law,  
 95  $J_{Fe}(E) = 2.3 \times 10^5 \cdot E^{-1.70}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> str<sup>-1</sup> (MeV/nuc)<sup>-1</sup>. Based on an analysis of lunar sample  
 96 64455, Blanford et al. (1974) found that a long-term-averaged SEP spectral slope of  $\gamma = -1.9$  was  
 97 consistent with the observed solar flare track density distribution versus depth. This spectral slope  
 98 is slightly steeper than that measured by ACE ( $\gamma = -1.70$ ), but within reason given the different  
 99 observational approaches.

100 We also verified the differential Fe-group flux measured by ACE by comparison to concurrent Fe-  
 101 group measurements in a slightly lower energy range of 0.03–0.5 MeV/nuc by the Supra-Thermal  
 102 Energetic Particle (STEP) subsystem on the Energetic Particle: Acceleration, Composition, and  
 103 Transport (EPACT) investigation on the Wind spacecraft (von Rosenvinge et al. 1995). Within  
 104 quoted energy resolution and error bars, the differential Fe-group flux measured by Wind/STEP  
 105 matches that reported by ACE.

### 106 3. INFERRING TRACK PRODUCTION RATES AT 1 AU

107 Using the time-averaged Fe-group SEP flux measured by ACE, we employ a simple analytical model  
 108 to calculate the SEP-induced track density as a function of depth in lunar and/or meteoritic materials  
 109 at 1 au. We obtained the electronic stopping power as a function of energy for Fe incident on an  
 110 forsterite grain (Mg:Si:Fe:O = 27:12:4:56; matching that of Szenes et al. (2010)) from the TRIM.SP  
 111 code (Ziegler et al. 2010), shown in Figure 3. In this energy range ( $E > 0.01$  MeV/nuc), the electronic  
 112 stopping power dominates over the nuclear stopping power and peaks near 1.5 MeV/nuc. Previous  
 113 laboratory work has shown that track formation in insulators occurs only when incident particles  
 114 deposit energy above a given linear energy density threshold. Using a forsterite sample, Szenes et al.  
 115 (2010) have shown that 56 MeV Fe (1.0 MeV/nuc) ions leave tracks with nearly unit efficiency, while  
 116 48 MeV Ar (1.2 MeV/nuc) ions do not register any tracks. The 1.0 MeV/nuc Fe ions have a peak  
 117 electronic stopping power of 9.9 keV/nm (green line, Figure 3) while the 1.2 MeV/nuc Ar ions have an  
 118 electronic stopping power of 6.9 keV/nm (red line, Figure 3). Szenes et al. (2010) further present an  
 119 analytical formula for the threshold electronic stopping power,  $S_{et}$ , above which particles will induce  
 120 track formation and below which, they will not. From their experiments, Szenes et al. (2010) derive  
 121 a threshold value,  $S_{et} = 9.04$  keV/nm (horizontal line, Figure 3), consistent with the registration of  
 122 tracks from 1.0 MeV/nuc Fe but not 1.2 MeV/nuc Ar. Adopting this threshold, we estimate that  
 123 Fe SEPs must fall within an energy range,  $0.50 < E < 3.2$  MeV/nuc, in order to register track  
 124 formation within forsterite minerals. Note that other minerals will have slightly different electronic  
 125 stopping powers and thus, slightly different energy ranges to which they are susceptible to SEP  
 126 track formation. We also note that experimental and computational studies have shown that ions

with energies on opposite sides of the Bragg peak have different electronic stopping power thresholds for track formation (the so-called ‘velocity effect’; e.g., Constantini et al. 1992; Szenes et al. 2010; Rymzhanov et al. 2019) which could affect the overall energy range for track formation. These experiments have also shown that the effect is primarily manifested as higher electronic stopping power thresholds (i.e., reduced track formation rates) at energies *above* the Bragg peak. However, considering the steep slope of the differential flux shown in Figure 2, use of a constant  $S_{et}$  as opposed to a non-linear threshold that takes into account the velocity effect is likely to have only a minor effect on the overall track production rate calculated here.

In the analytic model, we calculate the track production rate,  $d\rho/dt$ , as a function of depth,  $z$ , by integrating the incident Fe-group SEP flux via,

$$\frac{d\rho(z)}{dt} = \pi \int_{E_{min}(z)}^{E_{max}(z)} J_{Fe}(E, z = 0) dE, \quad (1)$$

where  $J_{Fe}(E, z = 0)$  is the differential Fe SEP flux at the surface of the grain as derived above and shown in Figure 2,  $[E_{min}(z), E_{max}(z)]$  are the minimum and maximum energies of the upstream distribution that are capable of registering tracks at depth  $z$ , and the factor of  $\pi$  accounts for the exposed solid angle of a point on the lunar surface (see also Fraundorf et al. 1980). To determine  $[E_{min}(z), E_{max}(z)]$ , we numerically integrated the penetration of Fe SEPs into the mineral surface using the electronic stopping power shown in Figure 3. This step allows the model to correctly account for SEPs that are initially above the 3.2 MeV/nuc threshold, yet begin to produce tracks at greater depths once they have shed sufficient energy to fall within the  $0.50 < E < 3.2$  MeV/nuc range. For simplicity, we assume all SEPs to be normally incident to the surface. Finally, to compare with the results of Keller et al. (2021), who measured the track density as a function of depth for the 2 Myr-exposed lunar rock 64455, we multiplied  $d\rho(z)/dt$  by  $2 \times 10^6$  yr to obtain the track density versus depth,  $\rho(z)$ .

Figure 4 compares the analytic derivation for  $\rho(z)$  described above and the data reported from Keller et al. (2021). The analytical track density calculation based on the ACE-measured Fe SEP flux yields a maximum track density at the surface ( $z = 0.01 \mu\text{m}$ ) of  $2.8 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  with a gradual

153 decrease as a function of depth. At 100  $\mu\text{m}$  depth, the track density has fallen to approximately  
154  $3 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . Comparing to the Keller et al. (2021) results, the ACE-calculated track density  
155 has a nearly identical shape with respect to depth, but is  $\sim 25\times$  higher; the dashed curve denotes  
156 the ACE-calculated flux divided by 25 to illustrate this comparison. To first order then, the track  
157 production rates derived from in-situ Fe-group SEP measurements are in conflict with sample-derived  
158 track production rates reported in Keller et al. (2021). Below, we discuss possible reasons for this  
159 discrepancy.

#### 160 4. DISCUSSION

161 The overestimation of the in-situ particle flux-derived track density derived from ACE relative to  
162 the lunar sample-derived track density suggests that some process is acting to either suppress track  
163 formation (relative to our current understanding of track formation) or erase tracks at some rate  
164 after they have formed. Here, we discuss several possible hypotheses that could account for such an  
165 effect, including (i) variations in the efficiency of SEP-induced track registration within meteoritic  
166 minerals, (ii) thermal annealing of tracks, (iii) grain and track erosion processes, (iv) shielding of  
167 SEP fluxes locally at the Moon compared to L1, (v) long-term variations in the SEP flux at 1 au,  
168 and (vi) uncertainties in track-density measurement techniques; however, we note that each of these  
169 hypotheses suffers in some critical way and a clear resolution is not yet in hand.

##### 170 4.1. Track Registration Efficiency

171 Our calculations of track production rates based on in-situ observed particle fluxes require knowl-  
172 edge of the threshold electronic stopping power required for track registration (e.g., Szenes et al.  
173 2010), which is likely to vary across different minerals. Thus, changes in the assumed threshold could  
174 impact the total track production rate. To explore this, we repeated our calculations in Equation 1  
175 using the same input Fe SEP flux but with progressively higher electronic stopping power thresholds  
176 (i.e., implying a less sensitive mineral for track formation). We found that the  $25\times$  lower track  
177 production rate could only be achieved if the electronic stopping power threshold was increased to  
178 nearly the maximum observed (i.e., 99.95% of the maximum), such that Fe SEPs only induced track

179 formation over an incredibly narrow range of energies ( $\approx 1.34\text{--}1.53$  MeV/nuc). We consider such  
180 “fine-tuning” of the electronic stopping power threshold to be unrealistic, in particular in the face  
181 of significant experimental evidence that SEP Fe ions over a broader range of energies can induce  
182 track formation with unit efficiency (e.g., Fleischer et al. 1965; Seitz et al. 1970; Price et al. 1973;  
183 Szenes et al. 2010). Additionally, such a narrow energy range for track formation would lead to the  
184 formation of exceedingly short tracks ( $\sim 20$  nm); however, track lengths many tens of microns are  
185 routinely observed in space-exposed minerals (e.g., Blanford et al. 1974; Bull & Durrani 1975; Keller  
186 et al. 2021). Nevertheless, additional laboratory measurements that methodically characterize the  
187 track registration efficiency in a variety of minerals over a broad range of incident energies could help  
188 to better elucidate the exact energy range within which track formation occurs.

#### 189 4.2. *Track Annealing*

190 SEP tracks within materials can be annealed via exposure to high temperatures, which promotes  
191 atomic mobility within the crystal lattice. Early work by Price et al. (1973) suggested that at  
192 maximum lunar surface temperatures ( $\sim 130$  °C), thermal annealing of SEP-induced damage tracks  
193 could be effective on timescales of  $\sim 10^5\text{--}10^6$  years (see their Figure 9), which could plausibly affect the  
194 comparison between ACE-measured and lunar-derived SEP track densities. However, the suggestion  
195 by Price et al. (1973) relied on extrapolation of annealing at much higher temperatures and shorter  
196 timescales and other experiments have not supported this. Tracks in most minerals do not show  
197 appreciable annealing for temperatures below  $\sim 400$  °C (e.g., Bull & Durrani 1975; Afra et al. 2014),  
198 which is far above temperatures encountered on the lunar surface. Furthermore, as discussed in e.g.,  
199 Paul & Fitzgerald (1992), tracks undergoing annealing typically display a characteristic behavior in  
200 which a single continuous track develops gaps along its axis as individual portions of the track anneal  
201 (see their Figure 6). However, no such ‘gapped’ tracks indicative of thermal annealing have been  
202 reported in lunar sample 64455 (Keller et al. 2021), suggesting that annealing of lunar samples—even  
203 on geologic timescales—is not occurring.

#### 204 4.3. *Grain Erosion Mechanisms*



Regolith grains exposed to space are subject to erosive processes, chief among which is sputtering of individual atoms via incident charged particles (e.g., Biersack & Eckstein 1984; Szabo et al. 2018). Decades of laboratory measurements have quantified the sputtering yield of silicate surfaces subject to ion bombardment in the keV energy range (e.g., Biersack & Eckstein 1984). Using typical values for the solar wind flux at 1 au and the combined proton and alpha sputtering yield, grains at 1 au are eroded via charged-particle sputtering at a rate of  $\sim 7 \mu\text{m}/\text{Myr}$ . Thus, over the 2 Myr exposure of lunar sample 64455, we would expect  $\sim 14 \mu\text{m}$  of erosion. To account for this erosion rate in the accumulation of tracks, we developed a simple Monte Carlo model whereby tracks are numerically created within a model grain with a depth profile determined from the ACE measurements as shown in Figure 2 and simultaneously eroded from the top down (i.e., from the exposed grain surface) at the  $7 \mu\text{m}/\text{Myr}$  sputtering rate. After  $\approx 1.3$  Myr, the track density versus depth profile reached an equilibrium, shown in Figure 4 as the orange curve. Even when accounting for charged-particle sputtering, the track density at the grain surface is  $\sim 1.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , lower than the value without sputtering,  $2.8 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , yet still a factor of  $\sim 14$  higher than that measured by Keller et al. (2021). Thus, charged-particle sputtering, while likely reducing the track density somewhat, is insufficiently intense to explain the observed discrepancy between ACE and lunar sample 64455.

#### 4.4. *SEP Shielding at the Moon*

Discrepancies between the SEP flux measured by ACE at the Earth-Sun Lagrange 1 point and the Moon could in theory arise due to local shielding of the lunar surface from SEPs. Remanent crustal magnetic fields are widespread across the lunar surface, with magnitudes up to at least hundreds of nanotesla (e.g., Mitchell et al. 2008). In-situ particle measurements have shown that some crustal fields are of sufficient strength and coherency to reflect keV-energy solar wind protons (e.g., Lue et al. 2011; Saito et al. 2012; Poppe et al. 2017) likely due to the formation of quasi-static electric fields within the anomaly interaction regions (e.g., Fatemi et al. 2015; Deca et al. 2015). At MeV energies, however, neither magnetic fields nor quasi-static electric fields are thought capable of reflecting particles. MeV-scale electric fields are exceedingly unlikely to exist within such anomalies and a 1 MeV/nuc  $^{56}\text{Fe}^{20+}$  SEP in the presence of a 1000 nT field has a gyroradius of  $\sim 400$  km, which

232 is much larger than the coherency scale of most magnetic anomalies. Thus, the presence of lunar  
233 crustal magnetic fields are unlikely to provide any shielding to lunar soil from 1 MeV/nuc Fe-group  
234 SEPs.

235 An additional source of discrepancy between L1-measured SEP fluxes and those at the lunar surface  
236 could come from the Moon’s transit through the terrestrial magnetotail each lunation; however, this  
237 is also unlikely for two reasons. First, the Moon only spends approximately one quarter of its orbit  
238 in the magnetotail which plainly cannot account for the factor of 25 difference discussed above.  
239 Furthermore, recent analysis of in-situ particle measurements at the Moon have shown that SEPs  
240 likely have broad access to the lunar environment even within the terrestrial magnetotail due to the  
241 ‘open’ nature of magnetotail lobe field lines to the solar wind (Liuzzo et al. 2023). Finally, shielding  
242 of specific locations on the lunar surface by the solid obstacle of the Moon itself, while highly effective  
243 at keV energies (e.g., Fatemi et al. 2012), appears to yield only small or even negligible results at  
244 MeV energies (e.g., Xu et al. 2017). Nevertheless, in-situ SEP measurements placed at the lunar  
245 surface, both on the nearside and farside for comparison, could help to better constrain any local or  
246 regional shielding effects.

#### 247 4.5. Long-term SEP Variability

248 Finally, we consider the possibility that the in-situ measurements from the ACE spacecraft during  
249 the modern space age are not representative of the 2 Myr-averaged SEP flux presumably recorded  
250 by sample 64455. In other words, was lunar sample 64455 exposed on the lunar surface during an  
251 extended solar minimum after which the modern age is a kind of grand maximum in solar activ-  
252 ity? While variations over multiple time scales in solar and stellar behavior are a well-documented  
253 phenomenon (e.g., Usoskin 2023) and solar cycles 17–23 (~1940-2000) are considered a ‘Modern Max-  
254 imum’, both sunspot measurements over the past ~300 years (e.g., Usoskin et al. 2016b; Muscheler  
255 et al. 2016; Carrasco et al. 2016) and cosmogenic radionuclide data over the past several millenia (e.g.,  
256 McCracken et al. 2013; Usoskin et al. 2016a) do not suggest that the current space-age measurements  
257 are exceedingly atypical. That acknowledged, the current available history of solar activity (~10<sup>4</sup> yrs)  
258 falls well short of characterizing the 2 × 10<sup>6</sup>-year exposure age of lunar sample 64455 and thus, does

not entirely rebut the question. Nevertheless, the idea that the recent 10,000 years are representative of an extreme maximum nearly  $25\times$  higher than the million-year average is not particularly tenable and thus, we adopt the position that—at least to first order—the modern space-age measurements taken by ACE are reasonably representative of the past two million years.

#### 4.6. *Uncertainties in Track-Density Measurement Techniques*

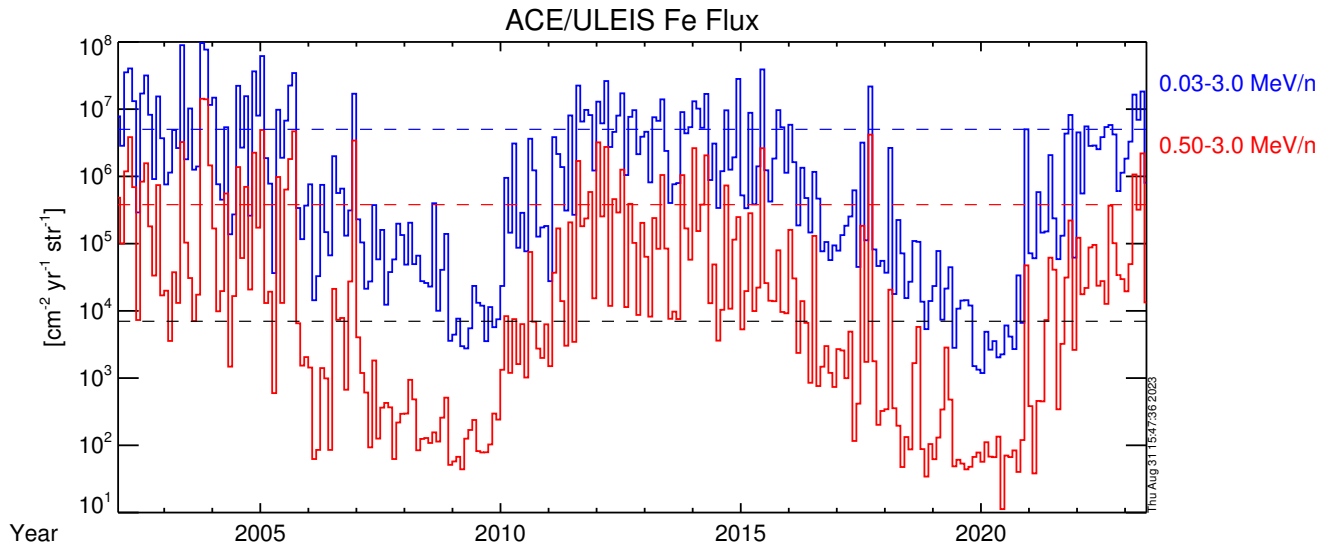
As noted in the Introduction, recent TEM measurements of SEP-induced tracks in meteoritic materials by Keller et al. (2021) have revised the sample-based track accumulation rate at 1 au downwards by a factor of  $\sim 20$  relative to earlier chemical etching-based experiments by Blanford et al. (1974). The earlier track accumulation rate from Blanford et al. (1974) is closer to the ACE-derived value (only a factor of  $\sim 4$  lower); however, as discussed in Keller et al. (2021), the TEM measurements are believed to be a more accurate measurement of the track density. In particular, the TEM measurements are made with relatively thin ( $\sim 100\text{--}150$  nm thick) slices of the Apollo lunar sample thereby ensuring a ‘local’ measurement as a function of depth and with respect to the typical track length ( $\sim 5\text{--}15$   $\mu\text{m}$ ), while the chemical etching approach used in Blanford et al. (1974) requires an effective integration over depths of  $10\text{--}15$   $\mu\text{m}$ . Thus, chemical etching samples a much larger volume which in turn yields an SEP track density that is likely biased to large values relative to the TEM measurements.

We also note that transmission electron microscope (TEM) measurements can induce fading of SEP-induced damage tracks in minerals (e.g., Fraundorf et al. 1980; Bradley et al. 1984). Such track fading was particularly noted at electron energies of 100 keV with less pronounced fading at higher energies of 200 keV, where interaction cross sections are typically lower. The TEM measurements by Keller et al. (2021) were conducted at 200 keV electron energies where such fading is not expected to be significant; however, a quantitative analysis of the degree of track fading at 200 keV irradiation has not been fully undertaken. Nevertheless, we would not expect track fading from 200 keV TEM irradiation to cause the erasure of  $\sim 95\%$  of SEP damage tracks, which is what would be required to explain the difference between the Keller et al. (2021) results and the ACE in-situ measurements.

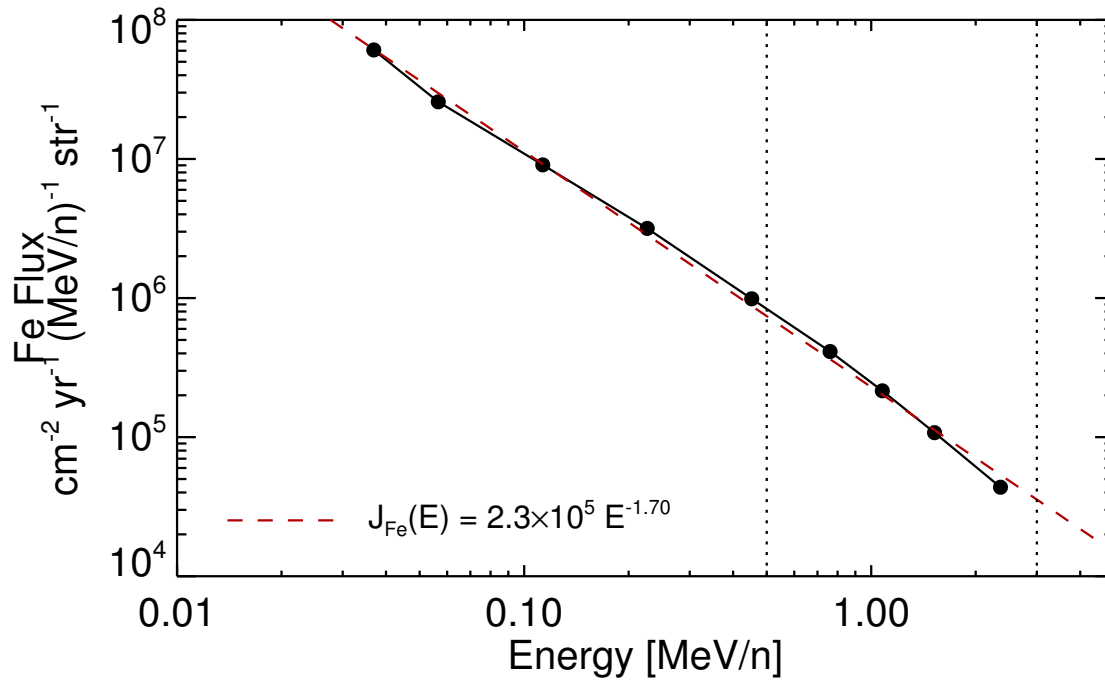
## 5. CONCLUSION

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We have presented a calculation of track-inducing Fe-group SEPs measured at 1 au by the ACE/ULEIS instrument, deriving a flux of  $6 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ str}^{-1}$ . In comparison, the track accumulation rate determined by laboratory analysis of lunar sample 64455, which was exposed to SEP fluxes on the lunar surface for  $\sim 2$  Myr, is approximately 25 times lower at  $8 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ str}^{-1}$ . As discussed above in Section 4, we have considered several possibilities in attempting to explain the difference between the ACE-measured fluxes and those calculated from analysis of lunar sample 64455. Despite this, no obvious solution for this disagreement is apparent. While previous work has demonstrated the efficiency of track formation with various minerals at discrete individual energies (e.g., [Price et al. 1973](#); [Szenes et al. 2010](#)), we would suggest a more thorough investigation. In particular, an experiment that documented the track registration efficiency across energies spanning the range predicted to induce track formation (i.e.,  $\sim 0.5\text{-}3.0$  MeV/nuc) would help to better calibrate the range over which to integrate in-situ measured SEP fluxes. Such experiments could also examine a variety of mineral phases in order to further constrain any composition-related variations in track registration efficiency. Additionally, a search for other appropriately suitable lunar samples (whether in the current Apollo collection or to be returned from the upcoming Artemis missions to the Moon) whose SEP-induced track densities over a known lifetime could be compared to those derived from 64455 would provide an additional validation of the results reported in [Keller et al. \(2021\)](#).

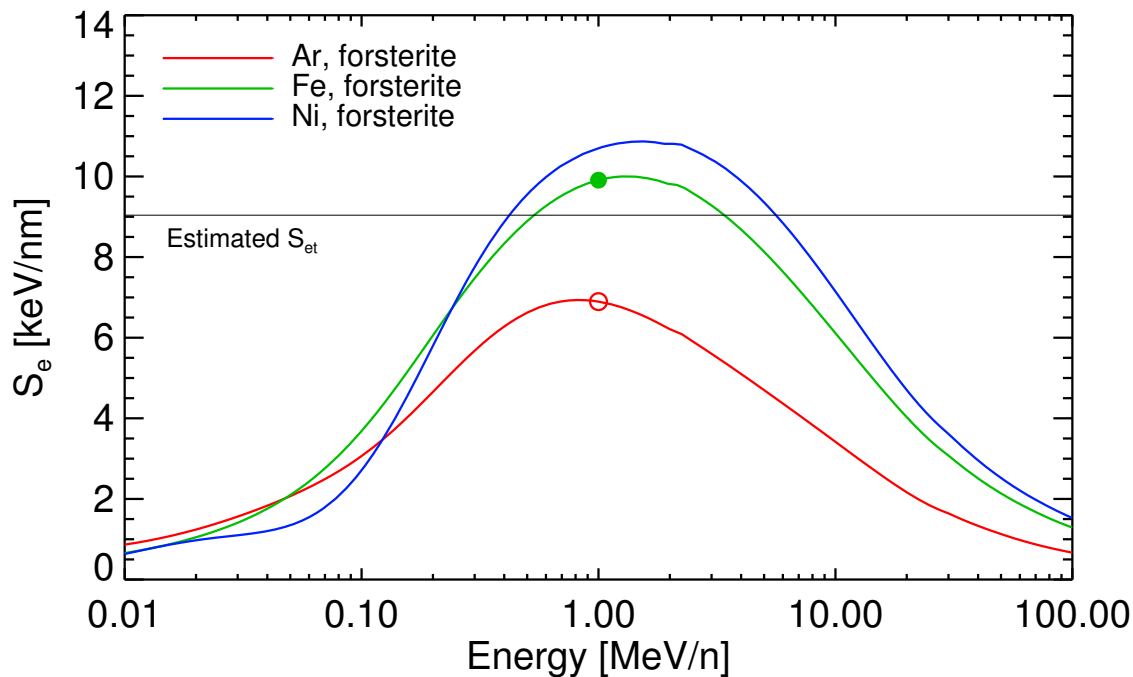


**Figure 1.** The monthly averaged Fe SEP flux measured by ACE/ULEIS for two energy ranges: (blue) 0.03 – 3.0 MeV/nuc and (red) 0.50 – 3.0 MeV/nuc. Average values for each separate energy range are shown as dashed lines. The SEP track formation flux at 1 au inferred from Keller et al. (2021) is shown as the black dashed line.



**Figure 2.** The differential energy spectrum of Fe SEPs measured by ACE/ULEIS between 0.03 MeV/nuc and 3.0 MeV/nuc. The best-fit power law spectrum is denoted by the dashed red line. The approximate energy range in which Fe-group SEPs leave damage tracks in meteoritic materials is denoted by the vertical dotted lines.

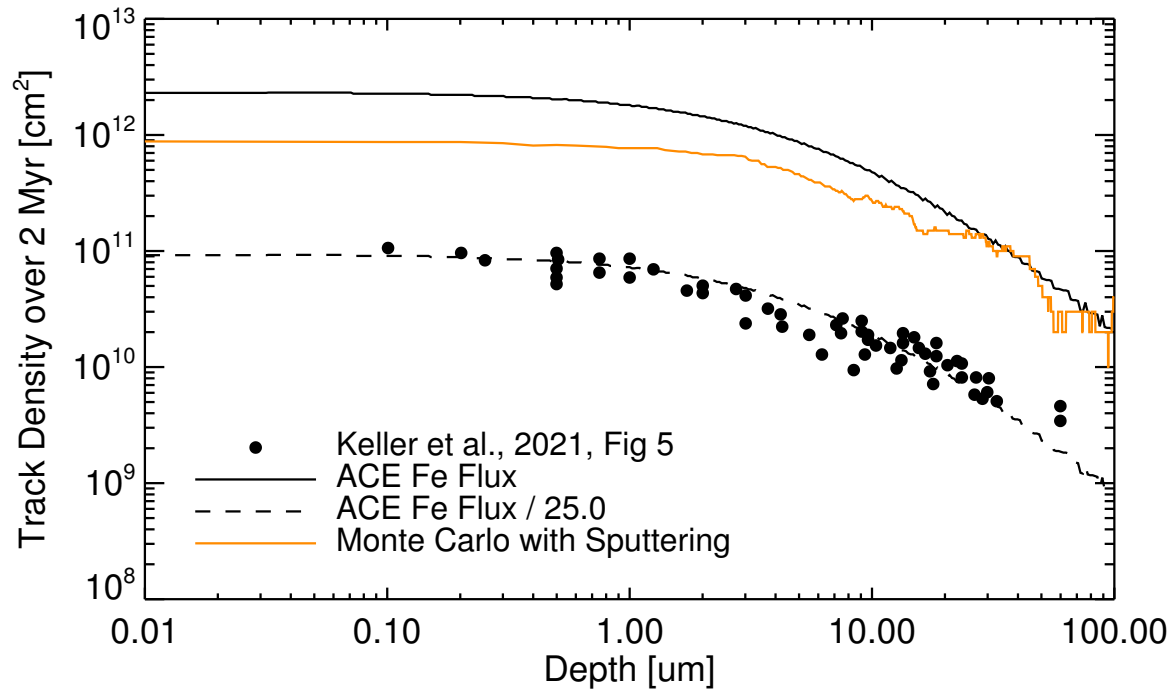
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**Figure 3.** The electronic stopping power,  $S_e$ , for three incident ion species (Ar, red; Fe, green; Ni, blue) in a forsterite mineral. The green closed circle and red open circle represent experimental measurements by Szenes et al. (2010) that did and did not register tracks, respectively. Correspondingly, the minimum required  $S_e$  for track formation estimated by Szenes et al. (2010) is shown as the horizontal line.

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**Figure 4.** The predicted track density as a function of depth for an objects exposed for 2 Myr at 1 au as determined by the ACE in-situ measurements (solid line). Solid dots reproduce the measurements of Keller et al. (2021) along with the ACE-predicted flux lowered by a factor of 25 (dashed line). The orange line is the result of a Monte Carlo model for track formation taking into account a charged-particle erosion rate of  $7 \mu\text{m}/\text{Myr}$ .

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