

# Linear waves in a non-equilibrium ionisation partially ionised plasma

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## 2 ABSTRACT

3 We aim to investigate the properties of linear Alfvén and slow magnetoacoustic waves in a  
4 partially ionised plasma in ionisation non-equilibrium. The propagation characteristics of these  
5 waves are studied within the framework of a two-fluid plasma in terms of the collisional strength  
6 between heavy particles for different degrees of ionisation. In the ionisation non-equilibrium state  
7 the rates of ionisation and recombinations are not equal. For analytical progress we assume a  
8 background that is ionisation equilibrium, the non-equilibrium is driven by perturbations in the  
9 system, therefore, non-equilibrium effects are related to the perturbed state of the plasma.  
10 Using simple analytical methods, we show that ionisation non-equilibrium can provide an  
11 additional coupling between ions and neutrals (implicitly a secondary damping mechanism  
12 in the collisionless limit) and this process is able to keep the neutrals in the system even in the  
13 collisionless limit. Due to the coupling between different species waves become dispersive.

14 The present study improves our understanding of the complexity of dynamical processes  
15 partially ionised plasma in the lower solar atmosphere and solar prominences. Our results clearly  
16 show that the problem of partial ionisation and non-equilibrium ionisation introduce new aspects  
17 of plasma dynamics with consequences on the evolution waves and their dissipation.

18 **Keywords:** Partial ionisation, Plasma, Waves and instabilities, solar chromosphere, collision, ionisation, recombination

## 1 INTRODUCTION

19 One of the most intriguing aspects that have been largely omitted so far in the field of dynamical process  
20 in solar plasmas is that the plasma in the lower atmosphere is partially ionised, with plasma made up  
21 from charged particles and neutrals that are interacting through collision. Although the exact degree of  
22 ionisation is not fully known, the ratio of electron density to neutral hydrogen density covers a few orders  
23 of magnitude from the photosphere to the top of the chromosphere. The ionisation state of the plasma  
24 is a very important factor, as the collision between various species will significantly enhance transport  
25 processes that control the appearance and evolution of instabilities in the presence of inhomogeneous flows.  
26 Depending on the range of frequencies we are interested in, the description of the dynamics in these regions  
27 can be described within the framework of single fluid magnetohydrodynamics (MHD) (for frequencies  
28 smaller than the ion-neutral frequency), two-fluid MHD (when frequencies of interest are larger than the  
29 ion-neutral collisional frequency), or multi-fluid description (in the high-frequency regime when waves'  
30 frequency is comparable to the electron-ion collisional frequency).

31 Research in the dynamical evolution of physical phenomena in the solar atmosphere is based on the  
 32 assumption of ionization equilibrium and the equilibrium Maxwellian distribution for particles. However, this  
 33 model is not accurate for rapidly changing phenomena (e.g. high frequency waves, shock waves), for rapid  
 34 energy releases where high-energy tail of the electron distribution are observed. Non-equilibrium ionisation  
 35 can occur during heating or cooling events, significantly affecting line intensities and subsequently the  
 36 plasma diagnostics (Bradshaw and Mason, 2003; Bradshaw et al., 2004). Departures from the equilibrium  
 37 Maxwellian distribution have also been inferred from chromospheric and transition region line emission  
 38 (Dzifčáková and Kulinová, 2011). In the chromosphere the ionization/recombination relaxation times  
 39 scales are of the order of  $10^3 - 10^5$  s (Carlsson and Stein, 2002), meaning that dynamics occurring below  
 40 this scales will be affected by non-equilibrium effects. Because the relaxation timescale is much longer  
 41 than dynamic timescales, H ionization does not have time to reach its equilibrium value and its fluctuations  
 42 are much smaller than the variation of its statistical equilibrium value appropriate for the instantaneous  
 43 conditions. The problem of waves and oscillations in two fluid partially ionised plasmas is a relatively  
 44 new area of solar physics, nevertheless some fundamental properties of such environments are already  
 45 established, see, e.g. Soler et al. (2010); Zaqarashvili et al. (2011); Soler et al. (2013); Ballester et al.  
 46 (2018b).

47 The process of non-equilibrium ionisation is very much related to the process of irreversible physics via  
 48 inelastic collision between particles. In the present paper we will restrict our attention to collision impact  
 49 ionisation and radiative recombination. In addition, we assume that the collision between particles can lead  
 50 to either ionisation or recombination, while the processes of collisions leading to excited states of particles  
 51 will be neglected. This approximation requires that the collision involving neutrals would imply an energy  
 52 exchange that is at least equal to the first ionisation potential, while excited states (if they appear) will have  
 53 a lifetime that is much shorter than the dynamical scales involved in our problem.

54 The paper is structured as follows: in Section 2 we introduce the necessary equations with their  
 55 implications and limitations. Given the complexity of the problem, here we are employing a simplified  
 56 model. In Section 3 we study the propagation characteristics of Alfvén waves and investigate the effect  
 57 of non-equilibrium ionisation on the propagation speed of waves and their damping with respect to the  
 58 collisional parameter between particles for different ionisation degrees of the plasma. Using a simple  
 59 configuration the wave characteristics of decoupled slow waves are studied in Section 4. Finally our results  
 60 are summarised in Section 5.

## 2 BASIC EQUATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

61 The physical processes of ionisation and recombination are far from trivial given the multitude of  
 62 mechanisms that can result in one or more electrons being removed from a neutral atom and the reversed  
 63 process of combination between positive ions and an energetic electrons to form neutral atoms. However,  
 64 for simplicity here we are going to concentrate on collisions, as the main mechanism that can generate ions  
 65 and neutrals. In order to describe the effects on non-equilibrium ionisation and recombination processes  
 66 let us introduce the quantities  $\Gamma_q^r$ , denoting the interaction rate of process  $r$ , affecting fluid  $q$  (Meier and  
 67 Shumlak, 2012; Leake et al., 2012; Maneva et al., 2017). The radiative recombination rate of ions is  
 68 proportional to the number of ions (with number density  $n_i$ ) and electrons (with number density  $n_e$ ) of the  
 69 system, and it is given by

$$\Gamma_n^{rec} = n_i n_e R. \quad (1)$$

70 In the above equation the recombination frequency,  $R$ , is given by (Cox and Tucker, 1969; Moore and  
71 Fung, 1972)

$$R = 5.2 \times 10^{-20} \sqrt{X} \left( 0.4288 + 0.5 \ln X + 0.4698 X^{-1/3} \right) \quad (\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}),$$

72 where  $X = A\epsilon_i/T$  (eV) is a quantity that is defined as the ratio between the ionisation potential and thermal  
73 energy, and the constant  $A$  takes the value of 0.6. In can be shown that at temperatures we can find in the  
74 lower part of the chromosphere the electrons in hydrogen atoms are predominantly in the ground state  
75 (corresponding to  $n = 1$  energy level), meaning that  $\epsilon_i$  is the first ionisation potential, therefore  $\epsilon_i = 13.6$   
76 eV. Indeed, the relative population at the  $n = 2$  energy level compared to the ground level in the hydrogen  
77 atom is given by the Boltzmann equation

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{g_2}{g_1} e^{-(E_2-E_1)/k_B T},$$

78 where  $g_n = 2n^2$  is the statistical weight of each energy level,  $E_1 = \epsilon_i$  and  $E_2 = 3.4$  eV are the energies of  
79 electrons on the two levels. In a H plasma at  $T = 10^4$  K we can obtain that  $N_2/N_1 = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$ , while at  
80  $T = 4 \times 10^3$  K, this ratio is of the order of  $10^{-13}$ . We should point out here that the radiative recombination  
81 should be treated with care. Under normal circumstances the recombination takes place as a result of the  
82 collision between a positive ion (proton in a H plasma) and an electron that has an energy, at least, equal to  
83  $\epsilon_i$ . As a result of this interaction a photon is emitted that can further ionise the neutral H atoms. With a  
84 significant amount of neutral H, the emitted photon will have a higher probability of being absorbed by a  
85 neutral atom in the neighbourhood of emission, with a creation of an ion. Therefore, recombination to the  
86 ground state has virtually no effect on the ionisation state of the plasma. However, in our analysis we are  
87 going to consider that the photon emitted during recombination escapes, this corresponds to the response  
88 of optically thin plasma to ionising radiation.

89 Since we are dealing with spatial scales that are larger than the Debye radius in a H plasma, the plasma  
90 can be considered to be quasi-neutral, therefore,  $n_e = n_i$ . In addition, for simplicity we are going to deal  
91 with a uni-thermal plasma, where  $T_e = T_i = T_n = T$ .

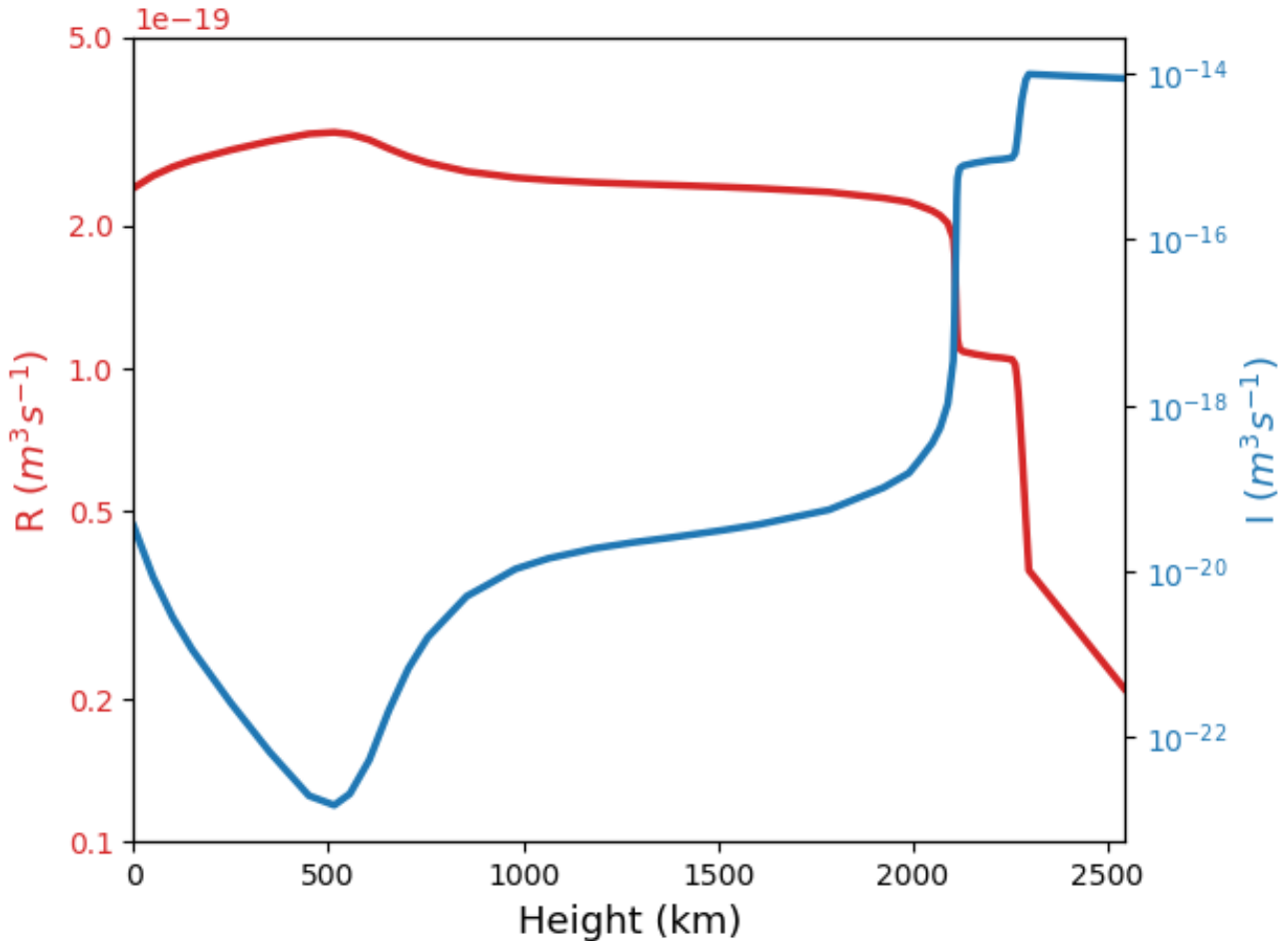
92 The impact ionisation reaction takes place as a result of the collisional interaction between neutrals  
93 (with number density  $n_n$ ) and electrons with energies larger than the ionisation potential. As a result, the  
94 ionisation rate of neutrals is given by

$$\Gamma_i^{ion} = n_n n_e I = n_n n_i I, \quad (2)$$

95 where  $I$  is the ionisation rate and is given empirically by (Cox and Tucker, 1969; Moore and Fung, 1972)

$$I = 2.34 \times 10^{-14} \sqrt{X} e^X \quad (\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}).$$

96 In order to determine the variation of the ionisation/recombination rates in the solar atmosphere we use  
97 the VAL III C model (Vernazza et al., 1981) to plot the height dependence of these two quantities on  
98 logarithmic scale (see Fig. 1). It is obvious that the variation with height of these rates follows closely the  
99 variation of the characteristic values typical for the atmospheric model employed here. Accordingly, the  
100 height-dependance of the recombination rate ( $R$ ) resembles the height-dependance of the number density,  
101 while the ionisation rate ( $I$ ) shows similarity with the variation of the temperature, meaning that these  
102 physical quantities are the ones that determine the shape of variation with height. Both rates show an



**Figure 1.** The variation of the recombination rate ( $R$ , shown in red line) and the ionisation rate ( $I$ , blue line) with height (on logarithmic scale) in the lower solar atmosphere based on a VALIII C solar atmosphere model (Vernazza et al., 1981)

103 extreme value at the height of about 500 km (bottom of chromosphere, the point corresponding to the  
 104 temperature minimum in the VALIII C model). The ionisation rate overcomes the recombination rate at a  
 105 height of 2 Mm, a height that corresponds to a temperature of approximately 7660 K.

106 The other effect we are going to consider is the collision between particles. Assuming a uni-thermal  
 107 plasma, electrons will have their velocity (thermal velocity)  $\sqrt{m_i/m_e}$  times larger than the thermal  
 108 velocity of ions (and neutrals), where  $m_e$  and  $m_i$  are the masses of electrons and ions, respectively. During  
 109 collisions between electrons and neutrals, electrons suffer a large change in momentum, but small change  
 110 in their energy (given approximately by  $\sqrt{m_e/m_i}$ ). In contrast, ion-neutral collisions are less frequent  
 111 than electron-neutral collisions, however, the momentum exchange between these particles can influence  
 112 the most propagation of waves, therefore, we are going to consider this effect as the dominant collisional  
 113 mechanism. Collision between ions and neutrals will also ensure that neutrals (that are not influenced by  
 114 the presence of magnetic field) are kept in the system.

115 In order to assess the importance of all physical effects included in our model, let us define the  
116 characteristic times involved connected to ionisation, recombination and collision as

$$\tau_i = \frac{1}{n_n I}, \quad \tau_r = \frac{1}{n_i R}, \quad \tau_c = \frac{1}{\nu_{in}},$$

117 where  $\nu_{in}$  is the collisional frequency between ions and neutrals defined as

$$\nu_{in} = 4n_n \sigma_{in} \left( \frac{k_B T}{\pi m_i} \right)^{1/2},$$

118 with  $\sigma_{in} = 1.16 \times 10^{-18} \text{ m}^2$  being the ion-neutral collisional cross section (Vranjes and Krstic, 2013), and  
119  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant. Obviously, the waves we are interested in must have periods that are larger  
120 than any of these times. It is clear that the smallest time scale is the collisional time scale (basically  $\tau_c$  gives  
121 the time between two consecutive collisions) and for most of lower solar atmosphere this characteristic  
122 time is several orders of magnitude smaller than ionisation and recombination time. For temporal scales  
123 that are near or shorter than the ion-neutral collisional time the plasma dynamics has to be described within  
124 the framework of two-fluid magnetohydrodynamics, where charged particles (here denoted by index  $i$ )  
125 and neutrals (denoted by an index  $n$ ) can have separate behaviour, depending on the relative strength of  
126 collision.

127 Before embarking on finding the characteristics of waves in non-equilibrium plasmas we need to discuss  
128 one more limitation of the problem we are going to consider. In the presence of non-equilibrium ionisation  
129 and recombination, the linearised mass conservation equations for the two species are written as

$$\frac{\partial \rho_i}{\partial t} + \rho_{0i} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = m_i (\Gamma_i^{ion} + \Gamma_i^{rec}), \quad (3)$$

130

$$\frac{\partial \rho_n}{\partial t} + \rho_{0n} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_n = m_n (\Gamma_n^{ion} + \Gamma_n^{rec}), \quad (4)$$

131 where  $\rho_{0i,0n}$  and  $\rho_{i,n}$  are the background and perturbation values of the densities for ions and neutrals,  
132 respectively and  $\mathbf{v}_i$  and  $\mathbf{v}_n$  are the velocity perturbations for the two species. In the above equations  
133  $\Gamma_i^{ion} = -\Gamma_n^{ion}$  and  $\Gamma_i^{rec} = -\Gamma_n^{rec}$ . A direct consequence of the above two equations is that the processes of  
134 ionisation and recombination are not balanced, particles are created and annihilated during the temporal  
135 length of the dynamics we are interested in. In addition, these two equations also imply that under normal  
136 circumstances (and in a static equilibrium) the equilibrium density of ions and neutrals should be time  
137 dependent quantities, i.e. the background state of the plasma is changing in time. In the absence of this  
138 temporal change the ionisation and recombination rates must be equal and the system will be in equilibrium.  
139 Unfortunately, the description of a physical process when the background is a time-dependent is one of the  
140 most complex tasks, as it requires cumbersome mathematics.

141 We have three possibilities to deal with this problem. The first possibility is to leave the background as  
142 time dependent, and determine the evolution of perturbations. This task could be easily accomplished by  
143 numerical investigations. The second possibility to deal with the temporal variation of the background  
144 that makes the problem mathematically tractable would be to impose the condition that the ionisation  
145 and recombination rates are much longer than the variation rate of the equilibrium density, that could  
146 be occurring over the scales presented by Carlsson and Stein (2002)). In addition, temporal variation of  
147 perturbations (for instance their frequency) are of the same order as the ionisation and recombination rates,

148 so

$$\frac{1}{\rho_{0i}} \frac{d\rho_{0i}}{dt}, \frac{1}{\rho_{0n}} \frac{d\rho_{0n}}{dt} \ll \omega, n_n I, n_i R.$$

149 Finally, as a third possibility is to deal with this problem by assuming that non-equilibrium effects  
 150 appear only in the perturbed state (and this is the possibility employed in the present paper). Similar  
 151 to the assumption by, e.g. Brandenburg and Zweibel (1995), we can fix the rate of ionisation and the  
 152 recombination rate is chosen in such a way that in the unperturbed stage the right-hand sides of Eqs. (3)  
 153 and (4) are identically zero. The problem with this approach is that only one of the rates can be realistic,  
 154 the chosen value of the other rate is artificially imposed. Assuming a VAL IIIC atmospheric model this  
 155 assumption agrees with realistic values in the photosphere, i.e. in a weakly ionised region of the solar  
 156 atmosphere. In our study we will employ the later assumption and choose

$$R = \frac{n_{0n}}{n_{0i}} I.$$

157 With this assumption the characteristic times for ionisation and recombination defined earlier become equal.  
 158 This assumption also means that the empirical formula for  $R$  given earlier becomes redundant, as its value  
 159 will be always given in terms of  $I$ , as above.

160 The dynamics of the coupled two fluids is given by a set of linearised equations that describe the  
 161 conservation of mass (given earlier by Eqs. 3–4), together with a conservation of momentum, induction  
 162 equation and energy equation (see, e.g. Zaqarashvili et al. (2011); Khomenko et al. (2014); Martinez-Gomez  
 163 et al. (2017); Maneva et al. (2017))

$$\rho_{0i} \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_i}{\partial t} + \nabla p_i - \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\nabla \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{B}_0 = m_i \mathbf{v}_n \Gamma_i^{ion} - m_i \mathbf{v}_i \Gamma_n^{rec} + m_{in} n_i \nu_{in} (\mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_i) =$$

164

$$= \rho_{0i} \left( \frac{\nu_{in}}{2} + n_{0n} I \right) (\mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_i) \quad (5)$$

165

$$\rho_{0n} \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_n}{\partial t} + \nabla p_n = m_i \mathbf{v}_i \Gamma_n^{rec} - m_i \mathbf{v}_n \Gamma_i^{ion} - m_{in} n_i \nu_{in} (\mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_i) =$$

166

$$= -\rho_{0i} \left( \frac{\nu_{in}}{2} + n_{0n} I \right) (\mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_i) \quad (6)$$

167

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{b}}{\partial t} = \nabla \times (\mathbf{v}_i \times \mathbf{B}_0), \quad (7)$$

168

$$\frac{\partial p_i}{\partial t} = -c_{Si}^2 \rho_{0i} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_i + c_{Si}^2 m_i (\Gamma_i^{ion} + \Gamma_i^{rec}) \quad (8)$$

169

$$\frac{\partial p_n}{\partial t} = -c_{Sn}^2 \rho_{0n} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_n + c_{Sn}^2 m_n (\Gamma_n^{ion} + \Gamma_n^{rec}) \quad (9)$$

170

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0, \quad (10)$$

171 where  $\mathbf{B}_0$  is the background magnetic field,  $\mathbf{v}_i = (v_{ix}, v_{iy}, v_{iz})$  and  $\mathbf{v}_n = (v_{nx}, v_{ny}, v_{nz})$  are the  
 172 components of the velocity perturbation of ions and neutrals,  $p_i$  and  $p_n$  are the pressure perturbations of the  
 173 ion and neutral fluids,  $\mathbf{b} = (b_x, b_y, b_z)$  is the magnetic field perturbation, and  $m_{in} = m_i m_n / (m_i + m_n) \approx$   
 174  $m_i / 2$  is the reduced mass. Frictions between charged and neutral (close-range interaction) particles is  
 175 ensured via collisional processes. The above equations must be supplemented by the equation of state for  
 176 ions and neutrals  $p_{i,n} = n_{i,n} k_B T_{i,n}$ .

177 As explained earlier, the ionisation non-equilibrium is present only in the perturbed state, the perturbations  
 178 we are considering to take place will drive the system out of ionisation equilibrium. Equations (5) and (6)  
 179 are the linearized momentum equations of the ion-electron fluid and neutrals, respectively. The terms on  
 180 their right-hand side express the transfer of momentum between ions and neutrals through the diffusion of  
 181 one species into the other. As a result of collisions, particles can loose energy and momentum. The same  
 182 equations reveal an interesting aspect of non-equilibrium plasma. When the background is in equilibrium,  
 183 in the limit of vanishing collisions ( $\nu_{in} = 0$ ) the only dynamics that can be described is related to ions and  
 184 the momentum equation reduces to the standard equation used in MHD. Of course, such a limit cannot  
 185 exist as in that case there is nothing that can keep neutrals in the system and the two-fluid description is  
 186 meaningless. However, in the ionisation non-equilibrium the two-fluid description can be applied even in  
 187 the vanishing collision limit, as the creation and annihilation of ions generates a force per unit volume that  
 188 acts to keep neutrals in the system.

189 The above system of equations will be used to study the properties of magnetic and slow magnetoacoustic  
 190 waves propagating in non-equilibrium plasma and compare these with the values we obtain in the ionisation  
 191 equilibrium.

### 3 ALFVÉN WAVES

192 The simplest wave to study are Alfvén waves, for which the only restoring force is the Lorentz force and the  
 193 driving force of Alfvén waves is the magnetic tension. We assume a homogeneous equilibrium magnetic  
 194 field,  $B_0$ , pointing in the  $z$ -direction. Alfvén waves will propagate plasma along the magnetic field and  
 195 they will be polarised in the  $y$ -direction. Given the properties of Alfvén waves, the pressure terms in Eqs.  
 196 (5–6) are neglected and, therefore, Eqs. (8) and (9) are not needed. As a result, the dynamics of Alfvén  
 197 waves is described by the system of equations

$$\rho_{0i} \frac{\partial v_{iy}}{\partial t} = \frac{B_0}{\mu} \frac{\partial b_y}{\partial z} + \rho_{0i} \tilde{\nu}_{in} (v_{ny} - v_{iy}), \quad (11)$$

198

$$\rho_{0n} \frac{\partial v_{ny}}{\partial t} = -\rho_{0i} \tilde{\nu}_{in} (v_{ny} - v_{iy}), \quad (12)$$

199

$$\frac{\partial b_y}{\partial t} = B_0 \frac{\partial v_{iy}}{\partial z}, \quad (13)$$

200 where

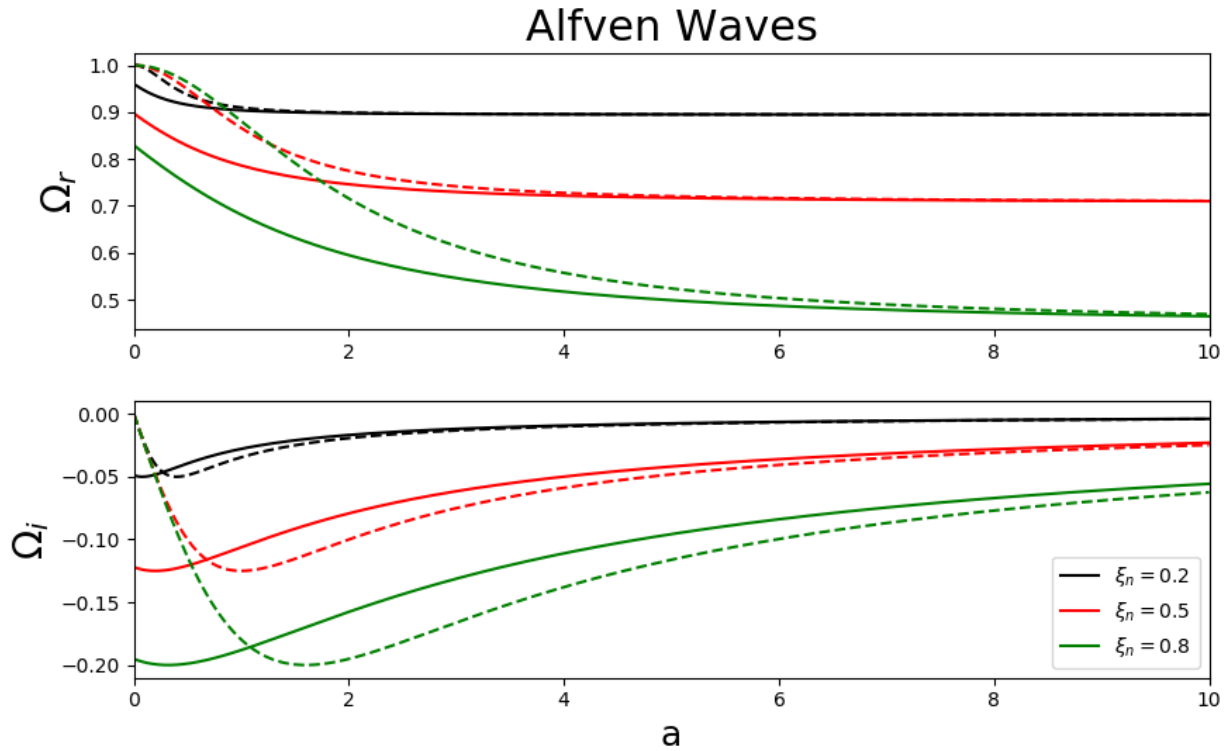
$$\tilde{\nu}_{in} = \frac{\nu_{in}}{2} + n_{0n} I,$$

201 is the modified ion-neutral collisional frequency by the ionisation non-equilibrium effects. Obviously, if  
 202  $I = 0$ , then we recover the case of Alfvén waves in ionisation equilibrium, a case discussed earlier by  
 203 Zaqarashvili et al. (2011).

204 Let us Fourier-analyse the system of equations (11)–(13) considering that all perturbations are proportional  
 205 to  $\exp[i(kz - \omega t)]$ , where  $k$  is the real wavenumber along the  $z$ -axis. The neutral fluid exerts a drag force  
 206 against the motion of ions around the magnetic field and, therefore, Alfvén waves will decay. As a result,  
 207 the frequency of waves,  $\omega$ , will be a complex quantity, with negative imaginary part of it describing the  
 208 damping of waves. After simple calculations the dispersion relation of Alfvén waves is obtained to be

$$\omega^3 + i\omega^2 \tilde{\nu}_{in} (1 + \chi) - k^2 v_A^2 \omega - ik^2 v_A^2 \chi \tilde{\nu}_{in} = 0, \quad (14)$$





**Figure 2.** The variation of the real (upper panel) and imaginary part (lower panel) of the dimensionless frequency,  $\Omega$ , for Alfvén waves with respect to the dimensionless collisional frequency,  $a$  for three different values of the ionisation degree of the plasma (colour coded). Solid lines represent solutions obtained in the ionisation non-equilibrium while dashed lines denote the Alfvén waves in ionisation equilibrium.

209 where  $\chi = n_{0i}/n_{0n} \approx \rho_{0i}/\rho_{0n}$ . In the absence of any partially ionised effects (e.g.  $\tilde{\nu}_{in} = 0$ ) the dispersion  
 210 relation would reduce to the standard dispersion relation for Alfvén waves  $\omega = \pm kv_A$ . The third order  
 211 polynomial (14) describes the propagation of two Alfvén waves (propagating in opposite direction) and a  
 212 third mode that is non-oscillatory (i.e. its frequency has a zero real part).

213 Let us introduce the dimensionless quantities

$$\Omega = \frac{\omega}{kv_A}, \quad a = \frac{\nu_{in}}{kv_A}, \quad \xi_n = \frac{\rho_{0n}}{\rho_0}, \quad \tilde{I} = \frac{n_0 I}{kv_A}, \quad (15)$$

214 where  $n_0 = n_{0i} + n_{0n}$  is the total number density of the plasma and  $\rho_0$  is the total mass density. After  
 215 some simple calculations the dispersion relation can be written in dimensionless form as

$$\Omega^3 + i\Omega^2 N(1 + \chi) - \Omega - i\chi N = 0, \quad (16)$$

216 where  $N = a/2 + \xi_n \tilde{I}$ . Luckily some analytical progress can be made by assuming that Alfvén waves will  
 217 have a small damping. Accordingly, the dimensionless frequency of waves can be written as  $\Omega = \Omega_r + i\Omega_i$   
 218 (with both  $\Omega_r, \Omega_i$  real quantities) and we write  $|\Omega_i| \ll |\Omega_r|$ . Focussing only on the forward propagating



219 modes, the real and imaginary part of the frequencies can be easily obtained as

$$\Omega_r = \left( 1 - \frac{\xi_n (a + 2\xi_n \tilde{I})^2}{4\xi_n^2 + (a + \xi_n \tilde{I})^2} \right)^{1/2}, \quad (17)$$

220 and

$$\Omega_i = -\xi_n^2 \frac{a + 2\xi_n \tilde{I}}{4\xi_n^2 + (a + \xi_n \tilde{I})^2}. \quad (18)$$

221 It is obvious that the imaginary part of the frequency is negative, meaning that waves will damp, regardless  
 222 what is the strength of collisions between particles or degree of ionisation. The corresponding values  
 223 for ionisation equilibrium can be found once the quantity  $\tilde{I}$  is set to zero. In ionisation equilibrium the  
 224 imaginary part of the frequency tends to zero when the collisional frequency,  $a$ , is set to zero, i.e. Alfvén  
 225 waves in collisionless plasma do not damp. In this case the governing equations describe the dynamics of  
 226 ions alone, while the dynamics of neutrals becomes undetermined. Since ions and neutrals do not interact  
 227 through collisions, the possibility of having neutrals in such systems becomes a problem (technically  
 228 speaking the plasma can be considered collisionless when the mean free path between collisions is much  
 229 larger than the lengths over which the plasma quantities vary). In the limit of strong collisions ( $a \gg 1$ ) the  
 230 imaginary part of the frequency becomes smaller and at  $a \rightarrow \infty$  the mixture of ions and neutrals behaves  
 231 like a single fluid with no damping; this limit corresponding to the MHD limit. Before further discussion  
 232 we need to clarify that the term "collisionless" used above refers to the case when the collisional frequency  
 233 between ions and neutrals becomes zero. However, this does not exclude the possibility of having collisions  
 234 between ions and electrons and neutrals and electrons, i.e. the collisions that affect the ionisation state of  
 235 the plasma.

236 In contrast, in the ionisation non-equilibrium, when we set the collisional frequency to zero we arrive to a  
 237 critical damping rate

$$\Omega_i^{cr} = -\frac{\xi_n \tilde{I}}{2 + 2\tilde{I}^2}, \quad (19)$$

238 meaning that Alfvén waves will damp even in the absence of collisions between ions and neutrals and  
 239 the ionisation/recombination processes will ensure that the mixture of ions and neutrals stay coupled.  
 240 The damping whose rate is given by Eq. (19) constitute a new damping mechanism that roots itself in  
 241 the additional drag force generated by different drift velocities of ions and neutrals during the process of  
 242 ionisation and recombination. For the sake of completeness, we should mention that Landau damping  
 243 is also a mechanism that appears in collisionless plasmas, and this damping is not associated with an  
 244 increase in entropy, and therefore is a thermodynamically reversible process. It remains to be seen whether  
 245 the damping mechanism described in the present study has the same properties as Landau damping. The  
 246 damping we discuss here can be due to the fact that with the number of ions changing in time, more  
 247 and more ions become attached to magnetic field lines, increasing their inertia, eventually causing the  
 248 attenuation of Alfvén waves.

249 Let us investigate the variation of the real and imaginary parts of the dimensionless frequency of forward  
 250 propagating Alfvén waves in terms of the dimensionless collisional frequency,  $a$  for three different values  
 251 of the relative neutral density ( $\xi_n = 0.2, 0.5, 0.8$ ). Clearly  $\xi_n = 0$  describes a fully ionised plasma,  
 252 while the limit  $\xi_n = 1$  corresponds to a completely neutral fluid. The upper panel of Figure 2 shows the  
 253 variation of the real part of the dimensionless frequency (solid lines) for the three values of  $\xi_n$  and the  
 254 corresponding dispersion curves corresponding to the ionisation equilibrium (shown by dashed lines). Here

255 the dimensionless quantity  $\Omega$  can be understood as the propagation speed of Alfvén waves in units of  
256 Alfvén speed,  $v_A$ .

257 First of all it is clear that for very large collisional frequency the propagation speed of Alfvén waves and  
258 damping rate in the two regimes become identical and in a strongly collisional plasma the propagation  
259 speed of Alfvén waves and their damping rate are not influenced by collisions between ions and neutrals.  
260 Secondly, Alfvén waves in ionisation non-equilibrium will propagate with a lower speed and the difference  
261 in propagation speed increases with the number of neutrals in the system. Furthermore, the more ionised  
262 the plasma is, the faster these Alfvén waves will propagate. Similarly, as long as the collisional frequency  
263 is larger than  $(\sqrt{\tilde{I}^2 + 4} - \tilde{I})\xi_n$ , Alfvén waves in ionisation equilibrium will have a larger damping rate  
264 (smaller damping time) than those waves that propagate in a plasma in ionisation non-equilibrium, however,  
265 these differences are not significant. For collisional frequency smaller than this threshold value, Alfvén  
266 waves damp much quicker in a non-equilibrium plasma. As pointed our earlier, the damping rate of Alfvén  
267 waves in equilibrium plasma tends to zero in the collisionless plasma. In contrast, in a non-equilibrium  
268 collisionless plasma, Alfvén waves damp with a rate given by  $\Omega_i^{cr}$ . In conclusion, in a strongly collisional  
269 plasma the propagation and attenuation of Alfvén waves is independent whether the plasma is in ionisation  
270 equilibrium or not. Here the collisional time is at least one order of magnitude larger than the characteristic  
271 time for ionisation and any non-uniformity that could potentially influence the characteristics of waves is  
272 smoothed out by collisions.

273 Finally we need to mention that Alfvén waves in the present configuration become dispersive, and  
274 dispersion is proportional to  $\tilde{\nu}_{in}^2$ . Figure 2 also shows that for a given collisional parameter,  $a$ , waves with  
275 shorter wavelength will propagate slower and the larger the amount of neutrals in the system, the more  
276 dispersive Alfvén waves are.

#### 4 SLOW MAGNETOACOUSTIC MODES

277 To be able to decouple magnetoacoustic modes, we assume that slow magnetoacoustic waves propagate  
278 along the background magnetic field and the dominant dynamics occurs in the  $z$  direction. Since the species  
279 of the plasma have the same temperature, we can write

$$c_{Si}^2 = \frac{\gamma(p_i + p_e)}{\rho_{i0}} = \frac{\gamma k_B(T_i + T_e)}{m_i} = \frac{2\gamma k_B T_n}{m_n} = \frac{2\gamma p_n}{\rho_{0n}} = 2c_{Sn}^2.$$

280 Since slow waves propagate along the background magnetic field we assume that all perturbations are  
281 proportional to  $e^{i(kz - \omega t)}$ . This particular choice for the form of perturbations and background magnetic  
282 field can reduce the slow waves to acoustic modes. The dynamics of linear slow waves propagating along  
283 the magnetic field in a partially ionised plasma in the presence of non-equilibrium ionisation is described  
284 by the system of equations (3-4) and (5–10) where perturbations are considered to be proportional to the  
285 exponential factor introduced above. Accordingly the set of equations used are:

$$\rho_i = k \frac{in_{0i}I\rho_{0n}v_{nz} + \rho_{0i}(\omega + in_{0i}I)v_{iz}}{\omega(\omega + in_{0i}I)}, \quad (20)$$

$$\rho_n = k \frac{\rho_{0n}(\omega + in_{0n}I)v_{nz} + in_{0n}\rho_{0i}Iv_{iz}}{\omega(\omega + in_{0i}I)}, \quad (21)$$

$$(\omega + i\tilde{\nu}_{in})v_{iz} - \frac{kc_{Si}^2}{\rho_{0i}}\rho_i - i\tilde{\nu}_{in}v_{nz} = 0, \quad (22)$$

$$(\omega + i\tilde{\nu}_{in})v_{nz} - \frac{kc_{Sn}^2}{\rho_{0n}}\rho_i - i\tilde{\nu}_{in}v_{iz} = 0. \quad (23)$$

288 These four equations can be reduced a set of coupled equations for the  $z$ -components of ion and neutral  
289 velocities. The compatibility condition of this system gives us the dispersion relation

$$\omega^4 + i\omega^3 A - \omega^2 B - ik^2\omega C + D = 0, \quad (24)$$

290 where the coefficients  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  depend on the parameters of the problem. This fourth-order  
291 polynomial in  $\omega$  describes the propagation of two families of waves: one associated to ions, and the other  
292 one to neutrals. Due to collisions and non-equilibrium effects, the two kinds of modes are coupled. Again,  
293 let us introduce similar dimensionless quantities as in the case of Alfvén waves, but now we use the quantity  
294  $kc_{Sn}$  to write variables and constants in dimensionless form. As a result, the dispersion relation reduces to

$$\Omega^4 + i\Omega^3 A_1 - \Omega^2 B_1 - i\Omega C_1 + D_1 = 0, \quad (25)$$

295 where the constant coefficients are given by

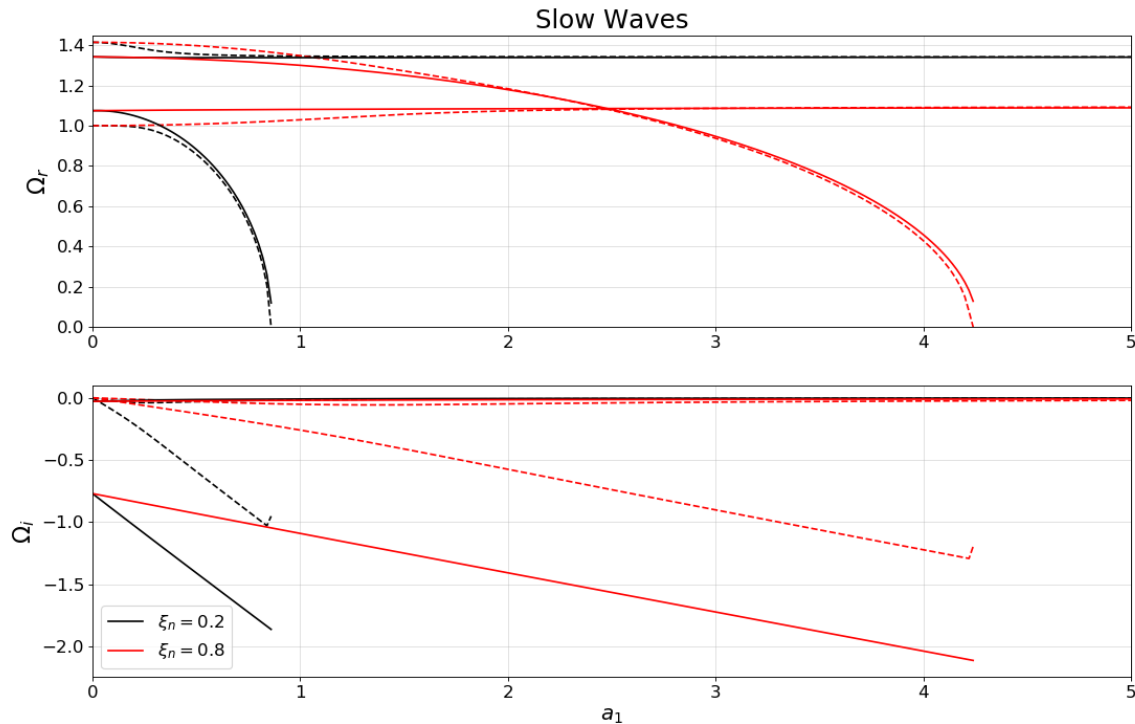
$$A_1 = 2\tilde{I}_1 + \frac{a_1}{2\xi_n}, \quad B_1 = 3 + \tilde{I}_1^2 + \frac{a_1\tilde{I}_1}{2\xi_n} +$$

296

$$C_1 = (2 - \xi_n) \left[ \frac{a_1}{2} + \tilde{I}_1(1 + \xi_n) \right], \quad D_1 = 2 + \frac{a_1\tilde{I}_1}{2\xi_n}(2 - \xi_n) + \tilde{I}_1^2(2 - \xi_n)$$

297 where the parameters  $a_1$  and  $\tilde{I}_1$  are defined in the same way as parameters  $a$  and  $\tilde{I}$  given by Eq. (15),  
298 but the quantity that is used to write them in dimensionless form is  $kc_{Sn}$ . In the absence of collisions  
299 and ionisation non-equilibrium the two pairs of sound waves are propagating with the sound speed of  
300 ions and neutrals, with the wave associated to ions propagating faster. Figure 3 shows the variation of the  
301 dimensionless frequency of slow waves (or the phase speed of slow waves in units of the neutral sound  
302 speed) with respect to the dimensionless collisional parameter,  $a_1$ , for two distinct values of the ionisation  
303 factor,  $\xi_n$  (0.2 and 0.8, respectively). Due to the collision between particles and non-equilibrium effects,  
304 the quantity  $\Omega$  is complex, where the imaginary part describes the temporal modification of the amplitude  
305 of waves. The upper panel of Fig. 3 shows the real part of  $\Omega$ , while the lower panel shows the imaginary  
306 part of this quantity. Similar to the plot obtained for Alfvén waves, the solid lines denote the dispersion  
307 curves for slow waves in ionisation non-equilibrium, while dashed line correspond to the case when the  
308 plasma is in ionisation equilibrium.

309 It is clear that for the whole spectrum of parameters, the imaginary part of the frequency will be negative,  
310 meaning that slow waves will damp; this result is in agreement with the conclusions of previous studies by,  
311 e.g. Braginskii (1965) and Zaqqarashvili et al. (2011). The two sets of waves shown in Fig. 3 have different  
312 behaviour in terms of collisional frequency. Let us concentrate first on the dispersion curves obtained  
313 for the real part of the frequency. Depending on the amount of neutrals in the system, the ion-acoustic  
314 waves can have an enhanced propagation speed in the limit of weakly collisional plasma. For  $\xi_n = 0.2$   
315 (black curves) the slow wave that corresponds to an ionisation equilibrium travels slightly faster, however  
316 very quickly the propagation speed of these slow waves in the two regimes is equal. When the amount  
317 of neutrals is increased (red lines) we can see that the wave corresponding to the non-equilibrium state  
318 propagates faster but at the value of  $a_1 \approx 2.5$  the two speeds become identical. At this point the collisions



**Figure 3.** The variation of the real and imaginary part of the dimensionless frequency for slow magnetoacoustic waves with respect to the dimensionless collisional frequency,  $a_1$ , for two different values of the ionisation degree of the plasma (colour coded). Solid lines represent solutions obtained in the ionisation non-equilibrium and dashed lines denote the slow waves in ionisation equilibrium.

319 between ions and neutrals become so frequent that their effect can overcome any modification due to the  
320 additional change in the ionisation degree of the plasma.

321 On the other hand the slow waves associated to neutrals display a completely different behaviour. In a  
322 plasma with  $\xi_n = 0.2$  these slow waves have a smaller phase speed, and the speed in a non-equilibrium  
323 plasma is slightly larger than the corresponding value obtained in an equilibrium state. Once the amount  
324 of neutrals is increased (the curves corresponding to  $\xi_n = 0.8$ ) the slow waves in an equilibrium plasma  
325 is larger, and this relation is maintained again, until the dimensionless collisional frequency,  $a$ , reaches  
326 the value of  $a_1 \approx 2.5$ , after which, for a given value of  $a_1$ , the neutral slow waves in equilibrium plasma  
327 propagates faster. It is also clear that at  $a_1 \approx 2.5$  the propagation speed of ion-slow waves and neutral-slow  
328 wave is equal. Similar to the results obtained by Zaqarashvili et al. (2011), the neutral-slow waves can  
329 exist up to a certain level of collisional rate and the value of collision where these waves cease to exist  
330 increases with the amount of neutrals in the system. At this point the collision between neutrals and ions is  
331 so frequent that the mixture of charged and neutral particles starts behaving like a single fluid. Increasing  
332 the frequency of collisions between ions and neutrals cause a slow down of neutral-slow waves.

333 Now let us concentrate on the imaginary part of the frequency. It is clear that regardless what is the  
334 ionisation degree of the plasma, the damping rate of ion-acoustic modes is very small, practically these  
335 waves can propagate with no attenuation for any value of collision. In contrast, the neutral-slow waves have  
336 a very different behaviour. These waves show a very strong damping (with damping times of the order of

337 the period of waves, or larger). For both ionisation degrees chosen here, the damping time of neutral-slow  
338 waves is decreasing with the increase in the collisional frequency. Comparing the results we obtained in the  
339 two regimes, it is clear that the neutral-slow waves in an ionisation equilibrium plasma have no damping in  
340 the absence of collision (as we would expect), however, in the presence of non-equilibrium these waves  
341 decay due to ionisation/recombination processes and - in the absence of collisions- the damping time of  
342 these waves is independent on the amount of neutrals in the system. Once the collisional rate is increased,  
343 the mode that corresponds to smaller amount of neutrals will have a shorter damping time.

344 Similar to Alfvén waves, slow magnetoacoustic modes will also be dispersive, however the ion-acoustic  
345 modes will be practically non-dispersive (similar to the slow waves in the MHD description), while  
346 neutral-acoustic modes are strongly dispersive, again waves with larger wavelength travelling faster. Figure  
347 3 also shows that in the case of neutral-acoustic modes there will be always a critical wavenumber above  
348 which these modes do not propagate.

349 It is very likely that the problem of propagation and decay of these waves will display a different behaviour  
350 once the full polarization in the  $xz$  plane is considered. In that case slow waves will have a magnetic  
351 component and it remains to be seen how these waves will behave for different value of plasma-beta.  
352 However, this consideration requires numerical investigation.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

353 Given the nature of partially ionised plasma in the lower solar plasma and prominences requires a  
354 different approach. For particular high frequencies range a two-fluid description is needed and neutrals can  
355 considerably influence the properties of waves. This framework was used to study the characteristics of  
356 Alfvén and slow waves propagation along a unidirectional homogeneous magnetic field. The novelty of  
357 our research resides in consideration of the effects of ionisation non-equilibrium, i.e. the case when the  
358 rates at which neutrals are ionised through impact ionisation and ions recombine with energetic electrons  
359 through radiative recombination are not equal. Our results show that this effect is more important when the  
360 collisional frequency is comparable with the frequency of waves. Any information about the existence of  
361 two fluids and the drag forces exerted by neutrals upon ions is lost in the case of strong collisions. Here the  
362 plasma behaves like a single fluid and the dynamics can be confidently described within the framework is  
363 MHD. We ought to mention that the non-equilibrium applies only to the perturbed state of the plasma; in  
364 the background state the plasma remains in ionisation equilibrium. This assumption was needed to be able  
365 to make analytical progress.

366 Using a simple configuration we studied separately Alfvén and slow magnetoacoustic modes. The  
367 collision between heavy particles and non-equilibrium effects renders the frequency of waves to be  
368 complex, where the imaginary part of it describes damping. One of the main results of our investigation  
369 is that in a plasma that is in ionisation non-equilibrium waves can damp even in the collisionless limit.  
370 In this case waves will damp due to the drag forces by neutrals that appear due to the ionisation non-  
371 equilibrium. Given that waves are damped even in the collisionless limit makes us to think about the  
372 physical explanation of this effect to be similar as the theory of Landau damping. However, this statement  
373 needs to be investigated properly in the future. The processes of ionisation and recombination will increase  
374 the degree of entropy in the system that could cause the additional damping.

375 Finally we should mention our results should be treated with precaution when making far reaching  
376 conclusions valid for the whole photosphere and/or chromosphere. For simplicity the present study  
377 assumed collisional ionisation and radiative recombination as the dominant mechanisms that determine the

378 non-equilibrium, however, in reality this can change from region to region in the solar atmosphere. It is  
379 very likely that in the dense photosphere photoionisation and three-body recombination are more important  
380 effects. In addition, most of the partially ionised plasma is optically thick, in which case a similar treatment  
381 as presented by Ballester et al. (2018a) is needed. Moreover, the relatively low temperature plasma in these  
382 regions means that the gravitational scale-height is short, therefore, in the case of waves travelling over long  
383 distances in the solar lower atmosphere, the gravitational stratification could influence the propagation of  
384 waves and work against the damping of waves. It remains to be seen how a realistic variation of ionisation  
385 and recombination rate together with stratification will affect the characteristics of waves.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

386 The author declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
387 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

388 I.B. is the sole author of this paper and it contains original research.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

389 I.B. acknowledges the financial support by STFC UK.

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