

Solar wind-magnetosphere coupling during HILDCAAs

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Key Points:

- We study High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity using the expanding/contracting polar cap model
- HILDCAA onsets have typical substorm characteristics, with intense geomagnetic activity in the pre-midnight sector
- High speed solar wind streams produce high but intermittent reconnection rates, driving irregular substorm activity

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Abstract

High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAA) intervals are driven by High Speed solar wind Streams (HSSs) during which the rapidly-varying interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) produces high but intermittent dayside reconnection rates. This results in several days of large, quasi-periodic enhancements in the auroral electrojet (AE) index. There has been debate over whether the enhancements in AE are produced by substorms or whether HILDCAAs represent a distinct class of magnetospheric dynamics. We investigate sixteen HILDCAA events using the expanding/contracting polar cap model as a framework to understand the magnetospheric dynamics occurring during HSSs. Each HILDCAA onset shows variations in open magnetic flux, dayside and nightside reconnection rates, the cross-polar cap potential, and AL that are characteristic of substorms. The enhancements in AE are produced by activity in the pre-midnight sector, which is the typical substorm onset region. The periodicities present in the intermittent IMF determine the exact nature of the activity, producing a range of behaviours from a sequence of isolated substorms, through substorms which run into one-another, to almost continuous geomagnetic activity. The magnitude of magnetic fluctuations, dB/dt , in the pre-midnight sector during HSSs is sufficient to produce a significant risk of Geomagnetically Induced Currents, which can be detrimental to power-grids and pipelines.

Plain Language Summary

High Speed solar wind Streams (HSSs) are several-day periods during which the solar wind is travelling significantly faster than average. It is known that HSSs produce characteristic geomagnetic activity at Earth known as High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAA). The nature of the magnetospheric dynamics occurring in response to HSSs and which produces HILDCAAs is poorly understood. In this study we use a range of magnetic measurements, on the ground and in space, and auroral observations to infer what produces this activity. We show that the activity is caused by a phenomenon known as a magnetospheric substorm, but with characteristics that are somewhat modified as the magnetic field embedded within the solar wind varies in a highly intermittent fashion during HSSs.

1 Introduction

High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity events (HILDCAAs) are intervals when the auroral electrojet indices show high amplitude, quasi-periodic perturbations for several days (Tsurutani & Gonzalez, 1987), as measured by the AE index (Davis & Sugiura, 1966). HILDCAAs are generated during high-speed solar wind streams (HSSs), when the solar wind velocity is of the order of 600 km s^{-1} or greater, the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) magnitude is just a few nT, but the IMF components undergo Alfvénic fluctuations (i.e., little change in the overall magnitude) with periods of several 10s minutes. These HSSs and their attendant HILDCAAs are often associated with corotating interaction regions (CIRs) and hence maximise in occurrence during the descending phase of the solar cycle (Hajra et al., 2014). The magnetospheric driving and resulting geomagnetic activity during HILDCAAs is in contrast to other solar wind conditions. For instance, during the passage of interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICMEs) the IMF magnitude can be large and the components vary slowly over many hours or days. ICMEs often result in geomagnetic storms, periods of enhanced ring current (Gonzalez et al., 1994) producing characteristic variations in the Sym-H index (Iyemori, 1990). During more typical solar wind conditions the speed averages 400 km s^{-1} , the IMF magnitude is variable, and the components change stochastically with waiting-times varying between 10s of minutes and hours, to which the magnetosphere responds with substorms. There is debate regarding the exact nature of magnetospheric dynamics which produce HILDCAAs, and whether the quasi-periodic intensifications in AE are the result of substorms,

with Kim et al. (2008) concluding that they are, while Tsurutani et al. (2004) concluded that they are not. In this study we investigate the solar wind-magnetosphere coupling during HILDCAAs, using the expanding/contracting polar cap (ECPC) model as a framework to better understand this mode of solar wind driving.

The ECPC has been used to understand solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere coupling (SWMIC) during a range of different solar wind conditions, for instance, explaining the substorm and steady magnetospheric convection (SMC) modes of response to solar wind driving (e.g., Milan et al., 2007, 2008, 2019, 2021; Walach & Milan, 2015). Here we apply the ECPC to HILDCAAs, firstly to gain a better understanding of HILDCAAs, and secondly to investigate SWMIC during a solar wind regime that is quite different from those studied previously with the ECPC. Two key questions are: how does the magnetosphere respond when the variations within the solar wind are shorter than the typical ~ 3 hour substorm repetition rate? and Are AE intensifications during HILDCAAs substorm expansion phases?

The ECPC models the response of the Dungey cycle (Dungey, 1961) to time-varying magnetopause (dayside) and magnetotail (nightside) magnetic reconnection. The dayside rate, Φ_D , depends on conditions in the solar wind, including the solar wind speed, the IMF magnitude, and IMF orientation or clock angle (Milan et al., 2012). The conditions that control the onset and rate of nightside reconnection, Φ_N , are still poorly understood. Φ_D and Φ_N determine the amount of open or polar cap magnetic flux, F_{PC} , in the magnetosphere,

$$\frac{dF_{PC}}{dt} = \Phi_D - \Phi_N, \quad (1)$$

and drive convection within the magnetosphere and ionosphere (Siscoe & Huang, 1985; Cowley & Lockwood, 1992). In turn, the strength of convection, quantified by the cross-polar cap potential or transpolar voltage, Φ_{PC} , where

$$\Phi_{PC} \approx (\Phi_D + \Phi_N)/2 \quad (2)$$

(Lockwood, 1991), controls the magnitude of the auroral electrojets and hence the magnitude of the MI-coupling field-aligned currents or FACs (Milan, 2013). Observations of the size of the polar cap and speed of ionospheric convection can be used to quantify Φ_D and Φ_N (e.g. Hubert et al., 2006; Chisham et al., 2008; Lockwood & McWilliams, 2021). The magnitudes of the eastwards and westwards electrojets are monitored with the AU (auroral upper) and AL (auroral lower) indices, with the AE (auroral electrojet) index being defined as $AU - AL$ (Davis & Sugiura, 1966). The magnitudes of the Hall currents which produce the magnetic perturbations measured by AU and AL are controlled by a combination of the plasma drift speed and the ionospheric conductance in the convection return flow regions, which coincide with the dawn and dusk sectors of the auroral oval. Hence AU and AL are expected to be partially determined by the convection strength measured by Φ_{PC} . The substorm electrojet produces an additional enhancement of AL – the substorm bay – often used as a signature of substorm onset. The PC index measures magnetic perturbations near the pole (Troshichev et al., 2006), which is determined by a combination of drift speed and ionospheric conductance in the central polar cap and hence can be used as a proxy for Φ_{PC} (Milan et al., 2021).

The ECPC explains the substorm cycle (Lockwood & Cowley, 1992), the growth phase being associated with unbalanced dayside reconnection, the expansion phase corresponding to the onset of nightside reconnection, a driven phase with balanced dayside and nightside reconnection, and the recovery phase with unbalanced nightside reconnection (Milan et al., 2003, 2007, 2019, 2021). The left and right columns of Figure 1 summarise the variations of F_{PC} and Φ_{PC} in response to changes in Φ_D and Φ_N , being schematic

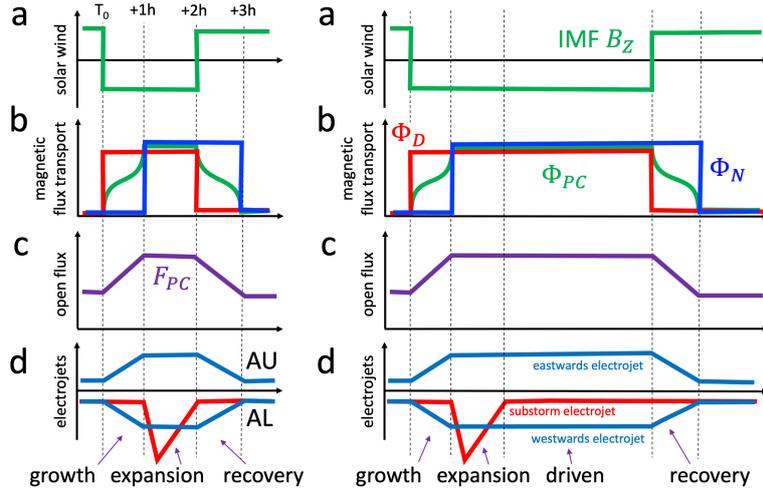


Figure 1. A schematic depiction of the magnetospheric response to changes in the IMF in the context of the expanding/contracting polar cap model (ECPC). (a) A southward turning of the IMF ($B_Z < 0$) followed by a northward turning some time later. (b) The variation of day- and nightside reconnection (Φ_D , red, and Φ_N , blue), and the cross-polar cap potential (Φ_{PC} , green). (c) The variation of the open magnetic flux content of the magnetosphere (F_{PC}). (d) The variation of the AU and AL electrojet indices in response to the eastwards and westwards electrojets (blue curves) and the substorm electrojet (red curve). The AL index is the envelope of the lower red and blue curves. The left column shows the case where the northward turning occurs shortly after the onset of nightside reconnection, such that the magnetosphere undergoes substorm growth, expansion, and recovery phases, each roughly an hour in duration. In the right column the substorm undergoes a driven phase before the eventual northward turning.

109 representations of the observations presented in columns (d) and (f) of Figure 6 of Milan
 110 et al. (2021). On the left, assuming initially that $\Phi_D = \Phi_N = 0$ and the magnetosphere
 111 is in a quiescent state, a southward turning of the IMF (panel a) gives $\Phi_D > 0$ (red curve,
 112 panel b), $dF_{PC}/dt = \Phi_D$ such that F_{PC} increases (panel c) and excites convection with
 113 $\Phi_{PC} \approx \Phi_D/2$ (green curve, panel b): substorm growth phase. Increasing convection
 114 leads to enhancements of the AU and AL indices (blue curves, panel d). At some point,
 115 typically after an hour-or-so of growth phase, nightside reconnection is triggered, $\Phi_N >$
 116 0 (blue curve, panel b): expansion phase onset. Observations suggest that when this oc-
 117 curs $\Phi_N \approx \Phi_D$, such that $dF_{PC}/dt \approx 0$, $\Phi_{PC} \approx \Phi_D$. The formation of a substorm
 118 current wedge (McPherron et al., 1973) and associated substorm electrojet produces the
 119 substorm bay in AL (red curve, panel d). Observations show that the bay grows rapidly
 120 at first and then decays over approximately an hour. Subsequently, a northward turn-
 121 ing of the IMF results in $\Phi_D = 0$ such that $dF_{PC}/dt = -\Phi_N$, the polar cap contracts,
 122 with $\Phi_{PC} \approx \Phi_N/2$: substorm recovery phase. At some point nightside reconnection ceases
 123 and the magnetosphere returns to a quiescent state.

124 Figure 1 is essentially a synthesis of Figure 4 of Cowley and Lockwood (1992) and
 125 Figure 13 of Kamide and Kokubun (1996), now confirmed by the observations of Milan
 126 et al. (2021). In passing we note that we do not agree with the convection patterns pre-
 127 sented in Figure 12 of Kamide and Kokubun (1996), but agree with panels (a) and (b)
 128 of Figure 3 of Cowley and Lockwood (1992) as representing the convection pattern when
 129 dayside and nightside reconnection dominate, respectively.

130 The right column of Figure 1 shows the same as the left column, except that the
 131 IMF remains southwards for a longer period after the onset of the expansion phase. Af-
 132 ter the substorm bay has subsided the magnetosphere settles down into a prolonged pe-
 133 riod of balanced dayside and nightside reconnection (DeJong et al., 2008; McWilliams
 134 et al., 2008), which Milan et al. (2021) termed the driven phase, and which is synony-
 135 mous with periods of steady magnetospheric convection or SMC (Sergeev et al., 1996;
 136 Walach & Milan, 2015).

137 In these cases, IMF B_Z changes polarity in a stochastic fashion with a waiting-time
 138 distribution with a mode between one and two hours and a long tail extending to many
 139 hours (Milan et al., 2021). During HSSs, B_Z varies quasi-periodically with a timescale
 140 of several 10s of minutes, often shorter than the typical duration of substorm phases (an
 141 hour-or-so each). In this study we investigate how this affects solar wind-magnetosphere
 142 coupling during HSSs.

143 2 Observations

144 We searched for HILDCAA events in the periods 2000 to 2002 and 2010 to 2017.
 145 These intervals coincided with availability of auroral imagery from the IMAGE (Imager
 146 for Magnetopause-to-Auroras Global Exploration) mission and measurements of polar
 147 field-aligned currents from AMPERE (the Active Magnetosphere and Planetary Elec-
 148 trodynamics Response Experiment), respectively. AMPERE (Anderson et al., 2000; Wa-
 149 ters et al., 2001) and IMAGE (Burch, 2000) are used to monitor changes in the size of
 150 the polar cap to determine reconnection rates (e.g., Milan et al., 2003, 2007, 2015, 2021;
 151 Clausen et al., 2012).

152 Tsurutani and Gonzalez (1987) defined HILDCAAs as large-amplitude, quasi-periodic
 153 variations in AE lasting at least two days, with AE peaking in excess of 1000 nT at some
 154 point during the event, and with AE not dipping below 200 nT for more than 2 hours
 155 at a time. These are somewhat stringent criteria, and we relaxed them slightly (espe-
 156 cially the requirement of short-duration minima in AE) to maximise the number of events
 157 we found, as discussed by Prestes et al. (2017). Table 1 lists the events that we consider
 158 in this study, with one example from the IMAGE era and 15 from the AMPERE era.

Table 1. The HILDCAA events studied in this paper and the figures they are presented in. Figures S1 to S11 are found in the Supporting Information.

Event	Dates	Figure
1	10 to 14 January 2002	S1
2	29 April to 4 May 2011	S2
3	9 to 17 September 2011	S3
4	3 to 8 June 2012	5
5	29 June to 4 July 2012	S4
6	6 to 11 October 2015	4
7	9 to 12 November 2015	S5
8	9 to 12 December 2015	3
9	30 January to 4 February 2017	S6
10	28 February to 8 March 2017	S7
11	26 March to 1 April 2017	S8
12	21 to 25 April 2017	6
13	17 to 21 August 2017	S9
14	31 August to 5 September 2017	S10
15	14 to 19 September 2017	S11
16	11 to 16 October 2017	S12

159 The exact nature of each HSS varies from event to event, but all show similar charac-
 160 teristics, including a period of increasing solar wind speed and elevated solar wind den-
 161 sity, known as the sheath, followed by the HSS itself. We summarise the characteristics
 162 by performing a superposed epoch analysis of our AMPERE examples (events 2 to 16),
 163 presented in Figure 2.

164 The zero epoch is defined as the end of the sheath and the beginning of the HSS,
 165 the data are averaged into 6-hour bins, and the time range is from 4 days before to 8 days
 166 after the zero epoch. Vertical bars show the standard error on the mean in each bin, which
 167 tends to be small. Most parameters, including the solar wind and IMF variables (in Geo-
 168 centric Solar Magnetic coordinates) and the geomagnetic indices AU, AL (AE = AU –
 169 AL), PC, and Sym-H are taken from the OMNI dataset (Papitashvili & King, 2020). Φ_D^* ,
 170 which we use as a proxy for Φ_D , is calculated as

$$\Phi_D^* = 3.2 \times 10^5 V_{SW}^{4/3} B_{YZ} \sin^{9/2} |\theta/2| \quad (3)$$

171 (Milan et al., 2012), where $B_{YZ} = (B_Y^2 + B_Z^2)^{1/2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1}(B_Y, B_Z)$ is the IMF
 172 clock angle. The radius of the region 1 and 2 (R1/R2) current system (Iijima & Potemra,
 173 1976; Milan et al., 2017), Λ , is calculated from AMPERE field-aligned current (FAC) maps
 174 (Milan et al., 2015; Milan, 2019). We use Λ as a proxy for F_{PC} . The total FAC mag-
 175 nitude is determined by integrating the absolute FAC values over the polar regions of
 176 the northern and southern hemispheres and taking the average (in this way we remove
 177 to some degree seasonal variations due to solar-produced conductance).

178 The solar wind speed (panel a) is 400 km s⁻¹ prior to the arrival of the sheath (ver-
 179 tical dashed line) and then rises to exceed 600 km s⁻¹ over a period of approximately
 180 a day, becoming the HSS-proper (vertical full line). During this rise the density (panel
 181 b) increases from 6 cm⁻³ to 11 cm⁻³ and the IMF magnitude (panel c) rises from 6 nT
 182 to 11 nT. The enhanced density and IMF magnitude of this sheath is caused by the fast
 183 solar wind scooping up slower solar wind travelling ahead of it. The HSS itself lasts two
 184 or more days, before a gradual decline to lower speeds again. As will be shown later, al-

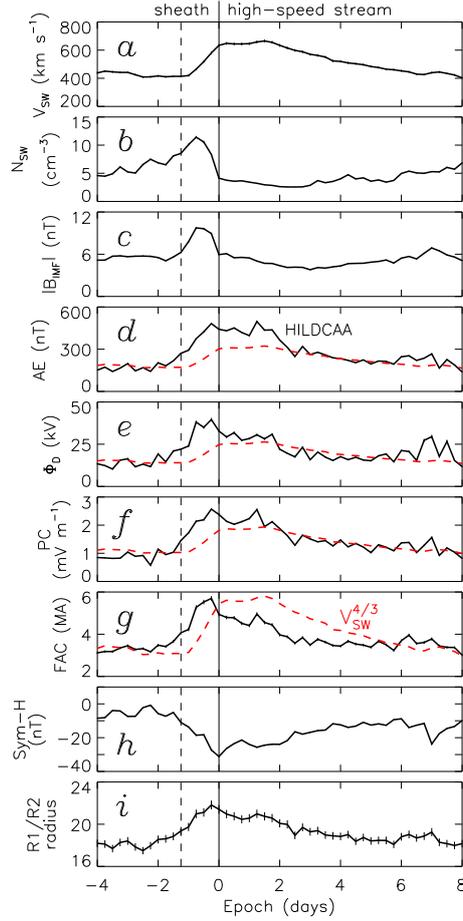


Figure 2. A superposed epoch analysis of 15 High-Speed solar wind Streams (HSSs) and the associated intervals of High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAA). (a) Solar wind speed; (b) solar wind number density; (c) magnitude of the IMF; (d) AE index; (e) dayside reconnection rate; (f) the PC index; (g) the magnitude of the hemispherically-integrated field-aligned currents; (h) the Sym-H index; (i) the radius of the boundary between R1 and R2 FACs, Λ° . In all panels, the standard error on the mean in each bin is shown as vertical bars; in most cases these are too small to be clearly seen. The vertical dashed line shows the approximate onset of the sheath. The vertical solid line shows the zero epoch: the end of the sheath and the beginning of the HSS-proper.

185 though the IMF magnitude tends to be constant during the HSS, the components un-
 186 dergo short-duration quasi-periodic variations. The Sym-H index (panel h) becomes en-
 187 hanced (more negative) during the sheath but during the HSS is typically weaker than
 188 -50 nT, being approximately -20 nT on average. The AE index (panel d) rises from 200
 189 to 500 nT during the sheath, plateaus for the first two days of the HSS, before declin-
 190 ing gradually: the period of enhanced AE is the HILDCAA. Note that the 6-h averag-
 191 ing window in this analysis smoothes over the quasi-periodic fluctuations in AE which
 192 are characteristic of HILDCAAs: when not averaged AE peaks at values close to 1000
 193 nT. Other aspects of the behaviour will be discussed later.

194 We now consider individual Events, shown in Figures 3 to 6; the other Events are
 195 shown in the Supplementary Information. Each figure is divided into two groups of pan-

196 els. The upper panels show the full duration of each event. The panels show: (a) the so-
 197 lar wind speed (green) and density (purple), (b) the B_Y (blue) and B_Z (red) components
 198 of the IMF, along with the magnitude of the IMF (grey), (c) the AE index, and (d) the
 199 Sym-H index. We also focus on a shorter window within each event, delineated by ver-
 200 tical red bars, with a zoom-in shown in the lower panels. Panel (e) shows the radius of
 201 the R1/R2 FAC boundary, Λ , in the northern (orange) and southern (blue) hemispheres,
 202 and the average of the two (black) displaced by 5° for clarity. We use Λ as a proxy for
 203 F_{PC} . Panel (f) shows the integrated FAC magnitude. Panel (g) shows the PC index (black)
 204 and Φ_D (red). Panel (g) shows the AU and AL electrojet indices. Vertical green bars
 205 identified by letters are times of note discussed below. Upper case letters (A, B, etc.) in-
 206 dicate onsets (see below) whereas lower case letters (a, b, etc.) are discussion points.

207 The first HILDCAA we discuss, Event 8, is presented in Figure 3. In this event we
 208 focus on a time interval that spans pre-sheath, sheath, and early HSS observations, so
 209 that we can contrast the behaviour in these three different solar wind regimes.

210 Events A and B, preceding the sheath, were typical substorms, with B being a par-
 211 ticularly clear example. Each event was associated with a southward-turning of the IMF
 212 leading to a one-to-two hour period of elevated Φ_D , and each followed the variations in
 213 F_{PC} (Λ), Φ_{PC} (PC), and AU/AL as described in the Introduction and sketched in Fig-
 214 ure 1. In both cases, the IMF turned northwards approximately 30 minutes after expan-
 215 sion phase onset, such that the full duration of each event was approximately 3 hours.
 216 Had the IMF remained southwards for a prolonged period after onset, the magnetosphere
 217 would have segued into the driven phase until the eventual subsequent northward-turning.

218 During the sheath, which encompasses events C, D, and E, the IMF magnitude was
 219 somewhat elevated and the fluctuations in B_Y and B_Z increased in tempo. The N-S fluc-
 220 tuations occurred more rapidly than the 3-hour life-cycle of a typical substorm. Despite
 221 this, distinct substorm signatures occurred, events C to E, but they ran into each other:
 222 northward-turnings of the IMF lead to substorm recovery phase, but southward-turnings
 223 occurred before the recovery phase was complete. This even lead to a mini-substorm sig-
 224 nature – increase-and-decrease in Λ and weak substorm bay – in between events C and
 225 D. There were multiple N-S turnings during the growth phase of event E, such that Λ
 226 increased in a step-wise fashion. However, the onset (substorm bay) of event E did not
 227 occur until Λ reached a similar level to the previous substorms. This indicates that open
 228 flux accumulates in the magnetosphere with each burst of dayside reconnection, but con-
 229 ditions for substorm onset do not occur in the magnetotail until some threshold is reached.
 230 We note that for events A to D the IMF turned northwards approximately 30 mins af-
 231 ter onset, whereas in event E it remained southwards for longer, such that the duration
 232 of the substorm bay was prolonged, that is, event E was approaching a driven-phase sub-
 233 storm.

234 Into the HSS itself, the IMF components fluctuated even more rapidly. Again, dis-
 235 tinct cycles of growth, expansion, and recovery were observed in Λ , with a repetition rate
 236 close to 3 hours. The growth phases were intermittent accumulations of open flux, with
 237 substorm onset occurring when some F_{PC} threshold was met. Very clearly, Φ_{PC} increased
 238 at the onset of each event, indicating the contribution of nightside reconnection to con-
 239 vection. We contrast the variation in Λ in events A and B – clean, sawtooth-like signa-
 240 tures – with the more staggered, step-like changes of events F to I. Steps occurred dur-
 241 ing both growth and recovery phases as bursts of dayside reconnection came at random
 242 intervals throughout each substorm. Similarly, although AU and AL displayed distinct
 243 substorm signatures, they had random perturbations superimposed, driven by stochas-
 244 tic changes in dayside driving.

245 We now turn to other HILDCAAs that illustrate other aspects of the coupling. Fig-
 246 ure 4, Event 6, shows a HSS in which there were rapid 10s-minutes fluctuations in B_Z
 247 superimposed on a several-hour periodicity. B_Z was predominantly negative (significant

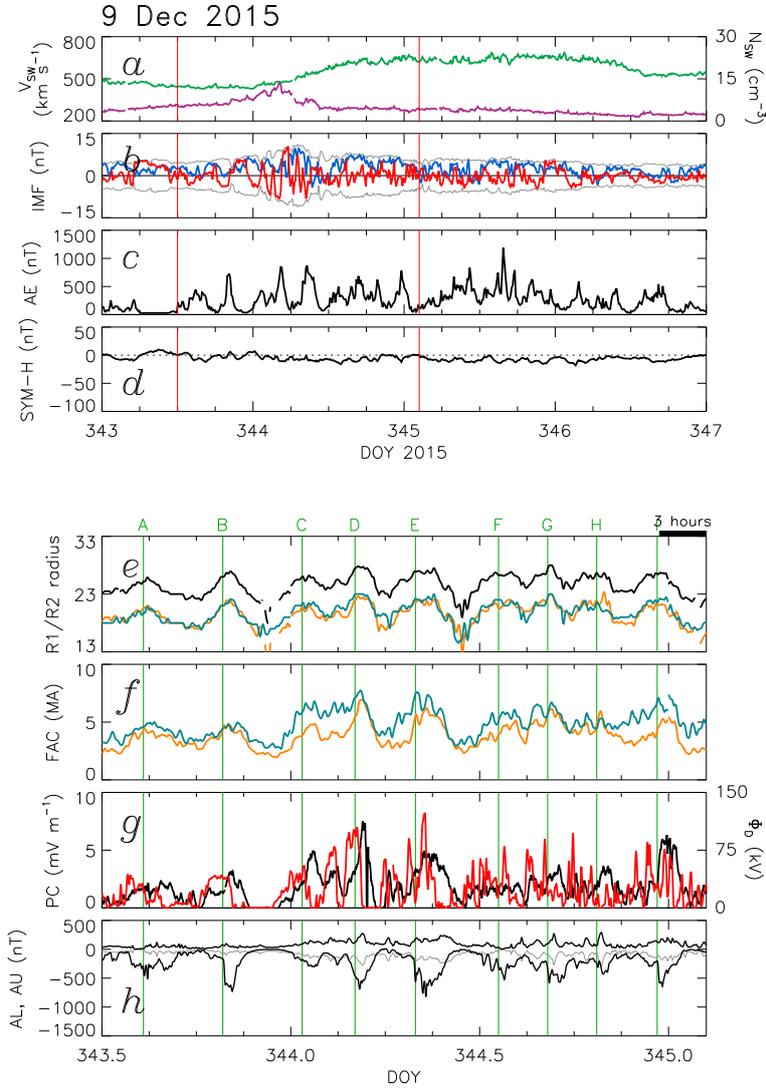


Figure 3. Solar wind and magnetospheric parameters during Event 8. (a) Solar wind speed (green) and number density (purple); (b) the B_Y (blue) and B_Z (red) components of the IMF, and the IMF magnitude (grey); (c) the AE index; (d) the Sym-H index. Vertical red lines delineate the period shown in the lower panels. (e) The radius of the boundary between the R1 and R2 FACs, Λ° , in the northern (northern) and southern (blue) hemispheres, quantified from observations of the FACs by AMPERE; the average is shown in black, offset by $+5^\circ$ for clarity. (f) The northern (orange) and southern (blue) hemispherically-integrated FACs; (g) The PC index (black) and Φ_D^* (red); (h) the AU and AL indices.

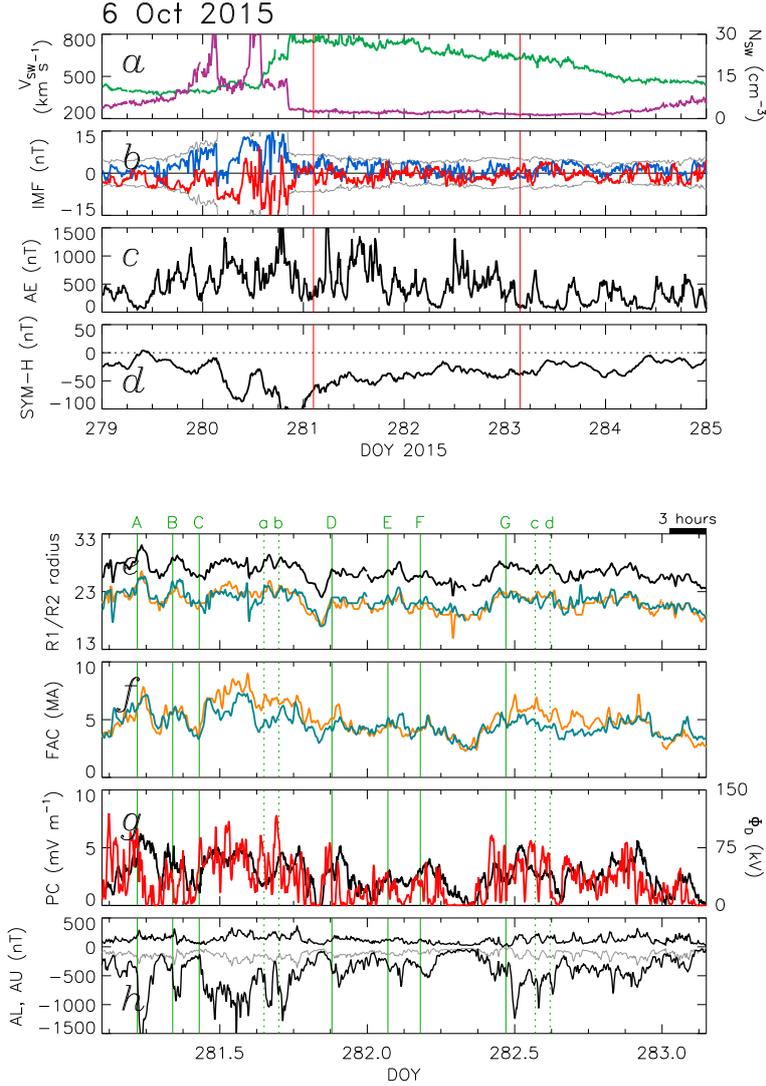


Figure 4. Event 6, presented in the same format as Figure 3.

248 Φ_D) for long periods, for instance between times C and D and after G, and predominantly
 249 positive at other times, before C and between D and G, but with short duration fluctu-
 250 ations superimposed. The first two events, A and B, showed typical substorm char-
 251 acteristics, with a repetition rate of approximately 3 hours driven by two hour-long southward-
 252 turnings of the IMF. After C the IMF remained southwards for 9 hours, though with rapid
 253 fluctuations superimposed. Following onset at time C, continued dayside reconnection
 254 maintained the magnetosphere in a driven phase, with Λ elevated throughout, in which
 255 $\Phi_N \approx \Phi_D$. There were, however, small-scale variations in Λ (a and b) associated with
 256 bursts in Φ_D , and with bays in AL. This suggests that during on-going driven phases,
 257 ~ 1 -hour variations in Φ_D can modulate Φ_N ; these are similar to the driven-phase on-
 258 sets discussed by Milan et al. (2021), but on a shorter timescale. Events D, E, and F oc-
 259 curred during a quieter period and were more-typical substorms. Event G was then more
 260 similar to the driven phase of event C, again with variations imposed by bursts in Φ_D
 261 (c and d).

262 Figure 5 shows Event 4. In this event, high-frequency fluctuations (minutes) in B_Z
 263 were superimposed on longer variations (several hours). The magnetosphere responded

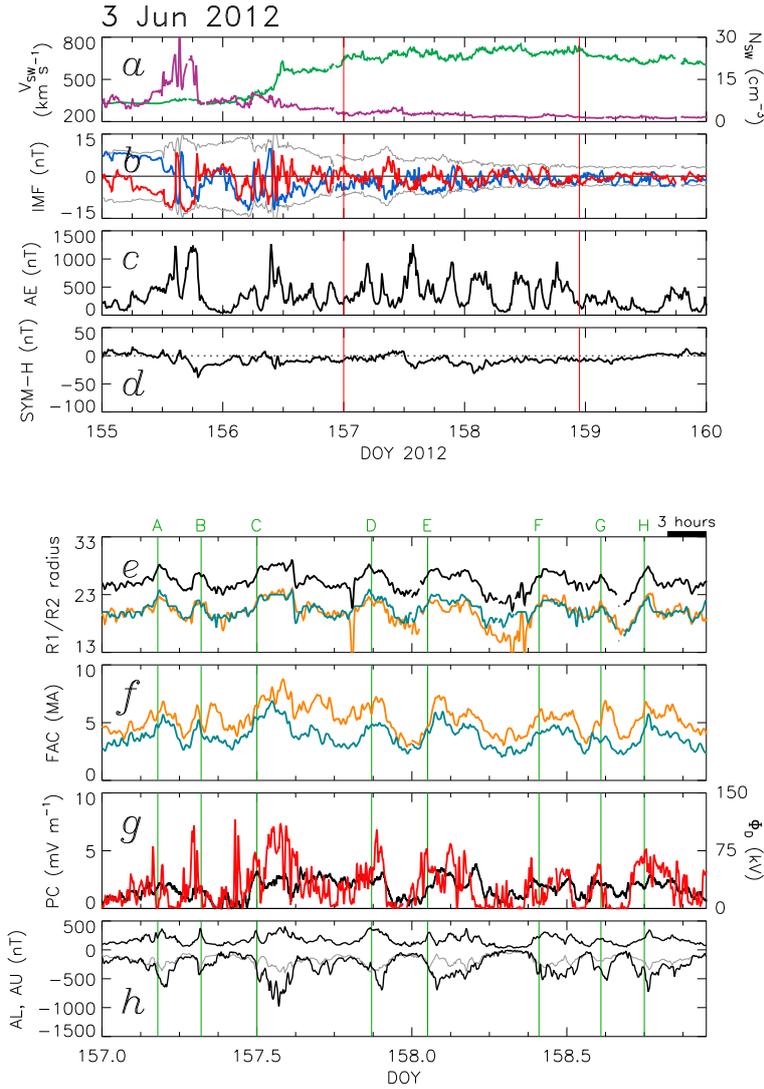


Figure 5. Event 4, presented in the same format as Figure 3.

264 to each long duration period of $B_Z < 0$ with a substorm-like growth, expansion, and
 265 recovery phase. Due to the long periods of $\Phi_D > 0$ many of these substorms had a driven
 266 phase (e.g., events C, E, F, H). In contrast, during Event 12, Figure 6, the main quasi-
 267 period of fluctuations was close to 1-2 hours. Substorms ran into one-another, and more
 268 continuous activity ensued. However, there were still expansions and contractions of the
 269 polar cap and identifiable onsets, with a quasi-periodicity close to 3 hours. Figures show-
 270 ing the other events can be found in the Supporting Information. In each case, the re-
 271 sponse of the magnetosphere to the solar wind driving differed depending on the spec-
 272 trum of periodicities in the fluctuations of B_Z , especially whether the main periodic-
 273 ities were longer or shorter than the canonical substorm duration. However, in all cases,
 274 a quasi-periodic response of 2 to 3 hours can be discerned.

275 So far we have been using Λ as a proxy for F_{PC} rather than measurements of F_{PC}
 276 itself. Figure S1 shows Event 1 which occurred during the IMAGE era, allowing us to
 277 use global auroral imagery to estimate F_{PC} (see panel e), determined from identifica-
 278 tions of the poleward boundary of the auroral oval provided by Chisham et al. (2022).
 279 The data are not continuous due to the orbit of the IMAGE spacecraft, with several-hour

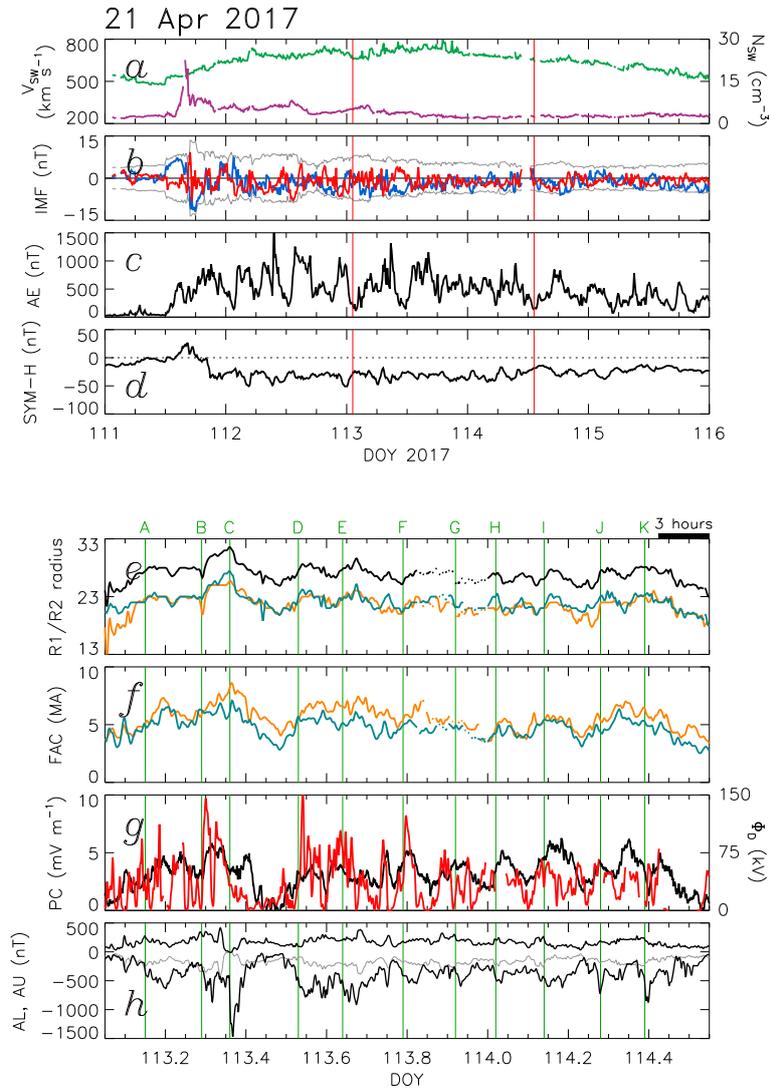


Figure 6. Event 12, presented in the same format as Figure 3.

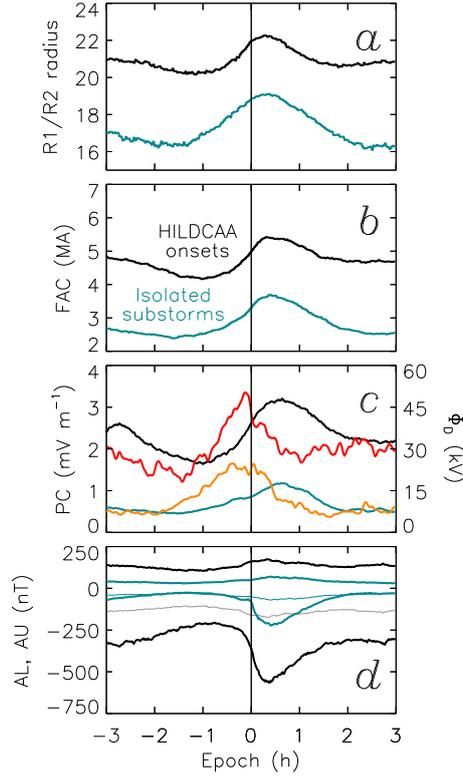


Figure 7. A superposed epoch analysis of individual HILDCAA onsets (black) and isolated substorm onsets (blue). (a) The R1/R2 FAC radius, Λ° ; (b) the hemispherically-integrated FAC magnitude; (c) the PC index and Φ_D^* (red/orange); (d) the AU and AL indices.

280 data gaps every 14 hours. However, this event confirms that HILDCAA onsets are as-
 281 sociated with increases and decreases in F_{PC} , where these changes are of the order of
 282 0.2 to 0.3 GWb.

283 Figure 7 presents a superposed epoch analysis of the individual HILDCAA onsets
 284 identified in Events 2 to 16 (except onsets A to E of Event 8 (Figure 3) as these do not
 285 occur during the HSS), totalling 129 events. Panels (a) to (d) show Λ , the FAC inten-
 286 sity, the PC index (black) and Φ_D (red) and AU and AL, from 3 hours before to 3 hours
 287 after onset. These are compared with a superposed epoch analysis of 101 isolated sub-
 288 storms from 2010 (shown in blue and orange), identified by Milan et al. (2021). Both HILD-
 289 CAA onsets and substorm onsets show the same general patterns: an increase and de-
 290 crease in F_{PC} during the growth and recovery phases, similar changes in the strength
 291 of the FACs, and a substorm bay in AL beginning at onset. These are driven by an in-
 292 crease in Φ_D leading to the growth phase, during which Φ_{PC} increases, a maximum in
 293 Φ_{PC} in the expansion phase, and a reduction during the recovery phase. Φ_D reduces some
 294 time after onset as the IMF turns northwards. However, there are distinct differences
 295 between HILDCAA and non-HILDCAA onsets: HILDCAA onsets occur on an expanded
 296 oval with larger Λ (higher F_{PC}), are associated with stronger FACs and greater electro-
 297 jet activity. These differences are driven by a significantly higher Φ_D during HILDCAAs.
 298 More subtle variations can also be seen. Considering F_{PC} , non-HILDCAA substorms
 299 tend to last just over 3 hours from the beginning of the growth phase to the end of the
 300 recovery phase, with the growth phase lasting approximately 80 mins. The HILDCAA
 301 growth phase is shorter, starting approximately 40 mins before onset, presumably as-
 302 sociated with the greater Φ_D . In non-HILDCAA substorms, Φ_D remains, on average,

303 elevated for 20 mins after onset. However, HILDCAA events have a distinct drop in Φ_D
 304 at the time of onset. This could in part be associated with the rapid variations in B_Z
 305 seen during HILDCAAs, but may also indicate that northward turnings can trigger on-
 306 sets. The variation in PC for the HILDCAA onsets shows a secondary peak at -160 mins,
 307 emphasising the approximate 3 hour quasi-periodicity of the HILDCAA events. More-
 308 over, during HILDCAAs, $|AL| > AU$ throughout the period, emphasising that there
 309 is near continuous nightside activity. Finally, we note that the variation in integrated
 310 FACs mirrors closely the variation in the PC index (Φ_{PC}) and the AU index: this is to
 311 be expected as the ionospheric currents which produce the PC and AU magnetic deflec-
 312 tions are fed by the FACs.

313 **3 Discussion**

314 We have applied the expanding/contracting polar cap model to HILDCAA events.
 315 There has been debate over the nature of the AE enhancements and whether they are
 316 produced by substorm expansion phases and attendant formation of a substorm current
 317 wedge. Tsurutani et al. (2004) concluded that they were not substorms, and suggested
 318 instead that intensifications of the westwards electrojet by prompt penetration of inter-
 319 planetary electric fields could be the cause. Rout et al. (2022) also concluded that HILD-
 320 CAAs were not directly related to substorms but produced by the excitation of a global
 321 perturbation with a “quasi-resonant frequency” of order 1.5 to 2 hours. On the other hand,
 322 Kim et al. (2008) found that energetic particle injections at geosynchronous orbit dur-
 323 ing HILDCAAs were well-aligned with substorm onsets seen in global auroral imagery,
 324 so deduced that most of these activations were indeed substorms. In this study, we find
 325 that the variations in AU and AL (and hence AE), F_{PC} , and Φ_{PC} , conform to what is
 326 expected due to variations of dayside and nightside reconnection during substorms (Cowley
 327 & Lockwood, 1992; Lockwood, 1991; Lockwood & Cowley, 1992; Milan et al., 2021). The
 328 picture is somewhat complicated by the highly intermittent nature of Φ_D , due to the Alfvénic
 329 fluctuations in the IMF, but the physics is essentially the same: accumulation of open
 330 flux by dayside reconnection expands the polar cap and inflates the magnetotail, the growth
 331 phase, until conditions are met such that reconnection is triggered in the magnetotail
 332 to reclose flux. The onset of tail reconnection, the expansion phase, is accompanied by
 333 a bay in AL consistent with the formation of a substorm current wedge (McPherron et
 334 al., 1973), and this is the cause of the intensification in AE. Thereafter, if dayside recon-
 335 nection continues the magnetosphere enters a state of balanced dayside and nightside
 336 reconnection, what has been termed the driven phase (Milan et al., 2021). This ends when
 337 the IMF turns northwards, dayside reconnection ceases, on-going nightside reconnection
 338 causes the polar cap to contract and the tail to deflate: the recovery phase. Nightside
 339 reconnection ceases once sufficient flux has been closed. The duration of the driven phase
 340 can vary from minutes to several hours (e.g., compare onsets A and C of Event 6 in Fig-
 341 ure 4), depending on the variability within the IMF.

342 The IMF within the HSSs undergoes Alfvénic fluctuations on a variety of timescales
 343 ranging from minutes to hours (e.g., Rout et al., 2022). The superposition of long and
 344 short timescales results in variability within Φ_D which differs for each HILDCAA event.
 345 This in turn controls the magnetospheric response. The typical substorm duration is of
 346 the order of 3 hours, in which the growth, expansion, and recovery phases each last ap-
 347 proximately one hour (Milan et al., 2021). In some HILDCAA cases, enhancements in
 348 Φ_D occur every few (greater than 3) hours and last for several hours each time, for in-
 349 stance in Event 4, Figure 5. In such cases, the repetition timescale is somewhat longer
 350 than the typical substorm cycle, and a sequence of essentially isolated substorms results,
 351 some with prolonged driven phases. Short timescale variability superimposed on this long
 352 term behaviour gives the substorms a somewhat “ragged” appearance (cf. the “smoother”
 353 appearance of onsets A and B of Event 8, Figure 3, which are not HILDCAA onsets).
 354 In some cases the variability in Φ_D occurs on timescales shorter than 3 hours, e.g., Event

12, Figure 6. Now more continuous activity ensues, with few periods of quiescence. It is difficult to identify individual onsets with any certainty, though there are still expansions and contractions of the polar cap and enhancements in AL, reminiscent of substorms. This variability occurs with a quasi-periodicity close to 2 to 3 hours, and we suggest that this is controlled by the expanding/contracting timescale associated with reconnection at the magnetopause and in the magnetotail. There are other cases, e.g. Events 5 and 9, Figures S3 and S5, in which the main variability in Φ_D has a periodicity close to 3 hours and the substorms begin to run into each other, a new growth phase beginning even before the previous recovery phase is complete. In Event 6, Figure 4, the variability is such that there are several-hour periods of $B_Z > 0$ and several-hour periods of $B_Z < 0$, with shorter duration variability superimposed on top. This leads to periods of continuous activity interspersed with periods of lower activity or quiescence.

As well as being intermittent, Φ_D tends to be larger than average during HSSs. Equation 3 shows that Φ_D is high when the solar wind speed is high, the magnitude of the IMF is high, and when the IMF is directed southwards. During HSSs the IMF magnitude is about the solar wind average and uniform, but Alfvénic fluctuations cause changes in the clock angle giving the intermittency. On the other hand, V_{SW} is high and this produces the enhancement in Φ_D . We return to the superposed epoch analysis of Figure 2, specifically panels (d) to (g). In each of these panels, $V_{SW}^{4/3}$ is superimposed (red dashed line), scaled to be similar to each parameter at the start and end of the interval. Unsurprisingly, Φ_D (panel e) matches $V_{SW}^{4/3}$ well prior to the sheath arrival and during the HSS and its decline. However, Φ_D exceeds $V_{SW}^{4/3}$ during the sheath passage, showing that the enhanced IMF magnitude in the sheath is driving the higher coupling rate at this time. We expect from Equation 2 that averaged over the substorm cycle $\langle \Phi_N \rangle = \langle \Phi_D \rangle = \langle \Phi_{PC} \rangle$ and, indeed, the variation of PC, our proxy for Φ_{PC} , shows a similar behaviour to Φ_D . Interestingly, AE (panel d) and the magnitude of the FACs (panel g) do not follow the same behaviour. Both the AE and FAC magnitude are elevated during the sheath, as expected, but AE is underestimated and FAC magnitude overestimated by $V_{SW}^{4/3}$ during the HSS. Clearly, these current systems, mainly the substorm current wedge and R1/R2 system, respectively, are not solely controlled by Φ_D , and other factors, presumably including ionospheric conductivity, play an important role. Finally, panel (i) shows the variation in F_{PC} , being elevated during the sheath, and somewhat elevated during the HSS (consistent with panel (a) of Figure 7). An anticorrelation between F_{PC} and Sym-H has previously been reported (e.g., Schulz, 1997; Milan, Hutchinson, et al., 2009; Milan et al., 2021) and that is consistent with the behaviour seen in panels (h) and (i).

HILDCAA onsets differ from typical substorms due to the high values of Φ_D . The three-hour duration of an isolated substorm is driven by the characteristic loading and unloading timescales of the magnetosphere. Milan et al. (2021) showed that for a typical substorm, the growth phase lasts approximately 80 minutes, with an average Φ_D of 25 kV. During HILDCAAs, Φ_D peaks at values much greater than this, 75 kV, due to the strong dependence of Φ_D on V_{SW} . This results in shorter growth phases for HILDCAA events (Figure 8a). Many HILDCAA events are also shorter than typical substorms as northward turnings are frequent, reducing the duration of the expansion or driven phases of the events (though this depends on the details of the variability within B_Z). If the fluctuations occur more rapidly than the substorm timescale, then substorms can merge into one-another, resembling a driven phase, but with Φ_D -driven intensifications. Even more rapid fluctuations result in the magnetosphere integrating over the intermittent accumulations of open flux, seeming to return to a 2-to-3-hour quasi-periodicity, though with onsets being rather indistinct.

The intermittent Φ_D during HILDCAA growth phases leads to F_{PC} increasing in steps until onset occurs. That HILDCAA growth phases tend to be shorter than typical substorm growth phases, due to Φ_D being large, suggests that onset is caused by some threshold in F_{PC} being reached. This threshold, in turn, depends on Sym-H and/or some

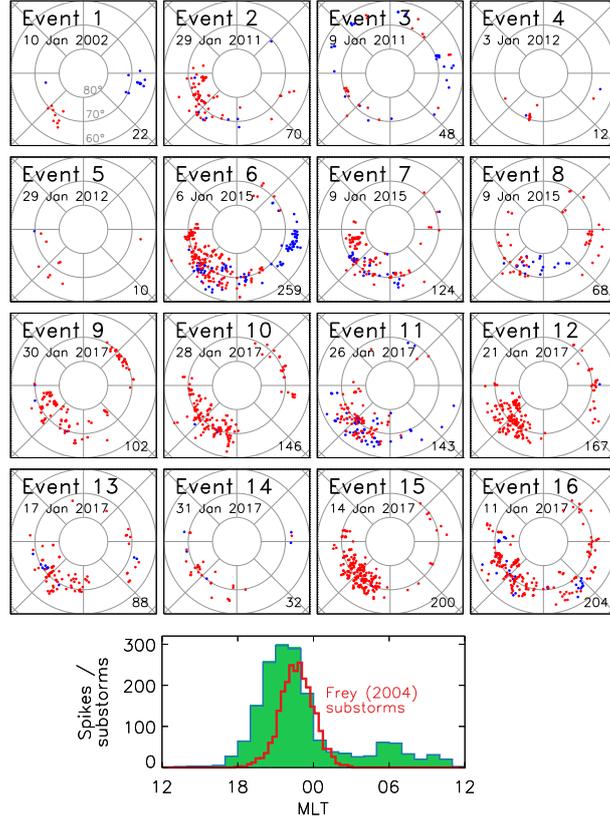


Figure 8. The occurrence of $|dB/dt| > 300 \text{ nT min}^{-1}$ during each event, presented on a magnetic latitude and local time coordinate system, with noon towards the top and down to the right. Circles indicate geomagnetic latitudes in steps of 10° . Blue and red dots indicate “spikes” occurring during the sheath and the HSS of each event, respectively. Numbers in the bottom right of each panel show the number of spikes in each event. The lower panel shows the MLT distribution of spikes for all 16 events. Superimposed is the substorm-onset distribution reported by Frey et al. (2004).

408 other factor, as it does for typical substorms (Milan, Hutchinson, et al., 2009; Milan et
 409 al., 2021) . The level of F_{PC} at onset in turn controls the intensity of the resulting sub-
 410 storm, including the magnitude of the AL bay (Milan, Grocott, et al., 2009). That HILD-
 411 CAAs occur with an elevated F_{PC} explains in part why the AE excursions are so large
 412 during HSSs.

413 We have suggested that HILDCAA onsets are most likely substorm onsets occur-
 414 ring in response to intermittent Φ_D during HSSs. We now test this by determining the
 415 local time at which the “spike” in AE or bay in AL is generated, information that is not
 416 provided by the indices themselves. We use data from the SuperMAG database of ground-
 417 based magnetometers (Gjerloev, 2012) to determine where sudden changes in the mag-
 418 netic field occur during our 16 Events, that is occurrences of “large dB/dt ” or magnetic
 419 “spikes”. We calculate dB/dt by finding the difference between successive 1-min mea-
 420 surements of the magnetic field at each SuperMAG station, in each of the north-south,
 421 east-west, and up-down components (see, e.g., Schillings et al., 2022; Milan et al., 2023,
 422 for more detail on the methodology). We identify times of $|dB/dt| > 300 \text{ nT min}^{-1}$ as
 423 significant spikes which likely correspond to jumps in the AE or AL indices, and which
 424 can also produce Geomagnetically Induced Currents (GICs) which can be detrimental

to ground-based technological systems. Several studies (e.g., Schillings et al., 2022) have shown hotspots of spikes in the pre-midnight and dawn sectors during periods of geomagnetic disturbance. The pre-midnight spikes are identified as being associated with energetic substorms. Figure 8 shows the locations of large spikes during each of our events in a magnetic latitude and magnetic local time coordinate system, in blue or red if they occur during the sheath or the HSS, respectively. The majority of HSS events occur in the pre-midnight sector, with few at dawn. The lower panel shows the local time distribution of spikes from all events, in bins of 1-h of MLT.

If HILDCAA onsets were produced by intensifications of the westwards electrojet by prompt penetration of interplanetary electric fields, as suggested by Tsurutani et al. (2004), the spikes would be expected to be located at dawn, not pre-midnight as seen. For reference, we superimpose the local time distribution (in 20-min bins) of auroral substorm onsets found by Frey et al. (2004) for the first 2.5 years of the IMAGE mission. Our pre-midnight spike distribution matches this well, consistent with the observations of Kim et al. (2008), but extends 1-2 h of MLT to the west; we interpret this as magnetic perturbations produced by the westward-travelling surge (WTS), which typically propagates westwards following substorm onset. We conclude that the AE/AL disturbances during HILDCAAs are rather associated with substorms, and that these disturbances are sufficiently intense to produce hazardous GICs. We note that some events also display a population of spikes near 09 MLT (e.g., Events 9 and 10), which have been attributed to large dB/dt associated with ULF waves generated during periods of high solar wind speed (e.g., Milan et al., 2023), and so might be expected during HSSs.

4 Conclusions

The geomagnetic activity occurring during intervals of High-Intensity Long-Duration Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAAs) is characteristic of substorms. These substorms are of high intensity due to the high but intermittent dayside reconnection rate produced by fast solar wind and quasi-periodically varying IMF during High Speed solar wind Streams (HSSs). Magnetospheric open flux, dayside and nightside reconnection rates, cross-polar cap potential, and the AL index all show variations which are consistent with those expected for substorms in the expanding/contracting polar cap model, though are more intense than typical substorms due to elevated solar wind driving. Moreover, the enhancements in AE are produced by activity confined to the pre-midnight sector, consistent with the substorm onset region, and somewhat to the west of this, possibly associated with the westward-travelling surge. The level of dB/dt during the HILDCAA onsets is sufficient to produce hazardous Geomagnetically Induced Currents (GICs).

The exact nature of the response of the magnetosphere to each HSS differs, depending on the periodicities present in the IMF. If the periodicity is longer than the typical substorm duration (approximately three hours) then a sequence of isolated substorms ensues. If the periodicity is close to the substorm duration then substorms run into one-another. If the periodicity is even shorter then almost continuous auroral activity results.

5 Open Research

Advanced Magnetosphere and Planetary Electrodynamics Response Experiment (AMPERE) data were obtained from JHU/APL (<http://ampere.jhuapl.edu/dataget/index.html>) and processed using software provided (<http://ampere.jhuapl.edu/>). The AMPERE FAC radii dataset (Milan, 2019) is available at <https://doi.org/10.25392/leicester.data.11294861.v1>. The high resolution (1-min) OMNI data were obtained from the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) Space Physics Data Facility OMNIWeb portal at https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/form/om_filt_min.html. The 1-min cadence (“low fidelity”) SuperMAG data were obtained from NASA GSFC through the SuperMAG portal at <https://supermag.jhuapl.edu/mag/?fidelity=low>.

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