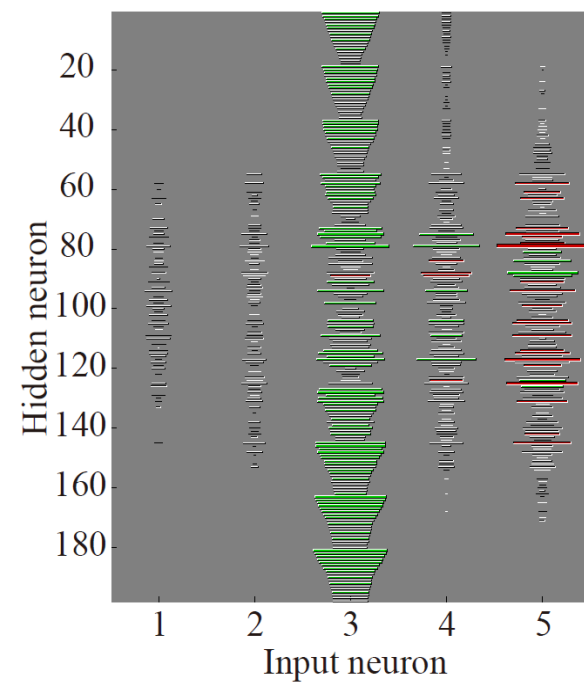


(a) MLP



(b) PL ( $r = 6$ )

1    **Title: Investigation of the Relationship between Geomagnetic Activity and Solar**  
2    **Wind Parameters Based on A Novel Neural Network (Potential Learning)**

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## 17    **Abstract**

18    Predicting geomagnetic conditions based on in-situ solar wind observations allows us to  
19    evade disasters caused by large electromagnetic disturbances originating from the Sun to  
20    save lives and protect economic activity. In this study, we aimed to examine the  
21    relationship between the  $K_p$  index, representing global magnetospheric activity level, and  
22    solar wind conditions using an interpretable neural network known as potential learning  
23    (PL). Data analyses based on neural networks are difficult to interpret; however, PL learns  
24    by focusing on the “potentiality of input neurons” and can identify which inputs are  
25    significantly utilized by the network. Using the full advantage of PL, we extracted the  
26    influential solar wind parameters that disturb the magnetosphere under southward  
27    Interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) conditions. The input parameters of PL were the three  
28    components of the IMF ( $B_x$ ,  $B_y$ ,  $-B_z(B_s)$ ), solar wind flow speed ( $V_x$ ), and proton number  
29    density ( $N_p$ ) in geocentric solar ecliptic (GSE) coordinates obtained from the OMNI solar  
30    wind database between 1998 and 2019. Furthermore, we classified these input parameters  
31    into two groups (targets), depending on the  $K_p$  level:  $K_p = 6$ - to 9 (positive target) and  $K_p$   
32    = 0 to 1+ (negative target). Negative target samples were randomly selected to ensure that

numbers of positive and negative targets were equal. The PL results revealed that solar wind flow speed is an influential parameter for increasing  $K_p$  under southward IMF conditions, which was in good agreement with previous reports on the statistical relationship between the  $K_p$  index and solar wind velocity, and the  $K_p$  formulation based on the IMF and solar wind plasma parameters. Based on this new neural network, we aim to construct a more correct and parameter-dependent space weather forecasting model.

## Keywords

Space weather modeling; Solar wind conditions; Geomagnetic activity; Neural network; Data classification

## 1. Introduction

The terrestrial magnetosphere protects life from the harmful radiation effects associated with the high-speed plasma streams (solar wind) and is constantly undergoing dynamic changes due to interactions with solar wind and the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) originating from the Sun, effective (e.g., Black 1967; Glassmeier et al. 2009; Glassmeier and Vogt 2010). Drastic changes from quiet to active geomagnetic conditions start from a violation of the “frozen-in-condition” of the geomagnetic field caused by reconnecting the geomagnetic field with solar wind field lines, known as magnetic reconnection. Substorms, magnetic storms and auroral signatures are phenomena observed in the magnetosphere that occur due to reconnection-associated transfers of solar wind energy into the magnetosphere, and the resultant magnetospheric activity is of a high level.

The *K* index, defined as the value representing the level of geomagnetic disturbances driven by the solar wind based on the perturbations in the Earth's magnetic field, was used to determine geomagnetic conditions. Moreover, it defines geomagnetic disturbances using an integer in the range 0–9 with 1 being calm and 5 or more indicating a geomagnetic storm. This index was first introduced by Bartels (1939) and is derived from

the maximum fluctuations of horizontal components observed on a magnetometer with a temporal resolution of 3 h. Today, the  $K_p$  index, derived from the weighted average of the  $K$  indices of 13 geomagnetic observatories around the world (Bartels 1949), is understood to be the most representative proxy parameter for measuring energy input from solar wind to Earth and the resultant geomagnetic activity. Other examples of indices representing geomagnetic activity use the current intensity associated with aurora ( $AL$  and  $AU$  indices) and the strength of looped currents (ring current) flowing around the magnetic equator region built up by magnetic storms ( $D_{st}$  index). Since their inception,  $K_p$  values have been used for important and reliable index to representations of global geomagnetic activity. However, the time resolution of  $K_p$  (2.5 h) is lower than those of the other geomagnetic indices, such as  $AL$ ,  $AU$ , PC (Polar Cap), and  $D_{st}$ , which have time resolutions ranging from 1 min. to 1 h (see Rangarajan 1987).

Derivations of these indices to show global or specific region geomagnetic activity based on solar wind parameters have been conducted. In particular,  $K_p$  has been derived from solar wind parameters at Lagrange point 1 (L1) obtained by satellites (e.g., Wing et al. 2005; Wintoft et al. 2017; Zhelavskaya et al. 2019; Shprits et al. 2019). Newell et al.

81 (2008) formulated the  $K_p$  index based on the IMF and solar wind–magnetosphere coupling  
 82 functions, which are equations that quantitatively evaluate the amount of solar wind  
 83 energy inputs to the magnetosphere based on IMF and solar wind plasma parameters  
 84 (Newell et al. 2007). The equations are as follows:

$$85 \quad K_p = 0.05 + 2.244 \times 10^{-4} \left( \frac{d\Phi_{MP}}{dt} \right) + 2.844 \times 10^{-6} N_p^{\frac{1}{2}} V_{sw}^2 \quad (1)$$

$$86 \quad \frac{d\Phi_{MP}}{dt} = V_{sw}^{\frac{4}{3}} B_t^{\frac{2}{3}} \sin^{\frac{8}{3}} \left( \frac{\theta_{clock}}{2} \right) \quad (2).$$

87 According to Eq.(1),  $K_p$  can be represented by the solar wind proton number density  
 88 ( $N_p$ ); velocity ( $V_{sw}$ ); IMF clock angle, defined as the angle between the IMF- $B_y$  and  $-B_z$   
 89 components ( $\theta_{clock} = \arctan(\text{IMF-}B_y/\text{IMF-}B_z)$ ); and IMF intensity ( $B_t$ ), which is included  
 90 in Newell’s solar wind–magnetosphere coupling function ( $d\Phi_{MP}/dt$ ), as calculated using  
 91 Eq.(2). Eqs. (1) and (2) show that the solar wind velocity is closely correlated with the  $K_p$   
 92 index, as advocated by studies by Snyder et al. (1963) and Elliott et al. (2013).  
 93 Nevertheless, it is difficult to determine the geomagnetic disturbance level based on solar  
 94 wind conditions because of the complicated relationships between geomagnetic activity,  
 95 IMF, and solar wind plasma.

96 Recently, machine learning (or deep learning) approaches have been used to predict  $K_p$ .

97 The artificial neural network (NN) is one of the most popular algorithms for  $K_p$ ,  $D_{st}$  and  
98 PC forecasting (e.g., Nagai 1994; Costello 1998). Later, Boberg et al. (2000) and Wing et  
99 al. (2005) developed a prediction model based on NN using with IMF and solar wind  
100 plasma as input parameters. Boberg et al. (2000) sequentially built a multi-layer feed-  
101 forward network using IMF- $B_z$  component, solar wind plasma density ( $N_p$ ), and velocity  
102 ( $V_{sw}$ ) as the input parameters, and evaluated the developed algorithm in terms of  
103 “training”, “validation”, and “test” based on the correlation and root-mean-square error  
104 (RMSE). Furthermore, an NN was developed by Bala and Reiff (2012) to forecast three  
105 indices:  $K_p$ ,  $D_{st}$ , and  $AE$  (as defined by  $AU - AL$ ). They obtained and compared several  
106 forecasting patterns of the  $K_p$  index with various solar wind input parameters and found  
107 significant differences in the RMSE and correlation between the obtained models. They  
108 also evaluated the prediction time for forecasting performance and concluded that RMSE  
109 tends to become larger as  $K_p$  prediction time increases.

110 Following these NNs, Ji et al. (2013) introduced a support vector machine (SVM) to  
111 build a  $K_p$  forecasting model and evaluated the forecasting results from SVM by  
112 comparing the  $K_p$  prediction results with those from an NN. They constructed a



113 forecasting model under high magnetic activity conditions. Tan et al. (2018) constructed  
114 and evaluated a  $K_p$  forecasting model using the solar energy input function (a coupling  
115 function) and the associated viscous term as inputs (Newell et al. 2008). Their models can  
116 also consider the  $K_p$  forecasting error and were built based on long short-term memory  
117 (LSTM), which was developed from recurrent NNs (RNNs) (Hochreiter and  
118 Schmidhuber 1997).

119 In this study, we developed an extraction algorithm for solar wind parameters,  
120 significantly affect geomagnetic disturbances, with the help of the  $K_p$  classification model  
121 based on potential learning (PL). PL has been used to conduct analyses where high model  
122 performance and high interpretability are required. For example, in a study that applied  
123 PL to supermarket data (ID-POS) by Kitajima et al.(2016a), a model was developed that  
124 used the “consumer’s purchase behavior in the past three months” as an input parameter  
125 to determine the “customer’s probability to visit the store in two months in the future”.  
126 They determined that the model based on PL performed better than the conventional  
127 method and succeeded to extract an important variable. In addition, PL has been applied  
128 to data in various fields, such as Tweet data at the time of a disaster (Kitajima et al. 2016b)

and data on president messages of the companies (Kitajima et al. 2019). Since PL has been used for data analysis in various fields, we aim to identify the most significant parameters that disturb the magnetosphere based on PL. Furthermore, we will run several PLs by changing the parameters and evaluate the performance of the application of PL to space physics data. We will also compare the results obtained from PL with those from another algorithm, multi-layer perceptron (MLP), and discuss the difference between the two algorithms.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the data used, and methodology in this study. The evaluation of the performance of PL, the results obtained based on PL and the differences between PL and MLP are shown in section 3. In section 4, finally, we present the discussion and our conclusions of this study. In Appendix, we describe the details of the PL structure.

## **2. Data and Methodology**

### **2.1 Database compiling**

In this study, we used the three components of the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF;

145 Bx, By, Bz), and solar wind plasma parameters, such as solar wind velocity and ion  
146 number density, in geocentric solar ecliptic (GSE) coordinates and the global  
147 geomagnetic activity index ( $K_p$  index) from January 1 1998 to December 31 2019, as input  
148 parameters for PL. Detailed information on the parameters of the solar wind and  
149 geomagnetic activity index is summarized in Table 1. The solar wind parameters with  
150 temporal resolution of 1 min. of the OMNI database and the  $K_p$  index with a time  
151 resolution of 3 h were utilized, respectively. We calculated the 3 h average of the solar  
152 wind data to give these parameters the same temporal resolution as  $K_p$ . If the parameter  
153 had a data gap larger than 40%, the averages were not computed. To further exclude the  
154 observation data in the magnetosphere from the database, we established a threshold  
155 where the satellite GSE-X component (sun-earthward) was larger than the nominal nose  
156 point ( $\sim 15 R_E$ ) of the model bow shock, proposed by Farris and Russell, (1994), that is,  
157 the database used completely comprised the observation values in interplanetary space.

158 In this study, we considered only magnetospheric activity under the southward  
159 (negative) IMF- $B_z$  case and excluded the northward (positive) IMF- $B_z$  component as this  
160 NN input parameter, identified with “ $B_s$ ” in Table 1. There were two main reasons for this

161 criterion for the IMF- $B_z$  component. First, we considered that geomagnetic conditions are  
162 favorable to be disturbed because high occurrences of magnetic reconnection can be  
163 expected in dayside magnetosphere. Second, PL learns by focusing on the highest  
164 variance of the parameters (see Eqs. (3) and (4) in section 2.3) and extracts the focused  
165 parameter as the most significant factor driving the magnetospheric disturbances.  
166 Therefore, we excluded cases of the IMF- $B_z$  component highly fluctuating between  
167 positive and negative around 0 nT.

168 Before inputting the solar wind conditions to the PL, we classified the  $K_p$  values into  
169 two groups (targets) of “positive” and “negative” targets.  $K_p$  index with values from 6- to  
170 9, and the associated solar wind data were labeled as “positive target (group)”. Whereas  
171  $K_p$  values ranging from 0 to 1+ and the associated solar wind parameters were labelled as  
172 “negative target (group)”. The total number of compiled (averaged) data points was  
173 27,168 with the positive (negative) target number being 793 (26,375). To equalize the  
174 number of data between the positive and negative targets, we randomly chose and  
175 extracted 793 points out of the 26,375 negative target data points. Finally, we analyzed  
176 1,586 positive and negative data points.

## 177    **2-2 Methodology of database analysis**

178    By adopting a new NN (PL) to take the 3 h average solar wind parameters as “input  
179    parameters” and classify whether or not the associated  $K_p$  index belongs to “positive” or  
180    “negative” targets, we investigated the relationship between geomagnetic activity levels  
181    and solar wind parameters.

182    Recently, NNs have been adopted to analyze databases with complicated structures in  
183    space plasma physics. In general, NNs have frequently been used to build forecasting  
184    models of geomagnetic indices; however, it is difficult to interpret which solar wind  
185    parameters are the most important in disturbing the magnetosphere. In this study, we  
186    applied a new NN theory, PL, which was developed based on two NNs; selective  
187    potentiality maximization, proposed by Kamimura and Kitajima (2015), and self-  
188    organizing selective potentiality learning (Kamimura 2015).

189    In this study, we trained the PL by setting the number of neurons (see the details on the  
190    manner to train PL are described in section 2.3), as listed in Table 2. The number of hidden  
191    neurons was automatically determined by the software of “SOM Toolbox v2.1” which  
192    was developed by Vatanen et al. (2015).

In the knowledge utilization step, hyperbolic tangent and softmax functions were used for the activation functions of the hidden and output neurons, respectively. We searched for the most suitable value by varying the value of parameter “r” from 1 to 10 with a step of 1. A total of 1,110 (70%) of the 1,586 samples were used for training. Half of the remaining 238 samples (15%) were utilized to prevent training from overfitting (early stopping) and the other half (15%) were used for testing. We maintained these allocation rates during these PL runs. In this study, we made 10 different models in a random choice manner, as shown in Figure 2. We evaluated the performance of each model by calculating the average values of the 10 models.

### **2.3 Details of the potential learning (PL)**

PL consists of two steps: knowledge accumulation, based on self-organizing maps (SOM), the concept of which is shown in Figure 1(a); and knowledge utilization, originating from multi-layer perceptron (MLP), the details of which are shown in Figure 1(b). During knowledge accumulation, the potentiality of the input neuron is calculated and knowledge is acquired (training). Here, we define “potentiality” as ability which can

209 response to various conditions of neuron. In case of “Neuron with high potentiality”, it  
 210 indicates the neuron which can play an important role in training. In general, NNs are  
 211 referred to as “black box,” but, in the PL, we can interpret which input parameters are  
 212 important by interpreting the potentiality after training. If assigning the number  
 213  $k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ ) to the input neuron, we can derive the potentiality of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  input  
 214 neuron ( $\Phi_k^r$ ) between 0 and 1, using the following equation:

$$215 \quad \Phi_k^r = \left( \frac{V_k}{\max_{k=1, \dots, K} V_k} \right)^r \quad (3).$$

216 where  $V_k$  is the variance of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  input neuron, which is computed based on “weight”  
 217 ( $w_{j,k}$ ) connected to the  $k^{\text{th}}$  input neuron from  $j^{\text{th}}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ ) output neuron and  $r$  is  
 218 the parameter that controls the potentiality calculated using the algorithm. The larger the  
 219 “ $r$ ” value becomes, the input neuron with larger variance can have larger potentiality.

220 After the potentiality was calculated, PL was trained based on self-organizing maps  
 221 (SOM), in which the potentiality was used to calculate the distance ( $d_j$ ) between the input  
 222 neuron (the input from the  $k^{\text{th}}$  input neuron is denoted by  $x_k$ ) and the  $j^{\text{th}}$  output neuron  
 223 with the following formula:

$$d_j = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K \phi_k^r (x_k - w_{j,k})^2} \quad (4).$$

Eq. (4) means that the “distance,” weighted by the potentiality of the input neuron, was used in the training process. The logics for the other training were the same as those for the SOM. Through the Knowledge accumulation step, PL starts to conduct the training at the step of Knowledge utilization, based on MLP. In this step, the weight obtained in the knowledge accumulation step was multiplied by the potentiality and set as the initial weight between the input and hidden layers for learning. In general, the results of the training based on MLP depend on the initial weights. However, PL is expected to provide more precise training based on the knowledge obtained from the input parameters (data).

233

## 234 **3. Results**

### 235 **3.1 Evaluation of model performances**

To evaluate the PL 10 models, we calculated the values of four measures (accuracy, precision, recall and F-measure) with changing value of parameter “r” from 1 to 10. Table 3 shows the calculation results of the four measures, indicating the extent to which the model successfully predicted the test data. When “r” was 6, the value of “accuracy” was



240 the highest. The main purpose of creating the 10 models was to extract of the variables  
241 that play essential roles in classifying the  $K_p$  index into two targets: negative and positive.  
242 Therefore, we focused on the case with the highest accuracy value and thus applied the  
243 best model with  $r = 6$  in this study.

244 We also compared the test results based on PL with those of MLP, a basic NN. As  
245 shown in Table 3, all values (accuracy, precision, recall and F-measure) in MLP were  
246 close to those of MLP. In particular, the difference in accuracy between PL and MLP was  
247 only 0.0063. MLP can be better for classifying  $K_p$  into two targets than PL, if the main  
248 purpose is only the prediction of geomagnetic activity. However, PL actively selects the  
249 input values to be utilized for classification while MLP does not.

250 When  $r = 6$ , the values of three measures (accuracy, recall, and F-measure) of evaluating  
251 model performance in PL reached their maximum, but were slightly lower than those in  
252 MLP. Precision reached its maximum at  $r = 10$ . PL, however, has a strong advantage in  
253 extracting the most influential solar wind parameters that cause geomagnetic disturbances.  
254 Therefore, in this study, we applied the PL model with  $r = 6$ .

255

## 3.2 Extraction of significant solar wind parameters that cause magnetospheric disturbances

Figure 3 shows the result of PL for the input neurons at  $r = 6$ . PL extracted the solar wind velocity ( $V_x$ ) as the parameter with the highest “input potentiality” ( $\sim 1.0$ ), suggesting that PL at  $r = 6$  judged solar wind velocity to be the most significant parameter causing geomagnetic disturbances under the  $B_s$  (southward IMF) condition. The parameter with the next highest potentiality was the solar wind density ( $N_p$ ) at 0.0431; however, this can almost be ignored when compared with the potentiality of the solar wind velocity.

Figure 4 shows the weights of the input and hidden layers used in the PL and MLP for comparison. The length of the bar shows the weight in PL, and the signs of the weight values are indicated with red (plus) and green (minus), respectively. The panel (a) in Figure 4 shows that MLP has various plus and minus values for weights at each input neuron (parameter), indicating that it is difficult to identify which input neuron (parameter) was used in the network. However, in the PL network with  $r = 6$  (panel b), most of the weight was concentrated on the third variable (solar wind velocity); however,

the fourth (ion number density) and fifth (southward IMF) variables also had some weight and were thus also used in the PL network. PL uses potentiality to set up the initial weight in the knowledge utilization step (see Figure 1b). Although three variables (third, fourth, and fifth) had high weight values, we judged the parameter with the highest weight value, the third variable (solar wind velocity), as having the most significant potentiality among them.

#### **4. Summary and Discussion**

We reported the results of benchmarks of the application of a new neural network (Potential Learning) for the prediction of geomagnetic activity, driven by solar wind, and the successful extraction of the most significant solar wind parameter in causing geomagnetic field disturbances. This study is the first attempt for applying the PL to the numerical data analyses in space plasma. We also used 22 years of OMNI solar wind data and  $K_p$  indices as input neurons but only used the data when the IMF  $B_z$  was southward. This was because geomagnetic activity is favorable to be disturbed by dayside magnetic reconnection under southward IMF- $B_z$  conditions (e.g. Dungey, 1961), and it is thus

288 easier to extract the crucial solar wind parameter(s) that drive the geomagnetic  
289 disturbances.

290 We excluded the solar wind data under northward IMF conditions due to an inherent  
291 disadvantage of the current PL algorithm; PL identifies the largest variance value with the  
292 highest potentiality. Therefore, if data under northward IMF conditions were included in  
293 the database, the stable (non-excursive) but intensive southward IMF- $B_z$  component  
294 cannot be chosen as the solar wind parameter with the highest potentiality. Furthermore,  
295 the fluctuating IMF- $B_z$  around 0 nT may be chosen as the most significant parameter that  
296 cause magnetospheric disturbance. To avoid these cases, we utilized only solar wind data  
297 during the southward IMF intervals as input neuron. In future studies, we need to improve  
298 the PL algorithm, which applies an importance to the largest variance value for the highest  
299 potentiality.

300 Based on a large solar wind database, PL extracted the solar wind velocity as the  
301 parameter with the highest potentiality when  $r = 6$  (see Figure 3), suggesting that solar  
302 wind speed ( $V_x$ ) is an important parameter in disturbing geomagnetic conditions.  
303 Significant enhancements of the global geomagnetic activity level due to increases in the

304  $V_x$  component were reported by Snyder et al. (1963). More recently, Elliott et al. (2013)  
305 examined the relationship between the  $K_p$  index and solar wind speed, separating into low  
306 and high solar wind number density and dynamic pressure cases and the presence/absence  
307 of solar wind disturbances, such as the interplanetary coronal mass ejection (ICME).  
308 Furthermore, Thomsen (2004) suggested that the large-scale convection electric field ( $E_c$   
309  $= -V_{sw} \times B_{geo}$ ), calculated using the solar wind velocity ( $V_{sw}$ ) and geomagnetic field ( $B_{geo}$ ),  
310 has a good correlation with the  $K_p$  index. This quantitative relationship between solar  
311 wind velocity and the  $K_p$  index, supported by the two velocity terms of “ $V_{sw}^2$ ” and “ $V_{sw}^{3/4}$ ”  
312 being comprised in a formulation proposed by Newell et al. (2008) (Eq. 1), suggests that  
313 solar wind velocity is the most important parameter in controlling  $K_p$ . Therefore, the most  
314 significant parameter extracted by PL (solar wind velocity) was determined to be the most  
315 significant parameter that causes disturbances to the Earth, being consistent with previous  
316 statistical observational results (Gholipour et al. 2004; Newell et al. 2008; Elliott et al.  
317 2013, and references therein).

318 Comparing the MLP results with those of PL, the accuracies were not significantly  
319 different. However, PL could be applied to extract the most significant parameter leading

to space weather disasters from solar wind. This benchmark for the application of PL to the space weather-related problem verified its effectiveness in predicting the solar wind driving geomagnetic activity and significant solar wind parameters that cause geomagnetic disturbances.

In this study, we ensured that PL can extract the most significant solar wind parameter which causes geomagnetic disturbances. Therefore, we can aim to construct a more correct and parameter-dependent space weather forecasting model based on PL.

## **Declarations**

### **List of abbreviations**

PL: Potential Learning; IMF: Interplanetary Magnetic Field; RMSE: Root-Mean-Square Error; NN: artificial Neural Network; MLP: Multi-Layer Perceptron; GSE coordinates: Geocentric Solar Ecliptic coordinates; SOM: Self-Organizing Maps

### **Availability of data and materials**

Solar wind OMNI data were obtained from the Coordinated Data Analysis Web

336 (<https://cdaweb.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/index.html/>), provided by GSFC/NASA.  $K_p$  index data  
337 were provided by the World Data Center for Geomagnetism, Kyoto  
338 (<http://swdcd.db.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp/>).

339

#### 340 **Competing interests**

341 The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

342

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346

#### 347 **Authors' contributions**

348 Motoharu Nowada conceived the research project. Ryoza Kitajima performed all data  
349 analyses, made all the figures, and tuned the PL codes. Motoharu Nowada and Ryoza  
350 Kitajima wrote the paper and edited the manuscript. Ryotaro Kamimura developed the  
351 main engine of the PL program and edited the draft.

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354

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448 **Figure legends**

449 Figure 1. The concept of potential learning (PL). PL comprises two important steps: (a)  
450 knowledge accumulation and (b) knowledge utilization.

451 Figure 2. Block diagrams of details of 10 potential learning (PL) models. In each model,  
452 the data for training (Training data), the data to prevent training from overfitting (early  
453 stopping) (Validation data), and the data for testing the model (Testing data) are included.  
454 The percentages for the three kinds of data are 70%, 15%, and 15%, respectively.

455 Figure 3. Results of the application of PL at  $r = 6$ . The five OMNI solar wind parameters  
456 (IMF- $B_x$ , IMF- $B_y$ ,  $V_x$ ,  $N_p$ , and  $B_s$ ) are chosen as the input data to PL. The horizontal and  
457 vertical axes give input potentiality and the numbers of input five solar wind parameters,  
458 respectively. The potentialities of the solar wind velocity and density are 1.0 and 0.0431,  
459 respectively.

460 Figure 4. Weights in the input – hidden layers in the networks of MLP (a) and PL (b).  
461 Horizontal and vertical axes give the number of five input variables (neurons) and number  
462 of neurons in hidden layer, respectively. The length of the bar shows the weight in PL,  
463 and the signs of the weight values are indicated with red (plus) and green (minus),

464 respectively.

465

466 **Table legends**

467 Table 1. Detailed information on the parameters in compiled database used in this neural  
468 network

469 Table 2. List of numbers of neurons in potential learning (PL)

470 Table 3. Summary of accuracy, precision, recall and F-measure values. Bold letters  
471 indicate their maxima

Figure 1

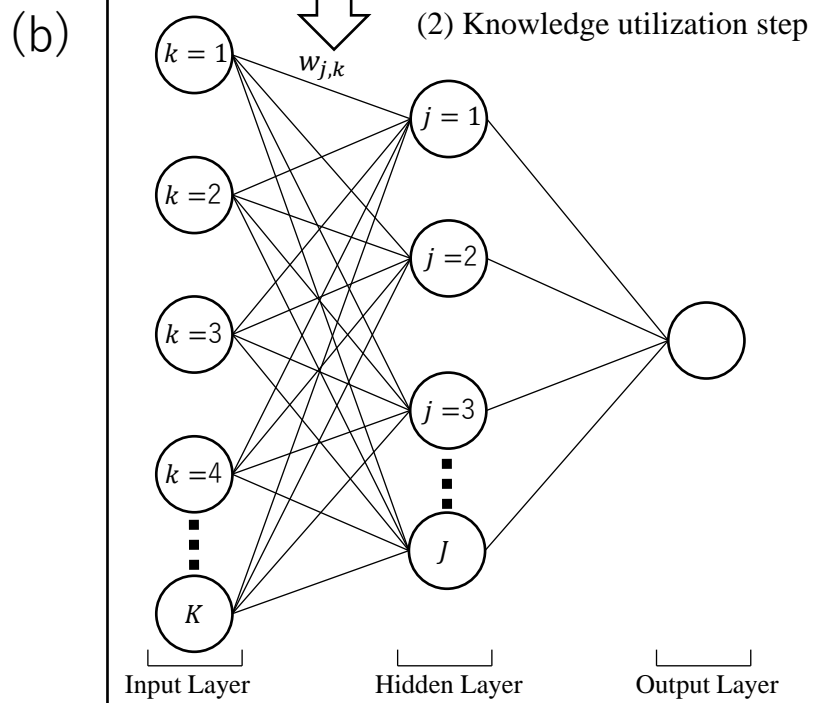
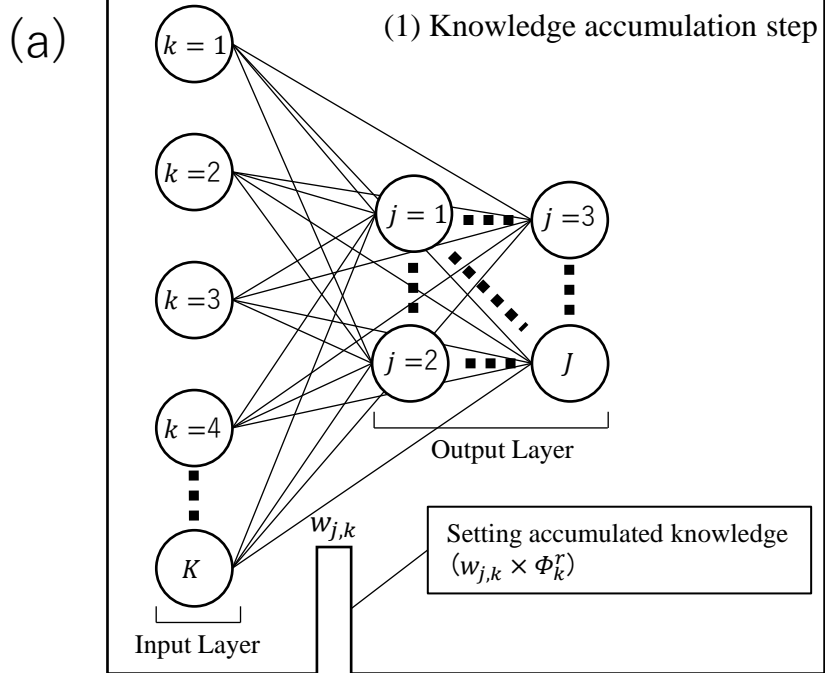




Figure 2

No.	Purpose
1	Training data
2	Training data
3	Training data
4	Validation data
5	Validation data
:	Testing data
n	Testing data

70%

15%

15%

Data pattern 1

No.	Purpose
1	Testing data
2	Testing data
3	Validation data
4	Validation data
5	Training data
:	Training data
n	Training data

15%

15%

70%

Data pattern 2

.....

No.	Purpose
1	Validation data
2	Testing data
3	Training data
4	Validation data
5	Training data
:	Testing data
n	Training data

15%

15%

70%

Data pattern 10

Figure 3

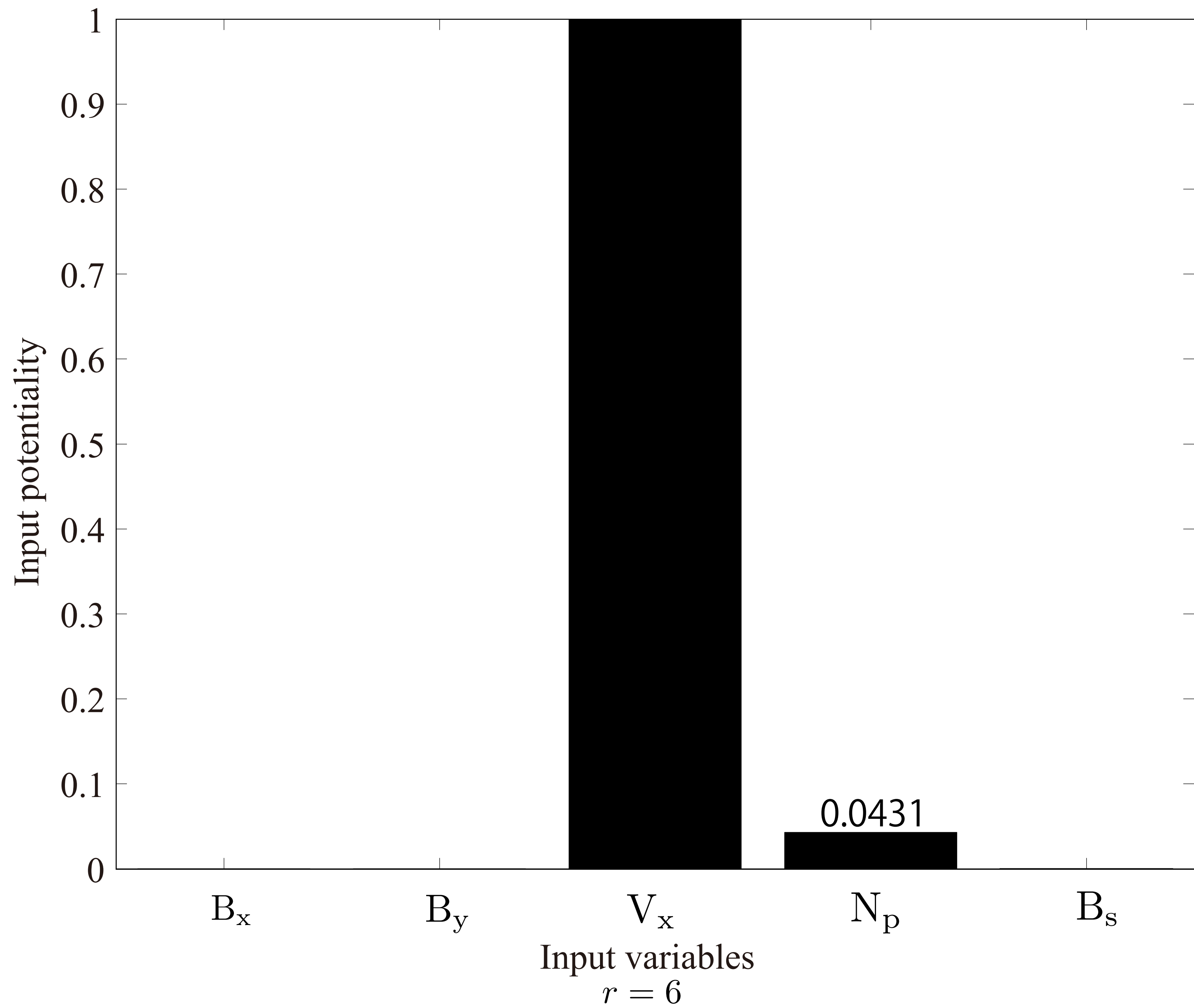
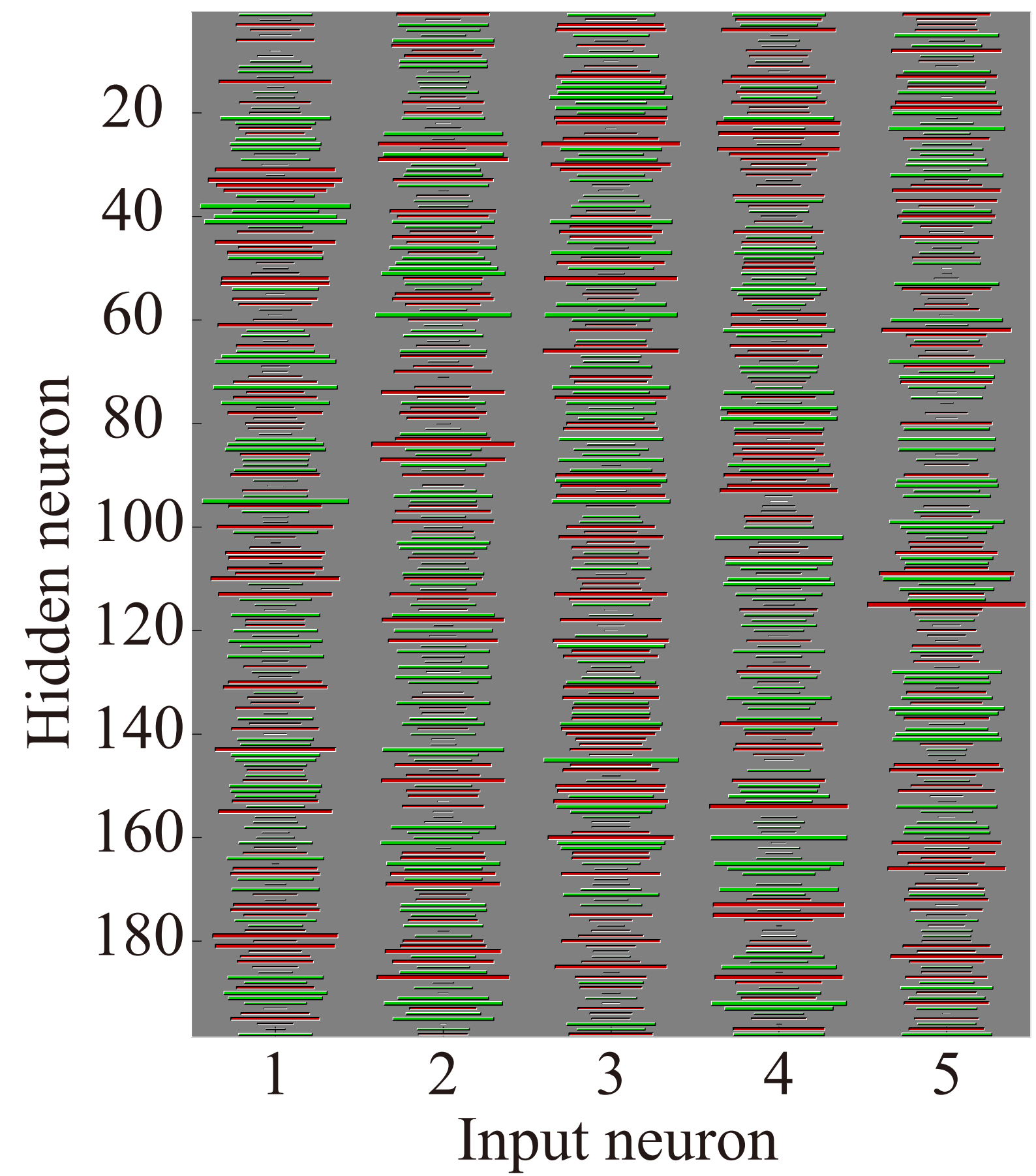
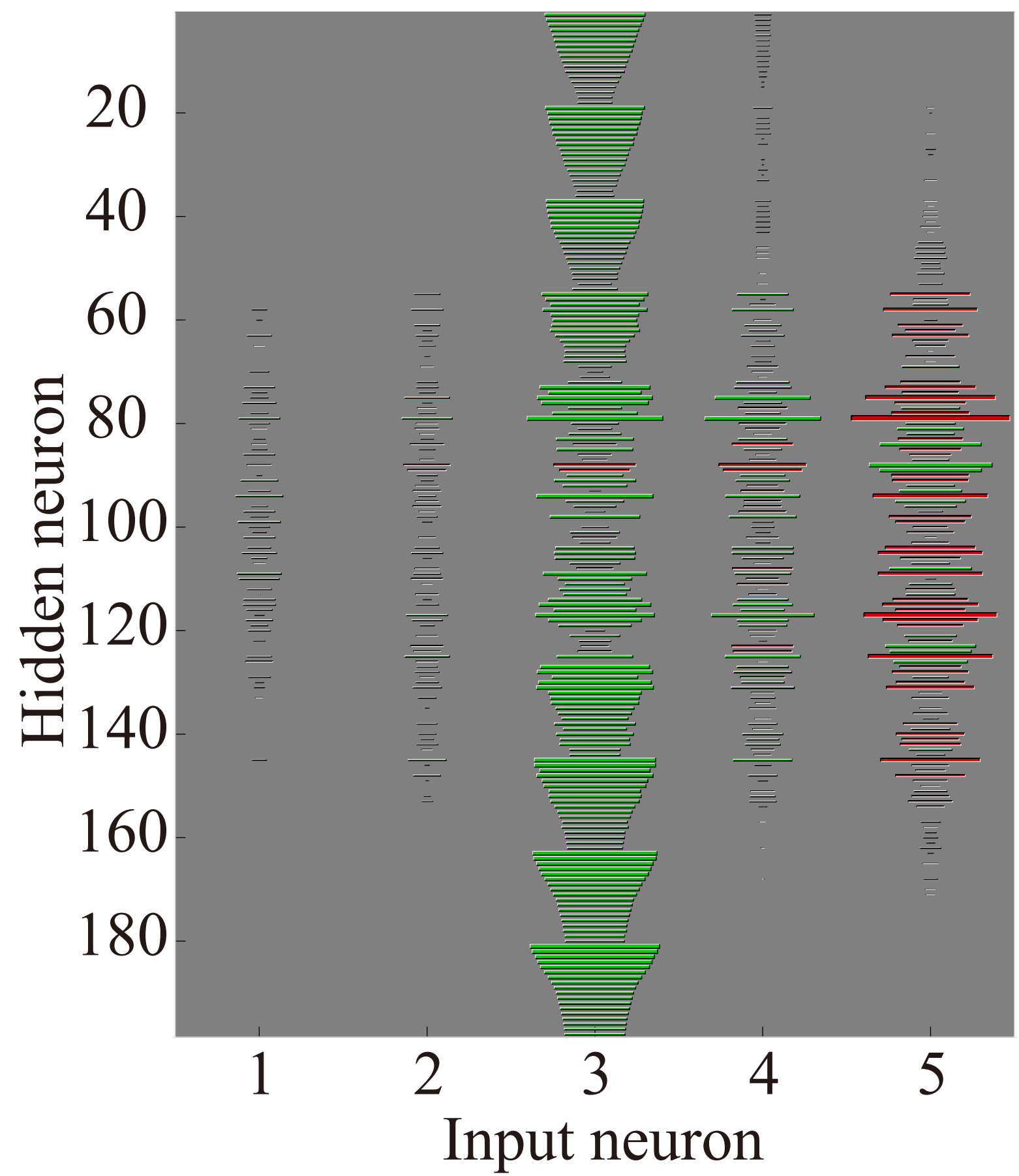


Figure 4



(a) MLP



(b) PL ( $r = 6$ )

Table 1

No.	Input Parameters	Unit
1	$B_X$ [IMF GSE-X component]	nT
2	$B_Y$ [IMF GSE-Y component]	nT
3	$V_X$ [Solar wind velocity]	km/s
4	$N_p$ [Ion number density]	/cm <sup>3</sup>
5	$B_s^\dagger$ [Southward IMF- $B_z$ ]	nT
6	$K_p$ Index	-
$B_s^\dagger = \begin{cases} 0 & (B_z > 0), \\ B_z & (B_z \leq 0). \end{cases}$		

Table 2

Setup of PL	
# of input neurons	5
# of output neurons at Knowledge Accumulation step	198
# of hidden neurons at Knowledge Utilization step	198
# of output neurons at Knowledge Utilization step	2

Table 3

	PL										MLP
	$r = 1$	$r = 2$	$r = 3$	$r = 4$	$r = 5$	$r = 6$	$r = 7$	$r = 8$	$r = 9$	$r = 10$	
Accuracy	0.9828	0.9824	0.9824	0.9836	0.9824	<b>0.9840</b>	0.9819	0.9807	0.9828	0.9832	<b>0.9903</b>
Precision	0.9793	0.9793	0.9785	0.9801	0.9792	0.9801	0.9784	0.9768	0.9785	<b>0.9817</b>	<b>0.9867</b>
Recall	0.9866	0.9857	0.9866	0.9874	0.9857	<b>0.9882</b>	0.9857	0.9849	0.9874	0.9849	<b>0.9941</b>
F-measure	0.9828	0.9824	0.9824	0.9837	0.9824	<b>0.9841</b>	0.9820	0.9807	0.9828	0.9832	<b>0.9904</b>