Cross polar cap potentials measured with Super Dual Auroral Radar Network during quasi-steady solar wind and interplanetary magnetic field conditions

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[1] We have analyzed Super Dual Auroral Radar Network (SuperDARN) data between February 1998 and December 2000 to determine the statistical characteristics of the total variation in the high-latitude ionospheric electric potential, or cross polar cap potential, \( \Phi_{PC} \). Periods are chosen to satisfy the criteria that (1) the solar wind and interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) are quasi-stable for \( \geq 40 \) min and (2) sufficient SuperDARN data exist to adequately determine \( \Phi_{PC} \). A total of 9464 individual 10-min periods satisfying the first criteria are analyzed. A subset of 2721 periods satisfy both criteria, of which 1638 are considered high-confidence periods. The resulting data set shows that for quasi-steady solar wind and IMF, \( \Phi_{PC} \) (1) is nonlinear in the expression for the effective interplanetary electric field \( E_{KL} \), (2) saturates at high values of \( E_{KL} \), and (3) is highly variable for any given value of \( E_{KL} \). These results indicate that simple formulations involving the upstream solar wind and IMF conditions are inadequate to describe the instantaneous \( \Phi_{PC} \) and that the inclusion of internal and coupling processes between the magnetosphere and ionosphere may be necessary. INDEX TERMS: 2463 Ionosphere: Plasma convection; 2784 Magnetospheric Physics: Solar wind/magnetosphere interactions; 2736 Magnetospheric Physics: Magnetosphere/ionosphere interactions; 2411 Ionosphere: Electric fields (2712); KEYWORDS: convection electric field, cross polar cap potential and saturation, SuperDARN, interplanetary magnetic field

1. Introduction

[2] Large-scale electric fields resulting from a combination of viscous interactions and magnetic reconnection processes occurring at the magnetopause and in the magnetotail map along magnetic field lines with little attenuation into the high-latitude ionosphere. The total variation in the resulting ionospheric electric potential, referred to as the cross polar cap potential, or \( \Phi_{PC} \), is therefore an indicator of the amount of energy flowing into and through the magnetosphere-ionosphere (M-I) system. In addition to being an important parameter for describing the state of the magnetosphere, \( \Phi_{PC} \) is useful for comparison with and validation of real-time and predictive space weather models.

[3] Several techniques have been used to measure \( \Phi_{PC} \) and to study its correlation with solar wind drivers and other geophysical parameters. They include high-latitude, low-altitude spacecraft measurements of the convecting plasma velocity; Ogo 6 [Heppner, 1972], AE and S3 [Reiff et al., 1981; Reiff and Luhmann, 1986; Doyle and Burke, 1983], DE 2 [Weimer, 1995, 1996, 2001], and Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP) [Rich and Hairston, 1994; Boyle et al., 1997; Burke et al., 1999]; assimilation and mapping of ground magnetometer and radar measurements such as the Assimilative Mapping of Ionospheric Electrodynamics (AMIE) technique [Richmond and Kamide, 1988]; linear regression relationships between solar wind parameters, ground-based magnetometers, and DMSP data such as the Institute of Terrestrial Magnetism, Ionosphere and Radiowave Propagation (IZMIRAN) Electrodynamic Model (IZMEM) [Papitashvili et al., 1994] or the Linear Modeling of Ionospheric Electrodyamics (LiMIE) [Papitashvili et al., 1999]; fitting backscattered ionospheric line-of-sight (LOS) convection velocities from ground-based radars to functional forms of the electrostatic potential [Ruohoniemi and Baker, 1998]; and global magnetospheric modeling such as the Lyon-Fedder-Moybally (LFM) global magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) code [Fedder and Lyon, 1987, Lyons, 1998, Slinker et al., 2001].

[4] Each of these techniques has limitations on the degree and accuracy to which it can determine or predict \( \Phi_{PC} \). Satellite measurements are spatially and temporally limited to the spacecraft orbit path, magnetometer data are spatially limited and must be inverted using ionospheric conductivity models, differences exist between global MHD models and observations possibly due to the lack of some necessary ionospheric physics in these models, radar measurements can be spatially limited, and parameterization techniques provide only typical or average values. The consequence is that comprehensive and definitive determinations of the ionospheric electric potential \( \Phi \) and the associated \( \Phi_{PC} \) have yet to be made.
[5] The technique developed by Ruohoniemi and Baker [1998], however, has some benefits over other techniques. This method involves fitting an expansion of spherical harmonic functions to Doppler measurements of the drifting ionospheric plasma provided by the Super Dual Auroral Radar Network (SuperDARN) coherent backscatter radars [Ruohoniemi and Baker, 1998], heretofore referred to as the Johns Hopkins University (JHU)/Applied Physics Laboratory (APL) fitting technique, or simply APL FIT. While SuperDARN is not exempt from spatial and temporal limitations, and sparse data from a statistical model [e.g., Ruohoniemi and Greenwald, 1996] are used to prevent nonphysical solutions in areas lacking measurements, the coverage provided by these radars is often a significant portion of the high-latitude ionosphere. Indeed, Shepherd and Ruohoniemi [2000] show that at times the coverage is sufficient to effectively determine a global solution of $\Phi$ in the high-latitude ionosphere based on the radar measurements. During such periods, and even during periods with less stringent data coverage requirements than shown by Shepherd and Ruohoniemi [2000], $\Phi_{PC}$ is well-defined by the APL FIT technique.

[6] In this study we use APL FIT to determine $\Phi_{PC}$ for 9464 10-min-averaged periods between 1 February 1998 and 31 December 2000. Solar wind conditions are provided by the Advanced Composition Explorer (ACE) satellite, orbiting around the so-called L1 Lagrangian point, for comparisons of $\Phi_{PC}$ with the solar wind conditions driving the ionospheric convection. The periods were chosen to minimize uncertainty in determining the geoeffective solar wind and interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) conditions and to occur during times when APL FIT provided a suitable determination of $\Phi_{PC}$. The results presented in this study comprise the most comprehensive comparison of SuperDARN-determined $\Phi_{PC}$ and solar wind conditions to date.

2. Procedure

[7] To properly study the relationship between the solar wind driver of ionospheric convection and $\Phi_{PC}$, care must be taken in selecting periods when (1) the measured solar wind conditions are known with some degree of certainty to be geoeffective and (2) the ionospheric data provide sufficient coverage in suitable locations to adequately define $\Phi_{PC}$. The details of the selection criteria, and the subsequent decimations of the data are described in sections 2.1 and 2.3.

2.1. Solar Wind Selection Criteria

[8] For this study we use level 2 solar wind and IMF data provided by the ACE science team. ACE was chosen because (1) the satellite is reasonably stationary near the so-called L1 Lagrangian point, thus providing relatively uninterrupted monitoring of the solar wind conditions, and (2) the epoch of the satellite best matches the period when SuperDARN provides the most coverage (see section 2.3). The time range of this study is bounded by the availability of the ACE and SuperDARN data. The earliest ACE solar wind data are from February 1998, and at the time of the study, SuperDARN data were available through December 2000. This study, therefore, extends from February 1998 through December 2000.

[9] To investigate the relationship between the solar wind and ionospheric convection, we choose to average the data over periods of 10 min. It is possible that by doing so we are missing the effects of variability with shorter timescales, but we question whether variability on such a short timescale is geoeffective to the large-scale convection. Therefore the level 2 Magnetometer Instrument (MAG) (16 s) and Solar Wind Electron Proton Alpha Monitor (SWEPAM) (64 s) are averaged over all 10-min periods bounded by the study time range, and a stability criteria is applied to the averaged data to determine which periods to include in the study.

[10] The primary reason for requiring quasi-stability of the solar wind and IMF is to minimize the effect that uncertainties inherent in determining the time delay between observation at L1 and the subsequent time of geoeffective impact in the ionosphere have on comparing the true solar wind conditions and the resulting ionospheric response. The uncertainty in timing the ionospheric response to IMF changes in the solar wind can be >10 min [e.g., Ridley et al., 1998; Collier et al., 1998; Ridley, 2000]. By requiring the solar wind to be quasi-stable for several 10-min-averaged periods, the solar wind and IMF conditions (in the averaged sense) measured at L1, when time-delayed using a standard technique, are certain to be geoeffective for some, if not all, of the 10-min periods. While uncertainties remain in the predicted delay time between measurements at L1 and in the ionosphere, the predicted geoeffective conditions during quasi-stable periods are statistically more accurate. In the extreme example the solar wind and IMF are both constants, and while the time delay may still be uncertain, the geoeffective solar wind conditions are known with absolute certainty. For this study we selected periods which satisfied the quasi-steady criteria for four or more consecutive 10-min averages, or $\geq 40$ min.

[11] The definition of quasi-stability we choose for this study is

\[ |\Delta E_{KL}| / E_{KL} < 7\%. \]

$E_{KL}$ is an expression used by Kan and Lee [1979] for the effective interplanetary electric field and corresponds to the fastest merging rate at the subsolar magnetopause [Sonnentrup, 1974] given by

\[ E_{KL} = V B_T \sin^2(\theta/2), \]

where $V$ is taken as the antisunward component of the solar wind velocity, $B_T = \sqrt{B_{Y1}^2 + B_{Z1}^2}$, and $\theta$ is the IMF clock angle in the $(Y-Z)$GSM plane, or $\theta = \cos^{-1}(B_Z/B_T)$. $\Delta E_{KL}$ is the difference between the minimum and maximum values of $E_{KL}$ during the entire $\geq 40$-min period. Several other studies have used $E_{KL}$ to demonstrate a correlation between the solar wind and $\Phi_{PC}$ [Reiff et al., 1981; Doyle and Burke, 1983; Weimer, 1995; Burke et al., 1999].

[12] An example period selected for this study is shown in Figure 1. Solid lines in Figures 1a–1f represent the level 2 ACE H$^{-}$ density, antisunward solar wind velocity, IMF magnitude, and IMF $B_X$, $B_Y$, and $B_Z$ components, respectively. The quantities $\theta$, $B_T$, and $E_{KL}$ from equation (2) are shown in Figures 1g–1i, respectively. The period which satisfies equation (1) is marked by vertical dotted lines at 1300 and 1350 UT on 19 April 2000 in Figure 1. Between
these two times, 10-min averages of each quantity are indicated by horizontal thick line segments \((E_{KL})\) is only calculated as 10-min averages, so it appears only as line segments), and a horizontal dotted line indicates the average value for the entire 50-min period, \(\langle E_{KL} \rangle = 21.4\ \text{kV} R_E^{-1}\). Figure 1j shows \(\Phi_{PC}\) determined by Applied Physics Laboratory (APL) fitting technique (FIT). The 10-min averages and averages for the 50-min period are shown in solid and dotted line segments, respectively.

\[ \Phi_{PC} \text{ over the five 10-min periods as a horizontal dotted line (}(\Phi_{PC}) = 76.8 \text{ kV}). \]

[13] Figure 2 shows the distribution of all the periods satisfying the quasi-stability criteria in equation (1) for three different percentages: 5, 7, and 10%. Figure 2a shows these distributions versus \(E_{KL}\) and, for comparison, versus the IMF \(B_Z\) component in Figure 2b. It can be seen that the general shape of the curves remains the same for the different percentages chosen, and thus the sampling is unbiased by the level of quasi-stability in the range 5–10%. We have selected 7% as a suitable value to use in equation (1) for this study. The choice of 7% increases the number of periods in the study from 5356 to 9464 over the 5% value, while maintaining a fairly restrictive stability requirement of the solar wind.

[14] The parameter \(E_{KL}\) depends on three solar wind quantities (IMF \(B_Z\), IMF \(B_X\), and \(V\)), and uncertainty in its value depends on the uncertainties of these quantities. The ACE level 2 MAG data (IMF \(B_Z\) and \(B_Y\)) are stated to have errors of <1 nT, and the ACE level 2 SWEPAM solar wind velocity data \((V)\) are stated to have errors of <1%. Using these values, it is found that for \(E_{KL} > 2 \text{kV} R_E^{-1}\) the uncertainty in \(E_{KL}\) is <4% and typically <2%. For values of \(E_{KL} < 2 \text{kV} R_E^{-1}\), which typically correspond to strongly northward IMF conditions with small (<<1 nT) IMF \(B_Y\), the uncertainty in \(E_{KL}\) can be much larger. However, relatively few of the total periods in this study fall into this category as seen in Figure 2a.

2.2. Lag Time Determination

[15] In order to directly compare the solar wind measurements from ACE to the corresponding ionospheric radar measurements, and because the statistical model pattern

\[ \text{Figure 2. Distribution of study periods in (a) } E_{KL} \text{ and (b) IMF } B_Z \text{ using 5, 7, and 10\% in equation (1). The middle value of 7\% was selected for this study.} \]
used in APL FIT is keyed to the IMF, we must determine the amount of time to delay the ACE measurements to allow for propagation to the ionosphere. This time delay, or lag time, between ACE and the ionosphere depends on the solar wind speed and density and can range from ~30 min to longer than 90 min.

[16] The sensitivity to errors in the determination of the lag time is greatly reduced by selecting time periods with quasi-stable solar wind and IMF conditions. A nominal value for the lag time is found by applying a relatively standard technique, whereby the lag time is comprised of three parts: the solar wind advection time $\tau_{sw}$, the magnetosheath transit time $\tau_{ms}$, and the Alfvén transit time along magnetic field lines from the subsolar magnetopause to the ionosphere, $\tau_{df}$.

[17] The three components are given by

$$\tau_{sw} = (X_{sw} - X_{ts})/v_{sw}, \quad \tau_{ms} = (X_{ms} - X_{mp})/v_{sw} \times 8, \quad \tau_{df} = 2\text{ min},$$

where $X_{sw}$ is the position of ACE projected onto the Sun-Earth line, $X_{ts}$ is the subsolar bow shock location following Peredo et al. [1995], $X_{mp}$ is the subsolar magnetopause location following Sibeck et al. [1991, 1992], and $v_{sw}$ is the antisunward solar wind speed (written as $\vec{v}$ in equation (1)). The 2-min value chosen for Alfvén transit time is the average of the 1–3 min thought to occur in practice [e.g., Lester et al., 1993; Khan and Cowley, 1999]. The factor of 8 in equation (4) is due to the sloping of the plasma in the magnetosheath [Spreiter and Stahara, 1994].

2.3. Cross Polar Cap Potential Determination

[18] As mentioned in section 1, we use APL FIT to determine a global solution of $\Phi$ in the high-latitude ionosphere from which $\Phi_{PC}$ is easily found. Ruohoniemi and Baker [1998] give explicit details of this technique, and subsequent improvements are explained in the appendix of Shepherd and Ruohoniemi [2000]. Briefly, the LOS velocity measurements from each SuperDARN HF radar are mapped onto a grid of roughly equal area cells (~110 km x 110 km) in the region >50° latitude, using the geomagnetic coordinate system described by Baker and Wing [1989]. Additional data vectors from the statistical model of Ruohoniemi and Greenwald [1996] are sparsely added to the grid in order to prevent the solution from becoming nonphysical in regions where no data are available. The choice of the particular model data is determined by the magnitude and orientation of the IMF conditions at the magnetopause.

[19] An expression for $\Phi$ is obtained by fitting the LOS and model data to an expansion of spherical harmonic basis functions. The order of the expansion is chosen in such a manner as to represent the global character of the convection while retaining local features observed by the radars. For this study all fittings were performed to order 8.

[20] Figure 3 shows the solution of $\Phi$ obtained from APL FIT for the example period in Figure 1. Each 10-min period is shown on a grid of magnetic local time (MLT) and magnetic latitude ≥60° [Baker and Wing, 1989]. The locations of SuperDARN measurements are denoted by markers consisting of dots and vector tails. The tail points in the direction of the solved velocity at that location, and its length indicates the magnitude according to the scale in the upper right corner of Figure 3.

[21] Contours of $\Phi$ are spaced at 6-kV intervals. The potential extrema are indicated in each cell by a plus sign and negative sign for the dawn and dusk cells, respectively. $\Phi_{PC}$ is simply the difference between these two values and is shown in the lower left corner of each plot. In the lower right corner the $(Y - Z)_{GSM}$ components of the IMF, measured at ACE and lagged according to equations (3), (4), and (5), are shown.

[22] The fitted solutions of $\Phi$ in Figures 3a–3e show a two-cell convection pattern with antisunward flow over the polar cap and sunward return flow along the dawn and dusk flanks that is typical of IMF $B_Z < 0$. Evidence of the relatively strong (~10 nT) IMF $B_Y > 0$ can be seen in the dayside ionosphere in the form of flow toward the dawn sector across 1200 MLT between 75° and 80° and the existence of a more crescent-shaped dawn cell and a more circular dusk cell [Heppner, 1972; Crooker, 1979; Heelis, 1984; Reiff and Burch, 1985; Greenwald et al., 1990].

[23] During the example period shown in Figures 3a–3e, backscatter from SuperDARN HF radars was observed over a large region of the dayside between ~0600 and 1800 MLT and, in some areas, from <65° to nearly 90° latitude. There is also a large region of the postmidnight sector from which backscatter was observed. During this period, $\Phi$ is much more structured than statistical models would prescribe for the given IMF [e.g., Ruohoniemi and Greenwald, 1996; Weimer, 2001]. While mesoscale structures evolve throughout the 50-min period, the main feature of these patterns is the steady increase in $\Phi_{PC}$, from 67 to 86 kV, attributed to an expansion of the region containing large (~1 km s⁻¹) zonal velocities in the postnoon dayside sector and the increase in large sunward velocities in the dusk sector around 0400 MLT.

[24] Figure 1j shows a time series of $\Phi_{PC}$ during this period. The solid line represents $\Phi_{PC}$ as determined using APL FIT with the standard 2-min resolution SuperDARN data [Greenwald et al., 1995]. The 10-min averaged $\Phi_{PC}$ values and the average for the entire 50-min period are shown as solid and dotted horizontal line segments, respectively.

[25] Despite the quasi-stable solar wind and IMF conditions, there is quite large variability in $\Phi_{PC}$. The range of the 10-min-averaged $\Phi_{PC}$ is 67–86 kV, and the range of the 2-min $\Phi_{PC}$ is 60–87 kV.

[26] For this study a solution of $\Phi$ is determined using APL FIT for each 10-min period that satisfies equation (1). For each of these periods the number of data points (a data point is defined as a grid cell containing LOS data from a single SuperDARN radar) in each MLT sector is extracted and used to select a subset of periods for which the SuperDARN data provide sufficient coverage to adequately define $\Phi_{PC}$. While complete coverage of the entire high-latitude ionosphere is ideal for a truly definitive determination of $\Phi_{PC}$, this situation never occurs in practice. It is, however, possible to accurately determine $\Phi_{PC}$ with significantly less coverage. For instance, a “polar cap” determination of $\Phi_{PC}$ is possible by measuring only the flow in the polar cap region between the two potential extrema. Like-
wise, an “auroral” determination of $\Phi_{PC}$ is also possible by measuring only the flow at latitudes below each of the potential extrema. Our usual approach is the “polar cap” solution, which, in practice, can be obtained with as few as two SuperDARN radars, provided the backscatter is sufficient in extent and the radars are making measurements in the proper MLT sector (usually the dayside near 1200 MLT and looking into the convection throat). Periods with much less than total coverage of the high-latitude ionosphere can therefore be suitable for determining $\Phi_{PC}$.

[27] Several definitions of adequate coverage are possible, and after trying various formulations involving the number and location of data points we define suitable coverage as those times when $>200$ data points exist in the dayside (0600–1800 MLT) ionosphere or $>400$ data points exist anywhere in the high-latitude region. This criteria does not guarantee that SuperDARN measurements are made over the entire region spanning the potential extrema, but it is our experience that this is most often the case. More than 200 data points in the dayside region almost always ensures that the convection throat region is adequately sampled, and more than 400 data points overall includes periods when the nightside convection out of the throat is well-defined and periods when the polar cap is contracted and the former criteria is overly restrictive.

[28] One final selection criteria is imposed on the data set. Because there is some uncertainty in the propagation time of the solar wind observations at ACE, the first and last 10-min period of each quasi-stable period $\geq 40$ min is dropped from the final data set to allow for $\pm 10$ min uncertainty in the propagation time.

[29] To summarize the various restrictions imposed on the data sets and the corresponding decimations to the number of periods included in the study, we begin by selecting quasi-stable periods of the solar wind and IMF conditions. A total of 9464 10-min periods result from searching the ACE level 2 MAG and SWEPAM data for events that satisfy equation (1) for $\geq 40$ min. Of these matches, 2721 10-min periods satisfy the condition that either $>200$ SuperDARN data points are present in the dayside sector or $>400$ total SuperDARN data points are present in the high-latitude region. Finally, the first and last 10-min periods for each event lasting $\geq 40$ min are dropped, reducing the number of periods to 1638. This subset of 10-min periods represents those times when (1) the solar wind driving conditions at the magnetopause and

**Figure 3.** Solutions of the electrostatic potential $\Phi$ using APL FIT for the example period shown in Figure 1. The lag time of the IMF measured at ACE is calculated using equations (3), (4), and (5), and the fitting is performed to order 8. Arrows indicate the position of SuperDARN measurements and denote the direction of the fitted velocity determination at that location. The magnitude of each fitted velocity determination is indicated by the length of the arrow. Contours are spaced at 6-kV increments to represent the electrostatic potential $\Phi$. 

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are both well-known. These high-confidence periods form the basis of our statistical study of $\Phi_{PC}$ and the solar wind driver.

3. Results

[30] For comparison purposes, $\Phi_{PC}$ is calculated using APL FIT for all 9464 10-min periods satisfying the quasi-stability condition imposed on the solar wind and IMF in equation (1) in addition to the subset of 1638 high-confidence periods described in section 2.3. Figure 4 shows the resulting values of $\Phi_{PC}$ versus $E_{KL}$ for both sets of 10-min periods. A histogram on the right of each plot shows the distribution of $\Phi_{PC}$ values. For each whole number of $E_{KL}$ up to 40 kV $R_{E}^{-1}$, a sliding, linear least squares fit was performed to the data within a 10 kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ window centered on that value. The resulting fit and corresponding $2\sigma$ standard deviations are shown as dark line segments bounded by lighter line segments. For the data in the range $E_{KL} > 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ a single fit was performed due to the sparsity of data at high values of $E_{KL}$. Four specific 10-min periods are shown by larger dots and marked by the numbers 0–3. The APL FIT solutions for these four periods are shown in later figures.

[31] Several noteworthy features of the data are illustrated in Figure 4. Of particular note is the similarity between the entire set of 9464 10-min periods (Figure 4a) and the subset of 1638 high-confidence periods (Figure 4b). Except for very large values of $E_{KL}$ ($>\sim 60$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$), the data distributions have much the same character for both sets of periods. For $E_{KL} < 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ the fitted line segments for both data sets have similar values, slopes, and standard deviations (above $\sim 30$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$, low statistics begin to affect the slope determinations). Because the set of all 10-min periods is determined without regard to the degree of data coverage from the SuperDARN radars, it includes periods when the SuperDARN data are insufficient to fully define $\Phi_{PC}$ and $\Phi_{PC}$ is consequently determined to a large degree by the statistical model. The similarity between the two data sets for $E_{KL} \sim <40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ therefore implies that $\Phi_{PC}$ of the statistical model patterns used in APL FIT are accurate in the statistical sense with those values calculated from the high-confidence periods, i.e., when the SuperDARN data adequately constrain the solution of $\Phi_{PC}$. Of course, the inherent nature of statistical quantities ensures that the convection patterns derived by Ruohoniemi and Greenwald [1996] appear smoothed or averaged when compared to any particular solution of $\Phi$; however, it seems that $\Phi_{PC}$ is well-defined statistically by these patterns for $E_{KL} < \sim 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$.

[32] The trends for $E_{KL} > 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ are somewhat different between the two data sets. In Figure 4a the best fit line segment to the data from the entire set of 10-min periods is roughly flat in this range, but Figure 4b shows a definite increase in the mean $\Phi_{PC}$ as $E_{KL}$ increases. Part of the reason for this difference is due to the statistical models used in APL FIT. Values of $E_{KL}$ larger than 40 kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ correspond to IMF $B_{z} < 0$ with a magnitude $>\sim 12$ nT. The largest IMF magnitude bin of Ruohoniemi and Greenwald [1996] is 6–12 nT, where the mean value of the IMF for the data used to construct these patterns was $\sim 7$ nT. Consequently, for some of the periods shown in Figure 4a, where $E_{KL} > 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ and the data coverage is below our threshold, $\Phi_{PC}$ is determined to a large extent by the statistical models, which most likely underestimate $\Phi_{PC}$ for the largest values of $E_{KL}$. The full range of $\Phi_{PC}$ is therefore not represented in the determination of the mean for $E_{KL} > 40$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ in Figure 4a. Hence the mean is lower than it is for the high-confidence periods in Figure 4b for which the statistical models have much less impact.

[33] Another obvious feature in Figure 4 is the significantly nonlinear relationship between $\Phi_{PC}$ and $E_{KL}$. The slope of each line segment fit to the data in Figure 4 steadily decreases as $E_{KL}$ increases; that is, there is no evident range of $E_{KL}$ where $\Phi_{PC}$ is truly linear. In contrast to these results are the linear relations of $\Phi_{PC}$ determined in other studies. Burke et al. [1999] use the same data from DE 2 and the same technique used by Weimer [1995, 1996] to show that $\Phi_{PC}$ is linear to a very good agreement with $E_{KL}$ for values $<30$ kV $R_{E}^{-1}$ (Figure 3a [Burke et al., 1999]). However, it should also be noted that in the same study, and using a
limited range of S3-2 data, this linear relationship appears much less convincing, and much more scatter is evident in the data (Figure 3d [Burke et al., 1999]).

[35] In another study that uses low-altitude, high-latitude spacecraft measurements of drifting ionospheric plasma to estimate $\Phi_{PC}$, Boyle et al. [1997] determine an empirical relationship for $\Phi_{PC}$ given by

$$\Phi_{PC} = 10^{-4}v^2 + 11.7B\sin^2(\theta/2) \text{ kV}, \hspace{1cm} (6)$$

where $v$ is the solar wind velocity in km s$^{-1}$, $B$ is the magnitude of the IMF in nanoteslas, and $\theta = \cos^{-1}(B_Z/B)_{GSM}$. Figure 5 shows the results of applying equation (6) to the solar wind conditions measured during all of the periods used in the study as well as sliding, linear least squares fits and 2σ deviations to these calculated values for direct comparison to the APL FIT results shown in Figure 4. While the relation in equation (6) is not strictly linear in $E_{KL}$, the data follow a linear trend to good agreement.

[35] Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the two differing views of the relationship between $\Phi_{PC}$ and the merging electric field. The APL FIT data suggest that $\Phi_{PC}$ is nonlinearly related to the merging electric field and saturates at large values of $E_{KL}$, while the Boyle et al. [1997] model suggests that $\Phi_{PC}$ continues to increase without limit. While the lower limit of $\Phi_{PC}$ is $\sim$20 kV for both data sets, the APL FIT data show a deviation from linearity for values of $E_{KL}$ even below $\sim$20 kV $R_E^{-1}$. To better show the different behavior of the two data sets, Figure 6 shows the slopes of the line segments for $E_{KL} < 50$ kV $R_E^{-1}$ from Figures 4 and 5. Note that above $\sim$30 kV $R_E^{-1}$ the statistics are low, causing the fittings to be somewhat erratic above these values. A second set of axes are added to Figure 6 to show the value of an effective IMF $B_Z$ if the IMF is assumed to be purely southward and a nominal value of 450 km s$^{-1}$ is assumed for the solar wind speed. The trends in the data, shown by dashed lines, illustrate that $\Phi_{PC}$ using APL FIT saturates, while the Boyle et al. [1997] model does not.

[36] It has long been theorized that $\Phi_{PC}$ saturates during extremely strong IMF conditions [Hill et al., 1976]. Supporting this idea, some earlier studies using low-altitude spacecraft found that $\Phi_{PC}$ rarely exceeded 160 kV [Reiff et al., 1981; Reiff and Luhmann, 1986]. There are reports of $\Phi_{PC}$ reaching values of 230 kV during storm periods [e.g., Sojka et al., 1994], and Boyle et al. [1997], using a larger data set of low-altitude spacecraft that included DMSP, found that there is no evidence of saturation of $\Phi_{PC}$. It should, however, be noted that because the more desirable dawn-dusk DMSP passes normally used to determine $\Phi_{PC}$ were limited in number for large IMF, Boyle et al. [1997] used a fitting technique to estimate $\Phi_{PC}$ for DMSP passes in all MLT sectors. It should also be noted that in their study the observed total potential variation was rarely observed to exceed 150 kV. For the largest values of $E_{KL} (>100$ kV $R_E^{-1}$) in our study the model given by equation (6) predicts values of $\Phi_{PC}$ that exceed 450 kV, which to our knowledge, have not been observed. More recently, Siscoe et al. [2002] show evidence during storm periods that $\Phi_{PC}$ does indeed saturate for large values of the solar wind electric field.

[37] The question of whether the ionosphere can support such large values of $\Phi_{PC}$ or whether saturation occurs is an important aspect of M-I coupling. How the ionospheric convection electric field and the magnetospheric and ionospheric currents systems interact in a self-consistent manner is still an unresolved issue. The evidence we show in

Figure 5. $\Phi_{PC}$ computed from the solar wind observations of this study using the model of Boyle et al. [1997] for the periods shown in Figure 4. A sliding, linear least squares fit to the data and 2σ deviations are computed and shown in the same format as Figure 4.

Figure 6. Slopes of the linear least squares fits to 10 kV $R_E^{-1}$ wide ranges of $E_{KL}$, shown as line segments in Figures 4b (dots) and 5b (squares). Saturation of $\Phi_{PC}$ for large values of $E_{KL}$ is suggested by the APL FIT data, in contrast to a linear trend evident in the Boyle et al. [1997] model data. Statistics are low for $E_{KL} > 30$ kV $R_E^{-1}$.
favor of saturation is that \( \Phi_{PC} \) is nonlinear throughout the range of \( E_{KL} \), shown here and that \( \Phi_{PC} \) has an upper limit of \( \sim 150 \) kV. Figure 6 shows the trend of \( \Delta \Phi_{PC}/\Delta E_{KL} \) steadily decreasing with increasing \( E_{KL} \). In addition, for no period in the entire study does \( \Phi_{PC} \) exceed 130 kV, even for very large values of \( E_{KL} \). In fact, it is rare for \( \Phi_{PC} \) to exceed \( \sim 140 \) kV using the APL FIT technique as described by Ruohoniemi and Baker [1998] and Shepherd and Ruohoniemi [2000], even at 2-min resolution [e.g., Shepherd et al., 2000].

[38] It should be noted, however, that while the data from this study suggest that saturation of \( \Phi_{PC} \) occurs, difficulties arise in using the APL FIT technique for large values of IMF \( B_z \leq 0 \) and \( E_{KL} \). The problem occurs when the coupling between the solar wind and magnetosphere is exceptionally favorable for extended periods of time, and the rapidly reconnecting magnetic flux at the dayside magnetopause causes the lower latitude boundary of convection to expand to magnetic latitudes equatorward of \( \sim 55^\circ \). The SuperDARN radars in the Northern Hemisphere are located between 56° and 65° magnetic latitude. Because of the propagation conditions necessary to achieve perpendicularity to the magnetic field at ionospheric altitudes and detect backscatter, the effective lowest magnetic latitude for observing backscatter tends to range from 58° to 63°, depending on the radar. That being said, because the convection region is constrained to relatively higher magnetic latitudes on the dayside [e.g., Heppner and Maynard, 1987], significant coverage of the dayside region and therefore determination of \( \Phi_{PC} \) can be achieved even when the convection region is expanded to below 50° on the nightside.

[39] In order to determine better whether the statistical results of Figure 4 actually confirm that \( \Phi_{PC} \) saturates at high values of \( E_{KL} \), we look at several individual periods from the study in more detail. Figures 7a, 7b, 8a, and 8b, show the solutions of APL FIT for the four periods labeled 0–3, respectively, in Figure 4b. These periods are chosen to illustrate relatively high and low values of \( \Phi_{PC} \) for two values of \( E_{KL} \), 15 kV \( R_E \) and \( \sim 35 \) kV \( R_E^{-1} \).

[40] The APL FIT solutions for the periods 0514–0524 UT on 19 March 2000 and 1748–1758 UT on 30 March 2000 are shown in Figure 7. For these periods, \( E_{KL} = 15.3 \) kV \( R_E^{-1} \) and 13.7 kV \( R_E^{-1} \), respectively. Despite roughly equal values of \( E_{KL} \), lower latitude limits of convection (\( \sim 65^\circ \)), and the amount of SuperDARN data coverage, the resulting values of \( \Phi_{PC} \) (95 and 37 kV) are dramatically different. For both periods the SuperDARN data coverage is sufficiently extended and suitably located to adequately define the solution of \( \Phi_{PC} \). The difference between these two periods is that the observed convection on 19 March 2000 is dominated by a large region of flow \( > 1 \) km s\(^{-1} \) in the dayside convection throat region, while on 30 March 2000 the convection is observed over most of the high-latitude dayside to be exclusively \( < 1 \) km s\(^{-1} \). The character of the convection and hence \( \Phi_{PC} \) is dramatically different for these two periods.

[41] Figure 8 shows the APL FIT solutions for the periods 1622–1632 UT on 26 September 1999 and 2225–2302 UT on 22 January 2000. For these periods, \( E_{KL} = 36.0 \) kV \( R_E^{-1} \) and 35.0 kV \( R_E^{-1} \), while \( \Phi_{PC} = 98 \) and 78 kV, respectively. Despite the lower latitude convection boundary extending below 60°, in both cases there is good coverage from the SuperDARN radars. The convection on 26 September 1999 shows two regions of flow 1 km s\(^{-1} \) in the prenoon dayside and dusk sectors, as would be expected for higher values of \( E_{KL} \) and more effective penetration of the solar wind electric field. On 22 January 2000 the convection is observed from 1100–0100 UT to be exclusively \( < 1 \) km s\(^{-1} \). For both of these cases the true \( \Phi_{PC} \) is most likely somewhat higher than the computed values given the expanded nature of the convection region; however, the 22 January 2000 period clearly indicates that \( \Phi_{PC} \) is much less than the \( \sim 188 \) kV potential predicted by the Boyle et al. [1997] model given by equation (6).

[42] These four periods reinforce the nonlinear trend of \( \Phi_{PC} \) shown in Figure 4b and the low values of \( \Phi_{PC} \) like that in Figure 8b, and together with a maximum value of \( \sim 125 \) kV for this study these periods strongly suggest that \( \Phi_{PC} \) does indeed saturate at high values of \( E_{KL} \). Because of the difficulty previously mentioned in achieving backscatter during times when the convection region is expanded to midlatitudes, the saturation value is most likely above the 125-kV maximum observed. It should also be emphasized that these results are for 10-min-averaged periods during which the solar wind and IMF conditions are quasi-stable for \( \geq 40 \) min. A different conclusion is possible for periods of nonsteady solar wind and IMF conditions; however, since it has recently been demonstrated that ionospheric convection responds rapidly (\( \sim 2 \) min) to changes in the IMF [Ruohoniemi et al., 2002, and references therein], these results are likely to also apply during more dynamic conditions.

[43] Another important aspect shown by the data in Figure 4 and emphasized in Figures 7 and 8 is the amount of variability in \( \Phi_{PC} \) for all values of \( E_{KL} \). Where the statistics are greatest (\( \sim 5 \geq E_{KL} \geq \sim 20 \)), the standard deviations of the line segment fittings are 9–12 kV. Similar values are found for the other ranges of \( E_{KL} \), but the statistics are lower. These rather large variations are surprising given the stability of the solar wind and IMF during these periods. The solid line in Figure 1j shows that \( \Phi_{PC} \) determined using APL FIT with the standard 2-min resolution SuperDARN data is even more variable than the 10-min-averaged data.

[44] It is possible that the solar wind and IMF change enough during the transit from ACE through the solar wind and the magnetosheath to account for the observed variability in \( \Phi_{PC} \); however, several studies suggest that the solar wind remains relatively unchanged over this distance [e.g., Prikril et al., 1998]. Maynard et al. [2001] claim that even small-scale structure in \( E_{KL} \) measured 200 \( R_E \) upstream in the solar wind remains coherent to a remarkable degree into the dayside ionospheric cusp.

[45] Since \( \Phi_{PC} \) is a global parameter and the ionosphere requires a finite amount of time to reconfigure to changes at the magnetopause [Ruohoniemi et al., 2002], small-scale fluctuations in \( E_{KL} \) most likely have little affect on \( \Phi_{PC} \). It is more likely that some internal processes such as variable ionospheric conductivity due to particle precipitation or variable reconnection rates in the magnetotail are responsible for the large variability in \( \Phi_{PC} \). Theories have long suggested that the ionosphere is capable of regulating magnetospheric convection [Coroniti and Kennel, 1973].
It is apparent that a more complicated expression that includes the contribution of magnetic field line merging in the magnetotail is needed to fully describe the dynamics of $\Phi_{PC}$ and its relationship to other geophysical parameters. It is undoubtedly the case that reconnection in the magnetotail, possibly during substorms, will contribute to $\Phi_{PC}$, and it is possible that some models of ionospheric flow [e.g., Siscoe and Huang, 1985] would account for the observed variability in $\Phi_{PC}$ during quasi-stable solar wind conditions. Siscoe et al. [2002] attempt to provide a more comprehensive description of the behavior of $\Phi_{PC}$ by proposing a model based on the work of Hill et al. [1976]. In their study an expression for $\Phi_{PC}$ is given that includes a contribution from the Region 1 current system in terms of the solar wind parameters. Their model saturates for large values of $E_{KL}$; however, a further study is necessary to confirm whether the model matches the data presented in our study.

### 4. Summary

[46] We have carefully selected a set of 10-min-averaged periods from February 1998 through December 2000 to study the relationship between the solar wind and IMF conditions and $\Phi_{PC}$. The periods were chosen such that (1) the solar wind and IMF conditions at the ACE spacecraft were quasi-stable for $\geq 40$ min and (2) the coverage of...
SuperDARN backscatter was adequate to determine $\Phi_{PC}$. To satisfy the stability criteria it was decided that the effective interplanetary electric field $E_{KL}$ could not vary by more than 7% for the $\geq$40-min period, making the calculation of the transit time from ACE to the ionosphere less critical. Suitable ionospheric coverage is defined as those times when $>200$ SuperDARN data points exist in the dayside sector (0600–1800 MLT) or $>400$ data points exist anywhere in the high-latitude region. A total of 9464 10-min-averaged periods were found to satisfy the first criteria, and a subset of 2721 10-min periods satisfied both criteria. By dropping the first and last 10-min period of each event, 1638 high-confidence periods remain.

[47] The resulting solutions of $\Phi_{PC}$ obtained by applying the APL FIT technique to the set of 10-min-averaged periods show that for quasi-steady solar wind and IMF, $\Phi_{PC}$ (1) is nonlinear in $E_{KL}$, (2) saturates at high values of $E_{KL}$, and (3) is extremely variable for all values of $E_{KL}$. These results indicate that simple formulations involving the upstream solar wind and IMF conditions are inadequate to describe the instantaneous $\Phi_{PC}$ in anything but a statistical sense. A model that includes internal processes, such as that developed by Hill et al. [1976] and Siscoe et al. [2002], is necessary to describe the relationship between the solar wind parameters, $\Phi_{PC}$, and possibly other geomagnetic parameters. Further study is necessary to confirm the fit of these models with the data in our study.

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