

1 **Solar Wind-Magnetosphere Energy Coupling Efficiency and Partitioning: HILDCAAs and**
2 **Preceding CIR-Storms during Solar Cycle 23**

3
4 **Running title:** HILDCAA energy budget

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18
19 **Key Points**

- 20 • Coupling efficiency for HILDCAAs is lower than for CIR and ICME-driven storms
21 • About 2/3rd of solar wind energy input goes into Joule heating during HILDCAAs
22 • Joule dissipation during HILDCAAs is larger than that for CIR-storms

23

Abstract

24
25
26 A quantitative study on the energetics of the solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere system
27 during High-Intensity, Long-Duration, Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAA) events was
28 performed for over a solar cycle (SC 23) period, from 1995 through 2008. For comparative
29 purposes, the energy budget of the preceding corotating interaction region (CIR)-driven storms
30 (when they occurred) were also analyzed. During HILDCAAs, the average energy transferred to
31 the magnetospheric/ionospheric system was determined to be $\sim 6.3 \times 10^{16}$ J, two orders of
32 magnitude lower than the solar wind ram kinetic energy ($\sim 7.1 \times 10^{18}$ J). The energy coupling
33 efficiency of HILDCAAs, defined by the percentage of the solar wind energy input to the solar
34 wind kinetic energy, varied between 0.3% and 2.8% for the individual events studied. This is
35 lower than the coupling efficiency ($\sim 1\%$ to 5.4%) during CIR-driven geomagnetic storm main
36 phases, which in turn is lower than the $> 5\%$ coupling efficiency noted for storms driven by
37 interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICMEs) and their sheaths. This lower efficiency of CIR-
38 storms (than ICME-storms) is presumably due to the ineffective northward IMF B_z components
39 present in the compressed CIR magnetic fields. It is speculated that the HILDCAA coupling
40 efficiency is the lowest of the three due to the lower solar wind plasma densities during the latter
41 events. During HILDCAAs, $\sim 67\%$ of the solar wind energy input went into Joule heating, $\sim 22\%$
42 in auroral precipitation and $\sim 11\%$ into the ring current energy. The HILDCAA Joule dissipation
43 percentage was significantly larger than for the preceding CIR-storms ($\sim 49\%$), while the ring
44 current injection values were comparable for the two. Joule dissipation was higher for
45 HILDCAAs that occurred after CIR-storms (88%) than for isolated HILDCAAs ($\sim 60\%$) (not
46 preceded by storms). The solar cycle dependence of HILDCAA energetics was also examined.

47 During the solar cycle descending and minimum phases, the majority of HILDCAAs occurred
48 when the average solar wind speed (V_{sw}) was > 550 - 650 km/s. For these cases, the solar wind
49 energy input was well-correlated with dissipation energy (correlation coefficient $r \geq 0.74$).
50 During the ascending and maximum phases, most HILDCAAs were associated with average
51 $V_{sw} < 500$ km/s streams and the correlation with dissipation energy was poor or insignificant.
52 Possible physical interpretations for the statistical results obtained in this paper are discussed.

53

54 **Index Terms**

55 Magnetospheric physics (Auroral phenomena; Magnetic reconnection; Solar
56 wind/magnetosphere interactions; Ring current; Magnetic storms and substorms)

57

58 **Keywords**

59 Solar wind-magnetosphere energy coupling efficiency; Magnetospheric energy partitioning;
60 HILDCAAs; CIR storms; Joule heating; Auroral particle precipitation; Ring current injection

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62 **1. Introduction**

63

64 The aim of this work is to study the solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere energetics during
65 High-Intensity, Long-Duration, Continuous AE Activity (HILDCAA) events [*Tsututani and*
66 *Gonzalez, 1987*] and compare with those of preceding corotating interaction region (CIR)-driven
67 storms (when they occurred). Present study includes events occurring during a period from 1995
68 through 2008, covering solar cycle (SC) 23.

69

70 Both HILDCAAs and CIRs are associated with high-speed ($\sim 750\text{-}800$ km/s) streams (HSSs)
71 emanating from solar coronal holes [Sheeley *et al.*, 1976; Tsurutani *et al.*, 1995]. If the coronal
72 holes last for more than a solar rotation period (~ 27 days), the corresponding HSSs appear to
73 “corotate” with the Sun, very much like water spewing from a lawn sprinkler. These HSSs, when
74 they interact with slow-speed ($\sim 300\text{-}400$ km/s) streams near the ecliptic plane, give rise to
75 compressed plasma and magnetic field regions, the so-called CIRs [Smith and Wolfe, 1976;
76 Pizzo, 1985; Balogh *et al.*, 1999]. CIRs are usually formed adjacent to or embedded within the
77 heliospheric current sheet [Tsurutani *et al.*, 1995]. The high plasma densities near the
78 heliospheric current sheet (called the heliospheric plasma sheet) [Winterhalter *et al.*, 1994] and
79 separately, the plasma compressions within the CIR, both cause increases in solar wind ram
80 pressure. Both compress the magnetosphere. These compressions cause gradual storm initial
81 phases prior to the storm main phases [see schematic in Tsurutani *et al.*, 1995]. CIRs, which are
82 characterized by embedded and amplified Alfvén waves, usually lead to weak or moderate
83 geomagnetic storms ($Dst > -100$ nT: Tsurutani and Gonzalez [1997], Alves *et al.* [2006]). The
84 CIR-storms are driven by magnetic reconnection of the southward component of the
85 interplanetary Alfvén waves to the Earth’s dayside magnetopause fields. The trailing HSS
86 contains nonlinear Alfvén waves [Belcher and Davis, 1971; Tsurutani *et al.*, 1994; Balogh *et al.*,
87 1995], but lower in amplitude due to the lower field strengths in the HSS proper. These Alfvén
88 waves cause sporadic but continuous magnetic reconnection at the magnetopause, resulting in
89 prolonged periods of geomagnetic activity that can last for days to weeks. The geomagnetic
90 activity has been called HILDCAAs [Tsurutani and Gonzalez, 1987; Tsurutani *et al.*, 1995,
91 2006a,b]. The HSS/HILDCAA interval usually appears as a “recovery phase” of the CIR-storm,

92 but in actuality is not really a pure recovery as energy is being injected into the magnetosphere
93 throughout the HILDCAA interval.

94

95 The orientation of the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) is the main controlling factor for the
96 solar wind energy transfer into the magnetosphere. The energy transfer is suggested to be a
97 consequence of magnetic reconnection between the southward component of IMF and the
98 Earth's magnetic field [*Dungey, 1961; Gonzalez and Mozer, 1974*]. *Gonzalez et al. [1994]*
99 showed that varying amplitudes and durations of IMF polarities may lead to a variable nature of
100 the solar wind-magnetosphere coupling and consequent geomagnetic activities like storms,
101 substorms and HILDCAAs. For deeper insight into better understanding of the geomagnetic
102 disturbances, detailed qualitative and quantitative studies on the energetics of the events are
103 important. Several case and statistical studies on the energy budget of geomagnetic storms and
104 substorms have been reported previously [e.g., *Weiss et al., 1992; Monreal-MacMahon and*
105 *Gonzalez, 1997; Tanskanen et al., 2002; Vichare et al., 2005; Rosenqvist et al., 2006; Turner et*
106 *al., 2006, 2009; de Lucas et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2011, 2012*]. However, there have been very
107 few, if any, quantitative studies on the HILDCAA energy budget. According to earlier studies
108 [*Gonzalez et al., 2006; Guarnieri, 2006; Tsurutani et al., 2006a*], storms and substorms tend to
109 have greater energetic electron fluxes (particle precipitation) in the upper polar atmosphere
110 causing auroras during their intervals. Substorms are more localized in space in the outer
111 magnetosphere and in local time near midnight, whereas storms can include larger regions of
112 auroral emissions in the inner magnetosphere. HILDCAAs, on the other hand, tend to involve
113 not only the auroral zone, but a large area of emission in the polar cap as well, although with less
114 intensity than storms [*Guarnieri, 2006*]. These results were based on case studies involving

115 several events using auroral images from the POLAR satellite. Low-level injection of protons
116 into the outer portion of ring current was also reported during HILDCAAs using observations
117 from the low-altitude polar orbiting NOAA 12 satellite [Søraas *et al.*, 2004]. These injections
118 were present only at $L > 4$. A quantitative study on the solar wind energy transfer and
119 magnetospheric/ionospheric energy partitioning during HILDCAAs has never been performed to
120 date.

121
122 *Hajra et al.* [2013] studied the long-term variability of HILDCAAs for about 3½ solar cycles
123 (1975-2011). They reported characteristic differences among HILDCAA events occurring during
124 different solar activity phases. In the present work, a quantitative study will be performed on the
125 solar wind-magnetosphere energy coupling and partitioning of the energy during HILDCAA
126 events and their preceding CIR-storms (when they occurred) for the first time.

127

128 **2. Data and Method of Analyses**

129

130 Recently *Hajra et al.* [2013] developed a database of HILDCAA events satisfying the four strict
131 “HILDCAA criteria” proposed by *Tsurutani and Gonzalez* [1987]. The criteria are that
132 HILDCAAs have peak AE intensity greater than 1,000 nT, last a minimum of 2 days, and the
133 high auroral activity continues without the AE value dropping below 200 nT for more than 2 h at
134 a time. Further, the events must occur outside the main phases of geomagnetic storms. We use
135 the *Akasofu* [1981] and *Gonzalez et al.* [1994] definition of a decrease in Dst with peak Dst ≤ -50
136 nT for a magnetic storm. A total of 133 HILDCAAs were identified during the period 1975-2011
137 when high resolution (1 min) AE and Dst data (1 h) were available (see *Hajra et al.* [2013] for a

138 detailed description of event identification). We use all 43 events occurring during 1995 to 2008
139 (SC 23) for the present study of the HILDCAA energy budget. Each HILDCAA event was
140 characterized by four parameters: (i) the time-integrated AE value throughout the event (IAE),
141 (ii) the average AE value during the event ($\langle AE \rangle$), (iii) the peak AE value for the event (AE_p),
142 and (iv) the duration of the event (D).

143
144 The HILDCAA events were separated into storm-preceded HILDCAAs (SH) and non-storm or
145 isolated HILDCAAs (H). HILDCAAs starting after the end of storm main phases and well inside
146 the storm recovery phases were defined as SH-events. The geomagnetic storms preceding these
147 SH-events were driven by CIRs. On the other hand, HILDCAAs not preceded by any storm main
148 phase were identified as H-events. Among the 43 events in the study, 32 were H-events and 11
149 were SH-events.

150
151 We further separated the events according to their occurrence in different solar cycle phases,
152 namely the ascending phase (1998-1999), solar maximum (2000-2002), the descending phase
153 (2003-2005) and solar minimum (1995-1997 and 2006-2008). For statistical studies, we
154 combined the events occurring during the ascending phase and solar maximum and call them
155 AMAX-events. We also combined the events occurring during the descending phase and solar
156 minimum and call them DMIN-events. The present study involves 11 AMAX-events and 32
157 DMIN-events. We formed these two groupings for two reasons. First, it was shown by *Hajra et*
158 *al.* [2013] that the properties of HILDCAAs, like AE intensity and duration, are comparable
159 during the descending phase and solar minimum, and likewise during the ascending phase and
160 solar maximum. DMIN-phase events are $> 20\%$ longer in duration than the AMAX-phase events.

161 The second reason is that there is a lack of sufficient number of events to conduct a statistical
 162 study if we consider the phases separately. Additional data from other solar cycles would be
 163 needed and this is beyond the scope of the present study.

164
 165 The solar wind ram kinetic energy budget was computed from the kinetic energy flux per unit
 166 time for particles in the interplanetary medium, $U_{sw} = N_{sw} V_{sw}^3 R_{CF}^2$. In this expression, V_{sw} and
 167 N_{sw} are the velocity and mass density of the solar wind, respectively. R_{CF} is the Chapman-
 168 Ferraro magnetopause distance [*Chapman and Ferraro, 1931; Ferraro, 1952*] obtained from the
 169 balance between the solar wind kinetic plasma pressure and the magnetospheric magnetic
 170 pressure [*Spreiter et al., 1966; Holzer and Slavin, 1979; Sibeck et al., 1991; Monreal-MacMahon*
 171 *and Gonzalez, 1997; Shue et al., 1997; Shue and Chao, 2013*]. The energy transfer rate from the
 172 solar wind to the magnetosphere was determined by the modified Akasofu parameter (ϵ^*):
 173 $V_{sw} B_o^2 \sin^4(\theta/2) R_{CF}^2$ [*Perreault and Akasofu, 1978*], where B_o is the IMF magnitude, θ is the
 174 clock angle between the geomagnetic field vector and the IMF vector at the front of the
 175 magnetosphere in the equatorial plane. Note that here we have altered the original Akasofu
 176 parameter by replacing a fixed magnetosphere scale size by R_{CF} , a solar wind pressure-related
 177 term [*Monreal-MacMahon and Gonzalez, 1997*]. The Akasofu expression is based on the
 178 consideration of reconnection as the responsible mechanism for the solar wind energy transfer
 179 into the magnetosphere.

180
 181 We estimated separately the rates of energy dissipation via Joule heating (U_J), auroral
 182 precipitation (U_A) and ring current injection (U_R). U_J was calculated according to the relations
 183 derived by *Knipp et al. [2004]*: $a|PC| + bPC^2 + c|Dst| + dDst^2$, where PC is the polar cap potential

184 index and the constants (a, b, c and d) depend on the seasons (northern hemispheric). To obtain a
185 global value (for both hemispheres) of U_J , northern hemispheric values were doubled during
186 equinoxes, while the summer estimate was added to the winter estimate for summer and winter
187 months. U_A was computed from NOAA/TIROS satellite measurements of high latitude
188 precipitating electron and ion fluxes with energies from 50 eV (or 300 eV) to 20 keV (see *Foster*
189 *et al.* [1986], *Evans* [1987], *Fuller-Rowell and Evans* [1987], *Emery et al.* [2006] for details).
190 Global U_A was calculated by adding a southern hemisphere estimate to a northern hemisphere
191 estimate. U_R is of the form: $dDst^*/dt + Dst^*/\tau$ [*Akasofu*, 1981], where Dst^* is the modified Dst
192 index after solar wind pressure-correction [*Burton et al.*, 1975] and removal of induced ground
193 current and magnetotail current effects [*Turner et al.*, 2001]. τ is the average ring current decay
194 time, taken as 8 h for the present study [*Yokoyama and Kamide*, 1997; *Guo et al.*, 2011]. The
195 total input and dissipation energies: E_{sw} , E_{ϵ^*} , E_J , E_A and E_R , were calculated by integrating the
196 power terms: U_{sw} , ϵ^* , U_J , U_A and U_R , respectively, during the entire intervals of each storm
197 main phase and HILDCAA event. The total solar wind input energy divided by the total solar
198 wind kinetic energy in percentage gives the coupling efficiency of each HILDCAA interval and
199 CIR-storm. Similarly, we estimated the dissipation rates as the percentage of total solar wind
200 input energy. It may be mentioned that the above-described methodology of estimation of
201 magnetospheric/ionospheric energy budget have been being widely used during geomagnetic
202 storms [e.g., *Turner et al.*, 2006, 2009; *Guo et al.*, 2011, 2012].

203

204 The AE (1 min time resolution), Dst (1 h) and SYM-H (1 min time resolution symmetric
205 horizontal component of ring current/Dst) indices were collected from the World Data Center for
206 Geomagnetism, Kyoto, Japan (<http://wdc.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp/>). Descriptions of the indices may be

207 found in *Sugiura* [1964], *Davis* and *Sugiura* [1966], and *Rostoker* [1972]. Solar
208 wind/interplanetary data at ~ 1 AU given at 1 min time resolution were obtained from the OMNI
209 website (<http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). OMNI interplanetary data had been already time
210 adjusted to take into account the solar wind convection time from the spacecraft to the bow
211 shock, so no further adjustments to the interplanetary data were necessary (see
212 http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/html/omni_min_data.html).

213

214

3. Results

215

3.1. Event case studies

216

217
218 Figure 1 shows examples of two HILDCAA events and their corresponding energetics. From top
219 to bottom, the panels show the variations of solar wind kinetic power (U_{sw}), solar wind-
220 magnetosphere coupling function (ϵ^*), ionospheric dissipation power (U_I), ring current injection
221 rate (U_R), IMF Bz, SYM-H and the AE indices. U_I involves rates of Joule heating (U_J) and
222 auroral particle precipitation (U_A). In the AE panels, the horizontal dash-dot lines indicate the
223 durations of the HILDCAAs. The event on the left panel was preceded by a CIR-induced storm
224 main phase (peak SYM-H = -103 nT). The July 2003 event on the right panel was not preceded
225 by a geomagnetic storm (peak SYM-H = -28 nT). Both events were associated with large-
226 amplitude fluctuations in IMF Bz. These fluctuations were most likely interplanetary Alfvén
227 waves that have been shown and discussed in many previous works [*Belcher and Davis*, 1971;
228 *Tsurutani et al.*, 1982, 1990, 2011a,b; *Tsurutani and Gonzalez*, 1987; *Echer et al.*, 2011].

229

230 For the SH-event during October 2003 (left panel of Figure 1), U_{sw} and ε^* were significantly
231 enhanced during the storm main phase. A peak in the U_R value also occurred during this phase.
232 However, the total (time-integrated) kinetic energy (E_{sw}), solar wind energy input ($E\varepsilon^*$) and
233 dissipation energies (E_J , E_A , E_R) were larger in the HILDCAA interval than in the storm main
234 phase. During the main phase, E_{sw} was $\sim 3.9 \times 10^{18}$ J, while it was $\sim 19.0 \times 10^{18}$ J during the
235 following HILDCAA period. During the main phase, $E\varepsilon^*$ available for redistribution in the inner
236 magnetosphere/ionosphere was $\sim 4.9 \times 10^{16}$ J, $\sim 1.3\%$ of E_{sw} . $E\varepsilon^*$ was $\sim 13.6 \times 10^{16}$ J, $\sim 0.7\%$ of
237 E_{sw} during HILDCAA interval. Clearly, a larger part of solar wind kinetic energy was available
238 for redistribution in magnetosphere/ionosphere during the main phase of the geomagnetic storm
239 than in the HILDCAA period, although the total available magnetospheric energy during
240 HILDCAA interval was ~ 3 times of that in the main phase. This indicates larger solar wind-
241 magnetosphere energy coupling efficiency during the main phase of the storm than in the
242 HILDCAA interval. Joule dissipation (E_J) during the storm main phase was $\sim 2.1 \times 10^{16}$ J, i.e.,
243 $\sim 43\%$ of $E\varepsilon^*$. E_J was $\sim 12.0 \times 10^{16}$ J, $\sim 88\%$ of $E\varepsilon^*$ during the HILDCAA interval. The energy was
244 also found to be dissipated in the auroral ionosphere in form of auroral particle precipitation
245 during the entire HILDCAA period. An interesting feature is the high-frequency fluctuation in
246 the ionospheric precipitation rates that is characteristic of HILDCAA events. The energies
247 dissipated by the process of ring current injection during the main phase ($\sim 9\%$ of $E\varepsilon^*$) and the
248 HILDCAA period ($\sim 15\%$ of $E\varepsilon^*$) were significantly smaller than those dissipated by Joule
249 heating.

250

251 The right panel of Figure 1 shows that the H-event during July 2003 was comparatively shorter
252 and weaker than the SH-event. Total solar wind kinetic energy ($E_{sw} \sim 7.1 \times 10^{18}$ J) and solar wind

253 energy input ($E\epsilon^* \sim 4.6 \times 10^{16}$ J) during the entire HILDCAA period were also significantly
254 smaller than the SH-event. Joule dissipation was $\sim 2.9 \times 10^{16}$ J, $\sim 62\%$ of $E\epsilon^*$. The ring current
255 injection ($\sim 5\%$ of $E\epsilon^*$) was insignificant compared to the former.

256

257 In the following sections, we perform statistical studies on the energy budget of HILDCAA
258 events occurring during SC 23 (1995-2008).

259

260 **3.2. HILDCAA energy budget**

261

262 The energy budget for all 43 HILDCAA events under study is shown in Figure 2 and
263 summarized in Table 1. The results of the storm main phases (11 events) are also included in
264 Table 1 for comparison. The upper panel of Figure 2 shows the histograms of different energy
265 components involved in the solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere system. The entire dataset
266 was binned into different energy ranges. All energy components exhibited large variations. The
267 downward pointing arrows indicate the corresponding median (dotted arrow) and mean (solid
268 arrow) values. The solar wind kinetic energy (E_{sw}) during HILDCAAs varied between 2.4×10^{18}
269 J and 19.0×10^{18} J with the most typical (mean) value being 7.1×10^{18} J. The solar wind energy
270 input ($E\epsilon^*$) varied between 1.4×10^{16} J and 19.3×10^{16} J with an average of 6.3×10^{16} J. A major
271 part of this was dissipated by Joule heating ($E_J \sim 3.9 \times 10^{16}$ J). The energy injected in the ring
272 current (E_R) varied between 0.1×10^{16} J and 2.1×10^{16} J with average of 0.6×10^{16} J for all events.
273 The average auroral precipitation energy (E_A) was $\sim 1.2 \times 10^{16}$ J.

274

275 The solar wind energy input (E_{ϵ^*}) was compared to the solar wind kinetic energy (E_{sw}) and the
276 dissipation energies (E_J , E_A and E_R) to the input energy (E_{ϵ^*}) during each event (Table 1 and
277 Figure 2, lower panel). The dataset was binned according to different values of the percentage
278 ratios. The lower panel of Figure 2 shows the numbers of events as a function of the percentage
279 ratios. It was observed that between 0.3% and 2.8% of the solar wind kinetic energy was
280 transferred to the magnetosphere during HILDCAA events. On average, E_{ϵ^*} was 0.97% of E_{sw}
281 for all the events.

282
283 These values may be compared with those during main phases of CIR-storms (Table 1). The 11
284 storm main phases (preceding the SH-events) under study were characterized by peak Dst values
285 varying from -52 nT to -181 nT with average value of -89 nT. It was estimated that between
286 0.8% and 5.4% of the solar wind kinetic energy were transferred to the magnetosphere during the
287 CIR-storm main phases. The transfer rate exhibited correlation ($r = 0.86$) with the strength (peak
288 Dst) of the storms (not shown), implying stronger solar wind-magnetospheric coupling during
289 the main phases of more intense storms. The average energy transfer rate was 2.2% for all the
290 storm main phases. During the HILDCAA intervals the average energy transfer rate was about
291 half of that during the main phases of CIR-storms.

292
293 During HILDCAA events, the largest part of the solar wind energy input was dissipated by Joule
294 heating in the auroral region. The average values of the three dissipation rates were ~67% (Joule
295 heating), 22% (auroral precipitation) and 11% (ring current injection). During the main phases of
296 the preceding CIR-storms, ring current injection (~12% of E_{ϵ^*}) was comparable to that during

297 HILDCAAs. However, storm-time Joule heating (49%) and auroral precipitation (10%) were
298 significantly lower compared to those during HILDCAAs.

299

300 In Figure 3 the input energy ($E\epsilon^*$) is plotted as a function of solar wind kinetic energy (E_{sw}), and
301 the dissipation energies (E_J , E_A , E_R) are plotted as functions of the input energy during storm
302 main phases (left panel) and HILDCAA events (right panel). The correlation coefficient between
303 $E\epsilon^*$ and E_{sw} was far better for the HILDCAA events ($r = 0.69$) than during the main phases of
304 CIR-storms ($r = 0.40$). Another interesting result is that, while Joule dissipation was best
305 correlated ($r = 0.81$) with the input energy during the HILDCAAs, ring current injection was best
306 correlated ($r = 0.91$) with the input energy during the storm main phases. It may be mentioned
307 that all the correlation coefficients noted in Figure 3 are statistically significant at a $> 99\%$
308 confidence level with the exception of that between $E\epsilon^*$ and E_{sw} ($r = 0.40$) during storm main
309 phases. The latter was significant at $> 75\%$ confidence level.

310

311 **3.3. Comparison of storm-preceded events (SH) and non-storm events (H)**

312

313 The upper panel of Figure 4 shows histograms of HILDCAAs with different ranges of energy.
314 Storm-preceded (SH) and isolated (H) HILDCAAs are shown by different shadings. The average
315 values are marked by downward pointing arrows. The average solar wind kinetic energies (E_{sw})
316 were comparable for the SH (7.0×10^{18} J)- and the H (7.1×10^{18} J)-events. The average input
317 energy ($E\epsilon^*$) was larger for the H-events (6.5×10^{16} J) than for the SH-events (5.4×10^{16} J).
318 However, the average dissipation energies were found to be larger for the SH-events than for the
319 H-events.

320

321 The magnetospheric energy transfer rates and dissipation rates are shown in the lower panel of
322 Figure 4. On average, 1% of solar wind energy was transferred to the magnetosphere during the
323 H-events. The amount was 0.87% for the SH-events. The dissipation rates were larger during the
324 SH-events than during the H-events. In both cases, Joule heating was the dominating dissipation
325 mechanism for solar wind energy input. During the SH-events $\sim 88\%$ of input energy was
326 dissipated by Joule heating, while Joule dissipation was $\sim 60\%$ for the H-events. The average ring
327 current injection during the SH-events (16.2% of $E\epsilon^*$) was $\sim 42\%$ higher than during the H-
328 events (9.4% of $E\epsilon^*$). Auroral precipitation was $\sim 27\%$ of $E\epsilon^*$ during the SH-events and $\sim 20\%$
329 during the H-events, on average. The Student's t-statistics and the corresponding probability
330 factor p [Reiff, 1990] were calculated in order to estimate the statistical significance of the mean
331 dissipation rates. The average dissipation rates of the SH- and H-events are considered to be
332 significantly different if $p < 0.05$ [Press *et al.*, 1992]. It is observed that the p-values for
333 dissipations by Joule heating ($E_J/E\epsilon^*$), auroral precipitation ($E_A/E\epsilon^*$) and ring current injection
334 ($E_R/E\epsilon^*$) are 0.0001, 0.0065 and 0.0001, respectively. Clearly, the fact that the storm-preceded
335 HILDCAAs dissipated larger part of solar wind energy input compared to the isolated
336 HILDCAAs is statistically significant.

337

338 Figure 5 shows the energy dissipated into the inner magnetosphere/ionosphere during
339 HILDCAAs (left panel), and the characteristic parameters of HILDCAAs (right panel) as
340 functions of the input energy. The results are compared between the SH- and the H-events. All
341 the correlation coefficients (shown in the figure) are statistically significant at the $> 95\%$
342 confidence level. The input energy ($E\epsilon^*$) was best correlated, among the three dissipation

343 mechanisms, with Joule heating for both the SH-events ($r = 0.96$) and the H-events ($r = 0.88$).
344 The overall correlation between dissipation and input energies were higher for the SH-events
345 than the H-events. Also, the slopes of the linear regression lines were higher for the SH-events.
346 These results are consistent with larger dissipation efficiency of the SH-events (Figure 4).

347
348 The HILDCAA characteristic parameters (IAE, $\langle AE \rangle$, AE_p and D) were found to be well-
349 correlated with the magnetospheric energy input ($E\epsilon^*$) during HILDCAAs (right panel, Figure
350 5). In this case also, the correlation coefficients were higher for the SH-events compared to the
351 H-events, although the coefficients were statistically significant in both cases. The high and
352 statistically significant correlation coefficients may emphasize the direct solar wind and IMF
353 control on the geomagnetic variations during HILDCAAs or on the HILDCAA energy budget
354 and characteristics.

355

356 **3.4. Solar cycle dependence of HILDCAA energetics**

357

358 As mentioned earlier, we combined the events occurring during the solar cycle ascending phase
359 (1998-1999) and solar maximum (2000-2002) of SC 23 and call these AMAX-events. We also
360 combined the events occurring during the descending phase (2003-2005) and solar minimum
361 (1995-1997, 2006-2008). These are called DMIN-events.

362

363 In the upper panel of Figure 6 the histograms of the AMAX- and DMIN-events are shown for
364 different ranges of solar wind kinetic energy, input energy and dissipation energies binned by
365 different values. The average values are shown by downward pointing arrows in each plot. The

366 DMIN-events involved, on the average, slightly larger amount of solar wind kinetic energy (E_{sw}
367 $\sim 31\%$ larger), magnetospheric input energy ($E_{\epsilon^*} \sim 10\%$ larger) and energies dissipated in the
368 ionosphere ($E_J \sim 14\%$ and $E_A \sim 9\%$ larger) and ring current injection ($E_R \sim 40\%$ larger) than the
369 AMAX-events.

370

371 The solar wind energy transfer and dissipation rates of magnetospheric energy are compared for
372 the DMIN- and AMAX-events, shown in the lower panel of Figure 6. While the average rate of
373 solar wind energy transfer was slightly smaller for the DMIN-events (0.9%) than for the AMAX-
374 events (1.2%), a slightly larger percentage of input energy was dissipated during the DMIN-
375 events than the AMAX-events. However, as confirmed by the Student's t-test, the dissipation
376 rates bear no statistically distinguishable difference between these two combined phases (AMAX
377 and DMIN).

378

379 Figure 7 shows the variations of HILDCAA dissipation energies (left panel) and HILDCAA
380 characteristic parameters (right panel) as functions of the input energy. For the events during the
381 AMAX-phases, there was poor or no correlation between the dissipation energies and the input
382 energy. On the other hand, statistically significant correlations (at the $> 95\%$ confidence level)
383 were recorded for the events during the DMIN-phases. For these events, the correlation of input
384 energy was the highest with Joule energy ($r = 0.83$) compared to the lowest correlation with ring
385 current dissipation ($r = 0.74$). The HILDCAA characteristic parameters exhibited poor or no
386 correlation with the input energy for the AMAX-events, while correlations were statistically
387 significant for the DMIN-events (right panel, Figure 7).

388

389 The difference in the correlation coefficients during the two combined phases (AMAX and
390 DMIN) of the solar cycle is significant. In Figure 8, we plot the percentage distribution of
391 HILDCAAs for different ranges of solar wind speed (V_{sw}) and IMF Bz during these two phases.
392 We estimated average values of V_{sw} and Bz during each event. Then the database was binned in
393 different ranges of the average values. The DMIN-events exhibited a strong occurrence peak in
394 the high velocity range (550-650 km/s), while for the AMAX-events, a strong peak occurred in
395 the lower velocity range (< 500 km/s). From the Bz distribution of the events, it is observed that
396 the DMIN-events ($\sim 41\%$) exhibited a stronger peak in the southward Bz sector compared to the
397 AMAX-events ($\sim 27\%$). The stronger HSS-events and average southward IMF Bz may be
398 responsible for more effective dissipation of energy (geoeffectiveness) in the inner
399 magnetosphere/ionosphere resulting in better correlation for the DMIN-events compared to the
400 AMAX-events.

401

402

4. Discussion

403

404 The solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere energy coupling is an important feature of space
405 weather. An accurate measurement of the energy available in the Earth's magnetosphere from
406 the Sun at any given time is not possible. Because of this, many solar wind-magnetosphere
407 coupling functions have been used in the past as proxies [e.g., *Holzer and Slavin, 1982;*
408 *Gonzalez, 1990; Stamper et al., 1999; Newell et al., 2007; Tenfjord and Østgaard, 2013*]. We
409 have done the same here. The most widely used parameter for solar wind energy input is the
410 Akasofu (ϵ^*) parameter [*Perreault and Akasofu, 1978*]. Earlier studies, using the ϵ^* -parameter,
411 reported that ~ 5 - 10% of energy available in the solar wind might be transferred to the

412 magnetosphere during the main phases of geomagnetic storms of varying intensities [e.g., *Weiss*
413 *et al.*, 1992; *Monreal-MacMahon and Gonzalez*, 1997; *Lu et al.*, 1998; *Østgaard et al.*, 2002;
414 *Vichare et al.*, 2005]. It should be noted that most of the storms studied were large amplitude
415 storms driven by interplanetary coronal mass ejections (ICMEs), the exact drivers being either
416 the upstream sheaths or the magnetic clouds (MCs) within the ICMEs. Our present work
417 involved the energy transfer efficiency study for 11 CIR-driven geomagnetic storms with the
418 peak Dst values varying between -52 nT and -181 nT. For these storm events, the energy input
419 varied from 0.8% to 5.4% of the solar wind kinetic energy. These numbers are lower than those
420 for the ICME-storms discussed above. In fact, the range of energy efficiency for CIR-storms is
421 about half (~50%) of that for ICME-storms.

422

423 Why is the CIR-storm energy input efficiency less than ICME-storms? The solar wind-
424 magnetosphere energy coupling is controlled by the IMF magnitude, its orientation and the solar
425 wind speed. As mentioned earlier, the energy transfer is suggested to be a consequence of
426 magnetic reconnection between the southward component of IMF and Earth's magnetic field
427 [*Dungey*, 1961; *Gonzalez and Mozer*, 1974]. During the ICME-geomagnetic storm main phases,
428 strong and sustained southward IMF Bz causes effective energy transfer, even when the kinetic
429 energy available in the solar wind is small [*Tsurutani et al.*, 1988; *Monreal-MacMahon and*
430 *Gonzalez*, 1997]. The energy coupling is less efficient during CIR-storm periods, which is
431 characterized by large fluctuations in Bz between northward and southward directions (Alfvén
432 waves) [*Tsurutani et al.*, 1995]. The southward components of Bz are presumably responsible for
433 short reconnection intervals. The magnitude of the southward IMFs in CIRs are typically less
434 than those of MCs (which cause major storms) [*Echer et al.*, 2005; *Alves et al.*, 2006, 2011].

435
436 Why do HILDCAA intervals have lower solar wind coupling efficiencies than do CIR-storms?
437 HILDCAA events have solar wind energy transfer rates that varied between 0.3% and 2.8% with
438 an average value of $\sim 1\%$. The rates are significantly less than even those during the CIR-storm
439 main phases. One possible explanation is that the solar wind density and southward IMF
440 amplitude are substantially less in the HSS proper than that in CIRs. Because CIRs are
441 essentially interplanetary sheaths [*Smith and Wolfe, 1976; Tsurutani et al., 1995*], the more
442 effective coupling may be attributed to the high plasma densities and stronger IMFs in those
443 structures (compared to HSS proper). However, more effort is needed to verify or deny this
444 hypothesis.

445
446 Another important component of the magnetospheric/ionospheric energy budget study is the
447 estimation of energy dissipation in the auroral ionosphere and injection into the ring current
448 (energy partitioning). The relative role of ionospheric Joule heating and ring current injection is
449 an important aspect of many studies. While intense ICME-storms appear to dissipate more of the
450 transferred energy in the ring current [*Monreal-MacMahon and Gonzalez, 1997; Vichare et al.,*
451 *2005*], Joule heating dominates as a dissipation channel during the substorm events [e.g.,
452 *Østgaard et al., 2002; Tanskanen et al., 2002; Tenfjord and Østgaard, 2013*, and references
453 therein]. We found that for all HILDCAA events studied, Joule heating accounted for $\sim 2/3^{\text{rd}}$ of
454 the solar wind energy input, while ring current injection was $\sim 1/10^{\text{th}}$ of the input. For the
455 HILDCAA events preceded by the CIR-storm main phases or occurring in the storm recovery
456 phases (SH-events), Joule dissipation was as large as $\sim 88\%$ of total input energy. The values are
457 consistent with the energy partitioning during CIR-driven storms as reported by *Turner et al.*

458 [2006, 2009]. Our study clearly suggests that Joule heating is the dominant dissipation
459 mechanism during HILDCAA events. A large part of energy was also dissipated in form of
460 auroral particle precipitation. The ring current injection during HILDCAA events (~11%) and
461 main phases of CIR-storms (~12%) was comparable. But the same is considerably less than
462 intense ICME-storms. For example, *Monreal-MacMahon and Gonzalez* [1997] reported ring
463 current injection to account for 25% to 40% of the solar wind energy input during the main
464 phases of ICME-driven superstorms ($Dst < -240$ nT). Lower ring current injection during
465 HILDCAAs may be conceptually understood due to HILDCAAs being driven by short-duration
466 southward IMFs. Not present are the large and long-duration southward IMFs which are the
467 causes of intense ICME-storms where the plasma sheet is convected deep into the interior of the
468 magnetosphere near $L \sim 2$ [*Tsurutani et al.*, 1988; *Gonzalez et al.*, 1994].

469
470 Present analyses revealed that storm-preceded HILDCAAs (SH) dissipated a larger part of
471 magnetospheric energy in the auroral ionosphere than the non-storm or isolated events (H). A
472 part of the residual storm energy stored in the magnetosphere/magnetotail may contribute during
473 the following auroral activity in case of the SH-events [*Du et al.*, 2011]. On the other hand, a
474 strong correlation of the energy dissipation and characteristic parameters of the SH-events
475 (occurring in the storm recovery phases) with solar wind energy input reinforces the hypothesis
476 that there is fresh input of the solar wind energy in addition to the ring current decay [*Tsurutani*
477 *et al.*, 2004; *Guarnieri*, 2006]. The solar wind and IMF have direct control on the HILDCAA
478 energy budget, and on its intensity and duration. More research is needed to understand the
479 characteristic differences between storm-preceded and isolated HILDCAA events.

480

481 Another important result of the present study is the strong association of HILDCAA energy
482 dissipation and characteristic parameters with solar wind energy input during the descending and
483 solar minimum phases (DMIN), and lack of correlation during the ascending and solar maximum
484 phases (AMAX). As established by previous works [e.g., *Tsurutani and Gonzalez*, 1987;
485 *Tsurutani et al.*, 1990, 1995, 2006a,b], the origin of HILDCAAs lies in magnetic reconnection
486 between the southward components of Alfvén waves (IMF) and Earth’s magnetic field. During
487 the DMIN-phases, coronal holes extend to lower solar latitudes and expand in size, becoming the
488 dominant solar feature causing geomagnetic activity. HSSs emanate from these coronal holes
489 [*Krieger et al.*, 1973; *Sheeley et al.*, 1976; *Tsurutani et al.*, 1995]. CIRs are formed at the leading
490 edges of the fast streams due to interactions with slow background streams [*Smith and Wolfe*,
491 1976; *Pizzo*, 1985; *Balogh et al.*, 1999]. CIRs, which are characterized by Alfvén waves, usually
492 lead to weak or moderate geomagnetic storms ($Dst > -100$ nT: *Tsurutani and Gonzalez* [1997])
493 and the trailing HSS proper causes prolonged periods of geomagnetic activity [*Tsurutani et al.*,
494 1995; 2006a,b; *Guarnieri et al.*, 2006; *Kozyra et al.*, 2006; *Turner et al.*, 2006]. The
495 HSS/HILDCAA interval appears as a “recovery phase” of the CIR-storm, but in actuality there is
496 fresh input of solar wind energy in addition to the ring current decay. The present results indicate
497 that there is direct control of this fresh solar wind energy input on the HILDCAA energy budget
498 and its characteristics during the DMIN-phases.

499
500 The HSSs emanating from large, equatorial/low-latitude coronal holes during DMIN-phases are
501 more geoeffective. That is, the center of the coronal holes where the peak speeds are ~ 750 to 800
502 km/s and the magnetic field variability $\Delta B/B_0$ is ~ 1 to 2 impinge on the magnetosphere (ΔB
503 being the peak-to-peak amplitude of the transverse magnetic field and B_0 is the IMF amplitude)

504 (see *Echer et al.* [2011, 2012], *Tsurutani et al.* [2011a,b]). These solar wind features cause large
505 energy dissipation, and more intense and longer-duration HILDCAA events during these
506 intervals.

507
508 On the other hand, no direct IMF and solar wind control on the HILDCAAs was found during
509 the AMAX-phases when HSS events are rarer. Events during these phases corresponded to lower
510 average HSS speeds ($V_{sw} < 500$ km/s) and weaker southward (and northward) IMF Bz. These
511 features have been hypothesized by *Tsurutani et al.* [2011b] as being due to superradial
512 expansion of the solar wind. These two factors may be responsible for weaker energy coupling
513 (geoeffectiveness) and poor correlation of HILDCAA characteristics and energy dissipation with
514 the input energy. These results corroborate the recent findings of *Solomon et al.* [2012].
515 According to their simulation results, under the condition of southward IMF Bz, magnetosphere-
516 ionosphere coupling increases with increased solar wind speed.

517

518 **5. Summary**

519

520 This paper reported, for the first time, a quantitative study on the energetics of the solar wind-
521 magnetosphere system and dissipation throughout the inner magnetosphere during HILDCAA
522 events. The statistical study involved 43 HILDCAAs occurring during the period from 1995 to
523 2008 that covers a solar cycle (SC 23). The main results may be summarized as follows:

524

525 (1) During HILDCAA events, the average energy available for redistribution in the
526 magnetospheric/ionospheric system was estimated to be $\sim 6.3 \times 10^{16}$ J, two orders of

527 magnitude lower than (or $\sim 0.9\%$ of) the solar wind ram kinetic energy ($\sim 7.1 \times 10^{18}$ J). This
528 is lower than the coupling efficiency, defined by the percentage of the solar wind energy
529 input to the solar wind kinetic energy, during main phases of CIR-driven storms ($\sim 1\%$ to
530 5%), which in turn is lower than $> 5\%$ coupling efficiency noted for storms driven by
531 ICMEs and their sheaths.

532 (2) During HILDCAAs, $\sim 2/3^{\text{rd}}$ ($\sim 67\%$) of the solar wind energy input was dissipated in the
533 auroral ionosphere in form of Joule heating. Only $\sim 11\%$ of the energy went into the ring
534 current. Joule heating was found to be the dominating dissipation channel during
535 HILDCAA events.

536 (3) Joule dissipation percentage during main phases of CIR-driven geomagnetic storms
537 ($\sim 49\%$) was significantly lower than during HILDCAAs, while the ring current injection
538 values were comparable for the two. Further, ring current injection during
539 HILDCAAs/CIR-storm main phases was about half of the reported value for intense
540 ICME-storms.

541 (4) During the HILDCAA events preceded by geomagnetic (CIR) storm main phases (SH-
542 events), $\sim 88\%$ of solar wind energy input was dissipated as Joule heating, on average.
543 Joule dissipation was estimated to be significantly lower ($\sim 60\%$) for the isolated or non-
544 storm related HILDCAA events (H).

545 (5) During the solar cycle descending and minimum phases (DMIN), the majority of
546 HILDCAAs occurred when the average solar wind speed (V_{sw}) was $> 550\text{-}650$ km/s. For
547 these cases, the solar wind energy input exhibited statistically significant correlation with
548 HILDCAA dissipation energy ($r \geq 0.74$). During the ascending and maximum phases

549 (AMAX), most HILDCAAs were associated with average $V_{sw} < 500$ km/s streams. The
550 correlation with dissipation energy was poor or insignificant for these events.

551 (6) HILDCAAs during DMIN-phases involved, on average, slightly larger amount of solar
552 wind kinetic energy, input energy and energies dissipated in the inner
553 magnetosphere/ionosphere compared to the events occurring during AMAX-phases.
554 However, the average energy dissipation bears no statistically distinguishable difference
555 between these two combined phases.

556

557 **6. Final Comments**

558

559 This study reported a comparative analysis on the solar wind-magnetosphere energy budget
560 involved during HILDCAAs under varying geomagnetic (storm/non-storm HILDCAAs) and
561 solar activity (ascending-maximum/descending-minimum) conditions. As mentioned earlier, a
562 fully accurate measurement of the energy input into the magnetosphere from the solar wind at
563 any given time is not possible. To estimate the energy transfer from the solar wind to the
564 magnetosphere, we used the most widely used modified Akasofu ϵ^* -parameter which was based
565 on empirical data [Perreault and Akasofu, 1978]. It gives a first-order approximation for the
566 magnetospheric energy input and may underestimate the actual value [see Koskinen and
567 Tanskanen, 2002]. As observed in the present study and also reported previously [e.g., Knipp et
568 al., 1998; Østgaard et al., 2002], the ϵ^* -parameter does not always provide enough energy to
569 balance the total dissipation energy in the inner magnetosphere and ionosphere. This indicates
570 that there has to be some other energy transfer mechanism than dayside reconnection. Tsurutani
571 and Gonzalez [1995] found that 0.1-0.4% of the solar wind kinetic energy may be injected into

572 the magnetosphere by viscous interaction [*Axford and Hines*, 1961]. Another type of solar wind
573 energy transfer mechanism is cross-field diffusion by resonant wave-particle interactions at the
574 dayside magnetopause [*Sonnerup*, 1980; *Tsurutani et al.*, 1981; *Tsurutani and Thorne*, 1982;
575 *Gendrin*, 1983]. By this process, $\sim 0.01\%$ of solar wind kinetic energy may penetrate into the
576 magnetosphere. On the other hand, *Pulkkinen et al.* [2002] have shown that the expression used
577 for U_R may be an overestimation of the ring current injection during the intense storms. These
578 factors may introduce some uncertainties in the energy values/dissipation rates obtained in the
579 present analysis. It is important to note that most of the energy budget studies used the same
580 Akasofu parameter (sometimes with some corrections, as given here) as the measure of
581 magnetospheric input power, although different methods were used to evaluate the energy
582 deposition in the auroral ionosphere. For example, many authors used the AE index to estimate
583 Joule heating and auroral precipitation, as suggested by *Ahn et al.* [1983]. We also tested this
584 methodology (not shown) to note that the main results obtained in the present work remain more
585 or less the same. Thus, this present study involving HILDCAAs for the first time may
586 successfully reveal the comparative picture with the earlier results involving geomagnetic storms
587 and substorms.

588
589 Another note may be mentioned about the use of AE index [*Davis and Sugiura*, 1966] for the
590 identification and characterization of HILDCAA events. The current AE network consists of 12
591 ground-based magnetometer stations distributed roughly evenly in longitude along the auroral
592 oval region. This may have potential impact of the limited accuracy of AE [e.g., *Rostoker*, 1972].
593 *Newell and Gjerloev* [2011] used a distribution of more than 100 stations under the SuperMAG

594 project [Gjerloev, 2009] to improve the AE index and constructed SuperMAG auroral index
595 termed as SME. Use of the SME index for future studies may be interesting, and we will apply it.

596

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845

Figures captions

846 **Figure 1.** Examples of two HILDCAA events occurring during October 2003 (left panel) and
 847 July 2003 (right panel), and corresponding energetics. From top to bottom, the panels show the
 848 variations of solar wind kinetic power (U_{sw} in 10^{11} W), solar wind-magnetosphere energy
 849 coupling function (ϵ^* in 10^{11} W), ionospheric energy dissipation rates (U_J and U_A in 10^{11} W),
 850 ring current injection rate (U_R in 10^{11} W), IMF Bz (nT), SYM-H (nT) and the AE (nT) indices.
 851 In the AE panels, the horizontal dash-dot lines indicate the intervals of the HILDCAA events.
 852 The event on the left panel was preceded by a geomagnetic storm main phase (MP) (peak SYM-
 853 H = -103 nT) and occurred in the storm recovery phase, while the event on the right was not
 854 preceded by a geomagnetic storm (peak SYM-H = -28 nT).

855

856 **Figure 2.** Upper panel: Histograms showing the number of HILDCAA events for different
 857 ranges of E_{sw} , $E\epsilon^*$, E_J , E_A and E_R . Lower panel: Histograms showing number of HILDCAA
 858 events for different ranges (%) of $E\epsilon^*/E_{sw}$, $E_J/E\epsilon^*$, $E_A/E\epsilon^*$, and $E_R/E\epsilon^*$. The downward arrows
 859 indicate corresponding median (dotted arrow) and mean (solid arrow) values.

860

861 **Figure 3.** Scatter plots showing the variations of $E\epsilon^*$ with E_{sw} , and variations of E_J , E_A and E_R
 862 with $E\epsilon^*$. The left panel pertains to storm main phases (MPs) and right panel pertains to

863 HILDCAA events. The number of main phases and HILDCAA events are mentioned in the
 864 parentheses following the event tags. The linear regression lines and corresponding correlation
 865 coefficients (r) are shown in each plot.

866

867 **Figure 4.** The upper and lower panels are same as those in Figure 2. The gray and dark gray
 868 histograms pertain to non-storm related (H)- and storm-preceded (SH)- HILDCAA events,
 869 respectively. The downward arrows indicate the mean values. The numbers of events are given
 870 in the parentheses following event legends.

871

872 **Figure 5.** Left panel: Scatter plots showing the variations of E_J , E_A , E_R and $E_T (= E_J + E_A + E_R)$
 873 with $E\epsilon^*$. Right panel: Scatter plots showing the variations of IAE, $\langle AE \rangle$, AE_p and D with
 874 $E\epsilon^*$. The filled and open squares show H-events and SH-events, respectively. The linear
 875 regression lines and corresponding correlation coefficients (r) are shown in each plot. The
 876 numbers in the parentheses indicate the number of H- and SH-events.

877

878 **Figure 6.** The figure is in the same format as Figure 4, but the gray and dark gray histograms
 879 here show the DMIN- and AMAX-events, respectively.

880

881 **Figure 7.** The figure is in the same format as Figure 5, but the filled and open squares here show
 882 the DMIN- and AMAX-events, respectively.

883

884 **Figure 8.** Distributions of HILDCAA events for different ranges of $\langle V_{sw} \rangle$ and $\langle B_z \rangle$.