

## Midday magnetopause shifts earthward of geosynchronous orbit during geomagnetic superstorms with $Dst \leq -300$ nT

H. Li,<sup>1,2</sup> C. Wang,<sup>1</sup> and J. R. Kan<sup>1,3</sup>

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[1] Geomagnetic storm intensity, as measured by the Dst (SYMH) index, shows no limit as the solar wind dawn-to-dusk electric field increases. We show that the magnetopause around noon erodes earthward with increasing storm intensity. The panoramic geosynchronous  $B_z$  signatures for the magnetic storm groups with different intensity are differ significantly from each other. For superstorms with  $SYMH \leq -300$  nT, the magnetopause around noon erodes to inside the geosynchronous orbit, which causes the  $B_z$  reversal near local noon. The necessary conditions for superstorms with  $SYMH \leq -300$  nT to occur include the following: (1) interplanetary magnetic field (IMF)  $B_z < -27$  nT lasts for at least  $\sim 1$  h; (2) solar wind dynamic pressure,  $P_d > \sim 12$  nPa; (3) the projected interplanetary electric field,  $E_{K-L} > \sim 30$  mV/m.

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### 1. Introduction

[2] As a major type of electromagnetic disturbance in the magnetosphere, geomagnetic storms are of fundamental importance in understanding the space weather and its terrestrial effects. Solar wind can be considered an infinite energy source to power electromagnetic disturbances in the solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere (SW-M-I) coupling system. The southward interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) reconnects with the Earth's dipole magnetic field [Dungey, 1961], leading to the energy enters into the magnetosphere from the solar wind. The energy from the solar wind would accumulate in the magnetosphere when the rate of energy input is higher than the rate of its quasistationary dissipation and would release when its amount exceeds some certain level, which results in the generation of magnetospheric disturbances, such as geomagnetic storms [Yermolaev *et al.*, 2005]. The rate of energy input depends on the strength and duration of the southward IMF  $B_z$ , together with the solar wind bulk speed [Meloni *et al.*, 2005].

[3] The interplanetary causes of magnetic storms have been investigated for decades [e.g., see Tsurutani and Gonzalez, 1997, for a review]. Recently, Srivastava and Venkatakrishnan [2004] suggested that the intensity of geomagnetic storms depended strongly on IMF  $B_z$  and  $|VB_z|$ , followed by the solar wind dynamic pressure ( $P_d$ ). The correlation coefficients of  $B_z$ -Dst,  $|VB_z|$ -Dst, and  $P_d$ -Dst were 0.70, 0.66, and 0.64, respectively. Echer *et al.* [2008] also showed good linear correlations of the peak

Dst with peak values of southward IMF and the dawn to dusk electric field  $E_y$  during the storm main phase.

[4] With the emerging applications of space weather to modern society, very intense magnetic storms (or superstorms) have been paid much attention. Fast ICME magnetic fields, interplanetary shock effects, and double or triple-step storms are suggested to be the major causes of the extreme intense magnetic storms [Tsurutani *et al.*, 1999; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2001, 2002]. Lopez *et al.* [2009] showed that there was no upper limit of the ring current injection rate.

[5] Gonzalez *et al.* [1994] made a summary of the threshold values of the magnitude and duration of southward IMF for magnetic storms with  $Dst \geq -200$  nT. However, the classification of superstorms is not well defined in the literature. In this study, we will try to identify the interplanetary conditions for superstorms and their signatures in the geosynchronous magnetic field  $B_z$  observed by Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES) spacecraft. A new result using the 360° panoramic synthesis technique that the day-side magnetopause moves earthward of the synchronous orbit is found for superstorms with  $Dst \leq -300$  nT. Therefore, we propose to define the magnetic storms with  $Dst \leq -300$  nT to be superstorms. The usual conditions on the solar wind dynamic pressure, and the magnitude and duration of southward IMF will be specifically identified.

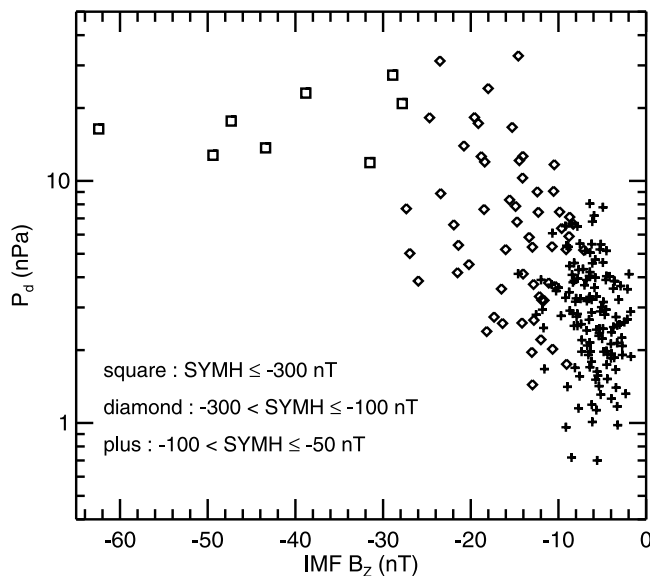
### 2. Conditions for Superstorms

[6] Gonzalez *et al.* [1994] suggested that the primary cause of magnetic storms was associated with interplanetary structures with intense, long-duration IMF  $B_s$ . The earthward solar wind velocity played another important role in creating geomagnetic storms [Snyder *et al.*, 1963; Fairfield and Cahill, 1966]. In addition, solar wind ram pressure made a great contribution to ring current energization,

<sup>1</sup>State Key Laboratory of Space Weather, Center for Space Science and Applied Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

<sup>2</sup>Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

<sup>3</sup>Geophysical Institute, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, Alaska, USA.



**Figure 1.** Scatter plots of the solar wind dynamic pressure versus IMF  $B_Z$  for three magnetic storm intensity groups. Small to moderate storms with  $-100 < \text{SYM}H \leq -50$  nT (crosses); the intense to big storms with  $-300 < \text{SYM}H \leq -100$  nT (diamonds); the superstorms with  $\text{SYM}H \leq -300$  nT (squares).

although perhaps less so in substorm progresses [Gonzalez *et al.*, 1989].

[7] We study the 204 magnetic storms ( $\text{SYM}H \leq -50$  nT) during 1998–2005 and obtain the corresponding solar wind dynamic pressure and IMF  $B_Z$  at the L1 point observed by ACE spacecraft as the conditions for that storm, when the SYMH index of a storm reaches the minimum. The SYMH of 1 min time resolution is essentially identical to the hourly Dst index. It is worthy of special mention that the SWEPAM instrument on board the ACE spacecraft measures the solar wind speed and ion density every 64s in its “track” mode and takes one measurement every 33 min in a “search” mode. During some superstorms, the “track” model failed to work, but the 33 min resolution “search” mode data are usable [Hairston *et al.*, 2005]. Moreover, we also use the 1 min resolution data from Omni-1 and 1 h resolution data from Omni-2 to supplement the missing data of ACE spacecraft during some superstorms. All the plasma and magnetic field data have been time shifted appropriately. The amount of time shifting here is based on the transit time of the solar wind from the L1 point to the magnetopause using the corresponding solar wind speed and then adding an extra 15 min to account for the response time of magnetosphere [Ridley *et al.*, 1998].

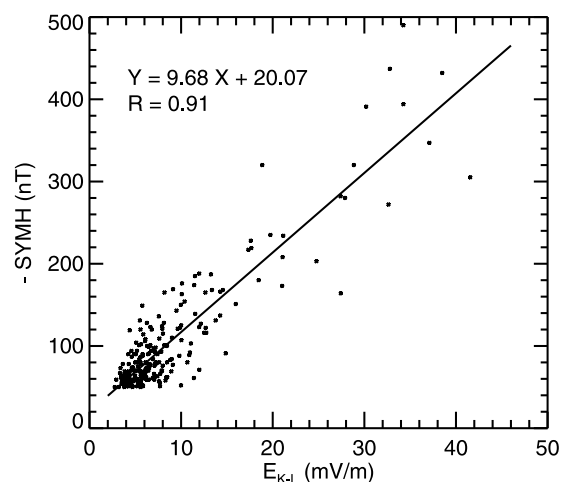
[8] Figure 1 shows the scatter plots of the solar wind dynamic pressure ( $P_d$ ) versus IMF  $B_Z$  for three groups of magnetic storms. Small to moderate storms with  $-100 < \text{SYM}H \leq -50$  nT are denoted by the pluses; intense to big storms with  $-300 < \text{SYM}H \leq -100$  nT are denoted by the diamonds; superstorms with  $\text{SYM}H \leq -300$  nT are denoted by the squares. Note that regions for the three magnetic storm groups are separated from each other clearly on the plot. The value of  $B_Z$  seems to be more reliable in distin-

guishing these three groups; however, the  $P_d$  value could not be left out. A general trend is that the IMF  $B_Z$  needs to be more southward and solar wind dynamic pressure needs to be larger as the storm intensity increases. Figure 1 shows clearly that superstorms depend more on condition (1) IMF  $B_Z < -27$  nT than condition (2) solar wind dynamic pressure  $P_d > \sim 12$  nPa. By studying superstorms further case by case, we found that the duration of IMF  $B_Z < -27$  nT must last for at least  $\sim 1$  h.

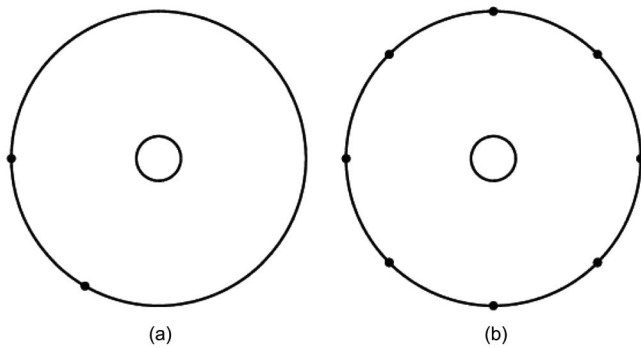
[9] Next we will try to find the relationship between the storm intensity and the interplanetary electric field (IEF). Instead of using the dawn to dusk electric field, we consider the projected interplanetary electric field  $V_X B_{YZ} \sin^2(\theta/2)$  (or  $E_{K-L}$ ), where  $\theta$  is the IMF clock angle,  $V_X$  is the  $x$  component of solar wind speed, and  $B_{YZ}$  is the IMF projection on the YZ plane, suggested by Kan and Lee [1979], which has been illustrated to be effective by Burke *et al.* [1999] in their discussion of the implicit relationship between geoeffective scale sizes in the interplanetary medium and electric potentials imposed on the ionosphere across the polar cap. Figure 2 plots the storm intensity, measured by the midlatitude symmetric geomagnetic index SYMH against the projected interplanetary electric field  $E_{K-L}$ . Within the observed range of  $E_{K-L}$ , the storm intensity clearly increases linearly with increasing  $E_{K-L}$ . The empirical formula for the relationship between the magnetic storm intensity and the projected interplanetary electric field is shown as follows:

$$-\text{SYM}H = 9.68 \times E_{K-L} + 20.07.$$

When  $E_{K-L} = 0$ , the SYMH will not equal 0 due to the contribution of “viscous interaction” [Axford and Hines, 1961]. When  $E_{K-L}$  exceeds  $\sim 30$  mV/m, superstorm would occur. Wang *et al.* [2003] showed the necessary conditions on  $-VB_Z$  and its duration  $\Delta t$ . As  $\Delta t$  increases, the condition on  $-VB_Z$  for superstorms ( $\text{SYM}H = -300$  nT) has a wide range. Actually, a stronger  $-VB_Z$  can produce a more intense storm, whereas a longer  $\Delta t$  cannot.



**Figure 2.** The dependence of storm intensity measured by the SYMH index on the projected interplanetary electric field ( $E_{K-L}$ ) for the geomagnetic storms during 1998–2005.



**Figure 3.** (a) Point observation of geosynchronous magnetic fields during a storm; (b) Panoramic observation of geosynchronous magnetic field during the similar intensity of storms.

[10] In summary, we identify specific physical conditions for the occurrence of superstorms with  $\text{SYM}H \leq -300$  nT as follows: (1) IMF  $B_Z < -27$  nT lasts for at least  $\sim 1$  h; (2) solar wind dynamic pressure,  $P_d > \sim 12$  nPa; and (3) the projected interplanetary electric field,  $E_K - L > \sim 30$  mV/m.

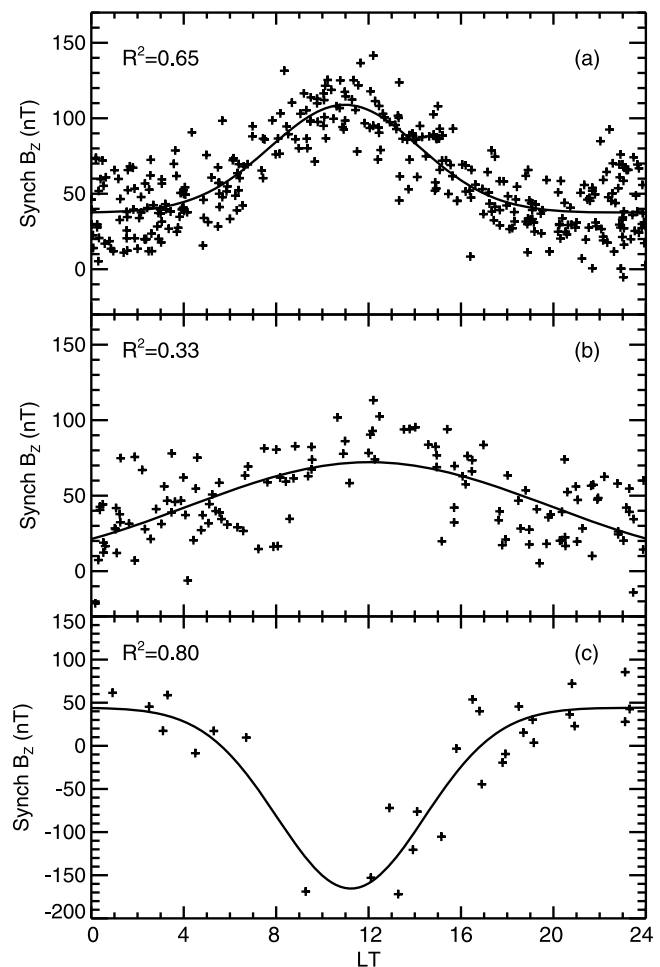
### 3. Panoramic Geosynchronous $B_Z$ Signature

[11] Geomagnetic storm is a global phenomenon in the inner magnetosphere produced by the SW-M-I coupling. In the present paper, we use a statistical method to obtain  $360^\circ$  panoramic views of geosynchronous  $B_Z$  signature during storms of different intensities.

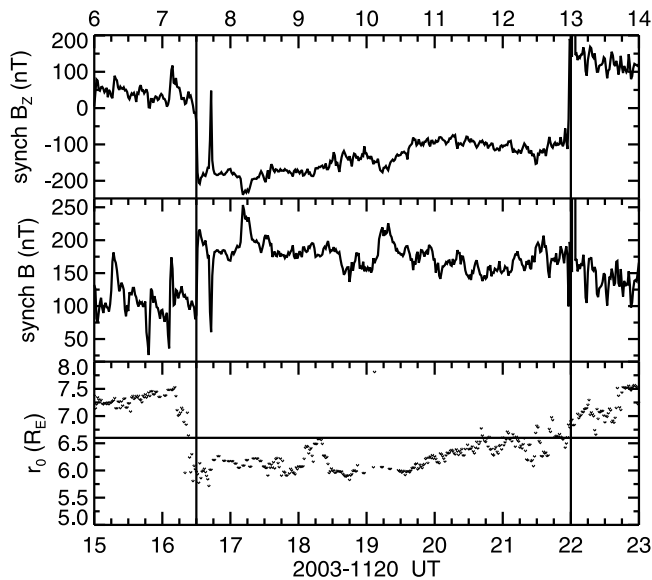
[12] We studied 196 small to big storms ( $-300 < \text{SYM}H \leq -50$  nT) from 1998 to 2005 and 15 superstorms during 1989–2005. When  $\text{SYM}H$  reaches its minimum, we take the corresponding 10 min averaged  $B_Z$  value from GOES spacecraft for that storm. For example, if there are two GOES spacecrafts in the synchronous orbit, two data points with different local time are obtained for a given storm, as illustrated in Figure 3a. We divide all the storms into the same three groups as in section 2. There are enough cases of geomagnetic storms for each group to cover all local times. The geostationary  $B_Z$  versus all local times is defined as the panoramic signature of geosynchronous  $B_Z$  during storms in each of the three groups, as shown in Figure 3b. All the geosynchronous magnetic field data are obtained from GOES-6 (1989–1992), GOES-7 (1989–1992), GOES-8 (January 1997–April 2003), GOES-10 (Match 1999–December 2005), and GOES-12 (April 2003–December 2005).

[13] The panoramic geosynchronous  $B_Z$  signatures for the three magnetic storm groups are differ significantly from each other. Figure 4a shows the panoramic geosynchronous  $B_Z$  signature for small to moderate storms. It is clear that  $B_Z$  varies smoothly with local time, peaking prenoon ( $\sim 11:00$  LT) and reducing to the nightside. The distribution of  $B_Z$  is similar to a Gaussian distribution, and the solid curve is obtained by the Gaussian curve fitting, and the parameter  $R^2$  represents the goodness of Gaussian fitting. The closer the  $R^2$  approach to 1, the better the Gaussian fit is. For intense to big storms, shown in Figure 4b, the  $B_Z$  signature is slightly different from the previous one. The bell-shaped distribution becomes flatter; meanwhile, the overall

appearance of  $B_Z$  is less than that shown in Figure 4a. For example, the mean maximum value of  $B_Z$  near local noon is  $\sim 85$  nT, and the mean value of  $B_Z$  near local night is  $\sim 30$  nT. By contrast, the corresponding values for small to moderate storms are  $\sim 110$  and  $\sim 40$  nT, respectively. This phenomenon is understandable. Let examine cases of nightside first; as the storm intensity increases, the cross-tail current becomes stronger and closer to Earth, resulting in a smaller geosynchronous  $B_Z$  on the nightside. As for the dayside, the increased Region-1 current makes the geosynchronous  $B_Z$  smaller [Siscoe *et al.*, 2002]. The geosynchronous  $B_Z$  signature for superstorms is shown in Figure 4c. Compared to the previous two cases, the difference is significant. The Gaussian-like distribution even reverses, with a southward geosynchronous  $B_Z$  during 9:00–15:00 LT. During superstorms, the dayside magnetopause shifts earthward of the geosynchronous orbit. The southward magnetic field in the magnetosheath and the southward field of the Chapman-Ferraro current, cause the  $B_Z$  reversal near local noon. Therefore, we propose to define the magnetic storms with  $\text{Dst} \leq -300$  nT to be superstorms.



**Figure 4.** Geosynchronous  $B_Z$  versus local time (LT) for three groups of magnetic storms: (a) small to moderate storms; (b) intense to big storms; and (c) superstorms. The solid curve is the Gaussian curve fitting.



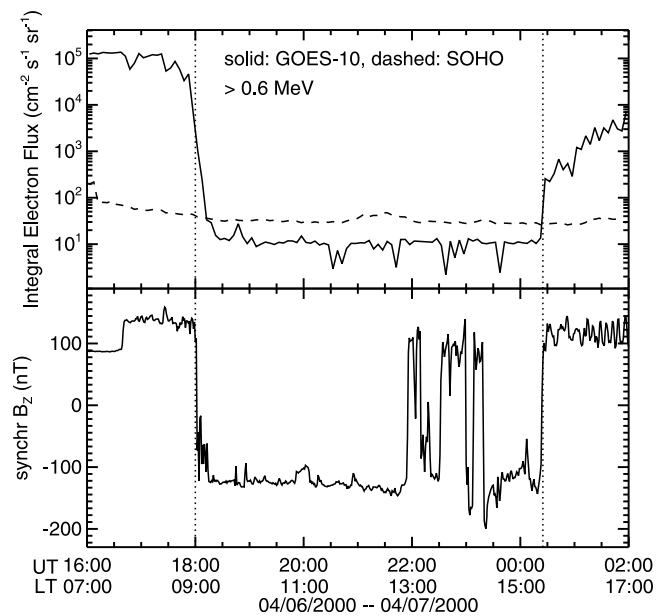
**Figure 5.** An example of the dayside magnetopause shifting earthward of the geosynchronous orbit during the 20 November 2003 superstorm with  $\text{SYM}H = -490$  nT, measured by GOES-10. (top) The geosynchronous magnetic field  $Z$  component,  $B_Z$ ; (middle) the magnitude of the geosynchronous magnetic field,  $B$ ; (bottom) the subsolar standoff distance of the magnetopause derived from the model of *Shue et al.* [1998]. The top axis labels the corresponding local time of GOES-10.

[14] Figure 5 shows an example of the dayside magnetopause shifting earthward of the geosynchronous orbit during the 20 November 2003 superstorm with  $\text{SYM}H = -490$  nT, measured by GOES-10. Figures 5 (top), 5 (middle), and 5 (bottom) show, respectively, the geosynchronous magnetic field  $Z$  component,  $B_Z$ ; the magnitude of the geosynchronous magnetic field,  $B$ ; and the subsolar standoff distance of the magnetopause derived from the model of *Shue et al.* [1998]. The top axis labels the corresponding local time of GOES-10. Vertical lines indicate magnetosheath entrances and exits, respectively. At about 16:30 UT (7:30 LT),  $B_Z$  suddenly changed direction from northward to southward and then returned to northward at about 22:00 UT (13:00 LT). At the corresponding time, the magnitude of the geosynchronous magnetic field shows similar sudden changes. The significant deviation of geosynchronous magnetic field from geomagnetic field conclusively demonstrates that the GOES-10 satellite was indeed in the magnetosheath during 16:30 UT–22:00 UT. As further proof, the subsolar location of the magnetopause, derived from the model of *Shue et al.* [1998], was within  $6.6 R_E$  during that time period. Similarly, we find that the dayside magnetopause shifted within the geostationary orbit for other superstorms as well.

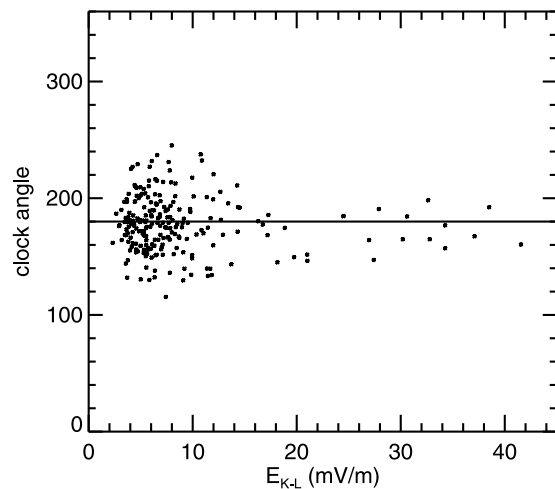
[15] In addition to the strong deviation of the geosynchronous magnetic field measured by GOES, the significant change of other parameters, such as the integral electron flux ( $>0.6$  MeV), measured by GOES could further confirm that the dayside magnetopause shifts earthward of geosynchronous orbit during superstorms. As an example, Figure 6 shows the profiles of integral electron flux ( $>0.6$  MeV)

and geosynchronous  $B_Z$  observed during a superstorm with  $\text{SYM}H = -320$  nT on 6 April 2000. The integral electron flux observed by GOES-10 and by SOHO at the L1 point are plotted with a solid line and dashed line, respectively, in Figure 6 (top). The geosynchronous magnetic field  $B_Z$  is plotted in the bottom panel. Vertical dot lines mark the magnetosheath entrance and exit, as indicated by the sudden change of geosynchronous  $B_Z$ . At about 18:00 UT (9:00 LT), the integral electron flux observed by GOES-10 suddenly changed from  $10^5$  to  $10^1$ , about the same order of that observed by SOHO at the L1 point, which implies that the GOES-10 was located outside the magnetopause. At about 00:25 UT (15:25 LT) on 7 April, the value returned to  $10^3$  again, back to inside the magnetopause.

[16] Both the solar wind dynamic pressure ( $P_d$ ) and IMF  $B_Z$  can contribute to the earthward motion of the dayside magnetopause. If the  $P_d$  reached a certain high level, the magnetopause can also move to locations within  $6.6 R_E$ , even during northward IMF  $B_Z$ . In addition to superstorms, there are other 11 geomagnetic storms during 1998–2005, ranging from  $-116$  to  $-280$  nT, which could make the dayside magnetopause shift within the synchronous orbit as well. For these storms, the IMF  $B_Z$  ranged from  $-10$  to  $-23$  nT, and the main cause was the extremely large solar wind dynamic pressure  $P_d$ . As for the relative importance of IMF  $B_Z$  parameter versus the solar wind dynamic pressure  $P_d$  parameter in defining the magnetopause shifts, *Yang et al.* [2003] proposed that the response of magnetopause to IMF  $B_Z$  and solar wind dynamic pressure  $P_d$  should be nonlinear, especially when the magnetopause is close to Earth. The earthward motion of magnetopause due to south-



**Figure 6.** One example of the dayside magnetopause shifting earthward of the geosynchronous orbit during a superstorm with  $\text{SYM}H = -320$  nT on 06 April 2000. The profiles of (top) integral electron flux ( $>0.6$  MeV) and (bottom) geosynchronous magnetic field  $Z$  component,  $B_Z$ .



**Figure 7.** The relation between the maximum of the projected interplanetary electric field ( $E_{K-L}$ ) for magnetic storms and the corresponding clock angle.

ward IMF  $B_Z$  should be saturated, and the threshold of  $B_Z$  for saturation occurring should be related with  $P_d$ .

#### 4. Discussion and Summary

[17] Geomagnetic storms involve energy storage in the ring current, which is transport to the inner magnetosphere by sunward convection in the plasma sheet, driven by the solar wind through dayside and nightside magnetic reconnections. A larger southward IMF  $B_Z$  and solar wind dynamic pressure can result in more intense magnetic reconnection. A longer duration of southward IMF  $B_Z$  can transfer more energy to the magnetosphere by magnetic reconnection. Pure southward IMF exists only in the numerical simulation. The effect of IMF clock angle should not be overlooked. Figure 7 shows the relation between the maximum of the projected interplanetary electric field for magnetic storms and the corresponding clock angle. The range of clock angle reduces as the storm intensity increases. For small to moderate storms ( $E_{K-L} < \sim 10$  mV/m), the clock angle scatters over a wide range from  $120^\circ$  to  $240^\circ$ . The range for superstorms ( $E_{K-L} > \sim 30$  mV/m) is reduced to  $160^\circ$  to  $200^\circ$ .

[18] We identify specific physical conditions for the occurrence of superstorms. These conditions are summarized as follows: (1) IMF  $B_Z < -27$  nT lasts for at least  $\sim 1$  h; (2) solar wind dynamic pressure,  $P_d > \sim 12$  nPa; and (3) the projected interplanetary electric field,  $E_{K-L} > \sim 30$  mV/m. The  $360^\circ$  panoramic views of geosynchronous  $B_Z$  signature for storms of different intensities differ significantly from each other. For small to moderate ( $-100 < \text{SYM}H \leq -50$  nT), the distribution of geosynchronous magnetic  $B_Z$  versus the local time is very similar to a Gaussian distribution, with a peak prenoon. As the magnetic storm intensity increases, the Gaussian-like distribution becomes flatter for intense to big storms ( $-300 < \text{SYM}H \leq -100$  nT) and even reverses during superstorms with  $\text{Dst} \leq -300$  nT, which implies that the midday magnetopause is located earthward of the geosynchronous orbit. Note that the midday magnetopause can also shift inside of the geosynchronous orbit when the

solar wind dynamic pressure is extreme large, without superstorms, if conditions (1), (2), and (3) are not satisfied simultaneously.

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- J. R. Kan, Geophysical Institute, University of Alaska Fairbanks, 903 Koyukuk Dr., Fairbanks, AK 99775-7320, USA. (joe.kan@gi.alaska.edu)
- H. Li and C. Wang, State Key Laboratory of Space Weather, Center for Space Science and Applied Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, PO Box 8701, Beijing 100190, China. (hli@spaceweather.ac.cn; cw@spaceweather.ac.cn)