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# **Observatory Data: a 170-year Sun-Earth Connection**

Leif Svalgaard

#### 3 Introduction

4 The discovery of the sunspot cycle and the first results of the 'Magnetic Crusade' 5 together made it clear that solar and geomagnetic activity are intimately related and that 6 observing one is learning about the other [both ways]. Understanding of this magnificent 7 relationship had to await more than a century of progress in both physics and 8 observations, and only in the last few decades have we achieved the elucidation that in the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century was so fervently hoped for: The lack of rapid progress so 9 10 frustrated the observers [and their funding agencies] that many observatories were shut 11 down or had operations severely curtailed, because as von Humboldt remarked in vol. 4 12 of his *Cosmos*: "they have yielded so little return in proportion to the labor that had gone 13 into collecting the material". The confirmation by spacecraft measurements of what 14 workers in solar-terrestrial relations had so long suspected namely that a solar wind 15 connects the magnetic regimes of the Sun and the Earth has finally brought about an 16 understanding of one half of the relationship [activity] while the discovery of the 17 ionosphere and measurements of solar ultraviolet and X-ray emissions have brought 18 understanding of the other half [regular diurnal variation]. We now have a quantitative 19 understanding of these phenomena [although the microphysics is still debated] allowing 20 us to model quantitatively the geomagnetic response to solar and interplanetary 21 conditions. The immense complexity of geomagnetic variations becomes tractable by the 22 introduction of suitable geomagnetic *indices* on a variety of time scales. Because 23 different indices respond to different combinations of solar wind parameters we can 24 invert the response and determine solar wind speed and density and interplanetary 25 magnetic field strength from simple hourly mean values as far back as these are available, 26 as we will show in this talk. In addition, the understanding of the ionospheric response to 27 solar Far UltraViolet, allows us to infer FUV in the past as well, with the possibility of 28 checking [and correcting] the sunspot number and calculating the Total Solar Irradiance. 29 As geomagnetic variations have been monitored for ~170 years with [for this purpose] 30 constant calibration, we have a data set of immense value for understanding long-term 31 changes in the Sun. We argue that all efforts must be expended to preserve and digitize 32 these national and scientific treasure troves.

#### 33 **The Central Problem of Geomagnetic Variations**

34 The geomagnetic record shows a mixture of signatures from different physical processes: 35 the regular daily variation, irregular short duration [1-3 hours] variations, and 'storms' 36 typically lasting a day or more. Geomagnetic *indices* have been devised to characterize 37 and quantify these three types [ignoring special effects like pulsations, eclipse effects, 38 etc]. An experienced observer can usually distinguish the various types from the general 39 character of the curves and from hers/his knowledge of the *typical* variations at the 40 observatory. Various computer algorithms more or less successfully attempt to supplant 41 the need for a human, experienced observer, but in any case, the *high-frequency* part of 42 the record is the necessary ingredient in the process.

#### 43 The Difficulty with the Regular Daily Variation

Recognizing and quantifying the regular daily variation, what Mayaud called  $S_R$ , is the 44 main problem. The amplitude of this variation varies from day to day; near the focus of 45 46 the current system, even the type of the variation changes from day to day. And at low 47 latitudes the large summer vortex from the other hemisphere intrudes into the winter 48 hemisphere. In deriving both the Dst index and the K range index,  $S_R$  must be recognized 49 and removed. We all know the problems associated with that, with the insufficiency of 50 using the 5 Quiet Days' as the basis for determining  $S_R$ , and with the error of using an 51 average 'iron curve', etc. The pattern-recognition capabilities of the experienced observer 52 cannot be transferred to successors.

#### 53 Long-Term Geomagnetic Indices

Mayaud's heroic construction [1972] of the *aa-index* (back to 1868) is unlikely to be duplicated. The international cooperation and effort that are providing us with the *ap* (1932-), *am* (1959-), and *Dst* (1957-) indices cannot be replicated or extended into the past. It is difficult to gauge the long-term stability of the calibration of the range indices.

- 57 past. It is difficult to gadge the long-term stability of the canoration of the range indices. 58 The vast collection of 19<sup>th</sup> Century *yearbook* data seems useless to many people to the
- 59 point where the data is not being preserved or digitized for modern processing methods.
- 60 In this talk, I'll show how these problems can be overcome and provide a rationale for

61 *the preservation and digitization of the yearbook data.* 

## 62 *IHV*-index: Use of Night Hours Only

Figure 1 shows the variation of the three geomagnetic components, H, D, and Z at FRD (Fredericksburg) during several days. The regular variation is clearly seen on every day including the day-to-day variation. Since the ionospheric conductivity is down by two orders of magnitude during local night,  $S_R$  is effectively absent during the night hours. So, the solution to the problem of elimination of  $S_R$  is simply to construct an index using only local night hours; by throwing away 75% of the data, you remove 99% of the problem. Red boxes outline the local night.

70 Svalgaard and Cliver [2004, 2007a] introduced a new index based on this approach. The 71 *IHV*-index (InterHourly Variability) is defined as the sum of the *absolute values* of the 72 six differences between hourly values of any of the geomagnetic components [initially for H] for the seven hours spanning local midnight (generally falling within the 4<sup>th</sup> hour). In 73 practice, we determine the *number of hours to skip* from 0<sup>h</sup> UT, before beginning to sum 74 75 the following six hourly absolute differences. Local midnight is also the time where the 76 correlation with interplanetary parameters maximizes. A most important detail is that 77 *hourly mean values* are used, so that no high-resolution data is needed, and the vast store 78 of *yearbook*-style data that exists can be brought to bear.

## 79 Correcting *IHV* from Hourly *Values* to the Level of Hourly *Means*

80 Starting in 1905 Adolf Schmidt at Potsdam began to use Hourly Means instead of the 81 Hourly point Values that had traditionally been reported in yearbooks. And soon most 82 observatories adopted the new practice. [Some waited long, e.g. the French, who held out 83 to 1972, before making the switch]. The instantaneous values read once every hour have 84 larger variance which results in larger *IHV*. This is easily corrected for, e.g. by

85 calculating *IHV* from hourly means [from the 60 one-minute values] and from hourly

- 86 point values and comparing the two IHVs. All early observatory data must be (and has
- 87 been) so corrected.

#### 88 *IHV* is Strongly Correlated With the *Am*-index

- The best global activity index seems to the *am*-index [Mayaud, 1967] due to its excellent spatial coverage. There is a strong correlation (Figure 2) between *IHV* [blue] and the *am*-
- 91 index [red]. For monthly means for FRD, we can calculate *am* from the regression
- 92 equation  $am_{calculated} = 0.7475$  *IHV*. The calculated *am*-index [pink] is a good proxy for *am*
- over the same six-hour interval [00-06 UT] as was used in the calculation of *IHV*. Using
- several stations at different longitudes, a global composite *IHV* can now be constructed. The correlation with *am* is very high ( $R^2 = 0.96$  for monthly or 27-day rotation means),
- 95 The correlation with am is very high (R = 0.96 for monthly of 27-day rotation means) 96 which means that we can reconstruct the *am*-index as far back as we can get *IHV*.

## 97 Variation of *IHV* With Latitude

For *all* (~120) stations that had [essentially complete] data during 1996-2003, we calculated the average *IHV* for each station over that interval and plotted it against corrected geomagnetic latitude and found that *IHV* increases sharply in the auroral zones and we *limit* ourselves now to stations below  $55^{\circ}$  corrected geomagnetic latitude, for which the variation with latitude is very slight.

#### 103 Semiannual Variation of (Raw) IHV

104 *IHV* exhibits the 'usual' equinoctial semiannual variation [e.g. Svalgaard et al., 2002, and 105 references therein]. This variation is well described by the 'S'-function of the Earth's 106 dipole tilt,  $\Psi(doy, UT)$ , against the solar wind direction:

107 
$$S(\Psi) = 1/(1 + 3\cos^2(\Psi))^{2/3}$$
 (1)

We remove this purely terrestrial effect simply by dividing the raw *IHV* for each station by the *S*-function for that station at the day of year, 'doy', and UT time for every single *IHV* value. This makes it possible to combine records from stations at different longitudes regardless of data gaps. If desired the *S*-function can be applied in reverse to add the variation back in. The fact that *IHV* shows the semiannual (including its UT component) variation so well attests to its efficacy and accuracy as a measure of global geomagnetic activity.

## 115 Stations Used for Construction of *IHV*-index

116 As Figure 3 shows, we use 12 independent longitude [and North/South] "boxes" plus an 117 Equatorial band [blue station symbols]. For each box, a *reference* station is shown in 118 pink. *IHV* for all other stations in the box are normalized to the reference station and the 119 average is computed for the box. Finally, each box is normalized to the European box 120 [Reference station: Niemegk]. From now on we shall works with 27-day Bartels rotation 121 averages for economy of presentation. The stations have been chosen for their long series 122 of hourly mean values and the large number used makes *IHV* robust and rather insensitive 123 to minor errors in the data.

## 124 Composite Global *IHV*-index

By averaging [with equal weight] all the normalized 'box' composites we arrive at a *global* composite *IHV*-index that covers all UT hours. Figure 4(a) shows several years of

the individual box-series to illustrate the consistent response from box to box. Note that there is no clear seasonal difference between north [black] and south [red]. Using stations back to the First Polar Year in 1883 a composite *IHV*-index since then can be constructed. The result is shown in Figure 4(b) including a 13-rotation running mean. Arrows show years with strong high-speed streams.

#### 132 Comparison with Amplitude (Range) Indices

133 We wish to compare the long series of composite *IHV* with the classical range indices, 134 am, ap, and aa, in order to verify to what degree we have succeeded in producing a 135 comparable index. Since *IHV* is freed from the semiannual variation we also divide the 136 range indices by the S-function and then regress the Bartels rotation means against IHV. 137 The relationships are slightly non-linear (most so for the Ap-index), but are all highly significant (coefficients of determination  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are in excess of 0.9). For the Aa-index we 138 139 have chosen to regress over the time since 1980 where there has been no change in aastations (and, hopefully, neither in procedures or calibration). 140

141 We can now use these empirical regression equations [e.g.  $Am = 0.2375 IHV^{1.2892}$ ,  $R^2 =$ 

142 0.96] to *calculate* the classical indices for comparison with *IHV*: The result is shown in

143 Figure 5, where heavy lines show 13-rotation running means. As expected, the fit to Am

144 is excellent, so *IHV* is, indeed, an excellent proxy for *Am*. For *Ap*, there are times when

145 the fit is less good. We interpret those as indications of inhomogeneities in the *Ap*-index,

and note that there is no systematic trend in the differences.

For *Aa*, the calculated values  $[Aa = 0.36 IHV^{1.1856}, R^2 = 0.95]$  match well back to 1957, but before that time, the observed values of *Aa* fall consistently 3-4 nT below the values derived from *IHV*. A similar discrepancy has been reported by other groups [Jarvis, 2005; Mursula & Martini, 2006; Rouillard et al., 2007] and must now be considered as established. It would thus seem that the *aa*-index is in need of a recalibration.

#### 152 Physical Meaning of *IHV* (and *am*, *aa*, *ap*)

153 Geomagnetic activity as given by the three-hour *am*-index has been found [Svalgaard 154 1978] to depend on solar wind parameters and the geometry of their interaction with the 155 Earth as this:

156 
$$am = k \left( nV^2 \right)^{1/3} \left( BV \right) q(\alpha, f) S(\Psi)$$
(2)

157 where the various factors have meaning of Momentum flux, Magnetic Reconnection, and 158 Geometric Modulation, and where *B* is the Interplanetary Magnetic Field (IMF) strength, 159 *V* is the Solar Wind Speed, *q* is a function of the angle  $\alpha$  between the IMF and the Earth's 160 magnetic field at the 'nose' of the magnetopause, and the relative variability *f* is defined 161 as  $\sqrt{(\sigma_{Bx}^2 + \sigma_{By}^2 + \sigma_{Bz}^2)/\sigma_{B}}$ .

Figure 6 shows how good the fit is for individual three-hour intervals [red curves = calculated *am*; note the logarithmic-scale]. Only for very small values of *am* [<5 nT] where *am* is almost impossible to measure correctly do we have a persistent discrepancy: *am*, or rather *Km*, is too low. K = 0 is always a problem.

For intervals longer than three hours the variables are weakly correlated and the relation becomes slightly modified to  $am \sim BV^2$ . We would therefore expect a similar relationship for *IHV*. This is indeed what is observed: Figure 7(a). In Figure 7(b) we show a

- 169 comparison of observed (red] and calculated values (black) of  $BV^2$ , using the regression
- equation of Figure 7(a). It is evident that *IHV* is good proxy for  $BV^2$ . It is somewhat remarkable that an [based on K indices conceived so long ago] also is
- 171 remarkable that *am* [based on *K* indices conceived so long ago] also is.

172 During geomagnetic activity, magnetospheric particles are accelerated and precipitate 173 into the upper atmosphere over the polar regions where the energy thus deposited can be

- directly measured by polar-orbiting satellites (POES). From the satellite data, the total
- energy input (in GigaWatt) to each hemisphere can be estimated. Such estimates exist back to 1978 [Emery et al., 2008]. We find that *IHV* is directly proportional to the power
- back to 1978 [Emery et al., 2008]. We find that *IHV* is directly input, Hp, to the upper atmosphere, Hp = 0.68 *IHV* GW.

## 178 The IDV-Index, a Modern Version of the *u*-measure

179 The IHV-index captures activity on a time scale of hours. How about on a time scale of 180 days? Julius Bartels (building on work by Adolf Schmidt) defined the u-measure as the 181 monthly (or yearly) mean of the unsigned differences between the mean values of the H-182 component on two successive days [Joos et al., 1952]. We found that you get essentially 183 the same result using the mean over the whole day, a few hours, or only one hour. Our 184 InterDiurnal Variability index [IDV, Svalgaard & Cliver, 2005] is then simply the 185 average *u*-measure (in nT, not the original 10 nT units) using only one hour (preferably 186 the midnight hour if available) for as many stations as possible below 51° corrected 187 geomagnetic latitude: Figure 8 shows yearly averages of the *u*-measure and *IDV*. During 188 their time of overlap, the match is excellent.

- 189 Note that *u* and *IDV* did not register the strong high-speed streams in 1910, 1930, 1952,
- 190 1974, 1994, and 2003. This (especially for 1930) was a deadly blow to the u-measure,
- and Bartels effectively dropped the index and went on to invent his much more successful
- 192 *K*-index.

## 193 What is the *IDV*-index Measuring? IMF Strength !

*IDV* does not 'see' the high-speed solar wind. But there is a robust correlation with the
IMF magnitude, *B*; see Figure 9(a). This is shown more explicitly on an event-by-event
basis in Figure 9(b). So instead of the *u*-measure being a 'failure', its modern equivalent
[*IDV*] and thus the *u*-measure itself have a very useful property: response to *B* only.

198 Coronal Mass Ejections (CMEs) add (closed) magnetic flux to the IMF. CMEs hitting the 199 Earth create magnetic storms feeding energy into the inner magnetosphere ("ring 200 current"). The *Dst*-index is aimed at describing this same phenomenon, but only the 201 negative contribution to *Dst* on the nightside is effectively involved. We therefore expect (negative) Dst and IDV to be strongly related, and they are  $[R^2 = 0.89$  for yearly 202 203 averages]. We used a new derivation of Dst by J. Love back to 1905 [Love, 2007]. 204 Similar results are obtained with the Dst series by Karinen & Mursula [2005] (to 1932) or 205 with the "official" *Dst* series (to 1957). The very simple-to-derive *IDV* series compares 206 favorably with the much more elaborate Dst(<0). Using regressions of *IDV* and *Dst* (<0) 207 on IMF B we can directly estimate B back to 1872 [Figure 11(a)].

Since there is also a good correlation between B and the square root of the sunspot number, Rz, [Svalgaard et al., 2003; Karinen & Mursula, 2006], we can infer B from Rzas well. Can we go further back in time? Schmidt and Bartels had determined the u211 measure from 1836 on, but with less confidence before 1872. We thus have a measure of 212 u and therefore of *IDV* (and then inferentially *B*) back to 1836:

#### 213 **Polar Cap Current and Polar Cap Potential**

214 Across the Earth's polar caps flows a current in the ionosphere. This is a Hall current 215 basically flowing towards the sun. The Earth rotates under this current causing the 216 magnetic effect of the current to rotate once in 24 hours. This rotating daily effect is 217 readily (and has been since 1883, Figure 10(b)) observed as a circle in the X and Y 218 component coordinates at polar cap magnetic observatories. The current derives from the 219 Polar Cap Electric Potential which is basically the electric field (E = -VxB) in the solar 220 wind mapped down to the ionosphere. The radius of the circle traced out by variation of 221 horizontal components is a measure of the polar cap potential [Figure 10(a)] and is 222 essentially the same for all stations within the polar cap. For stations near the polar cap 223 boundary, the circle is only partial and persists only when the station is inside the polar 224 cap. From the size of the circle during the spacecraft area we can calibrate the variation in 225 terms of the product VB [Le Sager & Svalgaard, 2004].

#### 226 An Over-determined System

- 227 We now have three independent ways of estimating solar wind and IMF parameters:
- 228 1. The *IHV*-index, estimating  $BV^2$
- 229 2. The *IDV*-index, estimating *B*
- 2303. Polar Cap variation, estimating VB

These indices are readily computed from simple hourly means (or values) for which we 231 have measurements stretching back into the early 19<sup>th</sup> Century. We can thus estimate the 232 speed  $V = \sqrt{[(BV^2) / B]}$  and use that value to calculate VB for comparison with the 233 234 estimated VB, as shown in Figure 11. Although there are several second order effects, 235 such as combined Rosenberg-Coleman and Russell-McPherron effects [e.g. Cliver et al., 236 2004], polar cap conductivity dependence on solar activity, and decrease of the 237 geomagnetic dipole strength, that contribute to the small discrepancies found, the 238 agreement is quite remarkable and strongly suggests that the determinations of B and V in 239 the past are well in hand.

## 240 The Floor in the Heliospheric Magnetic Field

- We can even do the analysis for a time scale of solar rotations, Figure 12. Note the 'floor' in *B* [Svalgaard & Cliver, 2007b; Owens et al., 2008]. A *B* floor implies the existence of a time-invariant component of the open solar flux, suggesting that the Heliospheric magnetic flux consists of a constant open flux component, with a time-varying contribution from the closed flux carried by coronal mass ejections (CMEs), which provides the solar cycle variation in *B*.
- The return to the same value of B at each solar minimum means that flux added by CMEs must be balanced over the solar cycle, either by opening the closed flux via reconnection with open flux or by disconnecting an equivalent amount of open flux. The use of the treasure trove of hourly mean values has thus added important observational evidence to the modern discussion of Heliospheric magnetic field evolution; a point that would have

delighted the early observers, as well as reminding *us* of the importance of preserving anddigitizing the geomagnetic record.

#### 254 Using the Dayside Data

255 It was known already to Rudolf Wolf in the 1850s that the amplitude of the diurnal 256 variation of the Declination was a sensitive function of the sunspot number that he had 257 just introduced [Wolf, 1859]. Figure 13(a) shows the clear difference between the 258 variation of D at Praha (PRU) for sunspot maximum years (1957-1959) and sunspot 259 minimum years (1964-1965). As Figure 13(b) shows, this variation was well observed 260 even back in 1840-1849. Wolf used this relationship between the amplitude of the 261 variation and the sunspot number as an aid in calibrating the sunspot number calculated 262 from observations by other observers for times before his own observations started in 263 1849, and marveled: "Wer hätte noch vor wenigen Jahren an die Möglichkeit gedacht, 264 aus den Sonnenflecken-beobachtungen ein terrestrisches Phänomen zu berechnen?"

265 The origin of these variations is the combined magnetic effects of ionospheric current 266 vortices flowing in the E-region and of corresponding induced 'telluric' currents, created 267 by dynamo action. Along the 'flanks' of the (external) vortices, the current flow is 268 equatorwards on the morning side and polewards on the afternoon side. The magnetic 269 effect at mid-latitudes of these currents at a right angle to the current flow is thus East-270 West. As the "ring current" and the auroral electrojets and their return currents that are 271 responsible for geomagnetic activity have generally North-South directed magnetic 272 effects (strongest at night), the daytime variation of the Y or East component is a suitable 273 proxy for the strength of the  $S_R$  ionospheric current system.

274 The Declination can be converted to the East component using  $Y = H \sin(D)$ . The diurnal 275 variation of Y is almost constant over a wide latitude range (20°-60°) and can readily be 276 determined from hourly means. Using a large number of stations [Olso, Greenwich, 277 Milan, Helsinki, Zi-Ka-Wei, etc] we can construct a composite series of the amplitude, 278 rY, of the daily variation of Y from the 1840s until today, see Figure 14. The slight 279 upwards trend is expected from the increase in ionospheric conductance due to the 280 decrease of the geomagnetic dipole moment, and can be corrected for. The fact that the 281 expected trend can even be detected attests to the accuracy of the determination of rY.

## 282 Calibrating the Sunspot Number

It is well-known that the strength of the  $S_R$  current system is a sensitive function of the conductance of the ionosphere which in turn can be well-described by the 10.7 cm solar radio flux. In fact, we can translate *rY* directly into an equivalent f10.7 flux as shown in Figure 15(a), and plot the flux calculated from the regression equation for comparison with the observed f10.7 radio flux in Figure 15(b).

Because the f10.7 radio flux depends on the sunspot number we can turn the calculated f10.7 flux into an equivalent sunspot number (Figure 16) and discover that there are indications that the calibration of even the venerable sunspot number before ~1945 is questionable. Both the Zürich and the Group Sunspot Number are too low before 1945 to account for the observed values of rY. The discrepancies correlate with Wolfer's change of sunspot counting method at Wolf's death in 1893 and the beginning of the inexperienced Waldmeier's tenure (1945) as the official keeper of the sunspot number. The impersonal and objective determination of rY overcomes the subjective element in determination of the sunspot number and can safeguard its long-term calibration, as Wolf so rightly realized. The implications of a reassessment of the sunspot series are wide ranging. At the time of writing this is ongoing work. Space does not permit further elaboration here, but a preliminary report can be found in Svalgaard [2007].

## 300 **Reconstruction of Total Solar Irradiance**

301 As the sunspot number is often used as primary input to reconstructions of TSI, the Total 302 Solar Irradiance, any re-calibration of the sunspot number series will impact TSI, and 303 thus, through its use as a driver in climate models, the debate over climate change. Figure 304 17 shows a possible re-construction using a revised sunspot number series and compares 305 it to several other current (and superseded - but still in use!) reconstructions. It is 306 noteworthy that our reconstruction closely matches that of Preminger & Walton [2004] 307 based on sunspot areas rather than sunspot numbers, and that the reconstructions over 308 time have converged and now show a much smaller variation than initially thought, 309 suggesting a much smaller impact on climate, unless the climate system is implausibly 310 hypersensitive to changes in solar output.

#### 311 Conclusions

312 1: The hourly values in yearbooks are an extremely valuable data source that allows us

313 to calibrate our long-term geomagnetic and solar indices as far back as the 314 geomagnetic record reaches.

315 2: By combinations of newly derived geomagnetic indices we can infer the physical316 properties of the solar wind in the past.

317 3. The availability of almost two centuries of reliable geomagnetic data has led to318 possible reassessments of several often-used indices of solar activity.

- 4: Every effort should be expended to preserve and digitize the treasure trove of 19<sup>th</sup>
  Century hourly data.
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388 389 390	Several of the above papers, as well as related material, can be found at the author's

- 391 website at <u>http://www.leif.org/research</u>
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#### **Figure Captions**

Figure 1: Variation of the geomagnetic elements at Fredericksburg (FRD) over several
days. Red boxes show local night. The first day (May 11, 1999) is the day when the
solar wind famously 'disappeared'.

Figure 2: Monthly means of the InterHourly Variability index (*IHV*) for FRD [blue curve] and the *am*-index for the first 2 intervals of the UT-day [red curve]. The thin pink curve shows *IHV* scaled by 0.7475.

Figure 3: Stations used in the construction of the *IHV*-index. In 12 regions distributed in latitude and longitude *IHV* derived for the stations [red dots] are normalized to a reference station [pink]. *IHV* for an equatorial region [blue] is also calculated and found to match the mid-latitude regions. Stations above 55° corrected geomagnetic latitude are not to be used.

- Figure 4: (a) A section of Bartels 27-day rotation averages of the *IHV*-index showing
  all Northern Hemisphere [black] and Southern Hemisphere [red] regional *IHV*s. (b)
  The composite *IHV*-index for each rotation since 1883 [grey] and the 13-rotation
  running mean [heavy black].
- 411 Figure 5: Observed [red] and calculated (from regression equations) [blue] 27-day
- 412 rotation averages (top) of Am-index, (middle) of Ap-index, (bottom) of Aa-index...
- 413 Heavier curves show 13-rotation running means. All indices have been freed from the
- 414 equinoctial effect using eq.(1).

Figure 6: Synthetic individual *am* 3-hour values calculated [red] from solar wind parameters using eq.(2) and corresponding observed *am* values for six Bartels rotations. The scale is logarithmic to show how well calculated and observed values match at all scales. The match is poor for am < 5 nT where the index is very difficult to measure or where the coupling function is less valid.

420 Figure 7: (a) Correlation of all rotation means of *IHV* with  $BV_0^2$  (where  $V_0$  is a 421 shorthand for V in units of 100 km/s) as observed by spacecraft. (b) Detailed 422 comparison of observed and calculated [using the regression equation above]  $BV_0^2$  for 423 a twelve year interval, 1980-1992.

424 Figure 8: Yearly average *u*-measures in 1 nT units [blue] and *IDV*-index values [red].

Figure 9: (a) Correlations between yearly values of *B* and *V* versus *IDV*. It is clear that there is a robust ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ) correlation with *B*, but none with *V*. (b) Runs of *V*, *B*, and *IDV* since the beginning of the spacecraft era. Lack of matching response to *V* is shown by dark arrows, while matching responses to *B* are shown by pink arrows. The failure of the *u*-measure to record the recurrent high-speed streams in 1930 now becomes clear.

- Figure 10: (a) The average variation [over 1980-2004] of the end point of the vector from hour to hour (symbols) of the magnetic effect of the overhead current sheet for ALE (Alert), THL (Thule), RES (Resolute Bay), CBB (Cambridge Bay), and BLC (Baker Lake). Whenever a station is inside the polar cap it feels the effect of the uniform current seen by all. (b) Similar vector diagram for Kingua-Fjord during the first Polar Year1882-1883 <u>http://www.arctic.noaa.gov/aro/ipy-1/Series-NB-P1.htm</u>.
- Figure 11: (a) Yearly values of *B* deduced from *IDV* and of  $V_o$  deduced from *IHV* (with *B* from *IDV*), blue curves, compared to spacecraft values, red curves. (b)  $BV_o$ (blue curve) computed from *B* and  $V_o$  taken from (a) compared to  $BV_o$  computed using spacecraft data (red curve) and deduced from polar cap diurnal vector 'circle' variation [c.f. Figure 10] (green curve).
- Figure 12: (a) Bartels rotation average *B* deduced from *IDV* (black) and measured by spacecraft (red). Note the 'floor'. The green line is a 4<sup>th</sup> order polynomial fit to indicate an approximate smooth trend. Heavy curves show 13-rotation running means. (b) Same, but for  $V_{0}$ .
- Figure 13: (a) Diurnal and seasonal variation of the Declination at Praha (PRU). For each month the graph shows the local time variation (blue curves) and for the whole year (red). Sunspot maximum [1957-1959] is shown by darker colored curves, while sunspot minimum [1964-1965] is shown by lighter colored curves. (b) Same, but for the interval 1840-1849. The definition of the full range, rY, is shown by the arrow.
- Figure 14: The variation since 1841 of rY derived from several stations as described in the text. The solar cycle effect is clearly seen. The minimum values (when no spots are present) show a slight increasing trend consistent with the increase of ionospheric conductance due to the declining geomagnetic dipole moment. Removing the trend results in the red curve.

- Figure 15: (a) Correlation between yearly averages of f10.7 radio flux and the diurnal range, rY, over the interval 1947-2005. (b) Comparison of observed f10.7 radio flux
- 458 (red) and flux calculated from the above regression equation (blue).
- 459 Figure 16: Calculated (blue curve) yearly average International Sunspot Number,  $R_I$ ,
- 460 from rY since 1841. Observed yearly averages of  $R_I$ , or  $R_Z$  (red) and Group Sunspot 461 Number,  $R_G$ , (gray) are shown for comparison. Each cycle is marked with the number
- 462 of the cycle. Note the overlap between panels.
- 463 Figure 17: Several reconstruction of TSI (Total Solar Irradiance) from 1993 [Hoyt &
- 464 Schatten] onwards. There is a progressive decrease with time of publication of the
- 465 amplitude of the estimated variation. Modern reconstructions keep the variation of TSI
- 466 within about  $1 \text{ W/m}^2$ .
- 467
- 468





Figure 2







Figure 4







Figure 6









Figure 8



Figure 9







Figure 11













Figure 14









Figure 16



Figure 17