

¹ **Density variations in the Earth's magnetospheric**
² **cusps**

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Author Manuscript

¹Mechanical Engineering Department and

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as doi:

10.1029/2015JA022095

February 19, 2016, 9:53pm

D R A F T

Abstract. Seven years of measurements from the Polar spacecraft are surveyed to monitor the variations of plasma density within the magnetospheric cusps. The spacecraft's orbital precession from 1998 through 2005

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6 allows for coverage of both the northern and southern cusps from low alti-
7 tude out to the magnetopause. In the mid- and high- altitude cusp, plasma
8 density scales well with the solar wind density ($n_{cusp}/n_{sw} \sim 0.8$). This trend
9 is fairly steady for radial distances greater than $4 R_E$. At low altitudes ($r < 4$
10 R_E) the density increases with decreasing altitude and even exceeds the so-
11 lar wind density due to contributions from the ionosphere. The density of
12 high charge-state Oxygen ($O^{>+2}$) also displays a positive trend with solar
13 wind density within the cusp. A multifluid simulation with the BATSRUS
14 MHD model was run to monitor the relative contributions of the ionosphere
15 and solar wind plasma within the cusp. The simulation provides similar re-
16 sults to the statistical measurements from Polar and confirms the presence
17 of ionospheric plasma at low altitudes.

1. Introduction

18 A necessary feature of a planetary dipole magnetic field is a cusp in each hemisphere with
19 converging magnetic field lines. Early spacecraft measurements identified the cusps as the
20 regions with the most direct entry of solar wind plasma into the Earth's magnetosphere
21 [*Heikkila and Winningham, 1971; Frank, 1971*]. Over time, a number of in-situ spacecraft
22 have observed solar wind plasma in the cusp over a large range of radial distances from
23 the low altitude ionosphere [e.g. *Newell and Meng, 1988; Woch and Lundin, 1992*] out to
24 the magnetopause [e.g. *Haerendel et al., 1978; Farrell and Van Allen, 1990*]. Statistical
25 studies from the Viking [*Aparicio et al., 1991*] and Cluster spacecraft [*Lavraud et al.,*
26 *2004*] show the density of plasma within the cusp to be greater than that in adjacent
27 magnetospheric regions and to scale with the solar wind density.

28 We understand the terrestrial cusps and solar wind entry in terms of magnetic re-
29 connection. The magnetic field lines threading the cusps extend outward and form the
30 magnetopause. As reconnection occurs along the magnetopause, closed geomagnetic field
31 lines become interconnected with those in the magnetosheath, and shocked solar wind
32 plasma can flow freely along the newly opened field lines into the cusps. Observationally,
33 the entry of solar wind plasma into the cusps is measured through a number of signatures.
34 The composition within the cusps includes ion species of solar wind origin such as He^{++}
35 [*Shelley et al., 1976*] as well as heavy solar wind ions [*Kremser et al., 1995; Perry et al.,*
36 *2000*]. Particles also show a number of time-of-flight effects as consequences of newly
37 opened magnetic field lines convecting tailward through the cusp. These time-of-flight
38 effects include a temperature anisotropy T_{\perp}/T_{\parallel} increasing with latitude and time energy

39 dispersions [*Rosenbauer et al.*, 1975; *Reiff et al.*, 1977]. Both the composition and time-
40 of-flight effects indicate solar wind plasma being injected onto magnetospheric field lines
41 opened through magnetopause reconnection.

42 Although the cusp density is greater than the adjacent magnetospheric regions, it is
43 often structured due to these time-of-flight effects. During periods of steady magnetopause
44 reconnection at the subsolar magnetopause, a peak in density is observed at the low
45 latitude edge of the cusp while the density decreases with increasing latitude [*Escoubet*
46 *et al.*, 2008; *Pitout et al.*, 2009]. For periods when steady reconnection occurs poleward
47 of the cusp, a less-defined density dispersion in the opposite direction, with the peak in
48 density on the poleward edge, is often observed. During periods of temporally variable
49 reconnection or multiple reconnection lines, multiple density dispersions are observed,
50 often overlapping. These structures within the cusps have been used as tracers for the
51 location and variability of magnetopause reconnection [e.g. *Smith and Lockwood*, 1990;
52 *Newell and Meng*, 1991; *Escoubet et al.*, 1992; *Lockwood and Smith*, 1994; *Lockwood*, 1995;
53 *Trattner et al.*, 1998]. Although the shape of the density structures provides valuable
54 information, the magnitude of density within the cusp as a function of radial distance
55 also provides information about the efficiency of solar wind entry and is the focus of the
56 current study.

57 Solar wind plasma within the terrestrial cusps is also important because it can undergo
58 charge exchange with exospheric neutrals. In the process of solar wind charge exchange
59 (sometimes referred to as SWCX in the literature), a high charge-state ion collides with a
60 neutral atom or molecule. Often the high charge-state ion from the solar wind is Carbon
61 or Oxygen while the most abundant neutral target species is often Hydrogen. Through

62 this interaction an electron is transferred from the neutral to the high charge-state ion in
63 an excited state. As the electron transitions to a lower energy state a soft X-ray photon
64 is released. This can occur anywhere a plasma with high charge-state ions interacts with
65 neutral atoms such as comets [*Cravens et al.*, 1997], planetary and lunar environments
66 [*Dennerl et al.*, 2002; *Dennerl*, 2002; *Wargelin et al.*, 2004; *Collier et al.*, 2014], as well
67 as the Earth [*Cravens et al.*, 2001; *Snowden et al.*, 2004; *Carter et al.*, 2011]. Within the
68 cusps, high charge-state solar wind plasma can penetrate deep into the magnetosphere,
69 and to smaller radial distances, where the neutral density is high. In these regions the
70 ingredients for charge exchange are abundant and both modeling [*Robertson et al.*, 2006;
71 *Kuntz et al.*, 2015] and observations [*Fujimoto et al.*, 2007] have shown the soft X-ray
72 emissions to be high. The current study quantifies the entry of solar wind plasma within
73 the cusp as a function of solar wind density and radial distance within the cusp. This
74 provides the necessary knowledge of density profiles to appropriately model the predicted
75 soft X-ray emissions within the cusp.

2. Instrumentation

76 The Polar spacecraft was launched in February 1996 into an eccentric polar orbit (9.5
77 $R_E \times 1.8 R_E$) with an orbital period close to 17.5 hours. As the mission progressed, the
78 line of apsides dropped, allowing observational coverage of the cusp at a range of radial
79 distances from the Earth over the course of the mission. Figure 1 shows the progression
80 of the orbit over time. The current study used measurements from 1998 through 2005 to
81 monitor the cusp at a variety of radial distances.

82 In-situ measurements of the cusp and adjacent magnetospheric regions were obtained
83 from the Hot Plasma Analyser (HYDRA) [*Scudder et al.*, 1995], Electric Field Instrument

84 (EFI) [Harvey et al., 1995], Magnetic Field Experiment (MFE) [Russell, et al., 1995], and
85 Magnetospheric Ion Composition Spectrometer (MICS) sensor. The MICS sensor was
86 part of the Charge and Mass Magnetospheric Ion Composition Experiment (Cammice)
87 on Polar. A similar instrument to MICS flew on CRRES [Wilken et al., 1992]. Bulk
88 flow measurements used in this study were from HYDRA while the electron density was
89 from EFI. The MICS sensor separated incident ions by energy per charge through an
90 electrostatic analyzer then identified the mass per charge through post acceleration and
91 time-of-flight. The total energy is measured by measurement of the particle on a solid
92 state detector. The system was able to measure fluxes of a number of ion species. Two
93 presented in the present study are high charge-state Oxygen ($O^{>+2}$) and He^{++} with energy
94 per charge (E/Q) from 1 to 300 keV.

95 Solar wind densities were obtained from the OMNI database [King and Papitashvili,
96 2005] which are provided time-propagated to the nose of the bow shock. 1 minute time
97 resolution data are used. Uncertainties in the propagation [Collier et al., 1998, e.g.] may
98 lead to some scatter in the results of this study. An evaluation of how different errors in
99 propagation time may impact the results is presented in section 3.1.2.

3. Observations

100 A conservative identification of the cusp was made using the criteria described below.
101 Spatially, the spacecraft position was required to be within 1.5 hours of noon in magnetic
102 local time and between 70° and 85° in invariant latitude. The electron spectra were
103 required to peak at $100 \text{ eV} \pm 50\%$, indicating shocked solar wind plasma. The duration
104 of the encounter was required to exceed 5 minutes. Lastly, the bulk flow was required to be
105 less than 150 km/s, to eliminate periods when the spacecraft was in the magnetosheath.

106 In reality the cusp position can be outside of the spatial bins set up for this study, however
107 previous statistical studies at low [*Newell and Meng, 1992*] and high altitude [*Palmroth*
108 *et al., 2001; Āerka et al., 2002; Niehof et al., 2010*] have found the cusp to be within
109 this region the majority of the time, so our identification criteria identified sufficient cusp
110 passes to monitor the changes in density with this criterion.

111 Two sample cusp crossings are shown in Figure 2, one at high altitude ($r \sim 8.5 R_E$) and
112 one at lower altitude ($r \sim 2.3 R_E$). In the high altitude pass on the left, the spacecraft
113 passes from the dayside trapping region to the cusp to the lobe. Within the cusp there
114 are increased fluxes of solar wind ions (He^{++} , and $\text{O}^{>+2}$), indicative of solar wind plasma
115 entry (Figure 2, panels b and c). The plasma transitions from a hot and tenuous plasma
116 within the trapping region to a cool dense plasma with a peak in electron flux near 100
117 eV. The density and electron flux at 100 eV decreases as Polar passes into the lobe region.

118 The cusp magnetic field at high altitude is depressed and turbulent. This feature is
119 often called a cusp diamagnetic cavity or “CDC” and is observed [e.g. *Fritz et al., 2003;*
120 *Walsh et al., 2007; Niehof et al., 2010*] and modeled in the exterior cusp [*Adamson et*
121 *al., 2011*]. Although the diamagnetic cavity can show clear boundaries that delineate the
122 cusp at large radial distances, it is not as clear at smaller radial distances. The formation
123 of the diamagnetic cavity is due to a pressure balance between the magnetic pressure
124 of the geomagnetic field and the thermal pressure of the injected, shocked, solar wind
125 plasma. If density stays constant along the magnetic field lines threading the cusp, and
126 the magnitude of the magnetic field increases as $1/r^3$, the sharp gradients in the magnetic
127 field at the edges of the cusp will disappear at lower radial distances. The absence of the
128 diamagnetic cavity is seen in the low altitude cusp pass on the right hand side of Figure 2.

129 The variable depth of the cusp diamagnetic cavity is also observed with statistical maps
130 from Polar [*Zhou et al.*, 2001], Cluster [*Lavraud et al.*, 2004], as well as statistical studies
131 with combined spacecraft [*Tsyganenko*, 2009].

132 In the low altitude cusp, shown in the right hand side of Figure 2, Polar passes from
133 the lobe to the cusp to the dayside trapping region. Once again, observations of the
134 cusp presents increased flux of solar wind plasma, identified from the 100 eV electrons.
135 The cusp pass at low altitude has a duration of less than 10 minutes. The size of the
136 cusp is typically smaller at low altitudes, while the velocity of Polar is greater. Some
137 enhancements of He^{++} and $\text{O}^{>+2}$ can be seen, but fluxes were low. In this region, EFI
138 densities from the spacecraft potential exceed those from HYDRA particle measurements.
139 This implies the presence of a cold plasma population below the threshold of the HYDRA
140 detector (~ 5 eV). One may also be concerned this is a result of a calibration issue between
141 the two instruments. Since the discrepancy is present in both the north and south cusps
142 and only at low altitudes, it is likely this is real and due to the presence of cold plasma.

3.1. Statistical results

143 Using the conservative cusp criteria defined above, 337 cusp passes from Polar were
144 identified from 1998 through 2005. Figure 3 presents the spatial positions of each cusp
145 pass colored by year of observation. The sampling covers a wide range of radial distances,
146 and the shape of the converging field lines can clearly be seen. Due to the precession of
147 the orbit, fewer samples were available in the southern cusp.

3.1.1. Density profiles

148 Mid- and high-altitude cusp densities track solar wind densities closely. This is con-
149 sistent with results from the Viking spacecraft [*Aparicio et al.*, 1991]. Figure 4 presents
150

151 the density in the cusp as a function of the solar wind density. Each point represents
152 one spacecraft pass through the cusp. The median solar wind and cusp densities during
153 the pass are plotted. When Polar is within the cusp at radial distances greater than ~ 4
154 R_E , the cusp densities track those within the solar wind closely, indicating efficient and
155 rapid solar wind entry (Figure 4b). As solar wind densities change, cusp densities change
156 quickly reflecting the change. Cusp and solar wind densities are well correlated (Pearson
157 correlation coefficient of 0.78) over the order of magnitude variations in solar wind density
158 observed during these cusp passes.

159 At radial distances less than $\sim 4 R_E$ the density in the cusp is often larger than that
160 in the solar wind (Figure 4a). This is likely a result of multiple sources of plasma in the
161 cusp. In the mid- and high-cusp, the primary population consists of shocked solar wind
162 plasma. At low altitudes the cusp also has significant contributions from the ionosphere.
163 A display of the cusp densities scaled by solar wind density is given with spatial positions
164 in Figure 5. Each point represents the mean position of one cusp passage and the cusp and
165 solar wind density are the median values during the passage. The increase in cusp density
166 at low altitude is seen in both the northern and southern hemisphere. The increase in
167 cusp density to values greater than the solar wind density is likely due to contributions
168 from the ionosphere [see the reviews *André and Yau, 1997; Yau and André, 1997*].

169 With these measurements, one can also quantify the density of solar wind plasma in the
170 cusp. Figure 6 presents statistics of the density ratio (n_{cusp}/n_{sw}) as a function of radial
171 distance. The cross-bar in each blue box is the median while the top and bottom of each
172 box are the first and third quartiles of the data in each $0.5R_E$ radial distance bin. The
173 blue whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. Similar to the treatment of the

174 data above and in Figure 4, the discussion of the density ratio is separated to focus on
175 radial distances first greater than and then less than $4R_E$. The separation allows us to
176 roughly isolate regions dominated by different sources, the solar wind and the ionosphere.

177 At radial distances in the cusp greater than $4 R_E$, the median density ratio (n_{cusp}/n_{sw})
178 ranges between 0.55 and 0.84. Although the median value shows some variability, there is
179 no clear trend for the cusp density to increase or decrease with radial distance in the mid-
180 and high-altitude cusps. A nearly steady solar wind density ratio with decreasing radial
181 distance in this range is consistent with predictions of the Liouville Theorem. Although
182 some particles mirror and bounce out of the cusp where the magnitude of the magnetic
183 field becomes larger, field lines also converge which brings more particles into a smaller
184 area. When all points at $r > 4 R_E$ are included, the median cusp density is 80% of that in
185 the solar wind. Statistical surveys have shown that in the magnetosheath density adjacent
186 to the dayside magnetopause ranges from ~ 2 to 5 times that in the solar wind [*Walsh*
187 *et al.*, 2012; *Dimmock and Nykyri*, 2013]. Although the density in the mid- and high-
188 altitude cusp scales with that in the solar wind, the magnitude is less than that in the
189 adjacent magnetosheath.

190 At radial distances less than $4 R_E$, the median density ratio increases with decreasing
191 radial distance from a value of 0.76 at $4.0-4.5 R_E$ to 2.98 at the lowest altitude bin surveyed
192 ($2.0-2.5 R_E$). With decreasing radial distance the range of the density ratio also increases,
193 shown in the first and third quartiles of the data. Since the drivers of ion outflow in the
194 cusp can be highly time-dependent, large variability in density from the ionosphere would
195 be anticipated at low altitudes. This density profile as a function of radial distance is
196 consistent with these predictions. Although solar wind plasma dominates in the mid- and

197 high-altitude cusp, contributions from the ionosphere begin to become significant near ~ 4
198 R_E where the density and variability increase with decreasing radial distance.

199 **3.1.2. Speed of Entry**

200 Solar wind plasma enters the cusp rapidly. To look for possible delays in the entry of
201 solar wind plasma, the time period used to obtain solar wind density was shifted to up
202 to a maximum value of ± 30 minutes by intervals of 1 minute. The Pearson correlation
203 coefficient between the cusp densities observed by Polar and the time-shifted solar wind
204 density from OMNI was then calculated. The results are presented in Figure 7. To avoid
205 cusp measurements where the density may be dominated by ionospheric contributions,
206 passes with a mean radial distance less than $4 R_E$ were excluded, as done in Figure 4b.
207 The correlation coefficient peaks at -3 minutes. A peak in correlation coefficient with
208 a positive time delay would indicate it takes a finite time delay for the plasma to enter
209 the cusp. A negative offset (as observed here) indicates a density increase in the cusp
210 occurs before one in the solar wind. Although a negative delay is shown here, it is a
211 non-physical result and is likely a product of the error in propagation used. The OMNI
212 dataset time-lags the solar wind data from spacecraft orbiting L1 to the nose of the bow
213 shock. This process includes error due a number of effects including the position of the
214 spacecraft relative to the Earth-sun line as well as poor identification of the orientation of
215 solar wind structural fronts. In an effort to study the entry speed of the solar wind, the
216 fact that the delay to obtain the peak correlation coefficient is small, and even negative
217 in this case, indicates the solar wind has rapid entry.

3.2. High charge-state solar wind ions

218 The ionization state of heavy ions such as Oxygen can be used as tracers of their
219 origin. High charge-state ions observed within the magnetosphere are typically of solar
220 wind origin, while lower charge-states typically come from the ionosphere. The density
221 of high charge-state Oxygen ($O^{>+2}$) in the cusp calculated with measurements from the
222 MICS detector are presented as a function of solar wind density in Figure 8. Just as in
223 Figure 4, each point in Figure 8 represents the median values during one cusp pass. Once
224 again, there is a positive trend between the cusp and the solar wind densities indicating
225 the efficient entry of high charge-state and heavy ions. In the case of $O^{>+2}$ there is
226 significantly more scatter than seen in the scaling between solar wind and cusp electron
227 density. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the two sets is 0.38. This discrepancy
228 is likely due to the limitations of the detector for this measurement. The energy range
229 of the MICS detector does not capture the core of the Oxygen particle distribution, so
230 the calculated densities are underestimates of the true values. Changes in the shape of
231 the distribution means the underestimate of the density is not systematic. Additionally,
232 the $O^{>+2}$ density values include larger error due to lower counting statistics. (Further
233 description of the calculation of the density from the MICS measurements is included in
234 Appendix A.) These observational limitations prevent a quantitative analysis of how the
235 density of high charge-state ions may vary with radial distance or position within the
236 cusp, however a positive trend with solar wind density can be established.

4. Magnetohydrodynamics

237 The multifluid BATSRUS model [*Powell et al.*, 1999; *Tóth et al.*, 2005; *Glocer et al.*,
238 2009; *Tóth et al.*, 2012] was run to monitor the relative density contributions within the

239 cusp in MHD. Two separate fluids were tracked in the model, one from the solar wind
240 originating at the upstream boundary, and one from the ionosphere originating at the
241 inner boundary. By separating the ionospheric and solar wind fluids, the two populations
242 can counter-stream and produce more realistic cusp dynamics than a single-fluid approach
243 [*Welling and Liemohn, 2014*]. The inner boundary is at $2.5 R_E$. The multifluid MHD run
244 was initialized with 4 hours of steady upstream conditions. The upstream parameters in
245 GSM coordinates were held constant at $V[x,y,z] = [-450,0,0]$ km/s, $B[x,y,z] = [0,0,-10]$ nT
246 and $n_{sw} = 8.7\text{cm}^{-3}$. The density at the inner boundary was set to 28cm^{-3} . The grid
247 spacing in the low and medium latitude cusp ($r < 5R_E$) is $1/16R_E$ and $1/8 R_E$ at larger
248 radial distances. The top panels in Figure 9 present the densities in the GSM $Y = 0$
249 plane. A magnetic field line threading the cusp is traced and plotted in each density slice.
250 Since the cusp topology follows magnetic field lines, use of a field line provides a better
251 map of the radial extent than a straight line. The field line is used to trace the cusp for
252 the bottom panel of Figure 9.

253 The multifluid MHD model described above performs well in producing trends observed
254 by Polar. Just as in the spacecraft measurements, the model shows that plasma of solar
255 wind origin dominates the density in the exterior cusp, while by plasma of ionosphere
256 origin dominates densities in the low altitude cusp. The bottom panel of Figure 9 presents
257 the relative contributions to the total plasma density as a function of radial distance in
258 a similar format to that of Figure 6. At low altitude, the model indicates that the total
259 density in the cusp exceeds that in solar wind at a radial distance near $4.2 R_E$ and
260 continues to increase with decreasing altitude due to increasing contributions from the
261 ionosphere. Polar observes this transition to occur at radial distances from 3.5 to $4.0 R_E$.

262 Although the model reproduces the density trend observed by Polar, the radial position of
263 this transition does not match precisely, and there are several reasons why this behavior
264 is expected. First, while ionospheric outflow is driven by many processes, both kinetic
265 and fluid (see, for example, *Welling et al.* [2015] and references therein), only a handful
266 of outflow processes are captured in MHD without including a stand-alone outflow model
267 [*Welling and Liemohn*, 2014]. This is especially true in the cusp.

268 By contrast to the trend successfully reproduced at low altitude, the multifluid MHD
269 does not appropriately describe the behavior of the density in the exterior cusp. The
270 model predicts the density of solar wind plasma in the cusp to increase with radial distance
271 continuously up to the magnetopause. The large contribution of solar wind plasma even
272 causes the total density in the cusp to increase to levels greater than the solar wind near the
273 magnetopause. This trend is not observed within the Polar measurements. Polar observes
274 the density in the cusp to remain approximately constant (Figure 6) with increasing radial
275 distance beyond $r \sim 4 R_E$.

276 In addition to the ion outflow described above, there are additional reasons why there
277 may be discrepancies. The cusp is often defined through kinetic features such as precip-
278 itating solar wind particles and energy dispersions. These features are not included in
279 MHD, and their absence may contribute to the estimate of solar wind plasma in the cusp
280 by MHD. Another feature which could impact the treatment of the cusp is the grid cell
281 resolution. Previous MHD simulations have shown the spatial extent of the cusp to be a
282 function of the resolution [*Zhang et al.*, 2013], therefore the plasma entry and density are
283 also likely to depend on the resolution.

5. Conclusion

284 Statistical observations from the Polar spacecraft show the density in the mid- and high
 285 altitude cusp ($r > 4 R_E$) to be fairly constant at $\sim 80\%$ of that in the solar wind. The
 286 scaling with real-time solar wind density confirms rapid entry of solar wind plasma into
 287 the cusps. At radial distances less than $4 R_E$ the cusp density increases to values greater
 288 than that within the solar wind, indicating contributions from the ionosphere which can
 289 dominate the total density in the cusp. The range of density ratio (n_{cusp}/n_{sw}) values
 290 also increases in the low altitude cusp, indicating variable rates of ion outflow from the
 291 ionosphere. The density of high charge-state Oxygen ($O^{>+2}$) displays a positive trend with
 292 solar wind density within the cusp. Multifluid MHD modeling was conducted to show the
 293 relative contributions of an ionospheric plasma and a solar wind plasma. The results were
 294 consistent with the Polar observations and confirmed the ionospheric contributions at low
 295 altitude.

Appendix A: MICS Density Calculations

High charge-state oxygen densities were calculated by integrating the distribution function derived from the MICS differential number flux j , in $1/(s\text{ cm}^2\text{ sr keV}/e)$. (The MICS fluxes are expressed as a function of energy per charge, resulting from selection by the ESA.) The distribution function f in terms of the flux, in energy space, is (e.g. *Lyons and Williams* [1984] equation 2.67):

$$f = \frac{j m^2}{2E} \quad (\text{A1})$$

The three-dimensional velocity differential in pitch angle α and gyrophase ϕ :

$$d\mathbf{v} = v^2 dv \sin\alpha d\alpha d\phi = \frac{\sqrt{2E}}{m^{3/2}} dE \sin\alpha d\alpha d\phi \quad (\text{A2})$$

The number density is the zeroth velocity moment (i.e., the integral over all velocities):

$$n = \int f d\mathbf{v} = \int_{\phi} \int_{\alpha} \int_E \frac{j m^2 \sqrt{2E}}{2E m^{3/2}} dE \sin\alpha d\alpha d\phi \quad (\text{A3})$$

or, assuming gyrotropy and expressing in terms of energy per charge (the measurement MICS makes):

$$n = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{q}} \pi \int_{\alpha} \int_{\frac{E}{q}} \frac{j}{\sqrt{\frac{E}{q}}} \frac{dE}{q} \sin\alpha d\alpha \quad (\text{A4})$$

296 This integral was calculated numerically, using Simpson's method, first over energy and
 297 then over pitch angle, for each complete energy sweep of MICS (approximately 3 minutes,
 298 or 16 spins of Polar.) No attempt was made to extrapolate beyond MICS coverage in
 299 either energy or pitch angle. The larger the angle (0° to 90°) between the field vector and
 300 the spin plane, the larger the MICS pitch angle coverage; this was the case for many high
 301 altitude cusp passes, with the associated depressed and variable magnetic field.

302 The minimum MICS E/q of $1\text{keV}/e$ was usually above the spectral peak in the cusp.
 303 Figure 10 shows the high charge-state (normally $6+$) oxygen flux from three cusp passes,
 304 including the two in Figure 2. It is clear that on the 1998 April and 2000 March passes,
 305 the peak in the plasma flux was below the MICS energy range; for 1999 April, it may have
 306 been just at the bottom of the range. Also clear are the fairly low counting statistics,
 307 particularly on the shorter low-altitude cusp passes. Comparison with total ion densities
 308 from moments of the HYDRA measurements indicates the MICS densities were lower by
 309 a factor of order 40, although this reduction depends on the shape of the distribution.

310 Further simplifications include an assumption that the spacecraft potential was not of
 311 sufficient magnitude to modify the distribution, reasonable even at the minimum MICS
 312 energy of $1\text{keV}/e$. MICS only samples across one angle, as the spacecraft spins; the

313 resulting changes in measured flux were assumed to be due entirely to changes in the
314 pitch angle measured, which requires an assumption both of gyrotropy and that the field
315 is stationary in the spacecraft frame. Motion was assumed nonrelativistic; a 200 keV/e
316 O^{+6} ion would have a Lorentz factor $\gamma = 1.00008$.

317 **Acknowledgments.** Support was given by the NASA grant NNX14AK41G. The au-
318 thors acknowledge use of the SPEDAS analysis software. Analysis of the MHD results
319 was performed using the Spacepy software library [Morley *et al.*, 2011]. Data used in this
320 study are openly accessible from NASA's Coordinate Data Analysis Web (CDAWEB).
321 The CAMMICE/MICS data can be obtained from <http://spacedata.bu.edu/mics.html>.

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Figure 1. Orbit of the Polar spacecraft with time between 1998 and 2005 in GSE coordinates.

Figure 2. Sample cusp crossings from the Polar spacecraft at high and low altitude. The top panel for each pass is density in the solar wind from the OMNI dataset while the rest are measured from the Polar spacecraft.

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Figure 3. Positions of Polar during cusp crossings in GSM coordinates in the (a) XZ and (b) XY planes. The trajectories are colored by the year when the observations were made.

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Figure 4. Density measurements within the cusp from EFI on Polar compared to solar wind density from OMNI. Each point represents the median density during one cusp crossing. The color represents the mean radial distance of the spacecraft during the cusp crossing. The left panel (a) is all cusp crossings, while the right panel (b) is just crossings with radial distances greater than $4 R_E$.

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Figure 5. Spatial position of cusp crossings colored by the ratio of cusp density over the solar wind density. Each point represents one cusp passage. The spatial position of each point is the mean position during the cusp crossing. The density from Polar was obtained from EFI.

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Figure 6. Ratio of cusp density over the solar wind density as a function of radial distance from the Earth. Polar density measurements are from EFI while the solar wind density is from OMNI. The blue box presents the median, first, and third quartiles for data in each $0.5 R_E$ bin. The blue whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Figure 7. Correlation coefficient between density in the cusp from Polar and time-shifted solar wind density from OMNI (points shown in Figure 4b). The Pearson correlation coefficient peaks with a small delay indicating rapid entry of solar wind plasma into the cusp.

Figure 8. Density of high charge-state Oxygen ($O^{>+2}$) within the cusp as a function of solar wind density. The oxygen particle measurements are made by the MICS sensor on the CAMMICE instrument. Solar wind densities are from OMNI. Each point represents the median density value during a single cusp crossing. Cusp crossings at a radial distance greater than $4 R_E$ are plotted, similar to Figure 4b.

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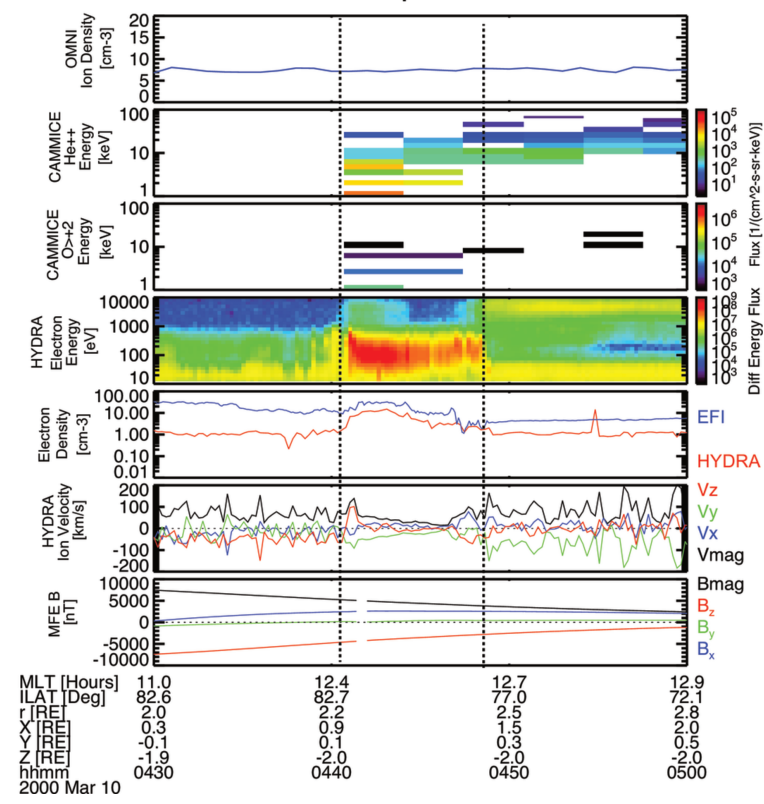
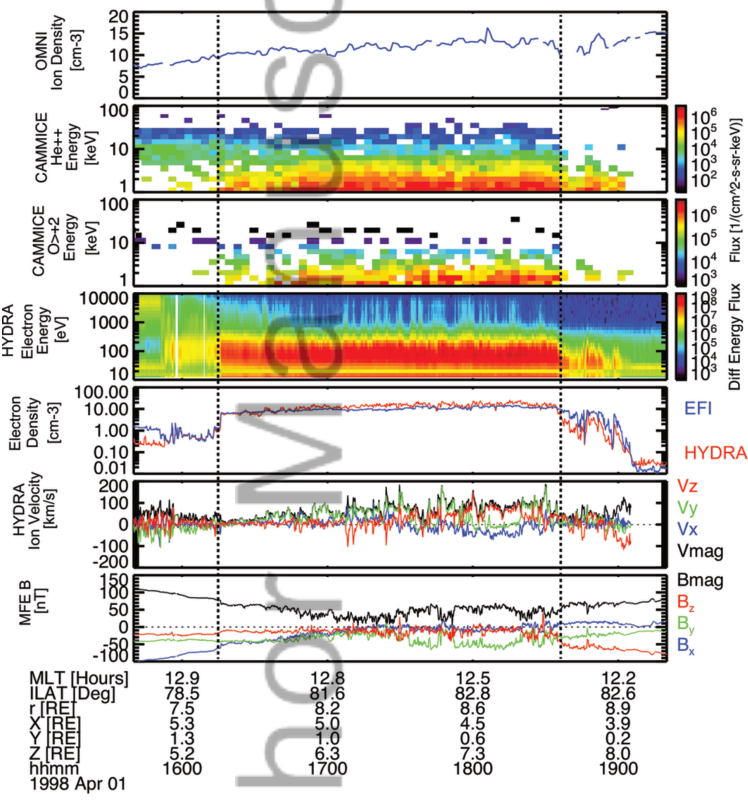
Figure 9. Multifluid BATSRUS densities. The top three panels present the total density, solar wind fluid density, and ionosphere fluid density from left to right in the GSM $Y = 0$ plane. The same magnetic field line is traced through the cusp for each plot. The red dashed circle is at a radial distance of $4 R_E$. The bottom panel presents the densities along a field line as a function of radial distance in the cusp. The densities are normalized by the solar wind density, similar to the presentation in Figure 6.

Figure 10. High charge-state (commonly 6+) oxygen spectra for several cusp crossings. Error bars represent uncertainty from counting statistics and on-board data compression. The three traces represent the spectra from cusp passes on 1 April 1998 (blue), 20 April 1999 (green), and 10 March 2000 (red). The 1998 and 2000 cusp crossings are also included in Figure 2.

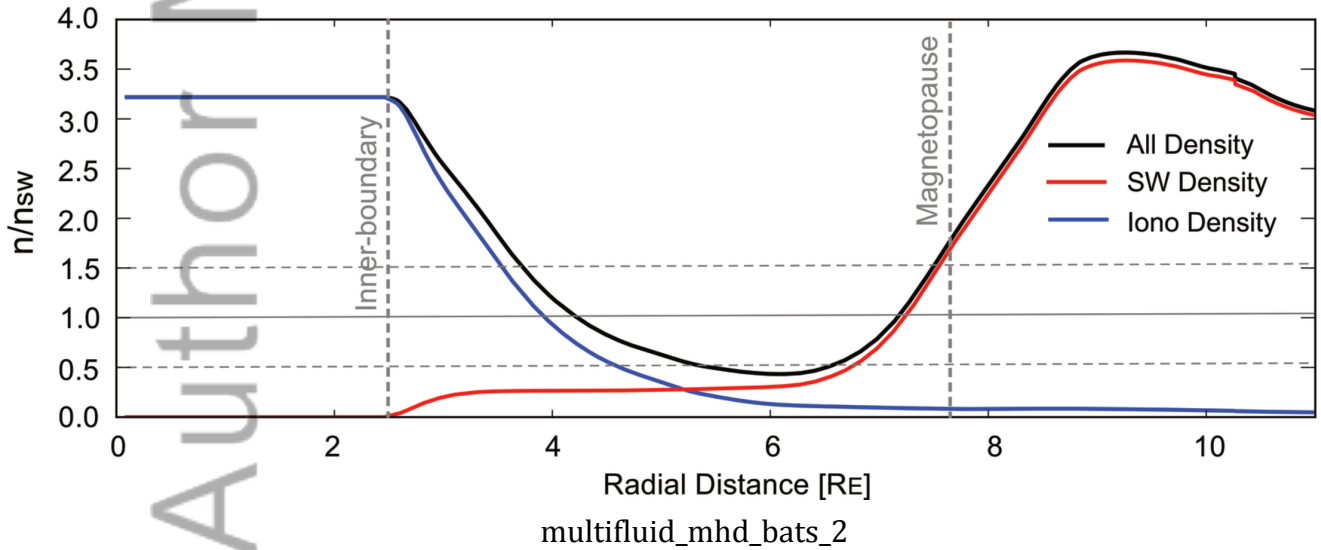
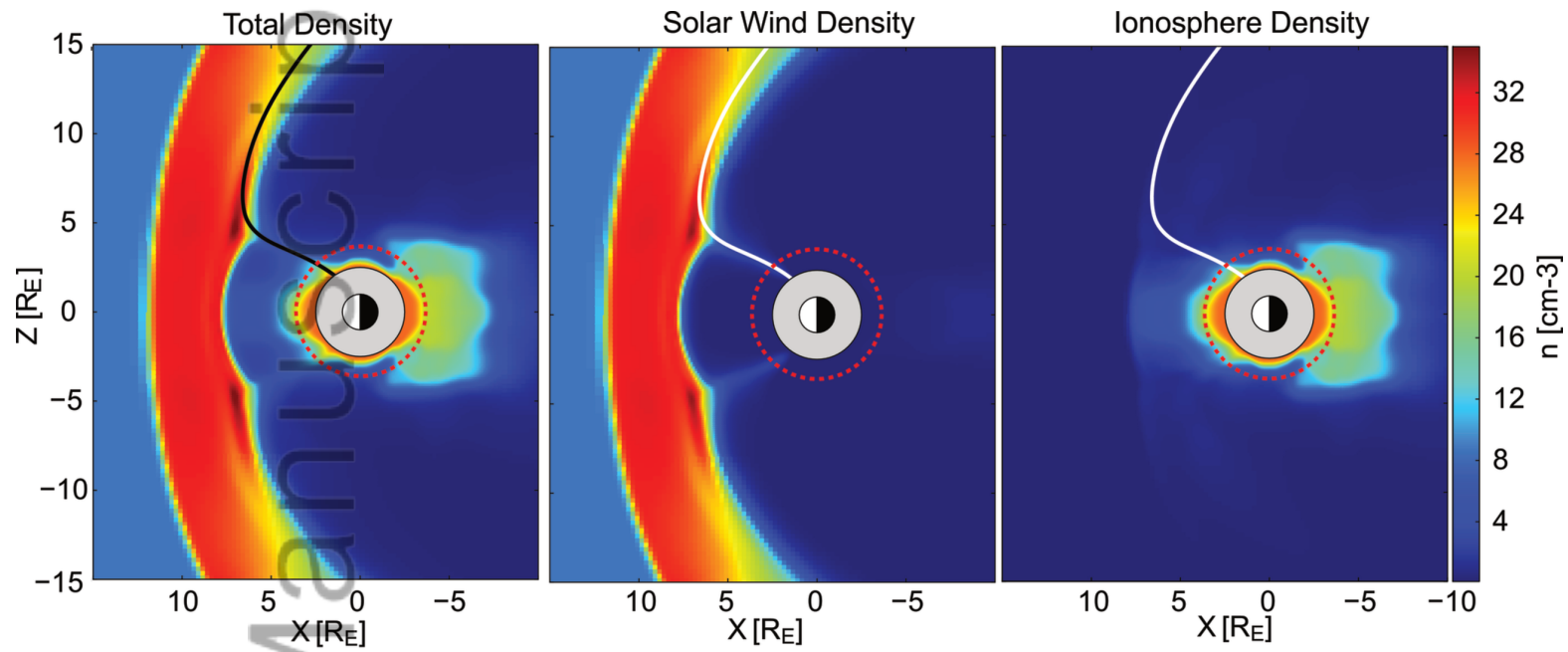
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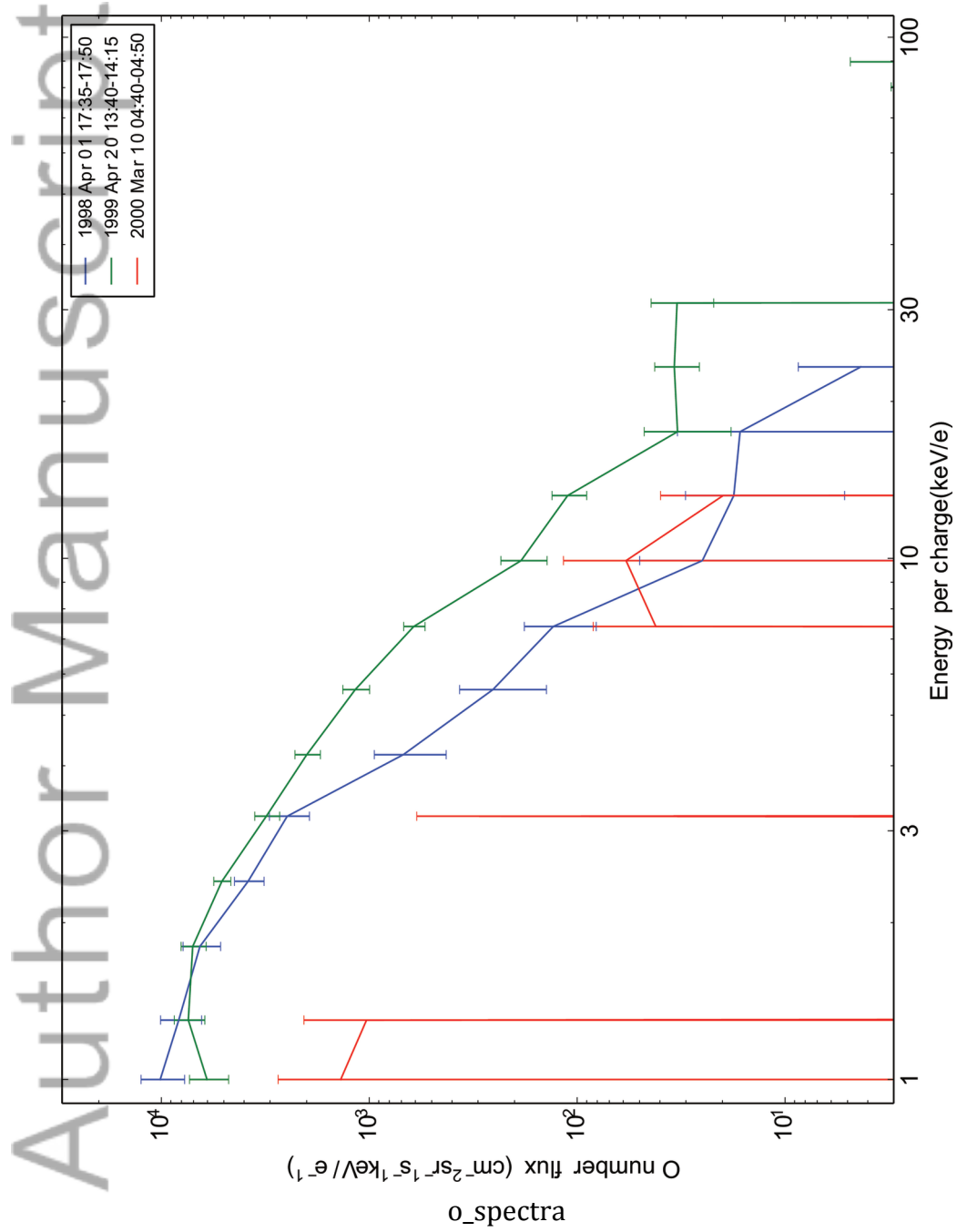
High Altitude Cusp

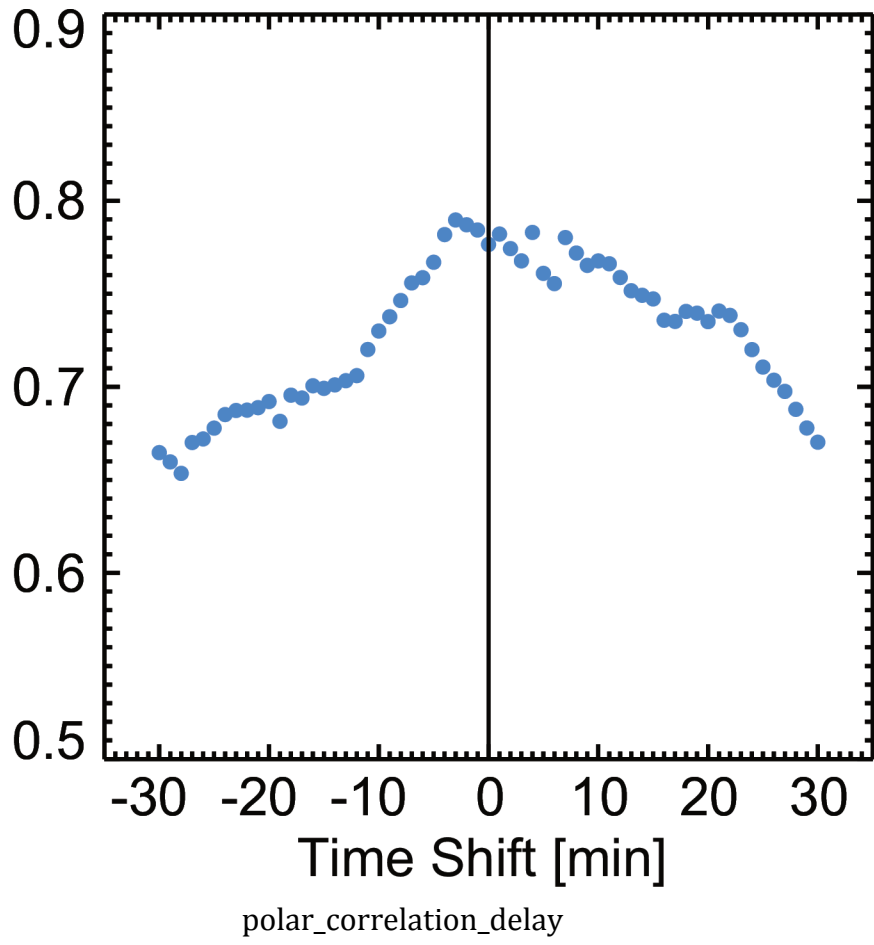
Low Altitude Cusp

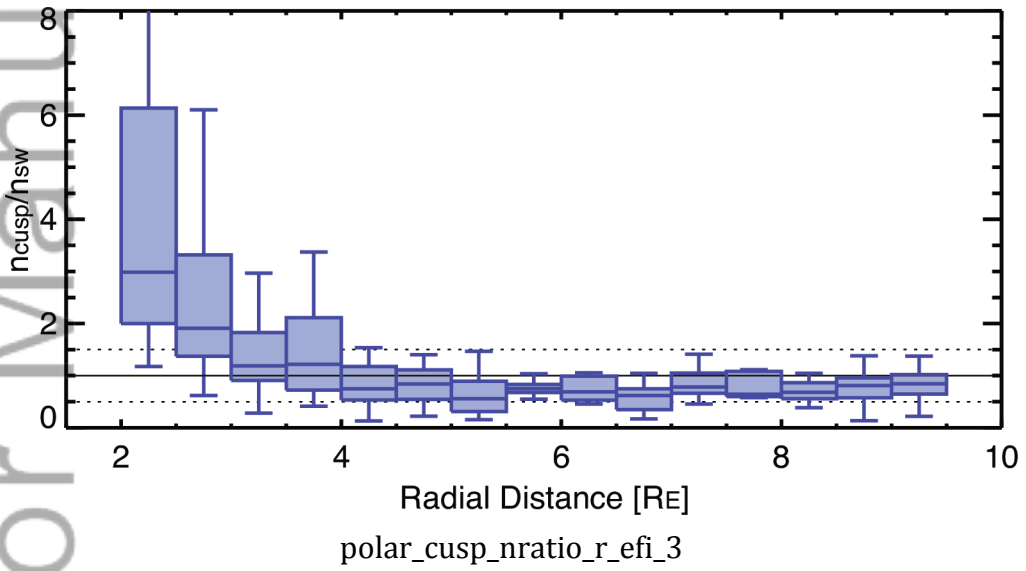


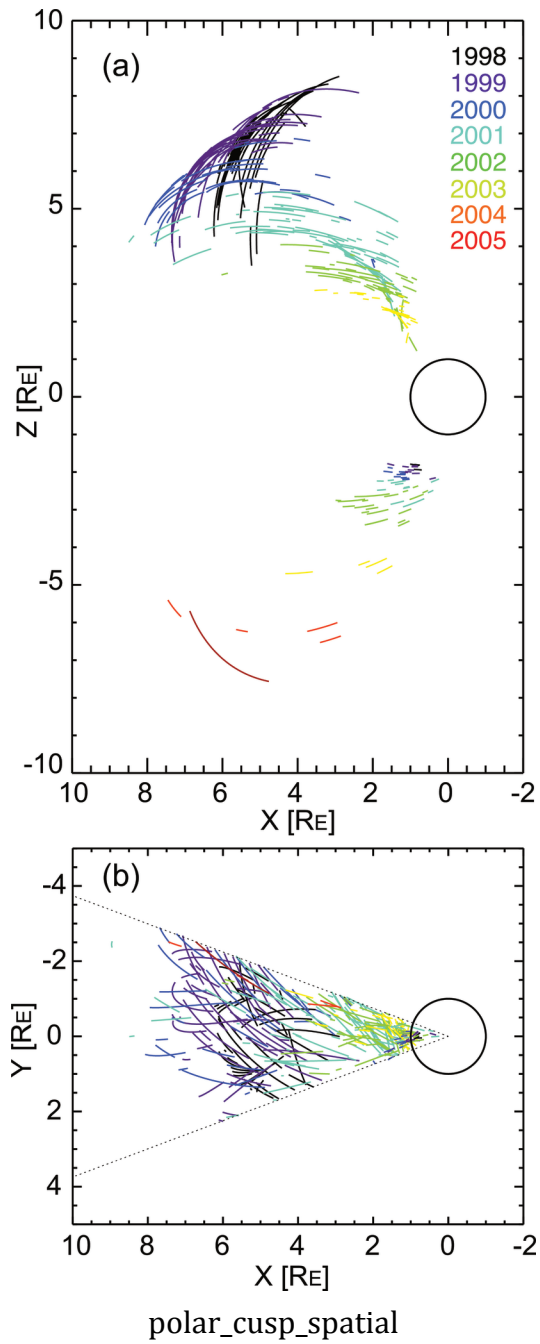
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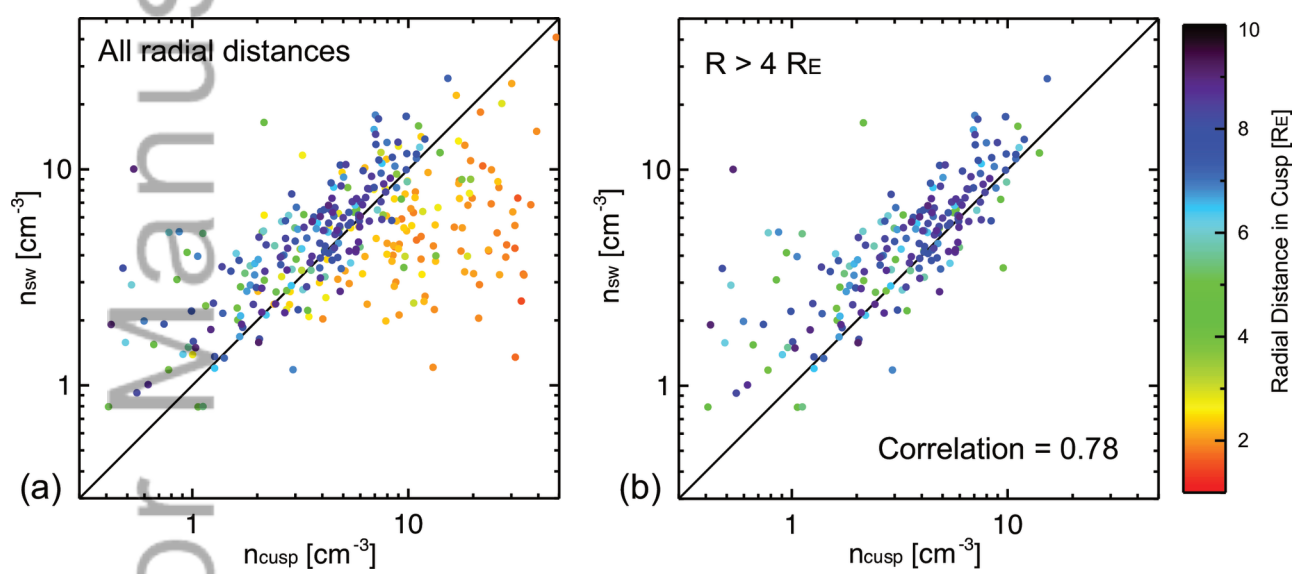












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