# Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI): The Big Picture on Solar Cycle Minima

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April 4, 2023

### Abstract

The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI) is an international initiative to study the most recent solar minimum and its impact on the interconnected solar-heliospheric-planetary system by facilitating and encouraging interdisciplinary activities. Particular WHPI science foci include the global connected structure of the heliosphere and planetary space environments/atmospheres, the origins and impacts of high-speed solar wind streams, coronal mass ejections (CMEs) from Sun-to-Heliopause, and comparative solar minima. This is achieved through a series of coordinated observing campaigns, including Parker Solar Probe perihelia, and scientific virtual interactions including a dedicated workshop where observers and modelers gathered to discuss, compare, and combine research results. This introduction sets the scene for the WHPI interval, placing it into the context of prior initiatives and describing the overall evolution of the system between 2018-2020. Along with the accompanying articles, it presents a selection of key scientific results on the interconnected solar-heliospheric-planetary system at solar minimum.

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#### Key Points: 10

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11	•	The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions initiative studies the solar-heliospheric-
12		planetary system's response to solar minimum.
13	•	Solar minimum time periods provide an opportunity to characterize the baseline
14		system and to trace events from "end to end".
15	•	By comparing solar minima of multiple solar cycles, we gain insight into how the
16		system changes over decadal times scales.

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### 17 Abstract

The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI) is an international initia-18 tive to study the most recent solar minimum and its impact on the interconnected solar-19 heliospheric-planetary system by facilitating and encouraging interdisciplinary activities. 20 Particular WHPI science foci include the global connected structure of the heliosphere 21 and planetary space environments/atmospheres, the origins and impacts of high-speed 22 solar wind streams, coronal mass ejections (CMEs) from Sun-to-Heliopause, and com-23 parative solar minima. This is achieved through a series of coordinated observing cam-24 paigns, including Parker Solar Probe perihelia, and scientific virtual interactions includ-25 ing a dedicated workshop where observers and modelers gathered to discuss, compare, 26 and combine research results. This introduction sets the scene for the WHPI interval, 27 placing it into the context of prior initiatives and describing the overall evolution of the 28 system between 2018-2020. Along with the accompanying articles, it presents a selec-29 tion of key scientific results on the interconnected solar-heliospheric-planetary system 30

31 at solar minimum.



Figure 1. Three solar minima: 1996 Whole Sun Month (WSM); 2008-2009 Whole Heliosphere Interval (WHI); 2019-2020 Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI). a-c) National Solar Observatory Global Oscillations Network Group (NSO-GONG) line-ofsight coronal hole plots obtained from a potential field source surface extrapolation from solar surface magnetic fields (https://gong.nso.edu/data/magmap/QR/bqg/) for (left to right) January 31, 1996 (about six months before the official WSM solar rotation, and representative of that solar minimum's strongly dipolar structure); December 4, 2008 (WHI2 (Gibson et al., 2009); a rotation of relatively simple coronal structure); March 22, 2019 (Approximately midway through WHPI; a time of relatively simple coronal structure (see Section 4)). d-f) Mauna Loa Solar Observatory (MLSO) white light coronagraph images for the same three dates https://mlso.hao.ucar.edu/mlso\_data\_calendar.php).

# 32 1 Introduction

Why study solar minimum? Isn't it boring? After all, solar activity waxes and wanes with sunspot number, and, at solar minimum, it is definitely wane time (Hathaway, 2015). Solar flares and coronal mass ejections (CMEs) and their associated space-weather impacts at the Earth and other planets reach their lowest ebb during solar sunspot minimum (Temmer, 2021). However, as this paper and referenced articles demonstrate, there
is more to the Sun and its impact on the heliosphere and planets than the activity associated with sunspots. In addition, when things are simple, end-to-end connections are
easier to trace. Finally, solar minimum presents an opportunity to characterize the baseline, or ground state, of the heliosphere and planetary environments, and to consider how
this baseline changes from one solar cycle to the next.

The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI) is an international ini-43 tiative focused on the solar minimum period. WHPI follows two similar initiatives during previous solar minima. Each initiative has expanded in scope, from Sun-to-solar-wind 45 science during the Whole Sun Month (WSM) of 1996, to Sun-to-solar-wind-to-geospace 46 science during the Whole Heliosphere Intervals (WHI) of 2008-2009, to the studies of Sun-47 to-solar-wind-to-planetary interactions of WHPI in 2018-2020 (Figure 1). The success 48 of these efforts relies on a broad participation of scientists worldwide and across disci-49 plines, and with each iteration such participation has increased. The WHPI mailing list 50 currently has 777 subscriptors and continues to grow, and the September 2021 WHPI 51 workshop had over 200 registered participants from 30 countries, resulting in a broad va-52 riety of talks and posters and a vibrant community discussion that has informed and en-53 riched this introductory paper. 54

The structure of this paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the interconnected system at solar minimum, from Sun to solar wind, and from Sun to solar wind to planets. Section 3 provides a brief history of the "whole" intervals, for which WHPI is the third data point, and discusses WHPI in the context of these and other solar minima. Section 4 steps through "a year in the life" of the WHPI solar minimum, demonstrating the fascinating science that these quiet time periods inspire. Finally, Section 5 presents our conclusions.

<sup>62</sup> 2 The Interconnected System at Solar Minimum

### 2.1 From Sun to Solar Wind

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The heliosphere is filled with a solar wind that originates from and is structured 64 by the Sun's magnetic fields. Most of our observations of the solar wind are obtained in 65 situ, by sending a satellite into space and measuring solar wind properties locally. A sig-66 nificant boost to our understanding came when the Ulysses satellite (McComas et al., 67 1998, 2003) moved out of the ecliptic, firmly establishing that fast wind emerges from 68 the dark coronal holes seen in solar observations (Figure 2b). At solar minimum, this 69 fast wind is primarily from the well-established polar coronal holes (Figure 2a), and slow 70 wind is centered on the equator where bright coronal streamers trace out the predom-71 inantly dipolar magnetic structure of the Sun's corona (Figure 1). 72

This is somewhat of an over-simplification: we will discuss the importance of low-73 latitude high-speed solar wind streams at solar minimum and during the declining phase 74 leading up to solar minimum, and, as we will see in Section 3, some solar minima have 75 more magnetic complexity than others. Nevertheless, it is certainly true that solar min-76 ima are less complex than solar maxima, which are characterized by mixed fast and slow 77 solar-wind speed at all latitudes. Solar maxima are also more dynamic than solar min-78 ima, with multiple coronal mass ejections expanding out through the heliosphere on any 79 given day. Interestingly, the increase of structure and dynamics in the heliosphere at max-80 imum results in a suppression of galactic cosmic rays (GCRs) so that when sunspot num-81 ber is high at the Sun, GCR levels in the heliosphere are low, while at solar minimum, 82 GCR levels reach their maximum level (Potgieter, 2013; Poopakun et al., 2022). 83

The source regions of high-speed solar wind observed at the Earth are generally low-latitude (near-equatorial) coronal holes – which can occur even during solar mini-



Figure 2. Fast solar wind originates in magnetically-open coronal holes. a) Example of a solar synoptic (latitude vs longitude) McIntosh Archive style map (Gibson et al., 2017; Webb et al., 2018, https://www2.hao.ucar.edu/mcintosh-archive) developed for WHPI (Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 under review, for this collection). The map is from Carrington Rotation 2221, August 22 - September 19, 2019. Coronal holes are represented in blue (positive magnetic polarity) and red (negative magnetic polarity). The polar coronal holes extend across all longitudes at both poles, but lower latitude (equatorial) coronal holes also exist. The large T-shaped blue (positive polarity) coronal hole centered around 270° solar longitude is discussed in further detail in Section 4.3, and seen in b) EUV image (SDO/AIA; March 29, 2019). c) Schematic diagram (view from heliographic pole) of fast wind catching up with slow wind and creating a Stream Interaction Region (SIR; adapted from Pizzo (1978) and Jian et al. (2006)).

mum (Figure 2b). Global magnetic models that use observations of the magnetic field

at the Sun's surface, or photosphere, as a boundary condition (e.g., Figure 1a-c) find that

when magnetic field lines extending out from the core of coronal holes line up with a space-

craft that samples the solar wind *in situ*, they are the source of high-speed solar wind 89 streams (Wang & Sheeley, 1990, 1991; Riley et al., 2019). As the Sun rotates, solar wind 90 emerges in a spiral pattern (Figure 2c), and if fast wind from a low-latitude coronal hole 91 catches up with slower wind in front of it, it can create a Stream Interaction Regions (SIR; 92 (Pizzo, 1978)) of compressed magnetized plasma that can drive space weather. If the low-93 latitude coronal hole lives for multiple solar rotations, these become Corotating Inter-94 action Regions (CIRs) and act as periodic drivers of the solar wind and planetary en-95 vironments. Since most of the interaction regions described in this paper persist, the terms 96 SIR, CIR, and high-speed solar wind stream will essentially be used interchangeably for 97 the remainder of the paper. 98

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### 2.2 From Sun to Solar Wind to Planets

Because of the prevalence of long-lived low-latitude coronal holes during the months 100 leading up to solar minima (Hewins et al., 2020), SIRs are the dominant drivers of space 101 weather at the Earth and other planets during low-solar-activity times (Tsurutani et al., 102 2006). Although they do not have the coherent, rotating magnetic structure of CMEs, 103 SIRs are otherwise quite similar in that they are characterized by a jump in dynamic pres-104 sure along with increased velocity and magnetic field strength (Bingham et al., 2018). 105 As a consequence, SIRs compress planetary bowshocks and magnetopauses (Borovsky 106 & Denton, 2006). 107

In general, the sensitivity of planetary magnetospheres to such solar wind forcing 108 varies from planet to planet (Bagenal, 2013) (and from star to star; see Varela et al. (2022)). 109 In the solar system, Jupiter and Saturn's magnetic fields are much stronger than Earth's, 110 and their magnetospheres are only weakly driven by the solar wind as they are domi-111 nated by internal forcing (Vasyliunas, 1983; McComas & Bagenal, 2007; Delamere & Bage-112 nal, 2010, 2013) with primary sources of plasma to their magnetospheres coming from 113 their satellites, Io and Enceladus (Delamere et al., 2007; Blanc et al., 2015; Allen et al., 114 2018; Bagenal & Dols, 2020). The nature of Uranus and Neptune's magnetospheres are 115 less well-understood, but Gershman and DiBraccio (2020) argued that, due to their highly 116 tilted rotation relative to their magnetic dipoles, solar-wind driving may play an impor-117 tant role in convection within their magnetospheres (Vasyliunas, 1986). In contrast, there 118 is no question about the Earth's magnetospheric response to external processes, as re-119 connection in the magnetotail drives auroral precipitation at the poles and plasma con-120 vection at Earth's high latitudes (Dungey, 1961). Mercury is also dominated by exter-121 nal forcing, not surprisingly due to its extreme proximity to the Sun. For the most ex-122 treme CME events, its dayside magnetosphere disappears, leaving Mercury exposed to 123 the solar wind (Slavin et al., 2019; Winslow et al., 2020). This is always true at Mars, 124 which has an induced magnetosphere and is only weakly shielded from impacts by so-125 lar and interplanetary disturbances (Jakosky et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2017). Venus also 126 has an induced magnetosphere and auroral processes that depend upon solar wind pres-127 sure (Luhmann et al., 2007, 2008; Edberg et al., 2011). 128

The effects of solar wind forcing on a planetary magnetosphere and atmosphere has 129 been most comprehensively observed at the Earth, where both CMEs and SIRs drive ge-130 omagnetic storms (Borovsky & Denton, 2006). These in turn lead to enhanced wave ac-131 tivity, auroral and radiation belt particle precipitation (Bingham et al., 2018; Millan & 132 Thorne, 2007), which leads to an increase in ionospheric temperature, plasma density, 133 and ion upflows and outflows (Wang et al., 2011; Ogawa et al., 2019) and also impacts 134 Earth's neutral atmosphere (thermosphere) thermal structure, density and composition 135 (Solomon et al., 2012; Younas et al., 2022, a paper in this collection). When there is a 136 CIR surviving for multiple rotations, the result is periodic forcing of the Earth's space 137 environment and upper atmosphere. Such periodicities are observed in a range of indices 138 including geomagnetic indices, total electron content (ionosphere), neutral density (ther-139

mosphere), and energetic electrons (radiation belt) (Gibson et al., 2010; Emery et al.,
2009; Lei et al., 2011). We will return to this in Section 4.

As we will also discuss further in Section 4, SIRs in the solar wind have been ob-142 served by the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile EvolutioN (MAVEN) satellite in orbit around 143 Mars. In the Martian atmosphere, it can be difficult to separate out the effects of pe-144 riodic particulate (solar wind) forcing vs radiative forcing. The most common periodic 145 radiative forcing comes from the Sun's 27-day rotation which arises from any large long-146 lived solar active region (or indeed any long-lived solar feature) (J. Lean, 1997). Hughes 147 et al. (2022) compared MAVEN solar irradiance observations with measurements of Mars 148 thermospheric densities, and found clear correlations, especially at high altitudes. In a 149 related study, Gasperini et al. (2023, a paper in this collection) compared the response 150 of Mars' and Earth's thermospheres to EUV variation at solar minimum vs solar max-151 imum and found greatly increased response of the middle thermospheric densities to so-152 lar rotation during the time of reduced EUV forcing at solar minimum for both plan-153 ets. This may be explained by a reduction in adiabatic cooling due to rising motions in 154 global circulation at low and middle terrestrial latitudes during solar minimum (Bougher 155 et al., 2000, 2015). 156

Further subtleties arise at Mars because different wavelengths of light drive differ-157 ent reactions at different heights in the atmosphere (Thiemann et al., 2018). In partic-158 ular, EUV wavelengths drive a direct effect involving local heating that has greatest im-159 pact in the upper Martian atmosphere, while infrared (IR) irradiance, which varies with 160 variations in Mars' orbital distance from the Sun, has an indirect effect through upward 161 coupling from the cooled lower-middle atmosphere. As a result, for high altitudes in the 162 Mars atmosphere at solar maximum, the EUV effect may dominate compared to the solar-163 cycle-independent orbital (IR) effect, while at solar minimum, the EUV effect plays a 164 relatively minor role (Fang et al., 2022). 165

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### 3 Comparative Solar Minima

3.1 A Brief History of the "Whole Intervals"

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The first of the "Whole" minimum campaigns was the Whole Sun Month (WSM) 169 which occurred during a "classic" solar minimum in 1996. The solar corona was char-170 acterized by a global dipole field with streamer belts at the equator and large coronal 171 holes at both poles (Figure 1a,d) as well as one equatorial coronal hole extension known 172 as the Elephant's Trunk, which was the source of a fast wind stream impacting the Earth. 173 The papers coming out of WSM marked the opening of the floodgates of Sun/solar wind 174 scientific collaborations inspired by the SOHO satellite (Torsti, Anttila, & Sahla, 1999; 175 Fludra et al., 1999; Linker et al., 1999; Del Zanna & Bromage, 1999; Dobrzycka et al., 176 1999; Biesecker et al., 1999; Warren & Hassler, 1999; Riley et al., 1999; Guhathakurta 177 et al., 1999; Clegg et al., 1999; Breen et al., 1999; Panasyuk, 1999; Galvin & Kohl, 1999; 178 Posner et al., 1999; Alexander, 1999; Gopalswamy et al., 1999; Torsti, Kocharov, et al., 179 1999; Zidowitz, 1999; Zhao et al., 1999; Gibson et al., 1999; Strachan et al., 1999; Gib-180 son et al., 1999; Strachan et al., 2000; Bromage et al., 2000; Riley et al., 2001; Frazin & 181 Janzen, 2002; Guhathakurta et al., 2006; Lionello et al., 2009). 182

This first WSM initiative focused on just one solar rotation (August 10-September 8, 1996) during solar minimum, but was followed by two related campaigns in 1998 (WSM2) and 1999 (WSM3) (Eiscat et al., 2000; Moran et al., 2000; Breen et al., 2000; Gibson et al., 2002; Gibson, 2001; Del Zanna et al., 2002; Ko et al., 2005).

<sup>187</sup> The next solar minimum saw the organization of the Whole Heliosphere Interval <sup>188</sup> (WHI) in 2008. The scope was expanded from Sun to Earth, and dozens of solar, helio-

spheric, and geospace instruments were involved. The WHI minimum was surprisingly 189 different than WSM and other prior space-age solar minima. Despite an extremely low 190 number of sunspots, there was more structure in the corona and heliosphere, with mul-191 tiple broad low-latitude coronal holes and periodic forcing of the earth's space environ-192 ment by high speed streams in 2008 (WHI1: CR2068, March 20 - April 16, 2008). The 193 WHI minimum continued to evolve and become even quieter in 2009, becoming longer 194 and deeper than any space-age solar minimum witnessed prior to it (WHI2/WHI3: CR2078/ 195 CR2085, December 17, 2008 - January 12, 2009/ June 26 - July 22, 2009). The high-196 speed streams faded out, resulting in extreme depletion of radiation belt electrons at Earth 197 (X. Li et al., 2013), as well as weak interplanetary magnetic field and record high lev-198 els of galactic cosmic rays (Mewaldt et al., 2010; Schwadron et al., 2018). However, the 199 Sun's corona never became as predominantly dipolar as in 1996 (Figure 1), possibly be-200 cause the polar magnetic fields in 2009 were significantly weaker than in 1996. 201

WHI science was rich, with analyses continuing for years after the original cam-202 paign time periods (Woods et al., 2009; Chamberlin et al., 2009; Bisi et al., 2009; Gib-203 son et al., 2009; Bisi et al., 2010; Verkhoglyadova et al., 2011; Bisi et al., 2011; Gibson 204 et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 2011; Webb et al., 2011; Muller et al., 2011; Welsch et al., 205 2011; White et al., 2011; Petrie et al., 2011; de Toma, 2011; Nitta, 2011; Cremades et 206 al., 2011; Altrock, 2011; Vásquez et al., 2011; Benito et al., 2022; Echer et al., 2011; Lep-207 ping et al., 2011; Riley et al., 2011; Zhao & Fisk, 2011; Emery et al., 2011; Lei et al., 2011; 208 Araujo-Pradere et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011, 2011; Haberreiter, 2011; Jackman & Ar-209 ridge, 2011; Wiltberger et al., 2012; Hudson et al., 2012; Lopez et al., 2012; Bruntz et 210 al., 2012; Solomon et al., 2012; Z. Li et al., 2014; J. L. Lean et al., 2014; Lin & Chen, 211 2015; Wiltberger et al., 2017; Candido et al., 2018; Chadney et al., 2022). 212

The third iteration was the Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI). 213 Based on lessons learned from WSM and WHI, the interval was not confined to a few 214 solar rotations, but covered the period from late 2018 through early 2020. The level of 215 participation increased with its expanded scope encompassing Sun to solar wind to plan-216 etary magnetospheres and atmospheres. The articles accompanying this introduction (Hudson 217 et al., 2021; Lloveras et al., 2022; Riley et al., 2022; Gasperini et al., 2023; Luhmann et 218 al., 2022; Younas et al., 2022; Palmerio et al., 2022; Bregou et al., 2022; Mlynczak et al., 219 2022; Varela et al., 2022; Badman et al., 2023; Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 un-220 der review; Allen et al., 2023 under review) represent the beginnings of analyses that are 221 likely to continue for years to come. 222

### 3.2 Comparative Solar Minima

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At first glance, considering Figure 1, it appears that the solar magnetic structure 224 of WHPI was a bit more like WSM than WHI, in that it had a more dipole-type struc-225 ture with coronal holes centered on the poles. On the other hand, as discussed in Hewins, 226 Gibson, Webb, et al. (2023 under review, a paper in this collection), the extended WHPI 227 period had significant and persistent low-latitude coronal holes that disrupted this sim-228 ple morphology, similar to what was observed during WHI. As we will discuss further 229 in Section 4, the white light corona during WHPI was not always as dipolar as Figure 1 230 c). The low-latitude coronal holes were least prevalent in late March 2019 when the ob-231 servations shown in Figure 1c) were taken, so that it represents the simplest, but not nec-232 essarily the typical structure during the WHPI extended interval. 233

Figure 3 shows the dipole vs quadrupole components of the photospheric magnetic field, showing that the dipole component was strongest during WSM, weakest during WHI, and in the middle during WHPI. This is consistent with the results of Riley et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) who found similar trends in the solar polar magnetic field, which is controlled by the strength of the dipole term. The overall coronal magnetic morphology of closed vs open field is impacted by the ratio of this dipole term relative to higher-



Figure 3. Dipole (top) and quadrupole (bottom) components of the solar photospheric magnetic field, as determined from observations obtained by Stanford's Wilcox Solar Observatory http://wso.stanford.edu/gifs/Multipole.gif. The three intervals, WSM, WHI, and WHPI are indicated by the shaded blue rectangles. From this it is clear that the dipolar field was strongest for WSM and weakest for WHI, with WHPI lying in between, but that the quadrupolar field was similar for all three.

order multipole fields. Figure 3 illustrates that the quadrupolar magnetic term is similar in all three intervals, but varies somewhat. In particular, it hits a low during March
2019. Thus, the global coronal magnetic structure as manifested in white-light observations (Figure 1) was predominantly dipolar during the shorter minimum of WSM, never
attained that status during the extended minimum of WHI, and demonstrated both whitelight dipolar structure and sustained low-latitude coronal holes during the extended WHPI
minimum.

These differences of solar dipole strength and coronal magnetic morphology affect 247 the nature of the solar wind near sunspot minimum. Riley et al. (2022) did a statisti-248 cal comparison of the three solar minima and found, as was the case with the polar mag-249 netic fields, that the WHPI solar wind properties lay in between those of WSM and WHI. 250 Luhmann et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) determined the sources of solar wind 251 velocity measured in the ecliptic from global coronal magnetic models and found that 252 low-to-mid latitude open fields (as opposed to polar open fields) were the primary source 253 of solar wind measured at the Earth, in particular during the extended minima of WHI 254 and WHPI. Thus, to summarize, coronal magnetic field and solar wind observations in-255 dicate that WHPI was similar to WHI in its length and magnetic complexity, but demon-256 strated at least a "partial recovery" of solar dipole dominance and solar wind density 257 and velocity. Thus, WSM > WHPI > WHI in terms of dipole dominance and solar wind 258 properties at solar minimum. 259

However, the behavior at the Earth paints a somewhat different picture. Once an-260 thropogenic effects (rising  $CO_2$  levels, which cause a secular decrease in thermospheric 261 temperatures) are taken into account, the Earth's upper atmosphere can be a sensitive 262 measure of differences between solar minima. Using measurements of satellite drag, Emmert 263 et al. (2010) found a decrease in thermospheric density ( $\sim 30\%$  at 400 km) and tem-264 perature during the WHI minimum relative to prior minima. (Solomon et al., 2011) con-265 ducted model simulations and found a  $\sim 27\%$  decrease of annual mean density changes 266 at 400 km altitude from 1996 to 2008. Among this  $\sim 27\%$  decrease,  $\sim 22\%$ ,  $\sim 2.2\%$ , 267 and  $\sim 3\%$  were attributed to solar EUV decrease, geomagnetic activity change, and  $CO_2$ 268

increase, respectively. Mlynczak et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) measured a down-269 ward trend in thermospheric temperatures from 2002 to 2019 using measurements from 270 the TIMED satellite. After accounting for anthropogenic  $CO_2$  increase, they found tem-271 peratures at lower thermospheric altitudes  $(10^{-4}hPa, 105\text{km})$  had dropped -14.37 K be-272 tween 2002 and 2019 – and that the lower thermospheric temperatures in the 2019 min-273 imum (WHPI) were  $\sim 3K$  colder than the 2008-2009 minimum (WHI). Thus, in terms 274 of thermospheric temperature, WSM < WHI < WHPI, with no sign of the "partial re-275 covery" discussed by Riley et al. (2022). 276

277 Relatedly, Bregou et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) found a long-term (1980 to mid-2021) increase in inner zone radiation belt proton flux that they interpreted as 278 a manifestation of the secular downtrend in F10.7 correlated with sunspot number known 279 as the Centennial Gleissberg Cycle (Gleissberg, 1944; Feynman & Ruzmaikin, 2011). F10.7 280 serves as a proxy for solar EUV in the Bregou et al. study, with a decrease implying a 281 reduced atmospheric (and ionospheric) scale height and reduced collisional drag at a fixed 282 altitude, which is the primary loss mechanism for inner zone protons. Each solar min-283 imum since 1980 has been followed by a maximum trapped proton flux which has shown a secular increase, modulated by the solar cycle, over the past 40 years. Thus, correlated 285 with cooling in the thermosphere, the inner zone radiation belt proton flux has contin-286 ued to increase with each successive minimum, so WSM < WHI < WHPI - again, no287 sign of a partial recovery and consistent with a response to the Sun's secular approach 288 to the Gleissberg minimum in solar activity. 289

To explain the apparent discrepancy between the solar wind and planetary envi-290 ronmental trends, we consider the sometimes competing natures of radiative vs partic-291 ulate forcing of planetary atmospheres. (Emmert et al., 2010) argued that the decrease 292 in thermospheric densities and temperatures was a result of a decrease in EUV spectral 293 irradiance from the WSM to the WHI solar minimum, and this was supported by the 294 Solomon et al. (2011) modeling study, which found that irradiance changes between WSM 295 and WHI were the dominant cause of the secular trend (relative to particulate and anthropogenic forcings). The case for decreased irradiance being the cause of the ongoing 297 downward trend in thermospheric temperatures from WHI to WHPI is less clear: Us-298 ing SORCE satellite data from 2003-2020, Woods et al. (2022) found no significant dif-299 ferences in integrated solar spectral irradiance between the two time periods – so, nei-300 ther a "partial recovery" in irradiance nor a continuing decrease in integrated spectral 301 solar irradiance. However, Mlynczak et al. (2022) argued that when one considered just 302 the narrow Schumann-Runge Bands of solar ultraviolet radiation from 175 to 200 nm, 303 a region responsible for heating of the lower thermosphere, there was a statistically sig-304 nificant decrease in SORCE-measured irradiance between the WHI and WHPI minima. 305 Further modeling is needed to fully understand the causes of the decrease in thermospheric 306 temperatures from WHI to WHPI. 307

### <sup>308</sup> 4 Evolution of a Solar Minimum

WHPI spanned the entire solar minimum period between 2018 and 2020. For the 309 purpose of coordinating targeted observations, we identified a few focus "campaign" time 310 periods that took advantage of solar-heliosphere-planetary synergies. These included the 311 solar eclipse in July 2019 – which was studied both for its solar structure (Lloveras et 312 al., 2022, a paper in this collection) and for the Earth's thermospheric response to it as 313 measured by the GOLD satellite (Aryal et al., 2020). They also included the Parker So-314 lar Probe perihelion passage in January 2020 - which served as a template for commu-315 nity coordination and predictive targeting (Badman et al., 2023, a paper in this collec-316 tion). Beyond that, we trusted to solar serendipity to provide interesting time periods 317 for study, and we were not disappointed! 318



Figure 4. (left and middle columns) McIntosh Archive style Carrington maps (latitude vs. longitude; see Figure 2) for Carrington rotations 2209 through 2214 (September 21 2018 – March 5, 2019; note the ~27-day solar rotations shown are "padded" on each side by a week of observations), showing long-lived low-latitude coronal holes of both polarities in the right half of maps (green circles). Adapted from Figure 10 of Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al. (2023 under review). The effects of differential rotation (faster solar rotation at equator than higher latitudes) can be seen in the drift of the equatorial portion of both coronal holes to the right (the equator rotates prograde relative to the synoptic Carrington rate of 27.3 days; see discussion in Luhmann et al. (2022)). (right column) Solar wind at Earth vs time (top) and related wavelet (bottom) showing periodic solar wind 7-9 day forcing. Data from https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/.

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# 4.1 September 2018 - March 2019 – Long-lived low-latitude coronal holes and periodic forcing

Even when solar activity was low, low-latitude coronal holes were present for a sig-321 nificantly long time period. In particular, two coronal holes of opposite polarity sepa-322 rated by approximately 90 degrees remained visible for several rotations (Figure 4 left 323 and middle columns). As discussed in Hewins, Gibson, and Emery (2023 under review), 324 both of these coronal holes resulted in repeating fast wind streams observed at Earth, 325 Mars, and STEREO-A. This 7-9-day periodic solar-wind forcing, shown in Figure 4 right 326 column, is not unlike that observed in the early phases of WSM (Gibson et al., 2010; Emery 327 et al., 2009; Lei et al., 2011), with impact felt in the Earth's upper atmosphere as mea-328 sured in neutral density by the Swarm-C satellites. Large effects were also registered in 329 the ionosphere through ground-based GNSS total electron content (F. Gasperini, in prepa-330 ration). 331

# 4.2 March 2019 - July 2019: Quiet with a burst of activity in the middle

The interval 2018 - 2020 was a long period of low solar sunspot number and so-334 lar magnetic activity, but it was briefly interrupted by a burst of old-cycle sunspot emer-335 gence and associated activity in April – June 2019 (Figure 5). This burst of activity re-336 sulted in multiple CMEs that erupted from a nest of active regions with impacts mea-337 sured at both the Earth and Mars (E. Palmerio, private communication). Such events 338 are excellent candidates for studying the evolution of CMEs in the solar wind as a func-339 tion of distance from their solar origin (Witasse et al., 2017), as well as for considering 340 the relative effects of CMEs vs SIRs on planetary space environments during times of 341



Figure 5. (left) Total sunspot area determined from Solar Dynamics Observatory (SDO) Heliseismic and Magnetic Imager (HMI) intensities (top) and associated magnetic flux (bottom), as a function of time during the WHPI solar minimum. (right) Nest of active regions during (May 12, 2019) which resulted in multiple CMEs detected throughout the solar system (SDO/AIA image, obtained via helioviewer.org)

relative heliospheric simplicity (Hudson et al., 2021, a paper in this collection). In an analysis of a series of solar transient events immediately prior to the WHPI time period (August 2018), Palmerio et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) was able to separate out the effects of two CMEs and a following high-speed stream by comparing observations at the Earth and Mars in the context of a global MHD model.

347

# 4.3 August - December, 2019: The persistance of "Mr. T"

The long-lived, low-latitude coronal holes of September 2018 - March, 2019 shown in Figure 4 had largely dissipated by April, 2019, in part due to differential rotation of these latitudinally-extended structures and resulting distortion and fragmentation (Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 under review). They were replaced by the active region nest of April-June 2019, which emerged and then decayed, to be replaced in turn by a new positive-polarity (blue) coronal hole that survived for approximately six months (Figure 6; see also Figure 2)).

This coronal hole was extremely geoeffective, perhaps due to its 'T' shape which 355 meant that, near the equator, it was both wide in longitude (and so driving a longer-lasting 356 fast wind stream in time), and tall in latitude (increasing the likelihood of the Earth be-357 ing repeatedly hit by at least part of its stream). In early September, the sustained fast 358 wind resulted in a radiation belt response that was the highest energy (hardest relativis-359 tic electron spectrum) observed in the last two years of the Van Allen Probes mission 360 (Mauk et al., 2013). The radiation-belt response to the CIR lasted into October 2019 361 and was higher than the response seen during the CME events associated with the ac-362 tive region nest of May 2019 (Hudson et al., 2021). 363



Figure 6. The 'Mr. T' long-lived coronal hole which recurred over six solar Carrington rotations. Shown here in 195 Å as observed by SDO/AIA.

The presence of this long-lived coronal hole at the Sun also overlapped with a time 364 period when Parker Solar Probe was radially aligned with the STEREO-A spacecraft, 365 allowing analyses of the evolution of the associated SIR and a study of energetic parti-366 cle acceleration (Allen et al., 2021; Wijsen et al., 2021). Measurements of SIRs and CMEs 367 at different longitudinal points in the solar system were also made possible via multi-368 spacecraft measurements. For a comprehensive overview of this coronal hole and its im-369 pacts throughout the heliosphere, see Allen et al. (2023 under review, a paper in this col-370 lection). 371

### **5** Conclusions

The science enabled by focusing on solar minimum is rich and rewarding. During WSM (1996) and WHI (2008-2009) we gained global understanding about the sources and impacts of solar wind, and new insight about how different solar minimum "quiet times" can be from one another. WHPI (2018-2020) is providing yet more insights into the whole heliospheric system. For example:

• The response to solar-wind and solar-irradiance forcings varies greatly from planet 378 to planet. Analyses of the space-weather impacts that do occur is an excellent way 379 to test our understanding of the coupled mechanisms at play. 380 • By coronal/solar wind forcing standards, WSM > WHPI > WHI, but radiation-381 belt and upper atmospheric observations show more of a monotonic secular trend, 382 WSM < WHI < WHPI. This may be due to opposing trends in spectral irradi-383 ance vs. solar wind forcing over the past two minima. It illustrates the complex-384 ity of understanding system variability when multiple mechanisms – including an-385 thropogenic ones – are involved. 386

• Multispacecraft/multipoint measurements throughout the heliosphere, varying both in distance and longitude, enable detailed analyses of the evolution of solar wind structures and their sources.

A final comment: with each minimum, observational and modeling capabilities have improved along with data-model interpretation schema. The international interdisciplinary initiatives of WSM, WHI, and WHPI act as catalysts for new analysis approaches and (importantly) play a role in building enduring cohorts of scientific collaborators across scientific disciplines. These efforts should be continued in future minima, as they play an important role in quantifying and understanding long-term changes in the Sun and their effects on the solar wind and planetary space environments and atmospheres.

# <sup>397</sup> 6 Open Research

GONG magnetic field extrapolations are available at https://gong.nso.edu/data/ magmap/QR/bqg/.

Mauna Loa Solar Observatory white light coronagraph images are available at https:// mlso.hao.ucar.edu/mlso\_data\_calendar.php).

McIntosh archive maps presented in this paper are available through the NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information. doi:10.7289/V5765CCQ. The maps and supplemental reference/methodology materials are archived at https://www.ngdc.noaa .gov/stp/space-weather/solar-data/solar-imagery/composites/synoptic-maps/ mc-intosh/. Further information on the use and application these data can be found at https://www2.hao.ucar.edu/mcintosh-archive.

Additional data appears from the Solar Dynamics Observatory Atmospheric Imag ing Assembly (AIA) and Helioseismic and Magnetic Imager (HMI) as accessed through
 Helioviewer (https://helioviewer.org/?movieId=hnTN5). SDO data courtesy of NASA/SDO
 and the AIA, EVE, and HMI science teams.

- 412 Stanford Wilcox Solar Observatory dipole and quadrupole data may be obtained 413 at http://wso.stanford.edu/#0ther.
  - Solar wind data are available at https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/.

### 415 Acknowledgments

414

We are indebted to all the participants of the WHPI Workshop of September, 2021. We 416 owe particular thanks to Saurav Aryal, Fran Bagenal, Joan Burkepile, Gina DiBraccio, 417 Heather Elliott, Xiaohua Fang, Rachael Filwett, Dan Gershman, Lan Jian, Janet Kozyra, 418 Christina Lee, Janet Luhmann, Carlos Martinis, Ryan McGranaghan, Marty Mlynczak, 419 Erika Palmerio, Kledsai Poopakun, Nour Raouafi, Pete Riley, Yi-Ming Wang, Nicolas 420 Wijsen, and Olivier Witasse. Funding for SEG, RCA, GdT, BE, IH, and LQ was pro-421 vided by the NASA HSO Connect program. FG acknowledges support from NASA MDAP 422 Grant No. 80NSSC21K1821. NCAR is a major facility sponsored by the NSF under Co-423 operative Agreement No. 1852977. 424

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# Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI): The Big Picture on Solar Cycle Minima

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#### Key Points: 10

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11	•	The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions initiative studies the solar-heliospheric-
12		planetary system's response to solar minimum.
13	•	Solar minimum time periods provide an opportunity to characterize the baseline
14		system and to trace events from "end to end".
15	•	By comparing solar minima of multiple solar cycles, we gain insight into how the
16		system changes over decadal times scales.

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### 17 Abstract

The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI) is an international initia-18 tive to study the most recent solar minimum and its impact on the interconnected solar-19 heliospheric-planetary system by facilitating and encouraging interdisciplinary activities. 20 Particular WHPI science foci include the global connected structure of the heliosphere 21 and planetary space environments/atmospheres, the origins and impacts of high-speed 22 solar wind streams, coronal mass ejections (CMEs) from Sun-to-Heliopause, and com-23 parative solar minima. This is achieved through a series of coordinated observing cam-24 paigns, including Parker Solar Probe perihelia, and scientific virtual interactions includ-25 ing a dedicated workshop where observers and modelers gathered to discuss, compare, 26 and combine research results. This introduction sets the scene for the WHPI interval, 27 placing it into the context of prior initiatives and describing the overall evolution of the 28 system between 2018-2020. Along with the accompanying articles, it presents a selec-29 tion of key scientific results on the interconnected solar-heliospheric-planetary system 30

31 at solar minimum.



Figure 1. Three solar minima: 1996 Whole Sun Month (WSM); 2008-2009 Whole Heliosphere Interval (WHI); 2019-2020 Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI). a-c) National Solar Observatory Global Oscillations Network Group (NSO-GONG) line-ofsight coronal hole plots obtained from a potential field source surface extrapolation from solar surface magnetic fields (https://gong.nso.edu/data/magmap/QR/bqg/) for (left to right) January 31, 1996 (about six months before the official WSM solar rotation, and representative of that solar minimum's strongly dipolar structure); December 4, 2008 (WHI2 (Gibson et al., 2009); a rotation of relatively simple coronal structure); March 22, 2019 (Approximately midway through WHPI; a time of relatively simple coronal structure (see Section 4)). d-f) Mauna Loa Solar Observatory (MLSO) white light coronagraph images for the same three dates https://mlso.hao.ucar.edu/mlso\_data\_calendar.php).

# 32 1 Introduction

Why study solar minimum? Isn't it boring? After all, solar activity waxes and wanes with sunspot number, and, at solar minimum, it is definitely wane time (Hathaway, 2015). Solar flares and coronal mass ejections (CMEs) and their associated space-weather impacts at the Earth and other planets reach their lowest ebb during solar sunspot minimum (Temmer, 2021). However, as this paper and referenced articles demonstrate, there
is more to the Sun and its impact on the heliosphere and planets than the activity associated with sunspots. In addition, when things are simple, end-to-end connections are
easier to trace. Finally, solar minimum presents an opportunity to characterize the baseline, or ground state, of the heliosphere and planetary environments, and to consider how
this baseline changes from one solar cycle to the next.

The Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI) is an international ini-43 tiative focused on the solar minimum period. WHPI follows two similar initiatives during previous solar minima. Each initiative has expanded in scope, from Sun-to-solar-wind 45 science during the Whole Sun Month (WSM) of 1996, to Sun-to-solar-wind-to-geospace 46 science during the Whole Heliosphere Intervals (WHI) of 2008-2009, to the studies of Sun-47 to-solar-wind-to-planetary interactions of WHPI in 2018-2020 (Figure 1). The success 48 of these efforts relies on a broad participation of scientists worldwide and across disci-49 plines, and with each iteration such participation has increased. The WHPI mailing list 50 currently has 777 subscriptors and continues to grow, and the September 2021 WHPI 51 workshop had over 200 registered participants from 30 countries, resulting in a broad va-52 riety of talks and posters and a vibrant community discussion that has informed and en-53 riched this introductory paper. 54

The structure of this paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the interconnected system at solar minimum, from Sun to solar wind, and from Sun to solar wind to planets. Section 3 provides a brief history of the "whole" intervals, for which WHPI is the third data point, and discusses WHPI in the context of these and other solar minima. Section 4 steps through "a year in the life" of the WHPI solar minimum, demonstrating the fascinating science that these quiet time periods inspire. Finally, Section 5 presents our conclusions.

<sup>62</sup> 2 The Interconnected System at Solar Minimum

### 2.1 From Sun to Solar Wind

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The heliosphere is filled with a solar wind that originates from and is structured 64 by the Sun's magnetic fields. Most of our observations of the solar wind are obtained in 65 situ, by sending a satellite into space and measuring solar wind properties locally. A sig-66 nificant boost to our understanding came when the Ulysses satellite (McComas et al., 67 1998, 2003) moved out of the ecliptic, firmly establishing that fast wind emerges from 68 the dark coronal holes seen in solar observations (Figure 2b). At solar minimum, this 69 fast wind is primarily from the well-established polar coronal holes (Figure 2a), and slow 70 wind is centered on the equator where bright coronal streamers trace out the predom-71 inantly dipolar magnetic structure of the Sun's corona (Figure 1). 72

This is somewhat of an over-simplification: we will discuss the importance of low-73 latitude high-speed solar wind streams at solar minimum and during the declining phase 74 leading up to solar minimum, and, as we will see in Section 3, some solar minima have 75 more magnetic complexity than others. Nevertheless, it is certainly true that solar min-76 ima are less complex than solar maxima, which are characterized by mixed fast and slow 77 solar-wind speed at all latitudes. Solar maxima are also more dynamic than solar min-78 ima, with multiple coronal mass ejections expanding out through the heliosphere on any 79 given day. Interestingly, the increase of structure and dynamics in the heliosphere at max-80 imum results in a suppression of galactic cosmic rays (GCRs) so that when sunspot num-81 ber is high at the Sun, GCR levels in the heliosphere are low, while at solar minimum, 82 GCR levels reach their maximum level (Potgieter, 2013; Poopakun et al., 2022). 83

The source regions of high-speed solar wind observed at the Earth are generally low-latitude (near-equatorial) coronal holes – which can occur even during solar mini-



Figure 2. Fast solar wind originates in magnetically-open coronal holes. a) Example of a solar synoptic (latitude vs longitude) McIntosh Archive style map (Gibson et al., 2017; Webb et al., 2018, https://www2.hao.ucar.edu/mcintosh-archive) developed for WHPI (Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 under review, for this collection). The map is from Carrington Rotation 2221, August 22 - September 19, 2019. Coronal holes are represented in blue (positive magnetic polarity) and red (negative magnetic polarity). The polar coronal holes extend across all longitudes at both poles, but lower latitude (equatorial) coronal holes also exist. The large T-shaped blue (positive polarity) coronal hole centered around 270° solar longitude is discussed in further detail in Section 4.3, and seen in b) EUV image (SDO/AIA; March 29, 2019). c) Schematic diagram (view from heliographic pole) of fast wind catching up with slow wind and creating a Stream Interaction Region (SIR; adapted from Pizzo (1978) and Jian et al. (2006)).

mum (Figure 2b). Global magnetic models that use observations of the magnetic field

at the Sun's surface, or photosphere, as a boundary condition (e.g., Figure 1a-c) find that

when magnetic field lines extending out from the core of coronal holes line up with a space-

craft that samples the solar wind *in situ*, they are the source of high-speed solar wind 89 streams (Wang & Sheeley, 1990, 1991; Riley et al., 2019). As the Sun rotates, solar wind 90 emerges in a spiral pattern (Figure 2c), and if fast wind from a low-latitude coronal hole 91 catches up with slower wind in front of it, it can create a Stream Interaction Regions (SIR; 92 (Pizzo, 1978)) of compressed magnetized plasma that can drive space weather. If the low-93 latitude coronal hole lives for multiple solar rotations, these become Corotating Inter-94 action Regions (CIRs) and act as periodic drivers of the solar wind and planetary en-95 vironments. Since most of the interaction regions described in this paper persist, the terms 96 SIR, CIR, and high-speed solar wind stream will essentially be used interchangeably for 97 the remainder of the paper. 98

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### 2.2 From Sun to Solar Wind to Planets

Because of the prevalence of long-lived low-latitude coronal holes during the months 100 leading up to solar minima (Hewins et al., 2020), SIRs are the dominant drivers of space 101 weather at the Earth and other planets during low-solar-activity times (Tsurutani et al., 102 2006). Although they do not have the coherent, rotating magnetic structure of CMEs, 103 SIRs are otherwise quite similar in that they are characterized by a jump in dynamic pres-104 sure along with increased velocity and magnetic field strength (Bingham et al., 2018). 105 As a consequence, SIRs compress planetary bowshocks and magnetopauses (Borovsky 106 & Denton, 2006). 107

In general, the sensitivity of planetary magnetospheres to such solar wind forcing 108 varies from planet to planet (Bagenal, 2013) (and from star to star; see Varela et al. (2022)). 109 In the solar system, Jupiter and Saturn's magnetic fields are much stronger than Earth's, 110 and their magnetospheres are only weakly driven by the solar wind as they are domi-111 nated by internal forcing (Vasyliunas, 1983; McComas & Bagenal, 2007; Delamere & Bage-112 nal, 2010, 2013) with primary sources of plasma to their magnetospheres coming from 113 their satellites, Io and Enceladus (Delamere et al., 2007; Blanc et al., 2015; Allen et al., 114 2018; Bagenal & Dols, 2020). The nature of Uranus and Neptune's magnetospheres are 115 less well-understood, but Gershman and DiBraccio (2020) argued that, due to their highly 116 tilted rotation relative to their magnetic dipoles, solar-wind driving may play an impor-117 tant role in convection within their magnetospheres (Vasyliunas, 1986). In contrast, there 118 is no question about the Earth's magnetospheric response to external processes, as re-119 connection in the magnetotail drives auroral precipitation at the poles and plasma con-120 vection at Earth's high latitudes (Dungey, 1961). Mercury is also dominated by exter-121 nal forcing, not surprisingly due to its extreme proximity to the Sun. For the most ex-122 treme CME events, its dayside magnetosphere disappears, leaving Mercury exposed to 123 the solar wind (Slavin et al., 2019; Winslow et al., 2020). This is always true at Mars, 124 which has an induced magnetosphere and is only weakly shielded from impacts by so-125 lar and interplanetary disturbances (Jakosky et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2017). Venus also 126 has an induced magnetosphere and auroral processes that depend upon solar wind pres-127 sure (Luhmann et al., 2007, 2008; Edberg et al., 2011). 128

The effects of solar wind forcing on a planetary magnetosphere and atmosphere has 129 been most comprehensively observed at the Earth, where both CMEs and SIRs drive ge-130 omagnetic storms (Borovsky & Denton, 2006). These in turn lead to enhanced wave ac-131 tivity, auroral and radiation belt particle precipitation (Bingham et al., 2018; Millan & 132 Thorne, 2007), which leads to an increase in ionospheric temperature, plasma density, 133 and ion upflows and outflows (Wang et al., 2011; Ogawa et al., 2019) and also impacts 134 Earth's neutral atmosphere (thermosphere) thermal structure, density and composition 135 (Solomon et al., 2012; Younas et al., 2022, a paper in this collection). When there is a 136 CIR surviving for multiple rotations, the result is periodic forcing of the Earth's space 137 environment and upper atmosphere. Such periodicities are observed in a range of indices 138 including geomagnetic indices, total electron content (ionosphere), neutral density (ther-139

mosphere), and energetic electrons (radiation belt) (Gibson et al., 2010; Emery et al.,
2009; Lei et al., 2011). We will return to this in Section 4.

As we will also discuss further in Section 4, SIRs in the solar wind have been ob-142 served by the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile EvolutioN (MAVEN) satellite in orbit around 143 Mars. In the Martian atmosphere, it can be difficult to separate out the effects of pe-144 riodic particulate (solar wind) forcing vs radiative forcing. The most common periodic 145 radiative forcing comes from the Sun's 27-day rotation which arises from any large long-146 lived solar active region (or indeed any long-lived solar feature) (J. Lean, 1997). Hughes 147 et al. (2022) compared MAVEN solar irradiance observations with measurements of Mars 148 thermospheric densities, and found clear correlations, especially at high altitudes. In a 149 related study, Gasperini et al. (2023, a paper in this collection) compared the response 150 of Mars' and Earth's thermospheres to EUV variation at solar minimum vs solar max-151 imum and found greatly increased response of the middle thermospheric densities to so-152 lar rotation during the time of reduced EUV forcing at solar minimum for both plan-153 ets. This may be explained by a reduction in adiabatic cooling due to rising motions in 154 global circulation at low and middle terrestrial latitudes during solar minimum (Bougher 155 et al., 2000, 2015). 156

Further subtleties arise at Mars because different wavelengths of light drive differ-157 ent reactions at different heights in the atmosphere (Thiemann et al., 2018). In partic-158 ular, EUV wavelengths drive a direct effect involving local heating that has greatest im-159 pact in the upper Martian atmosphere, while infrared (IR) irradiance, which varies with 160 variations in Mars' orbital distance from the Sun, has an indirect effect through upward 161 coupling from the cooled lower-middle atmosphere. As a result, for high altitudes in the 162 Mars atmosphere at solar maximum, the EUV effect may dominate compared to the solar-163 cycle-independent orbital (IR) effect, while at solar minimum, the EUV effect plays a 164 relatively minor role (Fang et al., 2022). 165

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### 3 Comparative Solar Minima

3.1 A Brief History of the "Whole Intervals"

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The first of the "Whole" minimum campaigns was the Whole Sun Month (WSM) 169 which occurred during a "classic" solar minimum in 1996. The solar corona was char-170 acterized by a global dipole field with streamer belts at the equator and large coronal 171 holes at both poles (Figure 1a,d) as well as one equatorial coronal hole extension known 172 as the Elephant's Trunk, which was the source of a fast wind stream impacting the Earth. 173 The papers coming out of WSM marked the opening of the floodgates of Sun/solar wind 174 scientific collaborations inspired by the SOHO satellite (Torsti, Anttila, & Sahla, 1999; 175 Fludra et al., 1999; Linker et al., 1999; Del Zanna & Bromage, 1999; Dobrzycka et al., 176 1999; Biesecker et al., 1999; Warren & Hassler, 1999; Riley et al., 1999; Guhathakurta 177 et al., 1999; Clegg et al., 1999; Breen et al., 1999; Panasyuk, 1999; Galvin & Kohl, 1999; 178 Posner et al., 1999; Alexander, 1999; Gopalswamy et al., 1999; Torsti, Kocharov, et al., 179 1999; Zidowitz, 1999; Zhao et al., 1999; Gibson et al., 1999; Strachan et al., 1999; Gib-180 son et al., 1999; Strachan et al., 2000; Bromage et al., 2000; Riley et al., 2001; Frazin & 181 Janzen, 2002; Guhathakurta et al., 2006; Lionello et al., 2009). 182

This first WSM initiative focused on just one solar rotation (August 10-September 8, 1996) during solar minimum, but was followed by two related campaigns in 1998 (WSM2) and 1999 (WSM3) (Eiscat et al., 2000; Moran et al., 2000; Breen et al., 2000; Gibson et al., 2002; Gibson, 2001; Del Zanna et al., 2002; Ko et al., 2005).

<sup>187</sup> The next solar minimum saw the organization of the Whole Heliosphere Interval <sup>188</sup> (WHI) in 2008. The scope was expanded from Sun to Earth, and dozens of solar, helio-

spheric, and geospace instruments were involved. The WHI minimum was surprisingly 189 different than WSM and other prior space-age solar minima. Despite an extremely low 190 number of sunspots, there was more structure in the corona and heliosphere, with mul-191 tiple broad low-latitude coronal holes and periodic forcing of the earth's space environ-192 ment by high speed streams in 2008 (WHI1: CR2068, March 20 - April 16, 2008). The 193 WHI minimum continued to evolve and become even quieter in 2009, becoming longer 194 and deeper than any space-age solar minimum witnessed prior to it (WHI2/WHI3: CR2078/ 195 CR2085, December 17, 2008 - January 12, 2009/ June 26 - July 22, 2009). The high-196 speed streams faded out, resulting in extreme depletion of radiation belt electrons at Earth 197 (X. Li et al., 2013), as well as weak interplanetary magnetic field and record high lev-198 els of galactic cosmic rays (Mewaldt et al., 2010; Schwadron et al., 2018). However, the 199 Sun's corona never became as predominantly dipolar as in 1996 (Figure 1), possibly be-200 cause the polar magnetic fields in 2009 were significantly weaker than in 1996. 201

WHI science was rich, with analyses continuing for years after the original cam-202 paign time periods (Woods et al., 2009; Chamberlin et al., 2009; Bisi et al., 2009; Gib-203 son et al., 2009; Bisi et al., 2010; Verkhoglyadova et al., 2011; Bisi et al., 2011; Gibson 204 et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 2011; Webb et al., 2011; Muller et al., 2011; Welsch et al., 205 2011; White et al., 2011; Petrie et al., 2011; de Toma, 2011; Nitta, 2011; Cremades et 206 al., 2011; Altrock, 2011; Vásquez et al., 2011; Benito et al., 2022; Echer et al., 2011; Lep-207 ping et al., 2011; Riley et al., 2011; Zhao & Fisk, 2011; Emery et al., 2011; Lei et al., 2011; 208 Araujo-Pradere et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011, 2011; Haberreiter, 2011; Jackman & Ar-209 ridge, 2011; Wiltberger et al., 2012; Hudson et al., 2012; Lopez et al., 2012; Bruntz et 210 al., 2012; Solomon et al., 2012; Z. Li et al., 2014; J. L. Lean et al., 2014; Lin & Chen, 211 2015; Wiltberger et al., 2017; Candido et al., 2018; Chadney et al., 2022). 212

The third iteration was the Whole Heliosphere and Planetary Interactions (WHPI). 213 Based on lessons learned from WSM and WHI, the interval was not confined to a few 214 solar rotations, but covered the period from late 2018 through early 2020. The level of 215 participation increased with its expanded scope encompassing Sun to solar wind to plan-216 etary magnetospheres and atmospheres. The articles accompanying this introduction (Hudson 217 et al., 2021; Lloveras et al., 2022; Riley et al., 2022; Gasperini et al., 2023; Luhmann et 218 al., 2022; Younas et al., 2022; Palmerio et al., 2022; Bregou et al., 2022; Mlynczak et al., 219 2022; Varela et al., 2022; Badman et al., 2023; Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 un-220 der review; Allen et al., 2023 under review) represent the beginnings of analyses that are 221 likely to continue for years to come. 222

### 3.2 Comparative Solar Minima

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At first glance, considering Figure 1, it appears that the solar magnetic structure 224 of WHPI was a bit more like WSM than WHI, in that it had a more dipole-type struc-225 ture with coronal holes centered on the poles. On the other hand, as discussed in Hewins, 226 Gibson, Webb, et al. (2023 under review, a paper in this collection), the extended WHPI 227 period had significant and persistent low-latitude coronal holes that disrupted this sim-228 ple morphology, similar to what was observed during WHI. As we will discuss further 229 in Section 4, the white light corona during WHPI was not always as dipolar as Figure 1 230 c). The low-latitude coronal holes were least prevalent in late March 2019 when the ob-231 servations shown in Figure 1c) were taken, so that it represents the simplest, but not nec-232 essarily the typical structure during the WHPI extended interval. 233

Figure 3 shows the dipole vs quadrupole components of the photospheric magnetic field, showing that the dipole component was strongest during WSM, weakest during WHI, and in the middle during WHPI. This is consistent with the results of Riley et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) who found similar trends in the solar polar magnetic field, which is controlled by the strength of the dipole term. The overall coronal magnetic morphology of closed vs open field is impacted by the ratio of this dipole term relative to higher-



Figure 3. Dipole (top) and quadrupole (bottom) components of the solar photospheric magnetic field, as determined from observations obtained by Stanford's Wilcox Solar Observatory http://wso.stanford.edu/gifs/Multipole.gif. The three intervals, WSM, WHI, and WHPI are indicated by the shaded blue rectangles. From this it is clear that the dipolar field was strongest for WSM and weakest for WHI, with WHPI lying in between, but that the quadrupolar field was similar for all three.

order multipole fields. Figure 3 illustrates that the quadrupolar magnetic term is similar in all three intervals, but varies somewhat. In particular, it hits a low during March
2019. Thus, the global coronal magnetic structure as manifested in white-light observations (Figure 1) was predominantly dipolar during the shorter minimum of WSM, never
attained that status during the extended minimum of WHI, and demonstrated both whitelight dipolar structure and sustained low-latitude coronal holes during the extended WHPI
minimum.

These differences of solar dipole strength and coronal magnetic morphology affect 247 the nature of the solar wind near sunspot minimum. Riley et al. (2022) did a statisti-248 cal comparison of the three solar minima and found, as was the case with the polar mag-249 netic fields, that the WHPI solar wind properties lay in between those of WSM and WHI. 250 Luhmann et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) determined the sources of solar wind 251 velocity measured in the ecliptic from global coronal magnetic models and found that 252 low-to-mid latitude open fields (as opposed to polar open fields) were the primary source 253 of solar wind measured at the Earth, in particular during the extended minima of WHI 254 and WHPI. Thus, to summarize, coronal magnetic field and solar wind observations in-255 dicate that WHPI was similar to WHI in its length and magnetic complexity, but demon-256 strated at least a "partial recovery" of solar dipole dominance and solar wind density 257 and velocity. Thus, WSM > WHPI > WHI in terms of dipole dominance and solar wind 258 properties at solar minimum. 259

However, the behavior at the Earth paints a somewhat different picture. Once an-260 thropogenic effects (rising  $CO_2$  levels, which cause a secular decrease in thermospheric 261 temperatures) are taken into account, the Earth's upper atmosphere can be a sensitive 262 measure of differences between solar minima. Using measurements of satellite drag, Emmert 263 et al. (2010) found a decrease in thermospheric density ( $\sim 30\%$  at 400 km) and tem-264 perature during the WHI minimum relative to prior minima. (Solomon et al., 2011) con-265 ducted model simulations and found a  $\sim 27\%$  decrease of annual mean density changes 266 at 400 km altitude from 1996 to 2008. Among this  $\sim 27\%$  decrease,  $\sim 22\%$ ,  $\sim 2.2\%$ , 267 and  $\sim 3\%$  were attributed to solar EUV decrease, geomagnetic activity change, and  $CO_2$ 268

increase, respectively. Mlynczak et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) measured a down-269 ward trend in thermospheric temperatures from 2002 to 2019 using measurements from 270 the TIMED satellite. After accounting for anthropogenic  $CO_2$  increase, they found tem-271 peratures at lower thermospheric altitudes  $(10^{-4}hPa, 105\text{km})$  had dropped -14.37 K be-272 tween 2002 and 2019 – and that the lower thermospheric temperatures in the 2019 min-273 imum (WHPI) were  $\sim 3K$  colder than the 2008-2009 minimum (WHI). Thus, in terms 274 of thermospheric temperature, WSM < WHI < WHPI, with no sign of the "partial re-275 covery" discussed by Riley et al. (2022). 276

277 Relatedly, Bregou et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) found a long-term (1980 to mid-2021) increase in inner zone radiation belt proton flux that they interpreted as 278 a manifestation of the secular downtrend in F10.7 correlated with sunspot number known 279 as the Centennial Gleissberg Cycle (Gleissberg, 1944; Feynman & Ruzmaikin, 2011). F10.7 280 serves as a proxy for solar EUV in the Bregou et al. study, with a decrease implying a 281 reduced atmospheric (and ionospheric) scale height and reduced collisional drag at a fixed 282 altitude, which is the primary loss mechanism for inner zone protons. Each solar min-283 imum since 1980 has been followed by a maximum trapped proton flux which has shown a secular increase, modulated by the solar cycle, over the past 40 years. Thus, correlated 285 with cooling in the thermosphere, the inner zone radiation belt proton flux has contin-286 ued to increase with each successive minimum, so WSM < WHI < WHPI - again, no287 sign of a partial recovery and consistent with a response to the Sun's secular approach 288 to the Gleissberg minimum in solar activity. 289

To explain the apparent discrepancy between the solar wind and planetary envi-290 ronmental trends, we consider the sometimes competing natures of radiative vs partic-291 ulate forcing of planetary atmospheres. (Emmert et al., 2010) argued that the decrease 292 in thermospheric densities and temperatures was a result of a decrease in EUV spectral 293 irradiance from the WSM to the WHI solar minimum, and this was supported by the 294 Solomon et al. (2011) modeling study, which found that irradiance changes between WSM 295 and WHI were the dominant cause of the secular trend (relative to particulate and anthropogenic forcings). The case for decreased irradiance being the cause of the ongoing 297 downward trend in thermospheric temperatures from WHI to WHPI is less clear: Us-298 ing SORCE satellite data from 2003-2020, Woods et al. (2022) found no significant dif-299 ferences in integrated solar spectral irradiance between the two time periods – so, nei-300 ther a "partial recovery" in irradiance nor a continuing decrease in integrated spectral 301 solar irradiance. However, Mlynczak et al. (2022) argued that when one considered just 302 the narrow Schumann-Runge Bands of solar ultraviolet radiation from 175 to 200 nm, 303 a region responsible for heating of the lower thermosphere, there was a statistically sig-304 nificant decrease in SORCE-measured irradiance between the WHI and WHPI minima. 305 Further modeling is needed to fully understand the causes of the decrease in thermospheric 306 temperatures from WHI to WHPI. 307

### <sup>308</sup> 4 Evolution of a Solar Minimum

WHPI spanned the entire solar minimum period between 2018 and 2020. For the 309 purpose of coordinating targeted observations, we identified a few focus "campaign" time 310 periods that took advantage of solar-heliosphere-planetary synergies. These included the 311 solar eclipse in July 2019 – which was studied both for its solar structure (Lloveras et 312 al., 2022, a paper in this collection) and for the Earth's thermospheric response to it as 313 measured by the GOLD satellite (Aryal et al., 2020). They also included the Parker So-314 lar Probe perihelion passage in January 2020 - which served as a template for commu-315 nity coordination and predictive targeting (Badman et al., 2023, a paper in this collec-316 tion). Beyond that, we trusted to solar serendipity to provide interesting time periods 317 for study, and we were not disappointed! 318



Figure 4. (left and middle columns) McIntosh Archive style Carrington maps (latitude vs. longitude; see Figure 2) for Carrington rotations 2209 through 2214 (September 21 2018 – March 5, 2019; note the ~27-day solar rotations shown are "padded" on each side by a week of observations), showing long-lived low-latitude coronal holes of both polarities in the right half of maps (green circles). Adapted from Figure 10 of Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al. (2023 under review). The effects of differential rotation (faster solar rotation at equator than higher latitudes) can be seen in the drift of the equatorial portion of both coronal holes to the right (the equator rotates prograde relative to the synoptic Carrington rate of 27.3 days; see discussion in Luhmann et al. (2022)). (right column) Solar wind at Earth vs time (top) and related wavelet (bottom) showing periodic solar wind 7-9 day forcing. Data from https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/.

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# 4.1 September 2018 - March 2019 – Long-lived low-latitude coronal holes and periodic forcing

Even when solar activity was low, low-latitude coronal holes were present for a sig-321 nificantly long time period. In particular, two coronal holes of opposite polarity sepa-322 rated by approximately 90 degrees remained visible for several rotations (Figure 4 left 323 and middle columns). As discussed in Hewins, Gibson, and Emery (2023 under review), 324 both of these coronal holes resulted in repeating fast wind streams observed at Earth, 325 Mars, and STEREO-A. This 7-9-day periodic solar-wind forcing, shown in Figure 4 right 326 column, is not unlike that observed in the early phases of WSM (Gibson et al., 2010; Emery 327 et al., 2009; Lei et al., 2011), with impact felt in the Earth's upper atmosphere as mea-328 sured in neutral density by the Swarm-C satellites. Large effects were also registered in 329 the ionosphere through ground-based GNSS total electron content (F. Gasperini, in prepa-330 ration). 331

# 4.2 March 2019 - July 2019: Quiet with a burst of activity in the middle

The interval 2018 - 2020 was a long period of low solar sunspot number and so-334 lar magnetic activity, but it was briefly interrupted by a burst of old-cycle sunspot emer-335 gence and associated activity in April – June 2019 (Figure 5). This burst of activity re-336 sulted in multiple CMEs that erupted from a nest of active regions with impacts mea-337 sured at both the Earth and Mars (E. Palmerio, private communication). Such events 338 are excellent candidates for studying the evolution of CMEs in the solar wind as a func-339 tion of distance from their solar origin (Witasse et al., 2017), as well as for considering 340 the relative effects of CMEs vs SIRs on planetary space environments during times of 341



Figure 5. (left) Total sunspot area determined from Solar Dynamics Observatory (SDO) Heliseismic and Magnetic Imager (HMI) intensities (top) and associated magnetic flux (bottom), as a function of time during the WHPI solar minimum. (right) Nest of active regions during (May 12, 2019) which resulted in multiple CMEs detected throughout the solar system (SDO/AIA image, obtained via helioviewer.org)

relative heliospheric simplicity (Hudson et al., 2021, a paper in this collection). In an analysis of a series of solar transient events immediately prior to the WHPI time period (August 2018), Palmerio et al. (2022, a paper in this collection) was able to separate out the effects of two CMEs and a following high-speed stream by comparing observations at the Earth and Mars in the context of a global MHD model.

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# 4.3 August - December, 2019: The persistance of "Mr. T"

The long-lived, low-latitude coronal holes of September 2018 - March, 2019 shown in Figure 4 had largely dissipated by April, 2019, in part due to differential rotation of these latitudinally-extended structures and resulting distortion and fragmentation (Hewins, Gibson, Webb, et al., 2023 under review). They were replaced by the active region nest of April-June 2019, which emerged and then decayed, to be replaced in turn by a new positive-polarity (blue) coronal hole that survived for approximately six months (Figure 6; see also Figure 2)).

This coronal hole was extremely geoeffective, perhaps due to its 'T' shape which 355 meant that, near the equator, it was both wide in longitude (and so driving a longer-lasting 356 fast wind stream in time), and tall in latitude (increasing the likelihood of the Earth be-357 ing repeatedly hit by at least part of its stream). In early September, the sustained fast 358 wind resulted in a radiation belt response that was the highest energy (hardest relativis-359 tic electron spectrum) observed in the last two years of the Van Allen Probes mission 360 (Mauk et al., 2013). The radiation-belt response to the CIR lasted into October 2019 361 and was higher than the response seen during the CME events associated with the ac-362 tive region nest of May 2019 (Hudson et al., 2021). 363



Figure 6. The 'Mr. T' long-lived coronal hole which recurred over six solar Carrington rotations. Shown here in 195 Å as observed by SDO/AIA.

The presence of this long-lived coronal hole at the Sun also overlapped with a time 364 period when Parker Solar Probe was radially aligned with the STEREO-A spacecraft, 365 allowing analyses of the evolution of the associated SIR and a study of energetic parti-366 cle acceleration (Allen et al., 2021; Wijsen et al., 2021). Measurements of SIRs and CMEs 367 at different longitudinal points in the solar system were also made possible via multi-368 spacecraft measurements. For a comprehensive overview of this coronal hole and its im-369 pacts throughout the heliosphere, see Allen et al. (2023 under review, a paper in this col-370 lection). 371

### **5** Conclusions

The science enabled by focusing on solar minimum is rich and rewarding. During WSM (1996) and WHI (2008-2009) we gained global understanding about the sources and impacts of solar wind, and new insight about how different solar minimum "quiet times" can be from one another. WHPI (2018-2020) is providing yet more insights into the whole heliospheric system. For example:

• The response to solar-wind and solar-irradiance forcings varies greatly from planet 378 to planet. Analyses of the space-weather impacts that do occur is an excellent way 379 to test our understanding of the coupled mechanisms at play. 380 • By coronal/solar wind forcing standards, WSM > WHPI > WHI, but radiation-381 belt and upper atmospheric observations show more of a monotonic secular trend, 382 WSM < WHI < WHPI. This may be due to opposing trends in spectral irradi-383 ance vs. solar wind forcing over the past two minima. It illustrates the complex-384 ity of understanding system variability when multiple mechanisms – including an-385 thropogenic ones – are involved. 386

• Multispacecraft/multipoint measurements throughout the heliosphere, varying both in distance and longitude, enable detailed analyses of the evolution of solar wind structures and their sources.

A final comment: with each minimum, observational and modeling capabilities have improved along with data-model interpretation schema. The international interdisciplinary initiatives of WSM, WHI, and WHPI act as catalysts for new analysis approaches and (importantly) play a role in building enduring cohorts of scientific collaborators across scientific disciplines. These efforts should be continued in future minima, as they play an important role in quantifying and understanding long-term changes in the Sun and their effects on the solar wind and planetary space environments and atmospheres.

# <sup>397</sup> 6 Open Research

GONG magnetic field extrapolations are available at https://gong.nso.edu/data/ magmap/QR/bqg/.

Mauna Loa Solar Observatory white light coronagraph images are available at https:// mlso.hao.ucar.edu/mlso\_data\_calendar.php).

McIntosh archive maps presented in this paper are available through the NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information. doi:10.7289/V5765CCQ. The maps and supplemental reference/methodology materials are archived at https://www.ngdc.noaa .gov/stp/space-weather/solar-data/solar-imagery/composites/synoptic-maps/ mc-intosh/. Further information on the use and application these data can be found at https://www2.hao.ucar.edu/mcintosh-archive.

Additional data appears from the Solar Dynamics Observatory Atmospheric Imag ing Assembly (AIA) and Helioseismic and Magnetic Imager (HMI) as accessed through
 Helioviewer (https://helioviewer.org/?movieId=hnTN5). SDO data courtesy of NASA/SDO
 and the AIA, EVE, and HMI science teams.

- 412 Stanford Wilcox Solar Observatory dipole and quadrupole data may be obtained 413 at http://wso.stanford.edu/#0ther.
  - Solar wind data are available at https://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/.

### 415 Acknowledgments

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We are indebted to all the participants of the WHPI Workshop of September, 2021. We 416 owe particular thanks to Saurav Aryal, Fran Bagenal, Joan Burkepile, Gina DiBraccio, 417 Heather Elliott, Xiaohua Fang, Rachael Filwett, Dan Gershman, Lan Jian, Janet Kozyra, 418 Christina Lee, Janet Luhmann, Carlos Martinis, Ryan McGranaghan, Marty Mlynczak, 419 Erika Palmerio, Kledsai Poopakun, Nour Raouafi, Pete Riley, Yi-Ming Wang, Nicolas 420 Wijsen, and Olivier Witasse. Funding for SEG, RCA, GdT, BE, IH, and LQ was pro-421 vided by the NASA HSO Connect program. FG acknowledges support from NASA MDAP 422 Grant No. 80NSSC21K1821. NCAR is a major facility sponsored by the NSF under Co-423 operative Agreement No. 1852977. 424

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1004