

1 **Modulation of magnetospheric substorm frequency:**
2 **Dipole tilt and IMF B_y effects**

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5 **Key Points:**

- 6 • Substorms are more frequent when the dipole tilt angle and IMF B_y have oppo-
7 site compared to equal sign
8 • This is a magnetospheric response, and cannot be explained by magnetosphere-
9 ionosphere coupling affecting detection of substorms at ground
10 • Whether the combination of B_y and tilt angle affects the dayside reconnection rate
11 or magnetotail processes is currently unresolved

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Abstract

Using five independent substorm onset lists, we show that substorms occur more frequently when the Interplanetary Magnetic Field (IMF) B_y component and the dipole tilt angle Ψ have different signs as opposed to when they have the same sign. These results confirm that the magnetosphere exhibits an explicit B_y effect for $\Psi \neq 0$, as other recent studies have suggested, and imply variation in the dayside reconnection rate and/or the magnetotail response. We additionally observe more frequent onsets for positive B_y in an onset list based on identifying negative bays in the auroral electrojet, regardless of season. Taking into account all five onset lists, we conclude that this phenomenon is not real, but is rather a consequence of the particular substorm identification method, which is affected by local ionospheric conditions that depend on B_y and Ψ .

Plain Language Summary

The solar wind that the Sun continuously emits is a plasma with an embedded magnetic field. The direction in which this magnetic field points changes frequently, and is among the most important factors in controlling geomagnetic activity, or how frequent and how bright the aurorae are. From the perspective of an observer at the magnetic pole in the Northern Hemisphere, a downward-pointing magnetic field yields the highest amount of geomagnetic activity and results in frequent and bright auroral displays. The magnetic field can also have a "sideways" component that points either toward dawn or toward dusk. It is often assumed that geomagnetic activity does not depend on whether the magnetic field points toward dawn or dusk. In this study, we show that around each solstice this sideways component does matter. When Earth is tilted towards the Sun (northern summer/southern winter), a dawnward-pointing magnetic field gives more frequent auroral breakups than the other. When Earth is tilted away from the Sun, a duskward-pointing magnetic field yields more auroral breakups. This insight improves our understanding of how Earth is coupled to space.

1 Introduction

It has recently been documented that certain aspects of the solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere coupling exhibit so-called explicit Interplanetary Magnetic Field (IMF) B_y effects. Although first pointed out by Friis-Christensen and Wilhjelm (1975), Holappa and Mursula (2018) further demonstrated and quantified the influence on the westward electrojet by the sign of IMF B_y (hereafter B_y). They found that during local winter in the northern hemisphere, the AL index was $\sim 50\%$ greater for positive B_y compared to negative B_y , during otherwise similar conditions. Similar differences have also been reported in Birkeland currents derived from the Average Magnetic field and Polar current Systems (AMPS) model (Laundal et al., 2018).

In lieu of a satisfying explanation of the dependence of ionospheric currents on the polarity of B_y , further studies have revealed other aspects of the coupled solar wind-magnetosphere-ionosphere system that exhibit similar dependence on B_y polarity. Reistad et al. (2020) found that the average size of the Region 1/Region 2 (R1/R2) current system, approximated as the radius of a circle fitted to Active Magnetospheric and Planetary Electrodynamics Response Experiment (AMPERE) observations, was significantly different under positive and negative B_y . This difference was only evident when the Earth's dipole tilt angle Ψ (i.e., degree of tilt of the Earth's dipole axis along the Sun-Earth line) was large. By convention, $\Psi < 0$ corresponds to December solstice (northern winter/southern summer). Specifically, they found that for large, negative Ψ , positive B_y results on average in a slightly larger radius than negative B_y during otherwise similar conditions, as parameterized by a solar wind-magnetosphere coupling function (Milan et al., 2012). On the other hand, for large, positive Ψ (i.e., near June solstice) the radius of the R1/R2 current system has an opposite dependence on the sign of B_y . The same results were ob-

63 tained from independent data in both hemispheres, which strongly suggests that this in
 64 not an effect of different magnetosphere-ionosphere (M-I) coupling in the two hemispheres,
 65 but is rather an effect of solar wind-magnetosphere interactions.

66 Holappa et al. (2020) recently reported a similar B_y polarity effect in the fluxes of
 67 high energy electron precipitation (> 30 keV) in the auroral region, most notably in the
 68 midnight to morning local time sector. They found significantly larger fluxes during the
 69 same conditions for which Reistad et al. (2020) find a larger radius of the R1/R2 cur-
 70 rent system. Furthermore, their results are consistently seen in both hemispheres. Again,
 71 this strongly suggests that the cause of their observed asymmetry is not an effect of the
 72 different M-I coupling in the two hemispheres, but rather linked to a property of the so-
 73 lar wind-magnetosphere interactions.

74 Liou et al. (2020) investigated substorm occurrence rates with special emphasis on
 75 the sign of B_y , also taking into account the level of upstream forcing. Their analysis in-
 76 dicated a trend of $\sim 30\%$ more substorms during positive compared to negative B_y . How-
 77 ever, Liou et al. (2020) only considered substorm lists based on detecting negative bays
 78 in the *SML* index (Newell & Gjerloev, 2011a), and did not sort their analysis with re-
 79 spect to dipole tilt or any other seasonal parameter. Here we demonstrate that both the
 80 underlying substorm signature used to identify onsets and seasonal parameters may in-
 81 fluence the conclusions drawn from the analysis of substorm occurrence rates.

82 This paper presents analysis of five independent lists of substorm onsets, all of which
 83 are sorted by IMF clock angle and dipole tilt angle. These lists and our methodology
 84 for processing them are described in the following section. We show the resulting onset
 85 frequency distributions in section 3. We discuss the significance and physical implica-
 86 tions of the results in section 4, and summarize our findings in section 5.

87 2 Data processing

88 To determine how the substorm frequency depends on B_y and Ψ , we employ five
 89 substorm onset lists, each based on different onset signatures from independent data sets.
 90 Multiple lists are used to ensure that the observed trends are a signature of the magne-
 91 toospheric response, and not the result of M-I coupling or the local conditions in the hemi-
 92 sphere where the observations are taken. The five substorm onset lists utilized in this
 93 study are introduced below.

- 94 1. A distinct aspect of substorms is a negative bay in ground magnetometers at au-
 95 roral latitudes, caused by an enhancement of the westward electrojet as the sub-
 96 storm current wedge closes in the ionosphere. The *SML* index (Newell & Gjerloev,
 97 2011a) quantifies the strength of the westward electrojet, and is based on ~ 100
 98 magnetometer stations at auroral latitudes in the northern hemisphere from the
 99 SuperMAG network of ground observatories (Gjerloev, 2012). Using an algorithm
 100 to identify sharp and sustained drops in the *SML* index, Newell and Gjerloev (2011a,
 101 2011b), present an onset list (hereafter the N&G list) that consists of 70,278 on-
 102 sets identified during 1981–2019.
- 103 2. Positive bays in magnetometer data at mid-latitudes are a signature of field-aligned
 104 currents associated with the substorm current wedge. A mid-latitude positive bay
 105 (MPB) index using 41 ground magnetometers in both hemispheres was put for-
 106 ward by Chu et al. (2015); this index can be used to identify substorm onset by
 107 identifying bay signatures (Chu et al., 2015; McPherron & Chu, 2018). We have
 108 used the onset list described in McPherron and Chu (2018) (hereafter the McP&C
 109 list), which consists of 57,558 onsets in the years 1982–2012 when their proposed
 110 threshold value of the area of the positive bays, > 700 nT²-min, is used.
- 111 3. Another signature of substorm onset is Pi2 pulsations, which are oscillations in
 112 the geomagnetic field observed at low- and mid-latitudes. A related index, termed

- 113 the Wave and planetary (Wp) index, was proposed by Nosé et al. (2012). This in-
 114 dex is based on 1-s magnetometer observations from 11 stations at low- and mid-
 115 latitudes, and is believed to reflect the wave power of the Pi2 pulsations. Nosé et
 116 al. (2012) also proposed threshold criteria for identifying substorm onsets from the
 117 Wp index. Using these criteria, we identify 14,075 onsets during 2005–2019 (here-
 118 after the Nosé list).
- 119 4. Substorms are associated with a sudden, localized brightening of the aurora, which
 120 expands both longitudinally and poleward as the substorm progresses (Akasofu,
 121 1964). We have used a combination of two onset lists based on global far-ultraviolet
 122 images of the aurora made by the IMAGE mission (Frey et al., 2004; Frey & Mende,
 123 2006) and the Polar mission (Liou, 2010). These lists yield a combined total of
 124 6,727 identified substorm onsets during 1996–2007. We refer to this combined list
 125 as the F+L list. Note that each list is based on images from a single orbiting space-
 126 craft, which means that each spacecraft can only detect a substorm when it oc-
 127 curs within the field of view of the imaging instrument. Hence, this list does not
 128 provide full coverage of the given years. About 1/3 of the IMAGE onsets and about
 129 1/5 of the Polar onsets are from the southern hemisphere.
 - 130 5. Yet another signature of substorm onset is the injection of energetic electrons into
 131 geosynchronous orbit (Kamide & McIlwain, 1974; Yeoman et al., 1994; Weygand
 132 et al., 2008), which leads to a sharp drop in the specific entropy of the hot elec-
 133 tron population (e.g. Borovsky & Cayton, 2011). Borovsky and Yakymenko (2017)
 134 present a substorm onset list (hereafter the B&Y list) based on identification of
 135 such drops using the Synchronous Orbit Particle Analyzer (SOPA) instrument on
 136 various geosynchronous spacecraft. The B&Y list is available at 30-min resolution,
 137 and gives 16,025 onsets in the years 1989–2007. Since the electron injection must
 138 drift to an orbiting spacecraft in order to be detected, the onsets determined by
 139 this method are systematically delayed by 0–30 min compared to the other lists.
 140 To account for this statistical bias, we have shifted the onsets in this list by -15 min.

141 Before comparing substorm occurrence rates, we identify a potential source of bias
 142 in this analysis and describe how we account for it. Figure 1 displays the distribution
 143 of the clock angle θ_{CA} during 1981–2019 in Geocentric Solar Magnetic (GSM) coordi-
 144 nates, Geocentric Solar Ecliptic (GSE) coordinates and Geocentric Solar Equatorial (GSEq)
 145 coordinates for $\Psi < -15^\circ$ and $\Psi > 15^\circ$ using a bin size of 5° . These θ_{CA} values were
 146 calculated from the OMNI 1-min data, which is propagated to the nose of the Earth’s
 147 bow shock (King & Papitashvili, 2005). Rotation of the IMF vectors to GSEq coordi-
 148 nates were done with the aid of the International Radiation Belt Environment Model-
 149 ing (IRBEM) library (Boscher et al., 2004–2008) using SpacePy 0.2.1 (Morley et al., 2011).

150 While the two distributions are similar in GSEq coordinates, they are not similar
 151 in GSE and GSM coordinates; rather, they are rotated in opposite directions relative to
 152 the distributions in GSEq coordinates. For negative B_y , this apparent rotation corre-
 153 sponds to more southward and less northward IMF for positive tilt angles compared to
 154 negative tilt angles, and vice versa for positive B_y . This is the well known Russell-McPherron
 155 effect (Russell & McPherron, 1973), which describes how mapping from GSEq coordi-
 156 nates to GSM coordinates leads to seasonal biases in the clock angle distribution, and
 157 hence different levels of geomagnetic activity depending on the sign of the B_y compo-
 158 nent. The effect maximizes around equinoxes, but is also substantial near solstices. While
 159 the effect near equinoxes is due to the large angle between Earth’s rotational axis and
 160 the normal of the ecliptic, the effect near solstice is due to the angle between the eclip-
 161 tic and the Sun’s equatorial plane.

162 We account for these season-related biases in the IMF orientation as follows. We
 163 bin the onsets by the average IMF clock angle in the hour before each onset, and use the
 164 deciles of the absolute clock angle distribution during 1981–2019 to determine the bin
 165 size; this yields 10 bins containing approximately the same number of hours of data. We

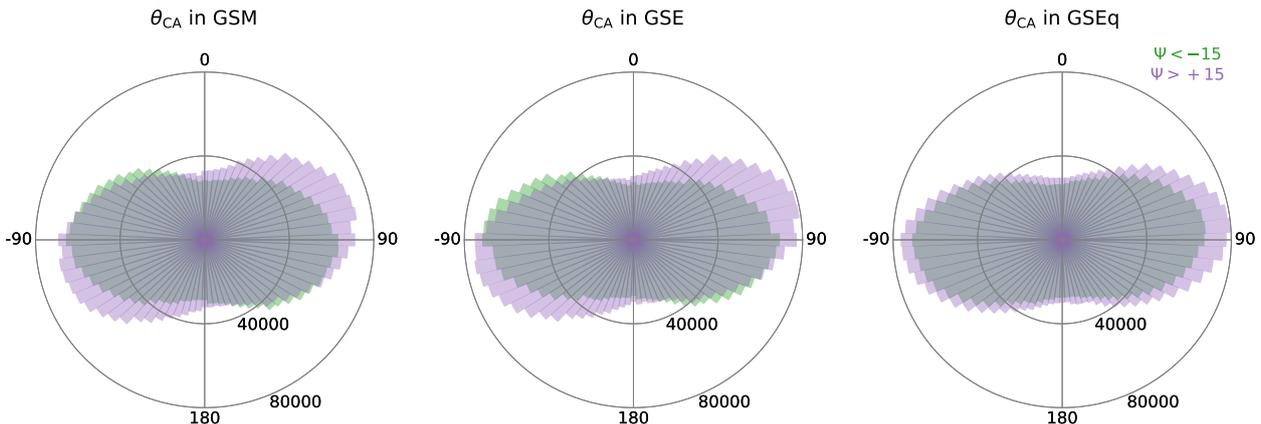


Figure 1. IMF clock angle distribution for $\Psi < -15^\circ$ (green) and $\Psi > 15^\circ$ (purple) in GSM (left), GSE (middle) and GSEq (right) coordinates.

166 then normalize each clock angle bin by the number of days that the IMF clock angle has
 167 that particular range of orientations over the duration of each specific substorm list; thus
 168 each bin has units of frequency of substorm onsets per day. Last, we divide the data into
 169 groups based on dipole tilt angle, Ψ , which was calculated using the method described
 170 in Laundal and Richmond (2017).

171 3 Results

172 The distributions of substorm onsets per day are given in Figure 2. Each row cor-
 173 responds to an independent substorm list, and each column corresponds to a different
 174 tilt angle interval. Blue and orange indicate negative and positive B_y , respectively. The
 175 numbers in the upper left corner of each panel are the total number of substorms for $\pm B_y$
 176 identified by the onset identification method associate with that list, and the ratio of pos-
 177 itive B_y to negative B_y onsets (black). The numbers in the lower right corner are the
 178 average number of substorms per day found by averaging the distributions in each panel,
 179 and the ratio of positive B_y to negative B_y onsets per day. These latter numbers are based
 180 on the binned data, in which biases in the clock angle distribution are accounted for.

181 From the figure, it is immediately clear that the distributions for positive and neg-
 182 ative B_y are different for large tilt angles. For $\Psi < -15^\circ$, there are more onsets per day
 183 for positive B_y than for negative B_y . This is most clear in the N&G list (top row), but
 184 consistently seen in all onset lists. The opposite effect is seen when $\Psi > 15^\circ$, where there
 185 are more onsets per day for negative than positive B_y , again seen in all the list, albeit
 186 less pronounced in the N&G and McP&C lists. The effect is most notable for $45^\circ < |\theta_{CA}| <$
 187 135° , which is when B_y dominates. That most of the asymmetry in onset frequency re-
 188 mains after binning by clock angle (lower right in each panel), strongly suggests that non-
 189 zero dipole tilt modulates the substorm frequency, in addition to any asymmetry caused
 190 by the different clock angle distribution.

191 In the $|\Psi| < 15^\circ$ tilt interval (second column) the distributions for $\pm B_y$ are sim-
 192 ilar and the average number of onsets per day about the same, with the notable excep-
 193 tion of the N&G list, in which there are considerably more onsets for $B_y > 0$. In the
 194 rightmost column of the figure we show the two distributions that result when no restric-
 195 tion is place on Ψ . These distributions are very similar to the $|\Psi| < 15^\circ$ distributions,
 196 with very similar distributions for $\pm B_y$ for all lists except the N&G list.

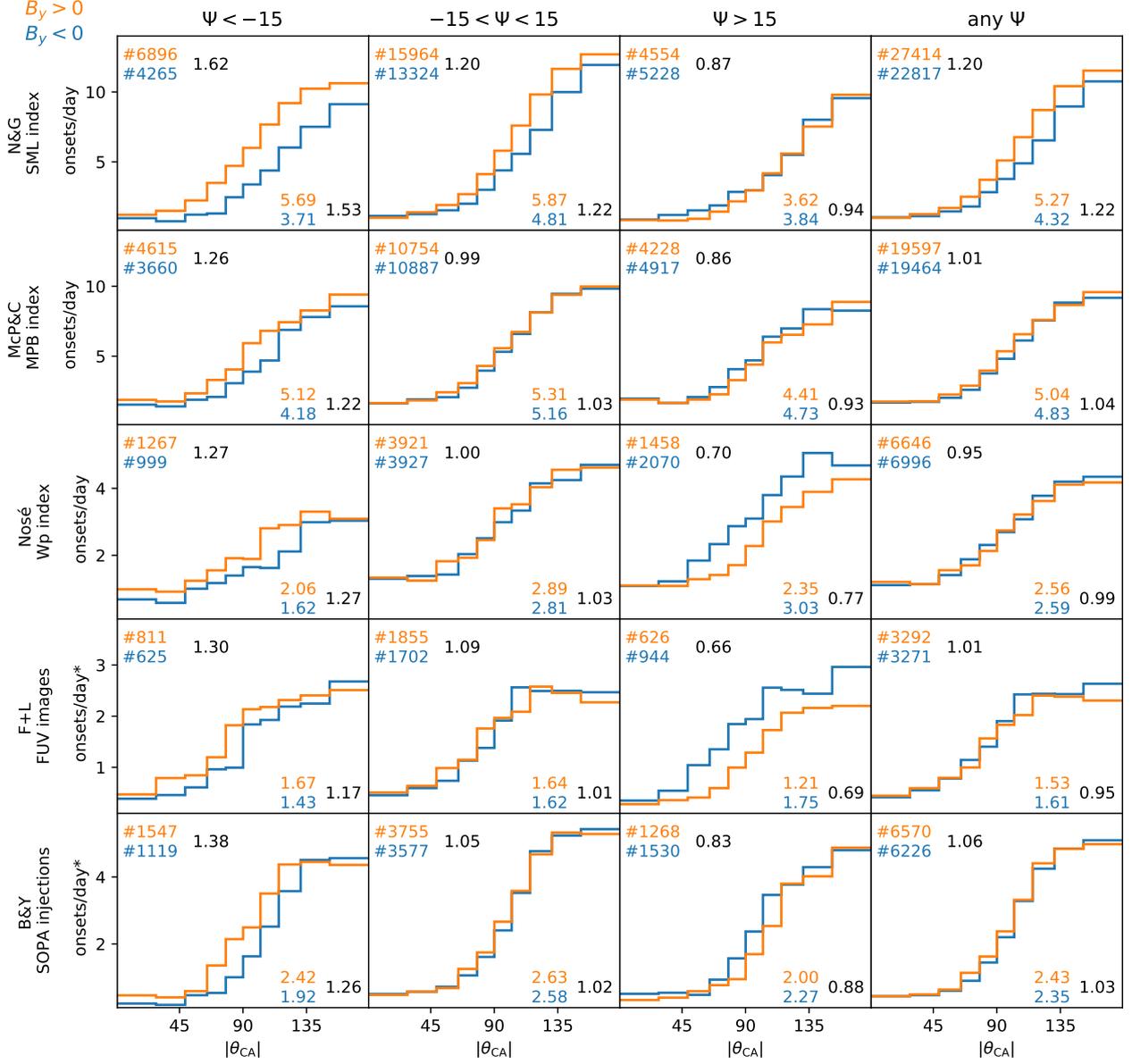


Figure 2. Onset occurrence rate for the five independent substorm onset lists. Blue colors indicate IMF $B_y < 0$ and orange colors indicate IMF $B_y > 0$. The numbers in the upper left corner of each panel are the number of onsets for $\pm B_y$, and the fraction of positive to negative onsets. The numbers in the lower right corner of each panel are the average number of substorms per day for $\pm B_y$, and the fraction of positive to negative onsets per day. The '*' symbol indicates lists based on spaceborne instruments, which do not have continuous coverage.

197 Potential biases in the solar wind forcing could influence the distributions in Fig-
 198 ure 2, although a large portion of any such bias is already accounted for by binning on
 199 clock angle. Regardless, we have checked this by calculating the bin averages of the mean
 200 solar wind forcing in the hour before onset using the Milan et al. (2012) solar wind cou-
 201 pling function (Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). We find no systematic biases
 202 that can explain the differences in the onset distributions. The mean solar wind forcing
 203 is typically a few percent larger for positive B_y , but this bias is consistent in all tilt an-
 204 gles intervals.

205 Newell et al. (2016) reported that the solar wind speed is the best predictor of sub-
 206 storm probability. To check for potential biases, we repeat the above using only the so-
 207 lar wind speed (Figure S2 in the Supporting Information). Again, we observe no under-
 208 lying biases that could explain the onset distributions. A bias towards higher speeds for
 209 $B_y > 0$ is seen in the B&Y list, which might explain the slightly higher onset frequency
 210 for positive B_y seen in this list.

211 4 Discussion

212 Despite being derived from independent data sources, the analysis of each of the
 213 five substorm lists shown in Figure 2 shows the same general trend: More frequent sub-
 214 storms when the sign of B_y and Ψ are opposite. However, there are important differences
 215 among the lists that we now discuss in more detail.

216 As the nature of a substorm is magnetospheric, and hence global, a defining sig-
 217 nature of a substorm should ideally depend neither on season, nor on the hemisphere from
 218 which the observation is made, nor on the spatial coverage of the observing network used.
 219 One type of substorm list that is particularly sensitive to the local ionospheric conditions
 220 and also M-I coupling effects in general, are substorm lists based on auroral electrojet
 221 indices. The upsides of these lists are good observational coverage in the northern hemi-
 222 sphere auroral region and sensitivity to magnetospheric activations. However, the mag-
 223 netic response at ground level is very much influenced by the ionospheric conductivity
 224 and the large-scale geometry of the high-latitude electrodynamics; these are generally
 225 different in the two hemispheres. Since the geometry of the polar electrodynamics changes
 226 vastly for $\pm B_y$ and dipole tilt angle, investigating how magnetospheric substorm occur-
 227 rence rates vary with these conditions can be highly problematic.

228 In our analysis we have included one such list (N&G), but the same trend seen in
 229 this list is also seen in other onset lists based on the *SML* index (Forsyth et al., 2015;
 230 Borovsky & Yakymenko, 2017, not shown). We argue that the trend seen for small dipole
 231 tilt and for no restriction on dipole tilt (second and rightmost columns, respectively, in
 232 Figure 2)—namely that there is a general preference for more frequent substorms when
 233 B_y is positive—is not real. This is most likely an artifact of how the auroral electrody-
 234 namics are established differently for $\pm B_y$, and not directly related to the processes in
 235 the tail initiating nightside activity.

236 To highlight this point, Figure 3 displays a superposed epoch analysis of the *AL*
 237 index, centered at substorm onsets identified by McP&C. This analysis includes only sub-
 238 storm onsets for which the average clock angle in the hour before onset are in the inter-
 239 val $45^\circ < |\theta_{CA}| < 135^\circ$. Each column corresponds to a different dipole tilt interval.
 240 To mitigate the challenges highlighted by Figure 1, the analysis is further split into three
 241 different intervals of average solar wind forcing Φ_D in the hour before onset, using the
 242 coupling function reported by Milan et al. (2012). Blue and orange indicate negative and
 243 positive B_y , respectively, and the shaded area indicates the standard error of the mean.
 244 The numbers in the lower right corner indicate the drop for each curve. This value was
 245 determined by subtracting the minimum values from the maximum value near onset (± 5 min).

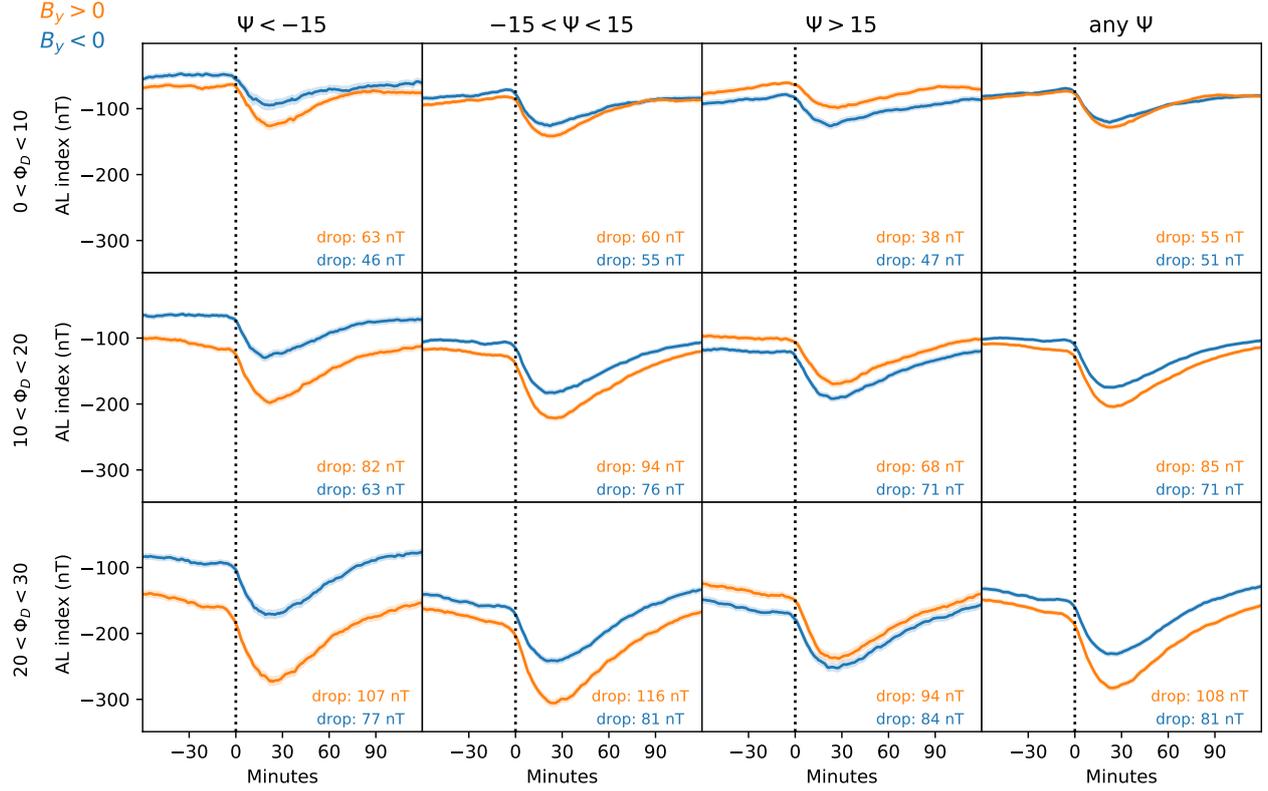


Figure 3. Superposed epoch analysis of the AL index relative to substorm onset in the McP&C list, for different levels of solar wind forcing and tilt angle intervals. Zero epoch corresponds to substorm onset. Blue and orange indicate negative and positive B_y , respectively. Only onsets for which the average clock angle in the hour before onset θ_{CA} are in the interval $45^\circ < |\theta_{CA}| < 135^\circ$ are included.

246 From Figure 3, we observe an opposite trend for $\pm B_y$ when Ψ is large; the average
 247 curve for positive B_y is below the average curve for negative B_y when $\Psi < -15^\circ$,
 248 and vice versa for $\Psi > 15^\circ$. The trend is significantly more pronounced for $\Psi < -15^\circ$.
 249 These observations are in agreement with the monthly averages of the AL index presented
 250 by Holappa and Mursula (2018). For $|\Psi| < 15^\circ$ and for any Ψ (second and rightmost
 251 columns) the curves for $\pm B_y$ are similar for $\Phi_D < 10$ kV (top row), but the curve for
 252 $B_y > 0$ is below the curve for $B_y < 0$ for stronger solar wind forcing (middle and bot-
 253 tom rows). We also note that the negative bays are more pronounced for $B_y > 0$, with
 254 a sharper and deeper drop, in nearly all subsets. This illustrates how any algorithm de-
 255 signed to identify sharp and/or sustained drops in auroral electrojet-based indices is more
 256 prone to detect onsets when $B_y > 0$ compared to $B_y < 0$.

257 There also appears to be a seasonal bias in the Nosé list, as the total number of
 258 substorms are significantly lower for $\Psi < -15^\circ$ compared to $\Psi > 15^\circ$ (middle row in
 259 Figure 2). Such bias is not apparent in any of the other lists, which instead indicate that
 260 the total number of onsets is about equal for large tilt angles. This bias could be a re-
 261 sult of the local season in which the observations are obtained, as only 3 of 11 observa-
 262 tories are located in the southern hemisphere. However, the general trend for $\pm B_y$ in
 263 the list is in agreement with the observations from the other lists.

264 The remaining three substorm lists shown in Figure 2 are less affected by the lo-
 265 cal hemisphere ionospheric conditions, as their respective onset identification criteria tar-
 266 get the global signature of the substorm to larger degrees. These three lists all agree, with
 267 little to no difference in onset frequency for the two B_y polarities, during small dipole
 268 tilt conditions. Hence, in contrast to (Liou et al., 2020), we conclude that there is no strong
 269 general trend toward more substorms when B_y is positive compared to negative, regard-
 270 less of the dipole tilt orientation. The analysis we have presented reveals to the contrary
 271 that the orientation of the dipole axis, together with the orientation of B_y , plays an im-
 272 portant role in modulating the substorm onset frequency, which to our knowledge has
 273 not been shown earlier. The results in Figure 2 seem to complement those of Holappa
 274 et al. (2020), who found larger fluxes of high-energy electron precipitation in both hemi-
 275 spheres for opposite compared to equal sign of B_y and Ψ . The increased substorm fre-
 276 quency for opposite sign of the two parameters could explain the larger fluxes of high-
 277 energy electrons observed in the ionosphere, as high-energy precipitation is known to be
 278 sensitive to inner magnetospheric activations such as substorms (Beharrell et al., 2015).

279 The higher occurrence frequency of substorms for opposite compared to equal signs
 280 of B_y and Ψ can be interpreted in two ways: 1) Dayside opening of magnetic flux de-
 281 pends on the combination of B_y and Ψ ; 2) The magnetotail responds differently to the
 282 same loading of magnetic flux for the different combinations of B_y and Ψ . We elaborate
 283 briefly on these two scenarios.

284 The shocked solar wind plasma, which interacts with the dayside magnetopause,
 285 has different properties in the pre-noon and post-noon sectors due to the prevailing Parker
 286 spiral structure of the IMF. As shown by, e.g., Walsh et al. (2014), the plasma β is typ-
 287 ically larger in the pre-noon magnetosheath plasma. These dawn-dusk asymmetries in
 288 the shocked solar wind plasma may affect the conditions for reconnection, which is thought
 289 to be more effective in low- β regions (Paschmann et al., 1986; Koga et al., 2019). The
 290 quasi-parallel shock region (dawn) is also more prone than the quasi-perpendicular re-
 291 gion (dusk) to the development of Kelvin-Helmholtz-Instabilities (KHI) (Dimmock et
 292 al., 2016; Nykyri et al., 2017). This leads to a dawn-favored plasma entry into the mag-
 293 netosphere through reconnection inside the KHI vortices.

294 However, a dawn-dusk asymmetry is alone insufficient to explain putative B_y po-
 295 larity effects on dayside reconnection, since the reconnection geometry for positive and
 296 negative B_y is symmetric if $\Psi = 0^\circ$, only mirrored across the Y_{GSM} axis. Therefore, al-
 297 though the reconnection rates might be different between the pre-noon and post-noon
 298 sectors, the rates within each sector remain the same for both polarities of B_y when $\Psi =$
 299 0 . Thus the total rate of flux opening is the same regardless of the polarity of B_y . This
 300 is consistent with the four onset lists showing little or no B_y polarity effect for small Ψ .
 301 This situation changes when Ψ is large. Under these conditions the two hemispheres are
 302 not symmetrically exposed to the solar wind and IMF, and differences can arise.

303 It is unfortunately not possible at present to relate substorm strength and frequency
 304 to changes in dayside reconnection rate. Not only is the fraction of flux closure through
 305 substorms to the opening of flux on the dayside unknown, it may also depend on Ψ and
 306 B_y . Quantitative estimates of the degree of influence on the total dayside reconnection
 307 rate, including all the relevant physics, remain a theoretical and observational challenge.

308 An alternative explanation is that the tail responds differently for opposite and equal
 309 signs of B_y and Ψ . If we assume that the dayside reconnection rate is unaffected by B_y
 310 polarity, the same amount of flux is added to the magnetosphere for $\pm B_y$. This means
 311 that the same amount of flux must, at some point, close again in the tail. Since the ob-
 312 served substorm frequency does vary with B_y polarity and dipole tilt, this could either
 313 mean that the average amount of flux closed by the substorms also differs (e.g., more
 314 frequent and weaker substorms for B_y and Ψ with opposite signs, and less frequent and
 315 stronger substorms for B_y and Ψ with the same sign), that substorms are more prone

316 to lead to steady magnetospheric convection (SMC) (c.f. Sergeev et al., 1996) for one
 317 combination that the other, or that the flux throughput is accommodated without ini-
 318 tiating substorms.

319 It may be relevant to look at the relative change of the average negative bays to
 320 quantify the strength of the superposed substorm. Based on the numbers in Figure 3,
 321 the drop in the AL index is larger for both polarities of B_y when the sign of Ψ is oppo-
 322 site compared to when the sign of Ψ is the same. This indicates that the substorms are
 323 not only more frequent, but also stronger, when B_y and Ψ have opposite signs. However,
 324 we emphasise that these numbers could be highly influenced by the local ionospheric con-
 325 ditions, and therefore not reflect the amount of flux closed by tail reconnection.

326 While we do not conjecture why the tail should respond differently, it is in any case
 327 known that the geometry of the closed tail is influenced both by Ψ and B_y . It is pos-
 328 sible that a combination of plasma sheet warping for $\Psi \neq 0$ (Russell & Brody, 1967;
 329 Fairfield, 1980; Tsyganenko & Fairfield, 2004) and plasma sheet rotation when $B_y \neq 0$
 330 (Cowley, 1981; Liou & Newell, 2010) causes different conditions for tail reconnection and
 331 substorm activation in the pre-midnight sector, where substorms are preferably initiated
 332 (Frey et al., 2004; Liou, 2010; Grocott et al., 2010). It has also been shown by Milan et
 333 al. (2019) that high-latitude onsets are more prone to develop into SMC events, whereas
 334 low-latitude onsets experience convection-breaking (Grocott et al., 2009) that leads to
 335 loading-unloading cycles. Furthermore, the average size of the polar cap is expanded for
 336 opposite compared to equal sign of B_y and Ψ (Reistad et al., 2020); this effect might also
 337 influence the substorm occurrence rates.

338 5 Summary

339 Using five independent substorm onset lists, we have shown that the substorm fre-
 340 quency depends on the sign of IMF B_y when the Earth's dipole tilt angle is large. Specif-
 341 ically, we find a higher substorm frequency when B_y and Ψ have opposite compared to
 342 equal signs. Since substorms are a global, magnetospheric process, this confirms that substorm-
 343 related magnetospheric processes explicitly depend on the polarity of B_y . We have out-
 344 lined possible physical mechanisms, and pointed out the present lack of a coherent un-
 345 derstanding of these processes. This should encourage further research effort into deter-
 346 mining why some magnetospheric processes depend explicitly on the sign of B_y .

347 With the exception of one onset list that is based on identifying negative bays in
 348 the westward electrojet, we find little or no difference in the substorm frequency for $\pm B_y$
 349 for small tilt angles or when we do not impose a restriction on dipole tilt angle. We there-
 350 fore conclude that the magnetosphere only exhibits the explicit B_y effect when the dipole
 351 tilt is large, and that the general trend of more frequent onsets for $B_y > 0$ compared
 352 to $B_y < 0$ observed in the N&G list is a result on the ionospheric conditions and not
 353 the magnetospheric response.

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 356 The OMNI solar wind data was downloaded from [https://cdaweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/sp](https://cdaweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/sp_phys/data/omni/hro_1min/)
 357 [_phys/data/omni/hro_1min/](https://cdaweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/sp_phys/data/omni/hro_1min/). The AL index used in this paper was provided by the WDC
 358 for Geomagnetism, Kyoto (<http://wdc.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp/wdc/Sec3.html>), and down-
 359 loaded as part of the OMNI data set. We gratefully acknowledge the SuperMAG collab-
 360 orators (<http://supermag.jhuapl.edu/info/?page=acknowledgement>). The N&G list
 361 was downloaded from <http://supermag.jhuapl.edu/substorms/?tab=download>. The
 362 McP&C list was obtained from [https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/2017JA024766)
 363 [10.1002/2017JA024766](https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/2017JA024766). The Wp index, from which we derived the Nosé list, was down-
 364 loaded from <http://www.isee.nagoya-u.ac.jp/~nose.masahito/s-cubed/>. The B&Y

list was obtained from <https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/2016JA023625>. The IMAGE FUV onsets were obtained from <http://sprg.ssl.berkeley.edu/image/> and the Polar UVI onsets from <https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1029/2010JA015578>. We thank K. M. Laundal for providing software to calculate the dipole tilt angle (<https://github.com/klaundal/dipole>).

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