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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Underlying scaling relationships between solar activity and geomagnetic activity revealed by multifractal analyses

Zu-Guo Yu^{1,2}, Vo Anh^{2,3}, and Richard Eastes³

Key Points:

- The scaling properties of the geomagnetic and the solar indices are examined
- The results suggest that multifractality exists in a_p , AE, XI, and ion density
- The scaling similarity of the a_p and XI data suggests flare-storm dependence

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Abstract This paper identifies some scaling relationships between solar activity and geomagnetic activity. We examine the scaling properties of hourly data for two geomagnetic indices (a_p and AE), two solar indices (solar X-rays X_I and solar flux $F10.7$), and two inner heliospheric indices (ion density N_i and flow speed V_s) over the period 1995–2001 by the universal multifractal approach and the traditional multifractal analysis. We found that the universal multifractal model (UMM) provides a good fit to the empirical $K(q)$ and $\tau(q)$ curves of these time series. The estimated values of the Lévy index α in the UMM indicate that multifractality exists in the time series for a_p , AE, X_I , and N_i , while those for $F10.7$ and V_s are monofractal. The estimated values of the nonconservation parameter H of this model confirm that these time series are conservative which indicate that the mean value of the process is constant for varying resolution. Additionally, the multifractal $K(q)$ and $\tau(q)$ curves, and the estimated values of the sparseness parameter C_1 of the UMM indicate that there are three pairs of indices displaying similar scaling properties, namely a_p and X_I , AE and N_i , and $F10.7$ and V_s . The similarity in the scaling properties of pairs (a_p , X_I) and (AE, N_i) suggests that a_p and X_I , AE and N_i are better correlated—in terms of scaling—than previous thought, respectively. But our results still cannot be used to advance forecasting of a_p and AE by X_I and N_i , respectively, due to some reasons.

1. Introduction

Geomagnetic activity is sometimes quantified using indices including D_{st} , a_p , AL, and AE that measure the effects of the major current systems in the magnetosphere and ionosphere. On the other hand, solar activity is depicted in the solar irradiance (e.g., solar X-rays X_I and solar flux $F10.7$) and solar flares. Although the solar wind is known to be the primary source of energy that drives the dissipative processes in the magnetosphere, there still remain fundamental questions concerning how this energy is transformed into the various geomagnetic activity signatures [Gleisner and Lundstedt, 1997].

While D_{st} has been shown to be correlated with solar wind data [e.g., Burton *et al.*, 1975], the response of AE to the solar wind conditions has proved to be harder to determine [Holzer and Slavin, 1982; Bargatze *et al.*, 1985; Vassiliadis, 2006]. Gleisner and Lundstedt [1997] used solar wind density, velocity, and magnetic field as separate inputs into a neural network model to predict AE. They found that there exists influence of solar wind density, velocity, B_y , and B_z on the AE index, but the influence of B_x is not significant. The models proposed by Li *et al.* [2007] showed that the AL index is strongly dependent on the solar wind magnetic field and velocity but is practically independent of the solar wind density. Further, the AE model proposed by Luo *et al.* [2013] showed that solar flux $F10.7$ also plays a significant role in auroral activity.

Some researchers [Gosling, 1993; Yermolaev *et al.*, 2005; Schwenn *et al.*, 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2007; Yermolaev and Yermolaev, 2009] reported that part of most major geomagnetic storms are caused by coronal mass ejections (CMEs). Solar active regions can produce CMEs with near-Sun speeds in excess of 900 km/s [e.g., Sheeley *et al.*, 1999] and solar flares. Gopalswamy *et al.* [2005] reported that part of the most energetic (X-class) flares are accompanied by fast CMEs. Based on the statistics from 103 events, Howard and Tappin [2005] found that approximately 40% of the X or M class flares were associated with observed shocks in the solar wind at Earth. Such shocks, which were attributed to CMEs, are a source of geomagnetic activity. Yashiro *et al.* [2005] collected 1301 X-ray flare events (above C3 level) detected by the GOES satellite and examined their CME associations using data from the Large Angle Spectrometric Coronagraph (LASCO).

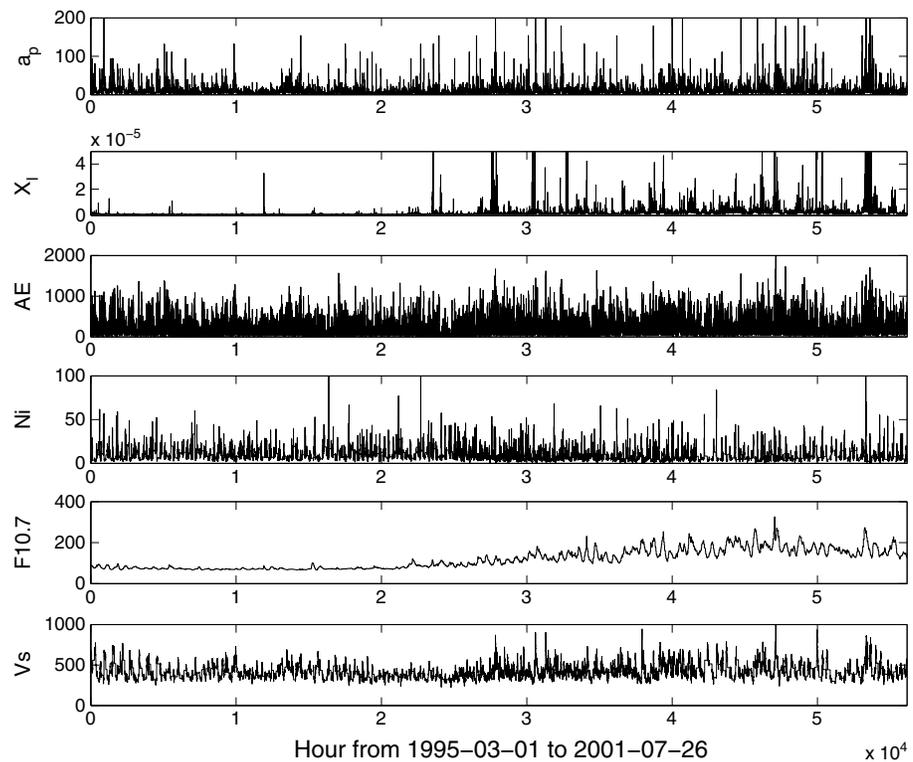


Figure 1. The hourly time series of the six indices from March 1995 to July 2001.

Their findings are (1) the CME association rate clearly increased with X-ray flare size from 20% for C-class flares (between C3 and C9 levels) to 100% for huge flares (above X3 level), (2) all CMEs associated with X-class flares were detected by the LASCO coronagraphs, while half (25–67%) of CMEs associated with C-class flares were invisible. *Yermolaev and Yermolaev* [2009] suggested that only a slight positive correlation between the classes of solar flare and geomagnetic storm occurrence is likely to be observed. *Yu et al.* [2009] investigated the flare-storm relation issue more rigorously using the tools of multifractal analysis (MFA).

In this paper, we continue to investigate the underlying scaling relationships between solar activity and geomagnetic activity. We expand the set of indices (1) a_p and AE for geomagnetic activity, (2) solar X-ray X_l and solar flux F10.7 for solar activity, and (3) ion density (N_i) and flow speed (V_s) of the inner heliosphere, which

are solar wind parameters typically measured in situ at L1. In this work, we go beyond the second-order properties of these time series typically described by linear or nonlinear regressions. Our main tool is the scaling properties of time series.

These scaling properties have been characterized using fractal methods. Generalizing these methods, MFA has proved to be useful to characterize both theoretical and experimental heterogeneous spatial patterns [*Grassberger and Procaccia*, 1983; *Halsey et al.*, 1986]. MFA has been successfully applied in financial modeling [e.g., *Canessa*, 2000; *Anh et al.*, 2000], biological systems including DNA and protein sequences [e.g., *Anh et al.*, 2001, 2002; *Yu et al.*, 2001, 2003, 2004, 2006], and geophysical systems including rain and clouds

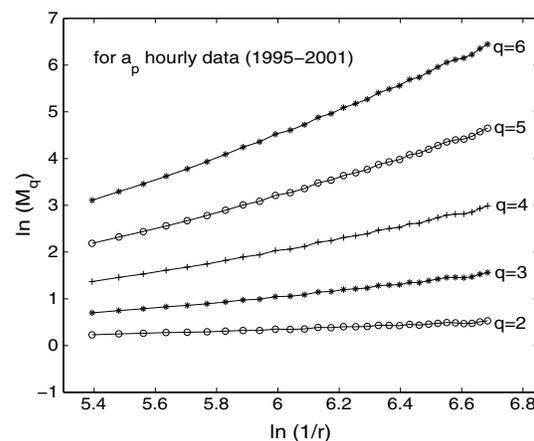


Figure 2. An example for obtaining the empirical $K(q)$ function.

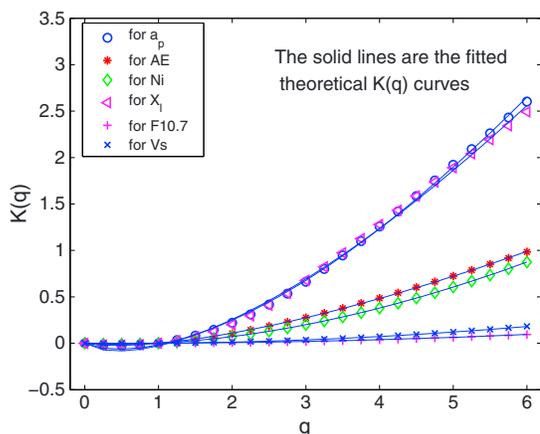


Figure 3. The $K(q)$ curves of the hourly data for the whole period (the curves indicated by symbols), and their fitted curves (solid lines) by the universal multifractal model.

[e.g., Schertzer and Lovejoy, 1987; Schmitt et al., 1992; Tessier et al., 1993, 1996; Olsson and Niemczynowicz, 1996; Harris et al., 1996; Lovejoy et al., 1996, 2008; Deidda, 2000; Lilley et al., 2006; Kantelhardt et al., 2006; Veneziano et al., 2006; Venugopal et al., 2006; Lovejoy and Schertzer, 2006, 2010a, 2010b; Garcia-Marin et al., 2008; Serinaldi, 2010; Yu et al., 2014]. In particular, Lui [2002] successfully used fractal and multifractal approaches to extract salient features of the physical processes responsible for the near-Earth magnetospheric phenomena. Abramenko [2005] and Georgoulis [2012] analyzed multifractality of flaring active and quiet regions. Wanliss et al. [2005] provided a method to describe the multifractal property of the measure representation of the D_{st} . Yu et al. [2007] proposed a two-dimensional chaos game representation of the D_{st} index

to predict geomagnetic storm events. Yu et al. [2009] used both multifractal detrended fluctuation analysis (MF-DFA) and traditional MFA to investigate the scaling properties of a_p , D_{st} , and the solar X-ray data. Anh et al. [2007, 2008] and Yu et al. [2010, 2012] used MFA and fractional stochastic differential equations to study the AE and geomagnetic field data.

This paper aims to identify significant similarities in the scaling properties of geomagnetic and solar indices. We use the universal multifractal approach [Schertzer and Lovejoy, 1987] and the traditional MFA to study the scaling properties of hourly data for a_p , AE, X_I , F10.7, Ni, and Vs over the period 1995–2001.

2. Data

The a_p index is a measure of the global changes in the geomagnetic field during a 3 h period. The eight a_p values for each day are based on the K index data from 11 Northern and 2 Southern Hemispheres magnetic observatories between the geomagnetic latitudes of 46° and 63° . Values of $a_p > 29$ are normally considered to indicate a geomagnetic storm, with a minor storm when $29 < a_p < 50$, a major storm when $50 \leq a_p < 100$, and a severe storm when $a_p \geq 100$. The hourly interpolated a_p data were downloaded from the National Geophysical Data Center (NGDC, <http://spidr.ngdc.noaa.gov/spidr/index.jsp>). NGDC interpolated the 3-hourly a_p data into hourly data by setting the values of the following 2 h equal that of the current hour. (In fact, we tested that our results are not affected by different interpolations.)

The auroral electrojet (AE) index is derived from geomagnetic variations in the horizontal component observed at 12 observatories along the auroral zone in the Northern Hemisphere. The AE index then represents the geomagnetic (electrojet) activity in the auroral zone (see more details in Anh et al. [2008]). One-minute values of AE index are available from World Data Center-C2 for Geomagnetism in Kyoto

(<http://swdcd.db.kugi.kyoto-u.ac.jp>).

The following analysis uses hourly averages of these 1 min values. The AU and AL indices were intended to express the strongest current intensity of the eastward and westward auroral electrojets, respectively.

The solar X-ray data used in the analysis are from the GOES space environment monitor. Hourly data from GOES 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 were downloaded from NGDC. X_I is observations with wavelength 1–8 Å.

Table 1. The Estimated Values of H , C_1 , and α in the Universal Multifractal Model for the Hourly Data of the Six Indices (Whole Period)^a

Data	H	C_1	α	Error
a_p	-0.0167	0.1777	1.3850	0.0151
X_I	-0.0270	0.2089	1.2081	0.0389
AE	0.0009	0.0711	1.2712	3.6546E-04
Ni	0.0012	0.0387	1.7406	2.4704E-06
F10.7	0.0004	0.0031	2.0000	3.7294E-06
Vs	0.0002	0.0060	1.9999	1.3492E-05

^aHere error means the minimal value in equation (A4) of the Appendix A.

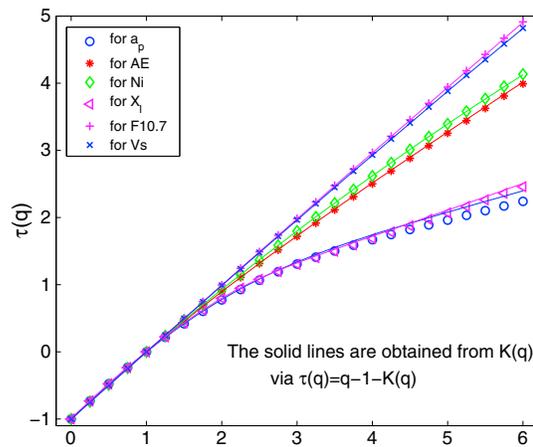


Figure 4. The $\tau(q)$ curves of the hourly data for the whole period (the curves indicated by symbols) and their fitted curves (solid lines) by the universal multifractal model.

Although any X-ray flare(s) associated with a CME event that produces a storm are observed at Earth 2–5 days earlier than the storm, there is evidence that ionospheric density changes caused by changes in the solar irradiance can persist for at least 3 days [Wang *et al.*, 2006].

The solar flux $F10.7$ index is a measure of the radiation from the Sun at wavelength of a 10.7 cm at the Earth’s orbit. It is one of the most commonly used proxies for solar irradiance because it has a significant long-term correlation with X-ray, EUV, and UV fluxes from the Sun and with ionospheric and neutral densities in the upper atmosphere. Hourly $F10.7$ data were downloaded from NGDC.

Solar wind measurements, ion density (Ni) and flow speed (Vs), from the Wind satellite are included in the analysis. Hourly data were also downloaded from NGDC.

In this paper, we focus on the scaling property of the hourly data for geomagnetic indices a_p and AE , solar indices X_i and $F10.7$, and inner heliospheric indices Ni and Vs . Data from March 1995 through July 2001, which approximately cover the period from solar minimum to maximum, were used for this study. The last half of this period also overlaps with the January 1998 to August 2004 period used by Howard and Tappin [2005].

3. Results and Discussion

In the following, the scaling properties of the hourly data for a_p and AE , X_i and $F10.7$, Ni , and Vs will be examined by multifractal analyses. The observed data are shown in Figure 1.

First, we perform the MFA of the six series of data in Figure 1 via the universal multifractal model (UMM) (see the Appendix A for details of UMM). The empirical multifractal $K(q)$ functions are obtained from the slope of best linear fit of $\ln M_q(r_j)$ against $\ln(1/r_j)$ (the definitions of $K(q)$, $\ln M_q(r_j)$, and $\ln(1/r_j)$ are given in the Appendix A). We give an example to show how to obtain the $K(q)$ function in Figure 2. The resulting empirical $K(q)$ curves of these time series, for the whole period, are given in Figure 3 (the curves indicated by symbols).

Then we use the UMM (i.e., equation (A3) of the Appendix A) to fit the empirical $K(q)$ curves. The function *fminsearch* in MATLAB is used to solve the optimization problem (equation (A4) of the Appendix A) and

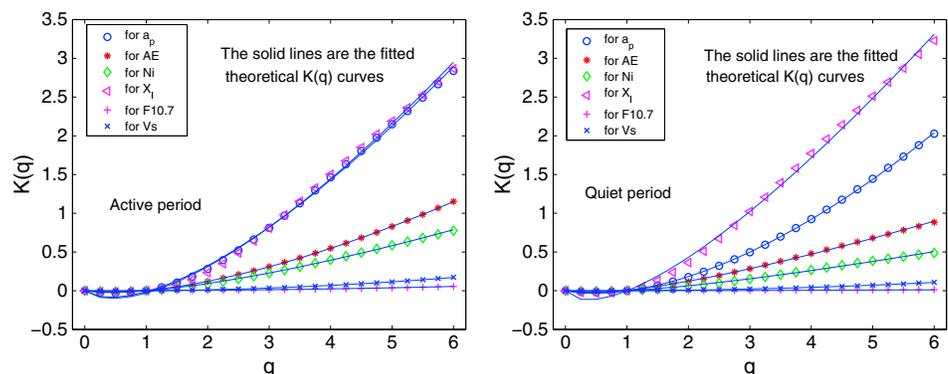


Figure 5. The $K(q)$ curves of the hourly data (the curves indicated by symbols) and their fitted curves (solid lines) by the universal multifractal model for the (left) active and (right) quiet periods.

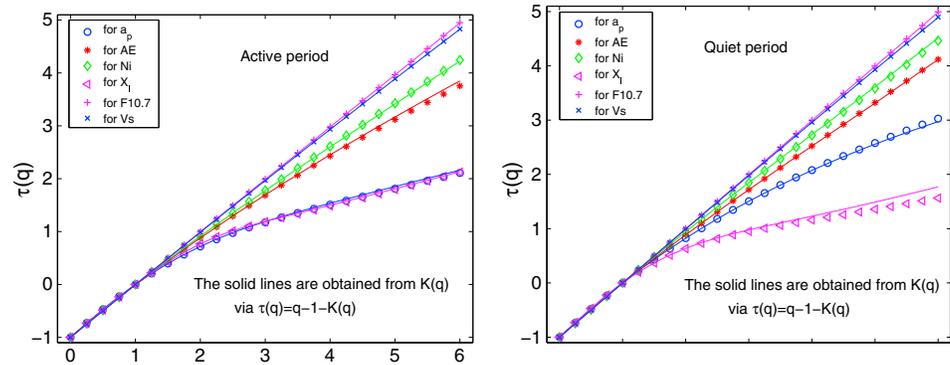


Figure 6. The $\tau(q)$ curves of the hourly data (the curves indicated by symbols) and their fitted curves (solid lines) by the universal multifractal model for the (left) active and (right) quiet periods.

estimate the values of three parameters H , C_1 , and α of UMM (the initial values for these three parameters are set as 0.5, 0.5, and 1.5, respectively). In Table 1, we give the estimated values of these three parameters. The fitted $K(q)$ curves using the UMM are also given in Figure 3 (the solid lines). As seen in Figure 3, the UMM fits the empirical $K(q)$ curves very well. In Figure 3, three distinct groupings are evident: the $K(q)$ curve of a_p is almost identical with that of X_i , the $K(q)$ curve of AE is very close to that of Ni , and the $K(q)$ curves of $F10.7$ and Vs are very close to each other. This indicates that the three pairs a_p and X_i , AE and Ni , $F10.7$ and Vs share similar scaling properties, respectively.

The physical meaning of the three parameters H , C_1 , and α of UMM can be found in the Appendix A. As seen in Table 1, the estimated values of α for a_p , X_i , AE , and Ni lie strictly in the range (1, 2) for the whole period, indicating that the hourly data for these indices are multifractal. On the other hand, $F10.7$ and Vs have $\alpha = 2$, and their $K(q)$ curves shown in Figure 3 are flat, indicating that these two indices are monofractal depicted by the lognormal model. The estimated values of H in the UMM for these time series almost equal to zero, indicating that these time series are conservative. The estimated values of the parameter C_1 exhibit the same grouping pattern as the $K(q)$ curves: a_p with X_i , AE with Ni , and $F10.7$ with Vs .

Since the time series are conservative, we can perform the traditional MFA (see the Appendix A for details). The empirical multifractal $\tau(q)$ functions are numerically estimated through a linear regression of $\ln Z_\epsilon(q)$ against $\ln \epsilon$ (the definitions of $\tau(q)$, $\ln Z_\epsilon(q)$, and $\ln \epsilon$ are given in the Appendix A). In Figure 4 we show the empirical $\tau(q)$ curves of these time series for the whole period (the curves indicated by symbols). The $\tau(q)$ curves in Figure 4 have the same grouping pattern as the $K(q)$ curves.

We also use the UMM (with the same estimated parameters for $K(q)$) and equation (A9) of the Appendix A to fit the empirical $\tau(q)$ curves. The agreement between the fitted $\tau(q)$ curves (the solid lines) and the empirical curves shown in Figure 4 confirms that the UMM provides good fits to the empirical $\tau(q)$ curves.

From Figure 1, we also find that the pattern of X_i and $F10.7$ in almost the first half period, before $t = 22,000$ (hours from 1 March 1995 to the beginning of September 1998) differs from that in the second half

Table 2. The Estimated Values of H , C_1 , and α in the Universal Multifractal Model for the Hourly Data of the Six Indices (Active Period)^a

Data	H	C_1	α	Error
a_p	-0.0119	0.2369	1.1657	0.0259
X_i	-0.0294	0.2531	1.1518	0.0670
AE	0.0031	0.0727	1.3898	5.2400E-05
Ni	-0.0003	0.0644	1.1432	9.5809E-04
$F10.7$	0.0008	0.0017	2.0000	2.1190E-06
Vs	0.0001	0.0057	2.0000	1.9869E-05

^aHere error means the minimal value in equation (A4) of the Appendix A.

period. The first and second half periods will be referred to as the quiet and active periods, respectively. As pointed out in Yu *et al.* [2009], conclusive results may not be obtained from data in the first half (quiet) period. However, the second half (active) period can be used to draw reliable, geophysical conclusions from the X-ray flare data X_i . Therefore, we performed the universal approach and traditional MFA on each period, active and quiet, separately. The $K(q)$

Table 3. The Estimated Values of H , C_1 , and α in the Universal Multifractal Model for the Hourly Data of the Six Indices (Quiet Period)^a

Data	H	C_1	α	Error
a_p	-0.0026	0.1114	1.5569	9.8470E-04
X_I	-0.0016	0.3159	0.9751	0.0610
AE	0.0029	0.0861	0.9430	0.0015
N_i	-0.0013	0.0481	0.9912	0.0016
F10.7	0.0009	0.0001	2.5139	2.5606E-09
V_s	-0.0001	0.0036	2.0000	8.2657E-06

^aHere error means the minimal value in equation (A4) of the Appendix A.

and $\tau(q)$ curves and their UMM fits are shown in Figures 5 and 6, respectively. The estimated values of the parameters in the UMM for the active and quiet periods are given in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. Again, the UMM can fit these $K(q)$ and $\tau(q)$ curves very well for both active and quiet periods. A marked difference is that the grouping pattern of a_p with X_I , AE with N_i , and F10.7 with V_s is pronounced for the active period; but this grouping is not conclusive, due to the reasons discussed above, for the quiet period.

The multifractal curves of a_p and X_I and AE and N_i are almost identical during the (active) times, respectively. This suggests that a_p and X_I , and AE and N_i are better correlated—in terms of scaling—than previous thought, respectively. Such a relationship is consistent with Howard and Tappin's [2005] result which established an association between large solar flares and strong geomagnetic storms. Such a geomagnetic response is also consistent with increases in ionospheric electron density N_i and changes in the conductivity produced by X-ray radiation in flares [e.g., Handzo et al., 2013] and the persistence over several days of electron density enhancements produced by solar irradiance changes [Wang et al., 2006]. Indeed, part of the strongest geomagnetic storms are primarily caused by CMEs [Gosling, 1993; Yermolaev et al., 2005; Schwenn et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007; Yermolaev and Yermolaev, 2009]; larger flares may indicate faster, hence statistically more geoeffective, CMEs. Solar active regions produce CMEs with near-Sun speeds around or excess of 900 km/s [e.g., Sheeley et al., 1999] as well as solar flares. Gopalswamy et al. [2005] reported that part of the most energetic (X-class) flares are associated with fast CMEs. Hence, large flares (X-class) correlate to the fast CMEs, which cause the large geomagnetic storms. Therefore, our result is another confirmation of previously reported and widely known findings.

We also used the function *corr* in MATLAB to calculate the pairwise linear correlation coefficient between all indices using hourly data for the active period. The coefficients are given in Table 4. There are differences between the results from correlation analyses and those from multifractal analyses. We see that the correlation between a_p and AE is significant (up to 0.6377); V_s has positive correlation with a_p , AE, and F10.7, while negative correlation with N_i ; a_p and AE have almost no correlation with X_I ; X_I has some positive correlation with F10.7, but no correlation with AE, a_p , N_i , and V_s . Prediction models of the geomagnetic AL and AE indices also showed significant relationships with V_s rather than N_i [Li et al., 2007; Luo et al., 2013]. However, the multifractal curves of AE, V_s , and N_i indicate that AE may actually have a more significant scaling correlation with N_i than with V_s . Multifractal analyses can detect higher-order non-Gaussian features in the data, while correlation analyses can only trace out second-order properties. Since correlation coefficients are sensitive to shifts in the time registration of the series being compared, irregularities in the time difference between the photon propagation times and parameters influencing geomagnetic activity, such as solar wind or orientation of the Earth, would result in the correlation being primarily an indicator of the longer-term (lower frequency) behavior of the series. The MFA is less sensitive to irregularities in the time shift and suggests that ion density may play a more significant role than has been previously identified.

Table 4. The Coefficients Between All Six Indices Using the Active Period Hourly Data

	a_p	X_I	AE	N_i	F10.7	V_s
a_p	1.0	0.0334	0.6377	0.1664	0.1115	0.3849
X_I	0.0334	1.0	0.0283	-0.0317	0.1898	0.0747
AE	0.6377	0.0283	1.0	0.0678	0.0990	0.3521
N_i	0.1664	-0.0317	0.0678	1.0	-0.1765	-0.2938
F10.7	0.1115	0.1898	0.0990	-0.1765	1.0	0.2681
V_s	0.3849	0.0747	0.3521	-0.2938	0.2681	1.0

In complex systems, scaling properties become relevant for understanding the interplay among various physical phenomena. Sometimes, relatively simple scaling laws, applicable to very complex systems, can provide clues to some fundamental aspects of the system. Thus, scaling properties are useful in understanding the basic physical principles involved in the Sun-Earth system.

4. Conclusions

The scaling properties of hourly data for the geomagnetic indices a_p and AE , and the solar indices solar X-ray X_i and solar flux $F10.7$, inner heliospheric indices ion density Ni and flow speed Vs during 1995 to 2001 period are examined by the universal multifractal approach and the traditional multifractal analysis. The numerical results from these multifractal analyses show that multifractality exists in the time series for a_p , AE , X_i , and Ni , while those for $F10.7$ and Vs are monofractal. We found that the universal multifractal model (UMM) can be used to fit the empirical multifractal $K(q)$ and $\tau(q)$ curves of these time series. The values of the Lévy index α in the UMM estimated also indicate that multifractality exists in a_p , AE , X_i , and Ni data. The values of nonconservation parameter H in the UMM estimated show that these time series are conservative which indicates that the mean value of the process is constant for varying resolution.

The multifractal $K(q)$ and $\tau(q)$ curves and the estimated values of the sparseness parameter C_1 in the UMM confirm that three pairs of data: a_p and X_i , AE and Ni , and $F10.7$ and Vs share similar scaling properties throughout the period examined, respectively. These results provide evidence that (1) the AE geomagnetic index may be more dependent on solar wind density than has been previously recognized and (2) the a_p index has a strong scaling correlation with changes in the solar X-rays. But our results still cannot be used to advance forecasting of a_p and AE by X_i and Ni , respectively, due to some reasons such as time shifts.

Appendix A: Multifractal Analyses

A1. Universal Multifractal Approach

Let $F(\xi)$ be a positive stationary stochastic process (cascade) on a bounded interval of the real field \mathbf{R} , assumed to be the unit interval $(0, 1)$ for simplicity, with expectation $E(F(\xi)) = 1$. The smoothing of $F(\xi)$ at scale $r > 0$ is defined as $F_r(\xi) = \frac{1}{r} \int_{\xi-r/2}^{\xi+r/2} F(s) ds$. We consider the processes $X_r(\xi) = \frac{F_r(\xi)}{F_1(\xi)}$, $\xi \in [0, 1]$. The multifractal function $K(q)$ is defined empirically (denoted as $K_d(q)$) as the power exponents if [Anh et al., 2001]

$$E(X_r^q(\xi)) \propto r^{-K(q)}, \quad q \geq 0. \tag{A1}$$

The shape of the $K(q)$ curve can be used to determine whether a data set is monofractal or multifractal (a straight line indicates monofractal, a convex curve indicates multifractal) [e.g., Garcia-Marin et al., 2008]. We will consider smoothing at discrete scales $0 < r_j < 1, j = 1, 2, \dots$. Then from equation (A1), the $K(q)$ function for the data can be obtained by [Anh et al., 2001]

$$K_d(q) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln X_{r_j}^q(\xi)}{-\ln r_j}. \tag{A2}$$

In practice, for a nonnegative time series $T(t), t = 1, 2, \dots, N$, we can normalize it and define a measure μ in the following way. First, we define $F(t) = \frac{T(t)}{\sum_{t=1}^N T(t)}$ to be the frequency of $T(t)$, and $x(t) = \frac{t-1}{N} + \frac{1}{2N}$ (also normalizing the x coordinate to $[0, 1]$). It follows that $\sum_{t=1}^N F(t) = 1$. Then for scale $0 < r_j < 1, j = 1, 2, \dots$ and moment order $q \geq 0$, we define $Y_{r_j}(t) = \frac{1}{r_j} \sum_{x(t)-r_j/2 \leq x(s) < x(t)+r_j/2} F(s)$ and $M_q(r_j) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N [Y_{r_j}(t)]^q$. Then the empirical multifractal $K(q)$ function can be obtained from the slope of best linear fit of $\ln M_q(r_j)$ against $\ln(1/r_j)$.

In scaling processes, a scale invariant mechanism repeats scale after scale. A generic model, first studied in turbulence, is the cascade process [Lovejoy et al., 2008]. In the past three decades, there has been an increasing interest in multifractals and the multiplicative cascade, which is a generic multifractal process [Lovejoy and Schertzer, 2010a]. Cascade processes generically lead to multifractal fields and have been used for simulating turbulent systems, including clouds, rain, temperature, wind, and passive scalars, as well as for solid Earth fields [Lovejoy and Schertzer, 2010a]. Schertzer and Lovejoy [1987] proposed the universal multifractal model (UMM) which assumes that the generator of multifractals is not only infinitely divisible but also has a

tractable Lévy stable distribution. In the framework of the UMM, the theoretical scaling exponent function $K(q)$ for the moments $q \geq 0$ of a cascade process [Schertzer and Lovejoy, 1987; Ratti et al., 1994; Garcia-Marin et al., 2008; Serinaldi, 2010] is given by

$$K(q) = qH + \begin{cases} C_1(q^\alpha - q)/(\alpha - 1), & \alpha \neq 1, \\ C_1 q \log(q), & \alpha = 1. \end{cases} \quad (A3)$$

Here the Lévy index $\alpha \in [0, 2]$ is the most significant parameter; it indicates the degree of multifractality. The value $\alpha = 0$ corresponds to the beta model, and $\alpha = 2$ corresponds to lognormal model. The beta model, also called beta-binomial model, and the lognormal model probably are multiplicative cascades characterized by the beta distribution and the lognormal distribution, respectively. The parameter H is the nonconservation parameter. A conservative process ($H = 0$) is defined when the mean value of the process is constant for varying resolution; while for a nonconservative process ($H \neq 0$), the mean value changes with the resolution [e.g., Ratti et al., 1994; Serinaldi, 2010]. In our case, $C_1 \in [0, 1]$ describes the sparseness or inhomogeneity of the mean of the process [Garcia-Marin et al., 2008].

Although the double trace moment technique [e.g., Schmitt et al., 1992] has been widely used to estimate the parameters H , C_1 , and α in geophysical research, it is complicated and the fitting of $K(q)$ is sometimes unsatisfactory [e.g., Olsson and Niemczynowicz, 1996; Garcia-Marin et al., 2008; Serinaldi, 2010]. Yu et al. [2012] proposed a simple method to estimate the parameters H , C_1 , and α . In this paper, we adopt the method in Yu et al. [2012]: If $K_T(q)$ represents the $K(q)$ function defined analytically by equation (A3) and $K_d(q)$ represents the $K(q)$ function obtained empirically, we can estimate the parameters by solving the least squares optimization problem

$$\min_{H, C_1, \alpha} \sum_{j=1}^J [K_T(q_j) - K_d(q_j)]^2. \quad (A4)$$

A2. Traditional Multifractal Analysis

The fixed-size box-counting algorithms is the most common algorithms of traditional MFA [Halsey et al., 1986]. For a given measure ν with support A in one dimensional space \mathbf{R} , the partition sum is defined

$$Z_\epsilon(q) = \sum_{\nu(B) \neq 0} [\nu(B)]^q, \quad (A5)$$

$q \in \mathbf{R}$, where the sum is calculated overall different nonempty boxes $B = [k\epsilon, (k + 1)\epsilon)$ of a given side ϵ in a grid covering of the support A . If

$$\tau(q) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln Z_\epsilon(q)}{\ln \epsilon}. \quad (A6)$$

Then $\tau(q)$ is called the power law exponent of $Z_\epsilon(q)$. We denote $Z_{1,\epsilon} = \sum_{\nu(B) \neq 0} \nu(B) \ln \nu(B)$. Further, the generalized fractal dimensions of the measure are defined as

$$D(q) = \tau(q)/(q - 1), \text{ for } q \neq 1, \quad (A7)$$

and

$$D(q) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{Z_{1,\epsilon}}{\ln \epsilon}, \text{ for } q = 1. \quad (A8)$$

The exponent $\tau(q)$ can be numerically estimated through a linear regression of $\ln Z_\epsilon(q)$ against $\ln \epsilon$.

The relationship between $\tau(q)$ and $K(q)$ pointed out by Lovejoy et al. [2008] is

$$\tau(q) = (q - 1) - K(q), \quad (A9)$$

for one-dimensional data.

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