The magnetic flux rope (MFR) is believed to be the underlying magnetic structure of coronal mass ejections (CMEs). However, it remains unclear how an MFR evolves into and forms the multi-component structure of a CME. In this paper, we perform a comprehensive study of an extreme-ultraviolet (EUV) MFR eruption on 2013 May 22 by tracking its morphological evolution, studying its kinematics, and quantifying its thermal property. As EUV brightenings begin, the MFR starts to rise slowly and shows helical threads winding around an axis. Meanwhile, cool filamentary material descends spirally down to the chromosphere. These features provide direct observational evidence of intrinsically helical structure of the MFR. Through detailed kinematical analysis, we find that the MFR evolution has two distinct phases: a slow rise phase and an impulsive acceleration phase. We attribute the first phase to the magnetic reconnection within the quasi-separatrix layers surrounding the MFR, and the much more energetic second phase to the fast magnetic reconnection underneath the MFR. We suggest that the transition between these two phases is caused by the torus instability. Moreover, we identify that the MFR evolves smoothly into the outer corona and appears as a coherent structure within the white-light CME volume. The MFR in the outer corona was enveloped by bright fronts that originated from plasma pile-up in front of the expanding MFR. The fronts are also associated with the preceding sheath region followed by the outmost MFR-driven shock.

Key words: Sun: corona – Sun: coronal mass ejections (CMEs) – Sun: flares – Sun: magnetic fields

Online-only material: color figures, animations

1. INTRODUCTION

The magnetic flux rope (MFR) is a volumetric plasma structure with the magnetic field lines wrapping around a central axis. It has been invoked in various astrophysical contexts like the magnetotail of the Earth (Hughes & Sibeck 1987; Moldwin & Hughes 1991), the ionosphere of Venus (Russell & Elphic 1979), the Nebula (Morris et al. 2006), and the black hole system (Meier et al. 2001; Yuan et al. 2009). In the solar atmosphere, the MFR is believed to be a fundamental magnetic structure (Forbes & Isenberg 1991; Chen 1996, 2011; Titov & Démoulin 1999), which can erupt from the Sun as a coronal mass ejection (CME). The CME subsequently propagates into the interplanetary space and takes on the form of a magnetic cloud (with typical features of the rotation of magnetic field, decreasing solar wind speed, depressed proton temperature, and low plasma beta; Burlaga 1988; Lepping et al. 1990; Liu et al. 2008, 2010b, 2011), driving geomagnetic storms and, thus, impacting the space environment around the Earth (Gosling 1993; Zhang et al. 2007).

Theoretically, MFRs can be formed in two ways: bodily flux emergence from below the photosphere or magnetic reconnection of sheared arcades in the corona. In the emergence model, a twisted MFR is assumed to exist below the photosphere and emerge into a pre-existing coronal potential field (Fan 2001, 2010; Manchester et al. 2004; Magara 2006). In the reconnection model, the imposed boundary movements, such as converging and shearing motions of different polarities, rotations of sunspots, and magnetic flux cancellations, twist and stretch the initial potential field gradually, causing magnetic reconnection (e.g., Amari et al. 2011; Aulanier et al. 2010). The magnetic reconnection between the sheared fields, known as the tether-cutting or breakout reconnection, is able to form the MFR during the eruption (Moore et al. 2001; Antiochos et al. 1999; Lynch et al. 2008; Karpen et al. 2012). Moreover, using the observed photospheric vector magnetic field as the bottom boundary, the topology of MFR in the corona can be reconstructed through extrapolation of the nonlinear force-free field models (e.g., Yan et al. 2001; Canou et al. 2009; Guo et al. 2010; Cheng et al. 2010, 2013b; Su et al. 2011; Jiang et al. 2013; Inoue et al. 2013).

Assuming that the MFR is a line current, Forbes & Isenberg (1991) found that the MFR can suddenly lose equilibrium and explosively erupt upward when ascending to a critical height. Other ideal magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) instabilities, such as kink and torus instability, are also able to initiate the eruption of the MFR. The ideal kink mode will develop nonlinearly if the twist of the MFR exceeds a threshold value (Török et al. 2004). Torus instability refers to the expansion instability of a torus current. Kliem & Török (2006) showed that the torus instability would be triggered when the decline of the background field in the direction of the expansion of the MFR is sufficiently rapid. Olmedo & Zhang (2010) revealed that the threshold value for triggering torus instability depends on the geometrical circularity of the MFR: the ratio between the MFR arc length above the photosphere and its circumference. Démoulin & Aulanier (2010) further showed that the loss-of-equilibrium and torus instability actually refer to the same physical process and can be unified in the framework of ideal MHD.

Because of the importance of the role of MFRs in solar eruptions, researchers have been looking for observational evidence of MFRs. Through inspecting a sequence of vector
magnetograms, Okamoto et al. (2008) found that two opposite polarity regions with a vertically weak but horizontally strong magnetic field grew laterally and then narrowed in size. The orientations of the horizontal magnetic fields along the neutral line gradually changed from a normal polarity configuration to an inverse polarity one. The results indicate that an MFR is likely emerging from below the photosphere. Based on a statistical study, Canfield et al. (1999) discovered that the morphology of active regions (ARs) usually appears as a forward or reversed sigmoid. The straight sections of the double J-shaped patterns in the middle of the sigmoid are often interpreted as evidence of MFR formation before the eruption (e.g., McKenzie & Canfield 2008; Green & Kliem 2009; Tripathi et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2010a; Savcheva et al. 2012b).

Filaments are another proxy for the existence of MFRs in the corona as they are thought to arise from the collection of cool plasma in the dips of the MFR helical lines (Gibson et al. 2004; Mackay et al. 2010; Guo et al. 2010; Su et al. 2011; Su & van Ballegooijen 2012). Filament channels are believed to be the body of the MFR (Low & Hundhausen 1995; Guo & Wu 1998), which often manifest as dark cavities in visible or extreme-ultraviolet (EUV) light when rotating to the solar limb (Gibson et al. 2006; Gibson & Fan 2006; Régnier et al. 2011; Berger 2012). The ubiquitous spinning motions (Wang & Stenborg 2010; Li et al. 2012), as well as the appearance of the bright ring and “lagomorphic” structure of linear polarization (Dove et al. 2011; Bak-Šešlicka et al. 2013), indicate that the cavities contain helical structures. Recently, Zhang et al. (2012) and Cheng et al. (2013a) reported the existence of EUV hot channels that appeared in the high temperature passbands of the Atmospheric Imaging Assembly (AIA) telescope (Lemen et al. 2012) tens of minutes before the eruption. Once the impulsive acceleration phase starts, the hot channel erupts upward and develops into a semicircular shape (also see Liu et al. 2010a; Patsourakos et al. 2013; Li & Zhang 2013a). Detailed morphology and kinematic analyses suggest that the hot channel is most likely to be the MFR and plays a critical role in forming and accelerating the CME in the inner corona (Cheng et al. 2013a, 2013b; Patsourakos & Vourlidas 2012).

Although many observational investigations on the MFR have been made in the past, direct observations of the helical magnetic field pattern inside MFRs remain rare. In this paper, we address this issue by analyzing a well observed MFR eruption on 2013 May 22. We find that the appearance of the helical threads inside the hot channel and the spirally descending movement of the filament materials along the two legs of the channel, provide strong evidence of the existence of MFRs. We also investigate the relationship between the MFR seen in the inner corona and the CME structural components in the white-light observations seen in the outer corona. This event clearly shows that the MFR evolves coherently into the outer corona, almost completely filling the CME cavity, and forms a compression region ahead including the pile-up of plasma and the shock wave in front of the MFR as suggested. The evolution of the MFR in the inner corona is showed in Section 2, followed by the discussion of the evolution in the outer corona in Section 3. The summary and discussions are given in Section 4.

2. EVOLUTION OF MFR IN THE INNER CORONA

2.1. Helical Features of MFR

At ∼12:10 UT, an EUV channel (elongated structure) reminiscent of a filament appeared in the AIA 131 Å passband. No signatures were seen in the other AIA wavelengths. Therefore, the structure must have been very hot (∼10 MK). This is consistent with past detections of pre-eruption MFRs (Zhang et al. 2012; Cheng et al. 2013a; Patsourakos et al. 2013). The structure, which we will hereafter refer to as an MFR, started to erupt from NOAA AR 11754, showing a sigmoidal structure that was located at the heliographic coordinates N13W78. The fine structures and detailed evolution of the MFR in the inner corona were well revealed by AIA on board the Solar Dynamics Observatory (SDO), as shown in Figures 1(a)–(c), because of AIA’s ability of high spatial resolution (1′′/2), high temporal cadence (12 s), and multi-temperature coronal imaging (six EUV passbands).

During the eruption, while the two ends of the MFR were anchored on the chromosphere, most of the filament materials spirally descended into the chromosphere along the two legs of the MFR possibly due to gravity (Figure 1(d)). The spiral movement is similar to the spinning motion in coronal dark cavities as seen from the axis of the MFR (e.g., Wang & Stenborg 2010; Li et al. 2012; Li & Zhang 2013b). At the same time, magnetic reconnection underneath the MFR, suggested by the EUV brightenings (Figure 1(a)), heated the plasma and made the temperature in the MFR increase (Figures 1(b)–(c)). It is well known that the plasma in the corona is frozen into the magnetic field due to high conductivity of the ionized corona (Priest & Forbes 2000), and the spatial distribution of the emission generally outlines the geometry of the magnetic field. Therefore, the helical threads inside the MFR, well-imaged in the high temperature passbands of the AIA (∼10.0 MK at 131 Å and ∼6.4 MK at 94 Å; O’Dwyer et al. 2010; Cheng et al. 2011), show the helicity of the MFR (Figure 1(c) and animations in the online journal).

2.2. Kinematics of MFR in the Inner Corona

To study the kinematics of the MFR in the inner corona, we take a slice along the eruption direction of the MFR (Figure 1(b)). Figure 2(a) shows the stack plot of the slice in 131 Å passband, in which the heights of the MFR are measured (blue stars). Applying the first order piecewise numerical derivative to the height–time data, we derive the velocity of the MFR (Figure 2(c)). The uncertainty in the velocities arises from the uncertainty in the height measurement, which is estimated to be ∼1.7 Mm for AIA observations.

The evolution of the MFR in the inner corona can be described by two kinematic phases: a slow rise phase characterized by a constant velocity and an impulsive acceleration phase characterized by an exponential increase of the velocity (also see Zhang et al. 2012; Cheng et al. 2013a, 2013b). By fitting a function consisting of linear and exponential components to the height–time data, we derive the velocity of the MFR (Figure 2(c)). The uncertainty in the velocities arises from the uncertainty in the height measurement, which is estimated to be ∼1.7 Mm for AIA observations.

Figure 2(a) shows that, at ∼12:31 UT, the MFR was at the height of 47 ± 12 Mm, where the decay index n = 1.8 ± 0.2 of the background magnetic field B is greater than the threshold value 1.5 of the torus instability (Figure 2(d)). Thus it most likely triggered the ideal instability (Kliem & Török 2006) and initiated the impulsive acceleration of the MFR. Here, B is
calculated through the potential field model based on the line-of-sight magnetogram on 2013 May 17 (Figure 2(e)) observed by the Helioseismic and Magnetic Imager (HMI; Schou et al. 2012) on board SDO. The decay index is calculated by the formula \( n = -d \ln B/d \ln h \), where \( h \) is the height over the solar surface. The calculation of \( B \) and, in turn, \( n \) involves an uncertainty resulting from the fact that the magnetogram was taken five days before the eruption. We realize that significant evolution may have occurred between May 17 and 22, however, this is the best option for obtaining this information.

Figure 2(c) displays the velocity evolution of the MFR in the inner corona. During the slow rise phase, the velocity is \( \sim 40 \text{ km s}^{-1} \). With beginning of the impulsive acceleration phase, the velocity increases rapidly from \( \sim 40 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) to \( 300 \text{ km s}^{-1} \) in 23 minutes, with an average acceleration of \( \sim 200 \text{ m s}^{-2} \). During this phase, the impulsively accelerating MFR compressed the overlying field and formed a bright front, best visible in the cooler AIA 211 Å passband (Figures 1(e) and 2(b)). One can see that the velocity of the bright front is slightly slower than that of the MFR in the inner corona (Figure 2(c)), indicating that the MFR acts as a driver of the bright front (also see Patsourakos et al. 2010a; Cheng et al. 2012a, 2013a).

### 2.3. Thermal Property of MFR

Due to the multi-temperature imaging ability of the AIA, we are able to investigate the thermal property of the MFR through differential emission measure (DEM) analysis. Each of the six near-simultaneous AIA EUV images (131, 94, 335, 211, 193, 171 Å) is first processed by the routine “aia_prep.pro” to the 1.5 level and then the resolution is degraded by the “rebin.pro.” It guarantees a better coalignment accuracy, reducing the error of DEM inversion. Finally, the DEM in each pixel is reconstructed by the routine “xrt_dem_iterative2.pro” in the Solar Software (SSW) package. The code was originally developed by Weber et al. (2004) and has been modified slightly to work with AIA data (Cheng et al. 2012b). To characterize the overall temperature and emission properties of the plasma, we introduce two quantities: the DEM-weighted average temperature \( \langle T \rangle \) and the total emission measure (EM), which are defined as

\[
\langle T \rangle = \frac{\int \text{DEM}(T) dT}{\int \text{DEM}(T) dT}
\]

and

\[
\text{EM} = \int \text{DEM}(T) dT \]

respectively.

The evolution of \( \langle T \rangle \) and EM of the eruption region are shown in Figure 3. One can see that the quiet background corona is mainly dominated by the plasma with \( \langle T \rangle = 1.5 \sim 2.0 \text{ MK} \) and \( \text{EM} \approx 10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-5} \). In the source AR, an apparent EUV brightening region with \( \langle T \rangle \gtrsim 6.0 \text{ MK} \) and \( \text{EM} \gtrsim 10^{28} \text{ cm}^{-5} \) appears underneath the MFR from 12:15 UT toward (Figures 3(a) and (d)). As the MFR rises, the brightening expands in the surrounding region. Meanwhile, the two footpoints of the MFR heat to over 8.0 MK, and the corresponding EM increases to over \( 10^{28} \text{ cm}^{-5} \). The results confirm the qualitative argument in Section 2.1 that a slow reconnection may occur and heat the plasma. After \( \sim 12:31 \text{ UT} \), with the fast (flare-related)
reconnection beginning, the top of the MFR is further heated to $T \approx 7.0$ MK, while the two footpoints of the MFR are even heated to $T \approx 10.0$ MK with $\text{EM} \approx 10^{29} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. At the same time, the flare region is rapidly heated to $T \gtrsim 10.0$ MK with $\text{EM} \gtrsim 10^{29} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. There is a broad region with $T \gtrsim 5.0$ MK that is located near the source region of the eruption (outlined by a contour in Figure 3(a)). After inspecting the AIA animations, we find that this high temperature region is the result of the previous CME eruption that took place at $\sim 08:00$ UT.

3. EVOLUTION OF MFR IN THE OUTER CORONA

3.1. White-light Observations of MFR

In the outer corona, the CME was well observed by the Large Angle and Spectrometric Coronagraph (LASCO; Brueckner et al. 1995) on board the Solar and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) and the Sun–Earth Connection Coronal and Heliospheric Investigation (SECCHI; Howard et al. 2008) on board the Solar Terrestrial Relations Observatory (STEREO-A and STEREO-B). The observations reveal the evolution of the CME from $1.0$ to $20.0 R_\odot$ (Figures 4 and 5 and animations in the online journal).

On 2013 May 22, STEREO-A is ahead of the Earth with the separation angle of $138^\circ$ in the ecliptic plane and STEREO-B trails behind the Earth with the separation angle of $143^\circ$. The three viewpoints provide three distinct projections of the CME. The CME changes morphology from a limb to a partial halo progressively from C2 to COR1-A to COR1-B. We can distinguish a coherent bright structure in all three perspectives and a preceding CME front region, best seen in COR2-B. We identify the coherent bright structure as the MFR based on two arguments. First, its orientation is consistent between the AIA and C2 observations. We expect to see it edge-on and hence bright, i.e., no EUV bubble and no dark cavity (Vourlidas et al. 2013 and references therein). Second, the height and velocity of the coherent structure smoothly connect to that of the MFR in the inner corona (also see Marić et al. 2004, 2009). The CME front region ahead of the MFR appears to consist of three components: plasma pile-up of the MFR, an outer diffuse shock front, and the sheath region between them as expected (Vourlidas et al. 2013).
3.2. GCS Modeling of MFR

Using the graduated cylindrical shell (GCS) model (Thernisien et al. 2006), we reconstruct the three-dimensional (3D) morphology of the MFR. The model is determined by six parameters: Carrington longitude $\phi$, latitude $\theta$, the tilt angle $\gamma$, the height $r$, and the aspect ratio $\kappa$ of the MFR, as well as the half-angle $\alpha$ between the two legs of the MFR. Taking advantage of the Extreme Ultraviolet Imager (EUVI) 195 Å images, we first estimate $\phi$, $\theta$, and $\gamma$ using the location and neutral line of the AR. Then we vary $\alpha$, $\kappa$, and $r$ until we simultaneously achieve the best visual fit in all three coronagraph images. The final positioning and model parameters of the MFR are listed in Table 1. The results are displayed in the bottom panels of Figures 4 and 5. The GCS model is able to reproduce the 3D morphology of the MFR well. To measure the outermost shock, which has a top that corresponds to the top of the CME compression region (depicted by the red dashed lines in Figures 4 and 5), we apply the GCS model to the outer CME envelope and derive the height of the shock (also see Poomvises et al. 2012).

Figure 6 shows the height and velocity variations of the MFR and CME shock front. From the height plot, one can see that the MFR and the CME front evolve smoothly from the field of view of the AIA into that of the COR1 and COR2. After propagating into the outer corona, both of their heights quickly increase, e.g., from $\sim 1.0 R_{\odot}$ at $\sim 13:00$ UT to $\sim 15 R_{\odot}$.

Table 1

| Time (UT) | Lon ($\phi$) (Deg) | Lat ($\theta$) (Deg) | Tilt ($\gamma$) (Deg) | $H$ ($r$) ($R_{\odot}$) | Ratio ($\alpha$) | Half-angle ($\kappa$) (Deg) |
|-----------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| Flux rope  |                   |                     |                      |                        |                 |                             |
| 13:05     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 1.0                    | 0.25            | 25                          |
| 13:10     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 1.4                    | 0.25            | 25                          |
| 13:15     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 1.9                    | 0.25            | 30                          |
| 13:20     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 2.3                    | 0.25            | 40                          |
| 13:25     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 2.9                    | 0.25            | 40                          |
| 13:39     | 332               | 11.7                | $-48$                | 4.8                    | 0.40            | 45                          |
| 13:54     | 333               | 15.0                | $-48$                | 6.7                    | 0.40            | 45                          |
| 14:24     | 333               | 15.0                | $-48$                | 10.5                   | 0.40            | 45                          |
| 14:39     | 333               | 18.0                | $-48$                | 12.5                   | 0.40            | 45                          |
| 14:54     | 333               | 18.0                | $-48$                | 14.3                   | 0.40            | 45                          |
| Outer CME envelope |                   |                     |                      |                        |                 |                             |
| 13:05     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 1.7                    | 0.25            | 25                          |
| 13:10     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 2.0                    | 0.25            | 30                          |
| 13:15     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 2.4                    | 0.30            | 30                          |
| 13:20     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 2.8                    | 0.30            | 40                          |
| 13:25     | 329               | 6.7                 | $-51$                | 3.5                    | 0.35            | 45                          |
| 13:39     | 332               | 11.7                | $-48$                | 5.7                    | 0.45            | 50                          |
| 13:54     | 333               | 15.0                | $-48$                | 8.3                    | 0.45            | 50                          |
| 14:24     | 333               | 18.5                | $-48$                | 13.0                   | 0.50            | 60                          |
| 14:39     | 333               | 18.5                | $-48$                | 15.0                   | 0.50            | 60                          |
| 14:54     | 333               | 18.5                | $-48$                | 17.0                   | 0.50            | 60                          |

Figure 3. Average temperature (panels (a) and (b)) and total EM (panels (d)–(f)) maps of the 2013 May 22 CME at different instants. To calculate the average temperature and total EM, the DEM is integrated over the temperature range of $5.7 \leq \log T \leq 7.3$. The white contour in panel a is a region with $T \geq 5.0$ MK, which is caused by the previous eruption taking place at $\sim 08:00$ UT.

(A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)
at \(\sim 15:00\) UT. Whereas, the evolution of the velocity displays different behaviors. From \(\sim 13:00\) UT to \(13:30\) UT, the MFR and shock front impulsively accelerate from \(\sim 400\) km s\(^{-1}\) to \(\sim 1500\) km s\(^{-1}\) with an average acceleration of \(\sim 600\) m s\(^{-2}\). While after \(\sim 13:30\) UT, the velocities of the MFR and shock front start to decrease. At \(\sim 15:00\) UT, their velocities decrease to \(\sim 1200\) km s\(^{-1}\). The overall velocity variations of the MFR and shock front are generally consistent with the evolution of the GOES soft X-ray (SXR) 1–8 Å flux of the associated flare, i.e., increasing in the rise phase of the flare and decreasing in the decay phase of the flare, as shown in Figure 6(b). It indicates that the two different-scaled eruption phenomena are most likely produced by the same eruption process.

4. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS

In this paper, we investigate the MFR eruption on 2013 May 22, including its morphological, kinematical, and thermal properties, and the relationship with the CME in the outer corona. This study might be the most comprehensive study on the MFR to date. We reveal the evidence for the intrinsic helicity in the MFR: the observed helical threads winding around a possible common axis inside the MFR and the rotational motion of the filament materials along the two legs of the MFR descending into the chromosphere. Further kinematic analysis shows that the whole eruption process of the MFR, including the propagation in the outer corona, can be well characterized by three distinct kinematical evolution phases: the slow rise phase, the impulsive acceleration phase, and the deceleration phase, being similar to that of CMEs (Zhang et al. 2001; Zhang & Dere 2006).

Based on observations, we interpret the driver behind the slow rise phase as magnetic reconnection in the quasi-separatrix layers (QSLs) around the MFR. The slow rise phase was initiated when EUV brightenings, underneath the MFR and its two footpoints, started to appear at \(\sim 12:00\) UT. DEM analysis shows that the MFR top and footpoints were heated to over 6.0 MK. It is hypothesized that the heating may result from the reconnection near the periphery of the MFR, i.e., QSLs, where the magnetic linkages undergo drastic changes and, hence, strong current layers are formed there (Demoulin et al. 1996; Savcheva et al. 2012b; Guo et al. 2013). The reconnection in the presumed QSLs has two important roles in the slow rise phase. One is heating the plasma to make the helical threads of the MFR visible in the high temperature passbands of the AIA, e.g., 131 and 94 Å. The other is inferred to be converting the toroidal flux of surrounding sheared fields into the poloidal flux of the MFR, which is because the added poloidal magnetic flux naturally provides an upward magnetic tension to drive the MFR to rise slowly (Aulanier et al. 2010; Fan 2010).

To tentatively uncover the signature of the MFR formation, we inspect the AIA images in six EUV passbands and the line-of-sight magnetograms of the HMI from 2013 May 17 to 22. It is found that the source AR took on a sigmoidal morphology...
prior to the eruption, as shown in the composite image of AIA 94, 335, and 193 Å (Figure 2(d)). The sigmoid center exhibits the highest temperature, indicating that the reconnection may take place there. The double J-shaped loops that constitute the sigmoid may be from the cooling of reconnected field lines. Moreover, the HMI data indicate that the AR is in its decay phase, in which magnetic cancellation takes place sporadically near the main neutral line. The preliminary observational results indicate that the MFR is forming in the corona.

When the MFR ascends to a height of \(47 \pm 12\) Mm at \(\sim 12:31\) UT, it transits into the impulsive acceleration phase. The triggering of the transition is attributed to the torus instability since, at that height the decay index, \(1.8 \pm 0.2\), of the background field is larger than the threshold value of torus instability (Kliem & Török 2006; Török & Kliem 2005; Fan & Gibson 2007; Aulanier et al. 2010; Savcheva et al. 2012a; Cheng et al. 2013b). As the torus instability commences, the MFR is accelerated upward, stretching the overlying field and forming a current sheet (CS) underneath the MFR. The reconnection in the CS is distinguished from that in the QSLs because of their distinct locations and reconnection rates. Compared with the reconnection in the QSLs, the reconnection in the flare CS has a higher efficiency in accelerating energetic particles, which stream down along the newly reconnected field lines to produce two well-observed flare ribbons and enhanced flare emission (Priest & Forbes 2000). The reconnection in the flare CS also has a higher efficiency in injecting more amount of poloidal flux into the MFR. The added poloidal flux supplies a stronger upward Lorentz self-force to accelerate the MFR. As a result of the eruption of the MFR, the magnetic pressure underneath the MFR is reduced and more and more ambient field lines are driven to participate in reconnection so as to further accelerate the FR. Therefore, the reconnection in the flare CS and the MFR eruption are highly coupled in a positive feedback system, which effectively accelerates the MFR and produces the flare emission in the impulsive acceleration phase.

Aside from magnetic reconnection, Török & Kliem (2005), Chen et al. (2007), and Olmedo & Zhang (2010) showed that the torus instability itself is capable of driving the MFR eruption. Recently, Patsourakos et al. (2010a, 2010b) found the lateral overexpansion of the CME bubble after the main flare reconnection phase. Song et al. (2013) found four high-speed CMEs but with very weak flare emissions. Both discoveries are considered to be indirect evidence of the ideal MHD process playing a role in the CME expansion and acceleration. As for the event we studied, the hard X-ray emission and the time derivative of the SXR emission increased from \(\sim 12:31\) UT to 13:00 UT slightly if compared with that after \(\sim 13:00\) UT (Figure 6(b)). We, thus, suspect that the torus instability is mainly responsible for driving the MFR acceleration in the period of \(\sim 12:31\) to 13:00 UT.

Another important observation is that we can seamlessly track the MFR from the inner corona to the outer corona. When the MFR propagates into the outer corona, we determine the positions and morphologies of the MFR in the white-light images. By visually inspecting the whole LASCO CME
Figure 6. Temporal evolution of the heights (panel (a)) and velocities (panel (b)) of the CME MFR (blue) and shock front (red). The vertical dash-dotted line and the gray region denote the onset time of the impulsive acceleration of the MFR and corresponding uncertainty. The black, blue, and green solid lines show the GOES 1–8 Å soft X-ray flux, its time derivative, and the RHESSI 15–25 keV hard X-ray flux, respectively. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

database, Vourlidas et al. (2013) recently found that the majority of CMEs in the past solar cycle have a clear MFR structure if excluding the jet and outflow events. The MFR is manifested to be a dark cavity in standard three-component CME events (e.g., Illing & Hundhausen 1985) or a bubble in “loop”-typed ones (e.g., Patsourakos et al. 2010a). In our case, the MFR appeared as a coherent bright structure instead of the dark cavity. This is probably a result of the projection since we are observing the MFR broadside instead of along its axis (Cremades & Bothmer 2004). The continuous imaging coverage from the inner to outer corona provides a smooth transition of the EUV channel to the coherent bright structure, which further supports the MFR interpretation. Moreover, identifying the bright structure as the MFR also helps us to understand the properties of the preceding CME front region. The CME bright “loops” enveloping the MFR most likely show the pile-up of the plasma at the boundary of the MFR and the outer diffuse front denotes the shock front generated by the MFR eruption (Vourlidas et al. 2003, 2013; Jin et al. 2013).

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