

1 **Climatology of mesopause region nocturnal temperature, zonal wind, and sodium**
2 **density observed by sodium lidar over Hefei, China (32°N, 117°E)**

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14 **Abstract**

15 The University of Science and Technology of China narrowband sodium temperature/wind
16 lidar, located in Hefei, China (32°N, 117°E), has made routine nighttime measurements since
17 January 2012. 154 nights (~1400 hours) of vertical profiles of temperature, sodium density,
18 and zonal wind, and 83 nights (~800 hours) of vertical flux of gravity wave (GW) zonal
19 momentum in the mesopause region (80-105 km) have been obtained during the period from
20 2012 to 2016. In temperature, it is most likely that the diurnal tide dominates below 100 km in
21 spring, while the semidiurnal tide dominates above 100 km throughout the year. A clear
22 semiannual variation in temperature is revealed near 90 km, in phase with the tropical
23 mesospheric semiannual oscillation (MSAO). The variability of sodium density is positively
24 correlated with temperature below 95 km, suggesting that in addition to dynamics, the
25 chemistry also plays an important role in the formation of sodium atoms. The seasonal
26 variability of sodium density observed by both lidar and satellite generally agrees well with a
27 whole atmosphere model simulation using an updated meteoric input function which includes
28 different cosmic dust sources. In zonal wind, the diurnal tide dominates in both spring and fall,
29 while semidiurnal tide dominates in winter. The observed semiannual variation in zonal wind
30 near 90 km is out-of-phase with that in temperature, consistent with the tropical MSAO. The
31 lidar observations generally agree with satellite and meteor radar observations as well as

32 model simulations at similar latitude. The 50-70% of zonal momentum flux is induced by
33 short-period (10 min – 2 hr) GWs. The large zonal momentum flux in summer and winter due
34 to short-period GWs are clearly anti-correlated with eastward zonal wind maxima below 90
35 km, suggesting the filtering of short-period GWs by the SAO wind

36 **1. Introduction**

37 The temperature and wind in the mesopause region (80-105 km) are key atmospheric
38 parameters for studying the dynamics in this region. Ground-based instruments (e.g. lidars,
39 radars), and space-borne instruments have been widely used to measure these key parameters
40 over several decades (Vincent and Reid, 1983; She et al., 1998; Wu et al., 2008). Satellites
41 can provide a near-global view of the mesopause region, but their local coverage is usually
42 limited to two local times on the ascending and descending orbit. The lack of continuous
43 coverage in local time makes it difficult to extract information on short period gravity wave
44 (GW) perturbations from satellite data (Preusse et al., 2009). Ground-based meteor or
45 medium frequency radars are capable of measuring mesopause wind in a continuous mode,
46 but do not provide direct temperature measurements with sufficient accuracy and vertical
47 resolution (Vincent and Reid, 1983). However, a narrowband sodium lidar is able to
48 simultaneously measure mesopause region temperature and horizontal wind by utilizing the
49 sodium high resolution spectrum (She et al., 1994; Arnold and She, 2003), which provides a
50 unique opportunity to study GW perturbations and their breaking process in the mesopause
51 region (Li et al., 2005; Li et al., 2007).

52 The long-term lidar observations have been used to study the seasonal variability of
53 mesopause region temperature (She et al., 1998; Gardner et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2006;
54 Friedman et al., 2007) and horizontal wind (Franke et al., 2005; Gardner et al., 2007), as well
55 as sodium density (She et al., 2000; Gardner et al., 2005; Ejiri et al., 2010; Yi et al., 2009;
56 Yuan et al., 2012), iron density (Yi et al., 2009; Lübken et al., 2011) and potassium density
57 (Friedman et al., 2002; Plane et al., 2015). These datasets are extremely valuable to validate
58 satellite results (Xu et al., 2006; Fan et al., 2007a; Dawkins et al., 2014) and improve general
59 circulation models (Yuan et al., 2008; Feng et al., 2013; Marsh et al., 2013). When GWs
60 break or dissipate in the mesopause region due to increased amplitudes or approaching critical
61 level (where wave phase speed equal to horizontal background wind), they tend to deposit
62 wave energy and momentum into the background flow, and further modify the temperature
63 and wind near the breaking region (Lindzen et al., 1981; Liu and Hagan, 1998; Li et al., 2007).
64 Therefore, measurements of the GW vertical flux of horizontal momentum and heat are
65 critical for evaluating the GW contribution to the background state in this region, and their
66 key roles in the dynamic coupling between lower and middle/upper atmosphere (Li et al.,

67 2013; 2016).

68 The vertical flux of horizontal momentum can be directly derived from the vertical wind
69 perturbation and associated horizontal wind perturbation. To ensure accuracy of the GW
70 momentum flux, the wind data must have high temporal and vertical resolutions with good
71 precision and a long-time average (Kudeki and Franke, 1998; Thorsen et al., 2000). Several
72 studies of lidar-observed GW momentum flux in the mesosphere/lower thermosphere (MLT)
73 region have been carried out previously (Espy et al., 2004; Gardner and Liu, 2007; Acott et al.,
74 2009).

75 In this paper, we present the seasonal variation of sodium density, temperature, zonal
76 wind and GW zonal momentum flux observed by the University of Science and Technology
77 of China (USTC) sodium temperature/wind lidar from January 2012 to December 2016 over
78 Hefei, China (32°N, 117°E). This is the first time simultaneous observations of the seasonal
79 variability of mesopause region temperature, zonal wind, and GW momentum flux by sodium
80 lidar over the Eastern Asia region have been reported. We compare the lidar results with
81 temperature observed by the Sounding of the Atmosphere Using Broadband Emission
82 Radiometry (SABER) instrument onboard the Thermosphere–Ionosphere–Mesosphere
83 Energetics and Dynamics (TIMED) satellite (Russell et al., 1999); zonal wind observed by a
84 nearby meteor radar (Xiong et al., 2004); and sodium density observed by the Optical
85 Spectrograph and InfraRed Imager System (OSIRIS) onboard the Odin satellite (Llewellyn et
86 al., 2004). These measurements are then compared with simulations from the Whole
87 Atmosphere Community Climate Model version 5 (WACCM) (Marsh et al., 2013; Mills et al.,
88 2016; Feng et al., 2017), using an updated meteoric input function (MIF) for Na
89 (Cárrillo-Sánchez et al., 2016). The instruments, datasets, and data analysis method are
90 described in section 2, followed by the results of temperature and sodium density in section 3,
91 and zonal wind and GW zonal momentum flux in section 4. A summary is provided in section
92 5.

93

94 **2. Instruments, datasets and analysis method**

95 The USTC sodium temperature/wind lidar, located on campus in Hefei, China (32°N,
96 117°E), utilizes a narrowband three-frequency design and can simultaneously observe sodium
97 density, zonal wind and temperature in the mesopause region during nighttime clear sky

98 conditions (Li et al., 2012). The system was initially set up in October 2011 with two
99 receiving telescopes (30-inch diameter) pointing eastward and northward 30° from zenith for
100 measuring the zonal and meridional wind, respectively. The output laser beam is split into two
101 beams, each aligned parallel to one telescope. Between December 2012 and May 2014 (total
102 83 nights), the two receiving telescopes were pointed to eastward and westward, each 15°
103 from zenith. This dual-beam setup allows us to derive the GW zonal momentum flux as well
104 as the zonal wind. Since June 2014, the westward telescope was pointed to vertical for
105 measuring the vertical fluxes of heat and sodium atoms, and the eastward telescope to 30°
106 from zenith for measuring zonal wind. Between January 2012 and December 2016, we
107 obtained 154 nights (~ 1400 hours) of valid data, which is sufficient to study the seasonal
108 variations of sodium density, temperature, zonal wind, and GW momentum flux (83 nights) in
109 the mesopause region over Hefei. Figure 1 shows the number of nights with valid datasets in
110 each month of the different years. It is clear that Hefei has more clear nights in fall and winter
111 than in spring and summer.

112 The Wuhan (31°N , 114°E) meteor radar, located at ~ 300 km west of Hefei, has
113 measured mesopause region horizontal wind since January 2002 (Xiong et al., 2004). The
114 vertical and temporal resolutions of radar wind are 3 km and 2 hr, respectively. The SABER
115 instrument onboard the TIMED satellite can measure the near-global vertical profile of
116 temperature from the lower stratosphere to the lower thermosphere (Russell et al., 1999). The
117 SABER temperature dataset used in this paper is Level2A version 2.0, which has a vertical
118 resolution of 2 km and accuracies of $\pm 1\text{-}2$ K between 75 and 95 km, increasing to ± 4 K at 100
119 km. The OSIRIS instrument onboard the Odin satellite measures solar-pumped Na resonance
120 fluorescence from a sun-synchronous polar orbit (Llewellyn et al., 2004), and the datasets can
121 be used to retrieve the global vertical profiles of sodium density between 75 and 110 km with
122 a $\sim 10\%$ uncertainty for 2 km vertical resolution (Gumbel et al., 2007; Fan et al., 2007a).

123 To compare with lidar results, we also use the temperature, zonal wind, and sodium
124 density simulated by the WACCM, a chemistry-climate model which extends from the
125 Earth's surface to the lower thermosphere (~ 140 km) (Garcia et al., 2007; Marsh et al., 2013a).
126 WACCM uses the framework from the fully coupled global climate model Community Earth
127 System Model (CESM version 1, e.g., Hurrell et al., 2013). In this paper, we use a version of
128 WACCM described in Mills et al. (2016), which includes all the detailed physical processes

129 as described in the Community Atmosphere Model, version 5 (CAM5) (Neale et al., 2012).
130 The current configurations for WACCM are based on a finite volume dynamical core (Lin,
131 2004) for the tracer advection as well as a new surface topography data from Lauritzen et al.
132 (2015). WACCM has the fully interactive chemistry described in Mills et al. (2016), and we
133 have included the Na chemistry scheme listed in Plane et al. (2015) and Gomez Martin et al.
134 (2015, 2017), with an updated meteoric input function (MIF) for Na (Cárrillo-Sanchez et
135 al., 2016). The new MIF is calculated for the ablation of cosmic dust particles from Jupiter
136 Family Comets (80% by mass), Asteroids (8%), and Long Period Comets (12%), and the
137 injection rate of Na is about 8 times larger than that used in Marsh et al. (2013). The peak Na
138 ablation rate from Cárrillo-Sanchez et al. (2016) occurs around 87 km, which is ~15 km lower
139 than the MIF used in Marsh et al. (2013), which was based on meteor head radar
140 measurements which were biased to the high velocity dust particles which mostly originate
141 from Long Period Comets (Cárrillo-Sanchez et al., 2016). The absolute Na MIF used in this
142 paper has been divided by a factor of 5 from that in Cárrillo-Sanchez et al. (2016), in order to
143 match the observed Na layer density. This most likely reflects the fact that WACCM
144 underestimates the rate of vertical transport of Na species in the MLT because sub-grid
145 gravity waves are not resolved in the model (Huang et al., 2015). The horizontal resolution of
146 WACCM is 1.9° latitude by 2.5° longitude. The vertical model layers and the vertical
147 resolution are the same as Mills et al. (2017), which is 70 and ~3 km in the MLT region.
148 Although the model can be nudged by a re-analysis dataset, in the current study we have used
149 a “free-running” model simulation, which produces a satisfactory Na climatology in the
150 model. We ran the model for year 2000 condition for 13 years.

151 The lidar raw photon counts are first analyzed to generate hourly mean vertical profiles
152 of sodium density, temperature and line-of-sight (LOS) wind with 2 km vertical resolution for
153 each direction. Before and after the dual-beam setup (eastward-westward) between December
154 2012 and May 2014, we assume that the hourly mean vertical wind is negligible and then
155 derive the hourly mean zonal wind from the east channel LOS wind (eastward pointing at 30°
156 from zenith). During the dual-beam setup, we derive the hourly mean zonal wind profiles by
157 subtracting the hourly westward LOS wind from the eastward LOS wind and then dividing by
158 $2\sin\theta$ (e.g. $\theta=20^\circ$) (Vincent and Reid, 1983). The uncertainties of the hourly mean zonal wind
159 and temperature typically range from ~1.0 m/s and ~0.5 K at 92 km (Na peak layer) to ~6 m/s

160 and ~ 5 K at 82 km and 103 km (the edge of Na layer), respectively. We then generate the
161 nighttime hourly mean composite in each season.

162 Vincent and Reid (1983) presented a method utilizing the dual beam technique to derive
163 vertical flux of GW horizontal momentum, when two beams are pointed at equal and opposite
164 angle θ from the zenith. The zonal momentum flux $\overline{w'u'}$ is calculated as follows:

$$165 \quad \overline{w'u'} = \frac{\overline{v^2(\theta, R)} - \overline{v^2(-\theta, R)}}{2\sin(2\theta)} \quad (1)$$

166 where $\overline{v^2(\theta, R)}$ and $\overline{v^2(-\theta, R)}$ are the square of the LOS wind perturbations in the east and
167 west channels respectively, and θ is the zenith angle (e.g. 20°). To derive the momentum flux,
168 we employed a similar procedure to that of Gardner and Liu (2007). Briefly, we first analyze
169 lidar raw photon counts to generate the LOS wind with a temporal resolution of 5 min and a
170 vertical resolution of 2 km. Data points with errors larger than 5 m/s were discarded during
171 the quality check. We remove the linear trend and nightly mean from the LOS wind to form
172 wind perturbations for each night. Data where the perturbation variances are smaller than the
173 corresponding noise variances are also excluded. The seasonal mean vertical profile of
174 perturbation variance is then obtained by averaging all available perturbation variances in that
175 season. This process is done separately for each beam. Finally, the seasonal mean momentum
176 flux is calculated using equation (1). In this way, the results only account for the GW
177 perturbations with periods of 10 min-20 hr and vertical wavelengths of 4-30 km. We also
178 apply a high-pass filter with cutoff at 2 hr on raw perturbations to examine the relative
179 contribution of short-period GWs (10 min – 2 hr) to total momentum flux.

180 Since the meteor radar observed zonal wind is only available in 2013, we then calculate
181 monthly mean with all available data for comparison. The SABER tracking points within $\pm 5^\circ$
182 latitude band (27 - 37° N) and longitude band (112 - 122° E) of the lidar site are selected first. We
183 then discard the SABER temperature profiles that are outside of the lidar observation period.
184 Finally, we average all available SABER temperature profiles within each month to form the
185 monthly mean for comparison. A similar analysis method is used for the OSIRIS data. In the
186 case of WACCM, the zonal mean data are first extracted at the coordinates of the lidar site
187 and then the monthly mean profiles are generated in the same way as the lidar and radar
188 profiles.

189

190 3. Temperature and sodium density

191 Figure 2 shows the hourly mean temperature composite in four different seasons. The
192 temperatures below 95 km are generally warmer in fall and winter than in spring and summer,
193 consistent with the mesospheric residual meridional circulation with upwelling in the summer
194 hemisphere and downwelling in the winter hemisphere (Andrew et al., 1987; Smith, 2012). It
195 is most likely that the diurnal tide with downward phase progression dominates below 100 km
196 in spring, although we only have 10-12 hr data. However, the tidal feature is not clear below
197 95 km in other seasons. The temperature above 100 km in all seasons clearly exhibits two
198 minima after dusk and before dawn and a maximum near midnight, suggesting dominance
199 and persistence of the semidiurnal tide in this latitude region throughout the year.

200 The clear downward phase progression of diurnal and semidiurnal tides in mesopause
201 temperature was previously observed by sodium lidar at the Starfire Optical Range (SOR),
202 New Mexico (35°N, 107°W) (Chu et al., 2005). However, their observations suggest a clear
203 dominance of diurnal in April and October and semidiurnal in January below 100 km, while
204 we see a clear dominance of diurnal only in spring (March-May), and mixed features in other
205 seasons. In addition, the midnight maximum above 100 km shown in our results is not
206 observed over SOR. The SABER observations reveal a diurnal amplitude of ~2 K and ~8 K,
207 and semidiurnal amplitude of ~7 K and ~12 K at 95km for the USTC and SOR lidar sites,
208 respectively (Zhang et al., 2010). This significant longitudinal variability is likely due to
209 nonlinear interactions between the migrating tide and non-immigrating tide (Forbes et al.,
210 2003) and stationary planetary wave number 1 (Lieberman et al., 1991), respectively, and/or
211 tidal/gravity waves interactions (Lindzen, 1981; Liu and Hagan, 1998; Li et al., 2007; 2009).
212 The clear longitudinal variability of tides between two lidar sites could thus cause significant
213 differences in the nocturnal climatology.

214 Figure 3 shows the monthly mean of the nightly mean temperature observed by lidar and
215 SABER, and simulated by WACCM. All three figures show qualitative agreement in the
216 general pattern, but difference in absolute values. The mesopause is clearly located near 100
217 km in winter and below 95 km in summer, indicating a two-level mesopause as previously
218 observed at mid- and high latitudes (von Zahn et al., 1996; She et al., 1998). The lidar
219 observed temperature above 95 km is ~10 K lower than SABER, likely due either to the low
220 signal-to-noise ratio in the lidar return signals above 100 km (Li et al., 2012), or to a non-local

221 thermal equilibrium influence in the SABER analysis (Mertens et al., 2001). The lidar
222 observed mesopause is also 5-10 K colder than that observed by SABER. The WACCM
223 simulated temperature is clearly higher than both sets of observations at most altitudes and
224 months. Yuan et al. (2008) showed a significant monthly mean mesopause region temperature
225 difference between lidar observations and WACCM simulations over Fort Collins, CO (41°N,
226 105°W); their comparisons show that the WACCM-simulated winter mesopause is much
227 warmer than measured by lidar, and the summer mesopause is ~3 km lower than lidar
228 observations. Another interesting feature in all three figures is that we see a temperature
229 maximum near ~90 km in March and April, and a second maximum in September and
230 October, likely related to the mesospheric semiannual oscillation (MSAO) usually dominant
231 in the equatorial middle atmosphere (Dunkerton, 1982; Burrage et al., 1996; Garcia et al.,
232 1997).

233 Our measured monthly means of the nightly mean temperatures are also generally
234 consistent with previously lidar observations at SOR (Gardner and Liu, 2007) and Fort
235 Collins, CO (She et al., 1998; Yuan et al., 2008). However, the SOR lidar observations were
236 ~10 K colder below 90 km in summer, and ~10 K warmer between 90 and 95 km in spring,
237 suggesting significant differences between the two locations likely induced by the significant
238 longitudinal variability of the diurnal tide (Zhang et al., 2010). The semiannual oscillation
239 signature is evident over both Hefei and SOR between 90 and 95 km, but not over Fort
240 Collins. The summer mesopause observed by lidar over Hefei is clearly higher than over the
241 other two locations.

242 Figure 4 shows the hourly mean sodium density composite during the four different
243 seasons. The density increases with local time during the night, with a peak height around 92
244 km. The peak density is overall much higher in fall and winter than in spring and summer,
245 which is consistent with previous ground-based and satellite observations (She et al., 2000;
246 Fan et al., 2007a; Fussen et al., 2010). Some peaks above 95 km in summer are likely induced
247 by sporadic sodium layers (SSLs), which often occur in this season over Hefei (Dou et al.,
248 2010). The seasonal mean sodium peak density in winter can reach 4000-4500 cm⁻³ after
249 midnight. Figure 5 shows the monthly mean of nightly mean sodium density observed by (a)
250 lidar and (b) Odin/OSIRIS, and simulated by (c) WACCM. Both observations agree well in
251 seasonal pattern and absolute sodium density, and are also consistent with the WACCM

252 model simulation. The elevated peak height and enhanced density in summer observed by
253 lidar is likely due to increased SSL events in summer over Hefei, which is neither frequently
254 observed by Odin/OSIRIS nor simulated by WACCM. The Odin/OSIRIS did observe SSLs
255 over China (Fan et al., 2007b), but probably less frequently at 0600 and 1800 local time than
256 at midnight. The observed sodium density over Hefei is quite consistent with previous
257 narrowband lidar observations over Fort Collins, CO (She et al., 2000) and Urbana, IL (States
258 and Gardner, 1998), but ~1.5 times higher than previous broadband sodium lidar observations
259 over the nearby city of Wuhan, China (Yi et al., 2009).

260 The variability of sodium density is clearly correlated with the temperature variability
261 shown in Figure 2. This is further demonstrated in Figure 6, where the correlation coefficient
262 between the composite temperature and relative sodium density perturbations is plotted using
263 lidar measurements (left) and the WACCM simulation (right). The temporal resolution for
264 both lidar and WACCM is 1 hr. We also examined the correlation in the four different
265 seasons and found no significant differences. The lidar observations are clearly consistent
266 with the WACCM simulation, and both results suggest a positive correlation with coefficient
267 of 0.5-0.8 between 80-90 km, but a negative correlation with coefficient of less than ~-0.4
268 above 96 km for lidar and 100 km for WACCM, consistent with lidar observations at Urbana
269 (40N) (Plane *et al.*, 1999) and in the Arctic (Collins and Smith, 2004). However, our lidar
270 observations above 95 km are not consistent with the recent sodium lidar observations at
271 ALOMAR, which showed a positive correlation with temperature above this altitude (Dunker
272 et al., 2015). This difference may be related to energetic particle precipitation at high latitudes,
273 but the detailed mechanism is beyond scope of this paper.

274 Our lidar observations suggest that the main chemistry below 95 km is likely dominated
275 by neutral sodium chemistry, which essentially involves the partitioning of the metal between
276 atoms and the main reservoir NaHCO_3 ; the significant activation energy of the reaction
277 $\text{NaHCO}_3 + \text{H}$ drives the balance towards Na at higher temperatures. In contrast, above 95 km
278 the source of atomic Na is from Na^+ , which involves formation of cluster ions that then
279 undergo dissociative recombination with electrons; the formation of cluster ions is favored at
280 lower temperatures, hence the negative correlation coefficient between Na and
281 temperature on the topside of the Na layer (Plane et al., 2015).

282

283 4. Zonal wind and gravity wave momentum flux

284 Figure 7 shows the hourly mean zonal wind composite in 4 different seasons. We see
285 strong tidal oscillations with downward phase progression in all seasons, much clearer than
286 those in temperature (Figure 2). The diurnal tide with vertical wavelength of ~ 20 km
287 dominates in both spring and fall, while the semidiurnal tide with vertical wavelength of
288 30-40 km dominates in winter. In spring, the diurnal tide in temperature (Figure 2a) leads that
289 in zonal wind by ~ 4 hr between 90 and 95 km, consistent with earlier mid-latitude
290 observations (Yuan et al., 2006). There is a strong wave oscillation signature with a period of
291 ~ 8 hr and amplitude of ~ 20 m/s that dominates in summer, possibly related to the terdiurnal
292 tide. Previous observations by the nearby Wuhan meteor radar show that the diurnal
293 amplitude near 90 km during equinox is ~ 30 m/s, with a semidiurnal amplitude of ~ 10 m/s
294 (Xiong et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2005). The comparable amplitude (~ 10 m/s) of diurnal and
295 semidiurnal in winter is also revealed by these radar observations, with which our
296 observations are generally consistent.

297 We show in Figure 8 the monthly mean of the nightly mean zonal wind observed by (a)
298 lidar, (b) Wuhan meteor radar, and (c) simulated by WACCM. The radar observed zonal wind
299 is only available in 2013 for comparison. The general pattern of the lidar observed zonal
300 winds agrees well with the radar winds, but are 5-10 m/s stronger. This is likely due to the
301 different vertical and temporal resolutions, signal-to-noise ratio, and the measurement methods,
302 as well as the different locations. The lidar results exhibit a semiannual variation near 90 km
303 with minima in March and August/September, and one maximum in May/June, clearly
304 out-of-phase with the temperature semiannual variation (Figure 3a). The lidar observed
305 semiannual variation in both wind and temperature is consistent with the tropical MSAO
306 previously observed by satellites (Garcia et al., 1997), and simulated by WACCM (Richter
307 and Garcia, 2006). The lidar and radar observations agree with the WACCM simulation
308 below 90 km in both pattern and magnitude, while disagreeing above. Interestingly, a recent
309 comparison between lidar measurements over Fort Collins, CO and several general
310 circulation models also reveals significant differences (Yuan et al., 2008).

311 The USTC lidar telescopes were pointed 15° from zenith in eastward and westward
312 directions between December 2012 and May 2014. This setup allows us to derive the vertical
313 flux of GW zonal momentum. A total of 83 nights of GW momentum flux measurements

314 were obtained with 21, 12, 23, and 27 nights in spring, summer, fall, and winter respectively.
315 Figure 9 shows vertical profiles of the seasonal mean GW zonal momentum flux for period
316 10min – 16hr (blue) and 10min – 2hr (green), and zonal wind (red) in (a) spring, (b) summer,
317 (c) fall, and (d) winter. The zonal momentum flux is mostly eastward in spring, positively
318 correlated with the eastward zonal wind. However, the zonal momentum flux is mostly
319 westward in other seasons, clearly anti-correlated with the eastward zonal wind, suggesting
320 zonal wind filtering of GWs below 80 km. It is also clear that the zonal momentum flux
321 induced by short-period (10 min – 2 hr) GWs clearly dominates total momentum flux in all
322 seasons except summer.

323 The seasonal variation of zonal momentum flux is consistent with previous sodium lidar
324 observation at SOR, NM (Gardner and Liu, 2007). However, MU radar observations near
325 Kyoto, Japan (35°N, 136°E) shows a clear eastward flux in summer and westward flux in
326 winter between 65 and 85 km (Tsuda et al., 1990). MF radar observations in Adelaide,
327 Australia (35°S, 138°E) suggest an eastward flux of $\sim 3 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$ in winter (Reid and Vincent,
328 1987). We note here that part of the differences between our lidar results and other published
329 work is likely due to different vertical and temporal resolutions and thus sensitivity to
330 different portions of the GW spectrum. Table 1 compares the GW zonal momentum flux
331 measured at different mid-latitude lidar and radar stations. The results from other locations are
332 estimated from the following studies: Gardner and Liu (2007) for the SOR lidar results; Acott
333 et al. (2009) for the Fort Collins, CO lidar results; and Tsuda et al. (1990) for the Japan MU
334 radar results. This comparison demonstrates that all observations report a clear westward GW
335 zonal momentum flux in winter. In spring, both the USTC and SOR lidars observed an
336 eastward momentum flux of $1.4\text{-}2 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$.

337 The short-period (10 min – 2 hr) GWs clearly contribute 50%-70% of the total
338 momentum flux, consistent with previously medium frequency (MF) radar observations
339 (Fritts and Vincent, 1987). The large westward momentum fluxes of -0.9 and $-0.6 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$ for
340 short-period GWs in summer and winter respectively are clearly anti-correlated with eastward
341 zonal wind maxima below 90 km (Figure 8a), suggesting the filtering of short-period GWs by
342 the SAO wind. However, this SAO variation is not clear in the total momentum flux. For the
343 annual mean, our lidar result is clearly smaller than the SOR lidar result, mainly due to
344 significant difference in summer. Our results also show that the annual mean zonal wind

345 averaged between 87-95 km is ~ 10 m/s eastward, and anti-correlated with the westward
346 momentum flux of ~ -0.15 m²/s² induced by short-period GWs. This anti-correlation suggests
347 that the GW momentum flux observed in the mesopause region is generally consistent with
348 the wind filtering theory proposed by Lindzen (1981), and adopted by general circulation
349 models (e.g. Richter et al., 2010).

350

351 **5. Summary**

352 Between 2012 and 2016, the USTC sodium temperature/wind lidar observed mesopause
353 region nighttime temperature, zonal wind, and sodium density over 150 nights, and the
354 vertical flux of zonal momentum during 83 nights. The seasonal nighttime hourly composites
355 of temperature and zonal wind show clear diurnal and/or semidiurnal tidal signatures. In
356 temperature, the diurnal tide with clear downward phase progression dominates only in spring,
357 while the semidiurnal tide dominates above 100 km throughout the year. In zonal wind, the
358 diurnal tide with vertical wavelength of ~ 20 km dominates in both spring and fall, while the
359 semidiurnal tide with vertical wavelength of 30-40 km dominates in winter. Between 90 and
360 95 km, the diurnal tide in temperature in spring leads that in zonal wind by ~ 4 hr, consistent
361 with previous observations and model simulations. The monthly mean results show a
362 signature of semiannual variation in both temperature and zonal wind near 90 km but with
363 clear out-of-phase feature, consistent with the tropical MSAO. Comparison of the USTC lidar
364 results with observations by satellite and meteor radar, and simulated by WACCM show
365 generally good agreement, although there are some differences among them, with pronounced
366 disagreement between the observed zonal wind and the model above 90 km.

367 The seasonal mean of zonal momentum flux is mostly westward in summer, fall and
368 winter, clearly anti-correlated with the eastward zonal wind, which suggests zonal wind
369 filtering of GWs below 80 km. However, during spring the zonal momentum flux is mostly
370 eastward, positively correlated with the eastward zonal wind. The short-period GWs clearly
371 contribute 50%-70% of total momentum flux averaged over 87-95 km. The large westward
372 momentum fluxes in summer and winter for short-period GWs are clearly anti-correlated with
373 eastward zonal wind maxima below 90 km (Figure 8a), suggesting the filtering of
374 short-period GWs by the SAO wind. The annual mean flux averaged over 87-95 km is ~ -0.15
375 m²/s² (westward) induced by the short-period GWs, anti-correlated with the zonal wind of

376 ~10 m/s (eastward), suggesting that the GW momentum flux observed in the mesopause
377 region is generally consistent with the wind filtering theory.

378 The sodium density increases with local time during the night, with a peak height near 92
379 km. The peak density is overall much higher in fall and winter than in spring and summer.
380 The seasonal mean sodium peak density in winter can reach 4000-4500 cm⁻³ after mid-night.
381 The variability of sodium density is positively correlated with temperature variability,
382 suggesting that chemistry plays a dominant role in the formation of sodium atoms in the
383 mesopause region below 95 km. The lidar observations agree well with Odin/OSRIS satellite
384 observations in both seasonal pattern and absolute monthly mean sodium density, consistent
385 with WACCM simulations using a new Na meteoric input function.

386

387 **Acknowledgments**

388 The work described in this paper was carried out at the University of Science and
389 Technology of China (USTC), under support of the National Natural Science Foundation of
390 China grant 41674149 and the Open Research Project of Large Research Infrastructures of
391 CAS - "Study on the interaction between low/mid-latitude atmosphere and ionosphere based
392 on the Chinese Meridian Project. WF and JMCP were supported by the European Research
393 Council (project 291332-CODITA). The National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR)
394 is sponsored by the National Science Foundation. We thank Chengyun Yang, Shengyang Gu,
395 Xianyu Wang, Yetao Cen, Feng Li, and Huazhi Ge for help to take lidar data. TL would like
396 to thank Alan Liu for helpful discussion. The SD-WACCM model was obtained from the
397 NCAR and run at the University of Leeds and is available for contacting the co-authors FW or
398 JMCP. We would like to thank Francis Vitt at NCAR for the WACCM model support. The
399 SABER data is downloaded from <http://saber.gats-inc.com/>. We thank Richard Collins and
400 another anonymous reviewer for their constructive comments.

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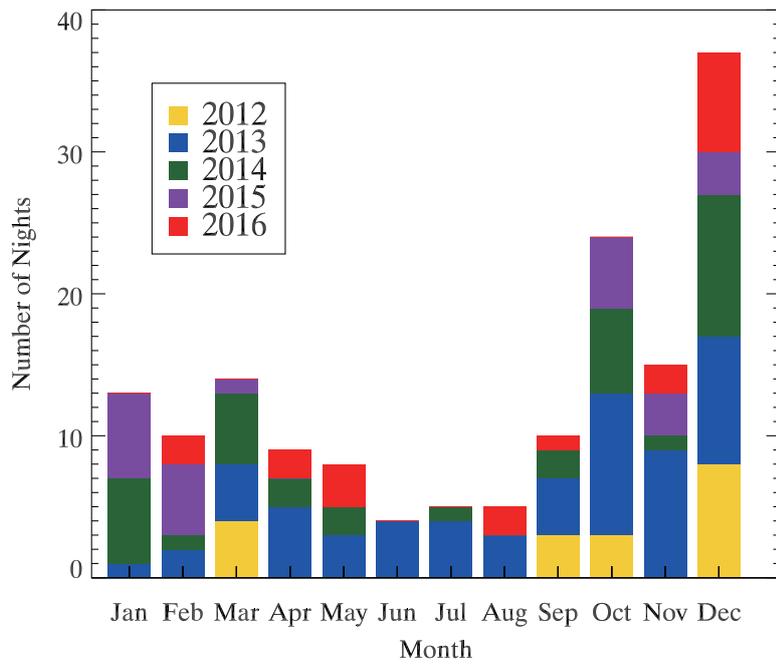
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630 **Table 1.** Comparison of the GW zonal momentum flux (m^2/s^2) measured at different middle
 631 latitude lidar and radar stations.

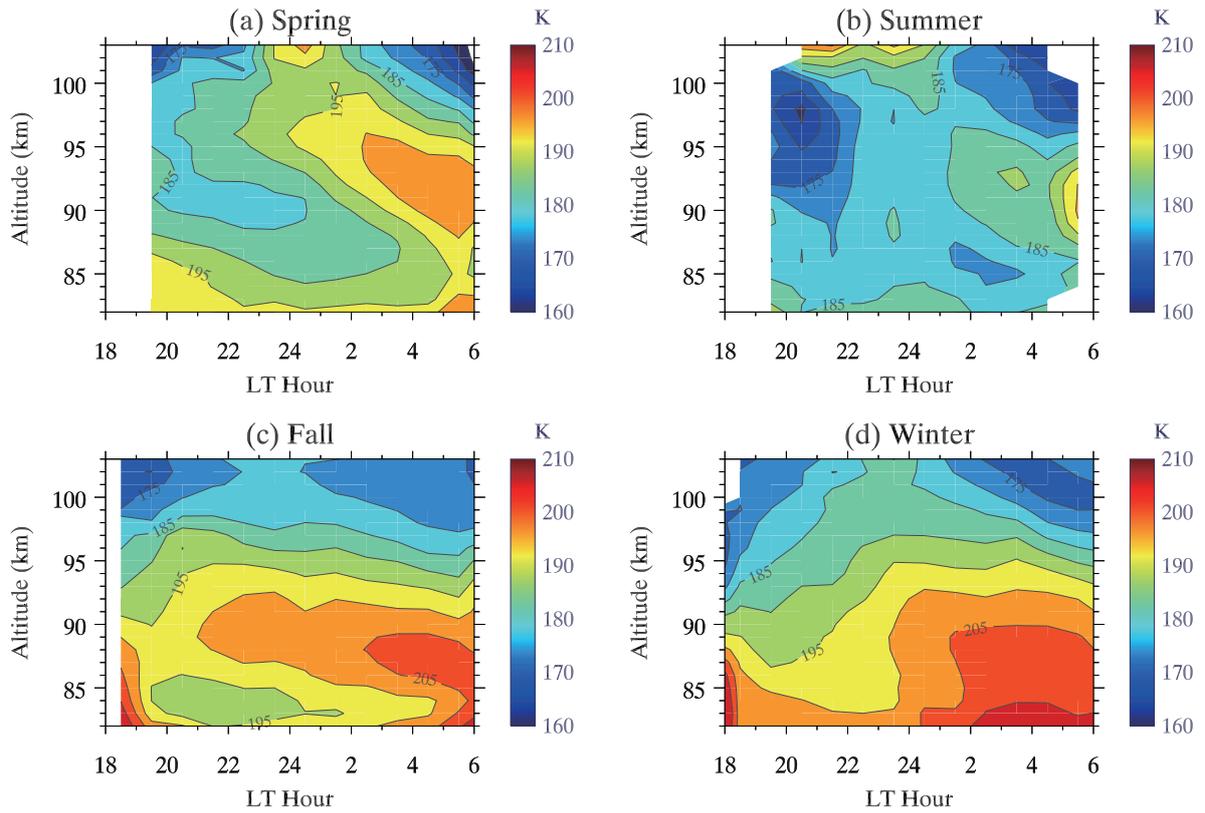
Stations	Altitude/filter	Annual	Spring	Summer	Fall	Winter
USTC lidar (32°N, 117°E)	87 – 95 km 10min – 16hr	-0.08	1.4	-0.2	-0.3	-0.9
	87 – 95 km 10min – 2hr	-0.15	0.8	-0.9	-0.16	-0.6
SOR lidar (35°N, 107°W)	85 – 100 km 3min – 14hr	-1.2	~2	1.8	N/A	-1.7
CSU lidar (41°N, 105°W)	85 – 95 km 6min – 4hr	N/A	~0.1	N/A	~0.1	-0.7
MU Radar (35°N, 136°E)	65 – 85km 5min – 2 hr	N/A	~0	2.0	~0	-1.5

632



633

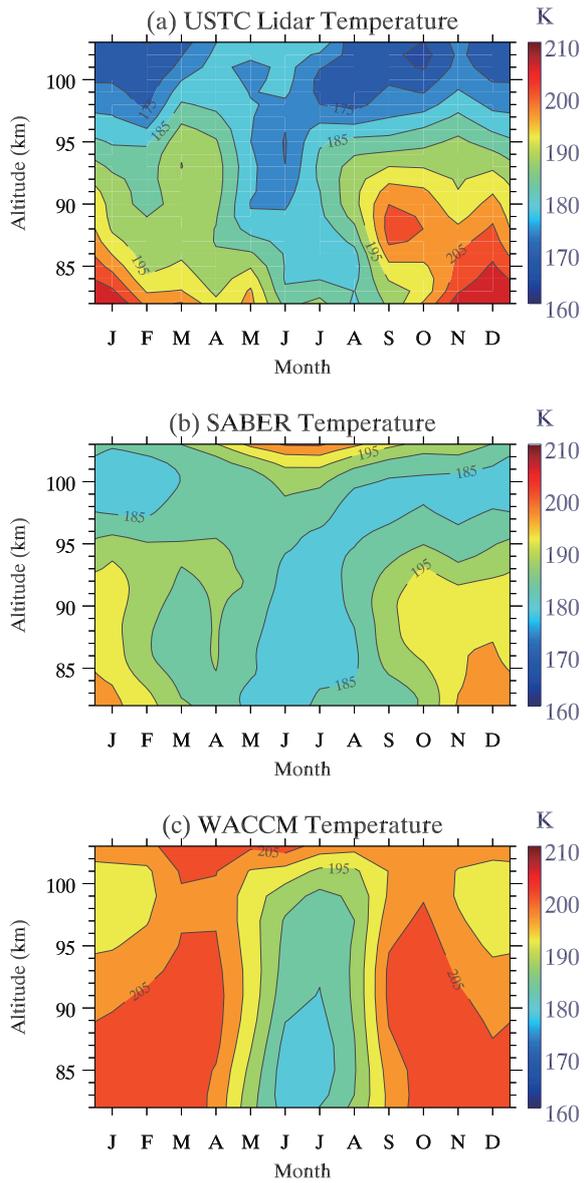
634 **Figure 1.** Histogram of number of nights with valid data observed by the USTC sodium lidar.



635

636 **Figure 2.** Lidar observed nighttime hourly mean temperature composite in (a) spring, (b)

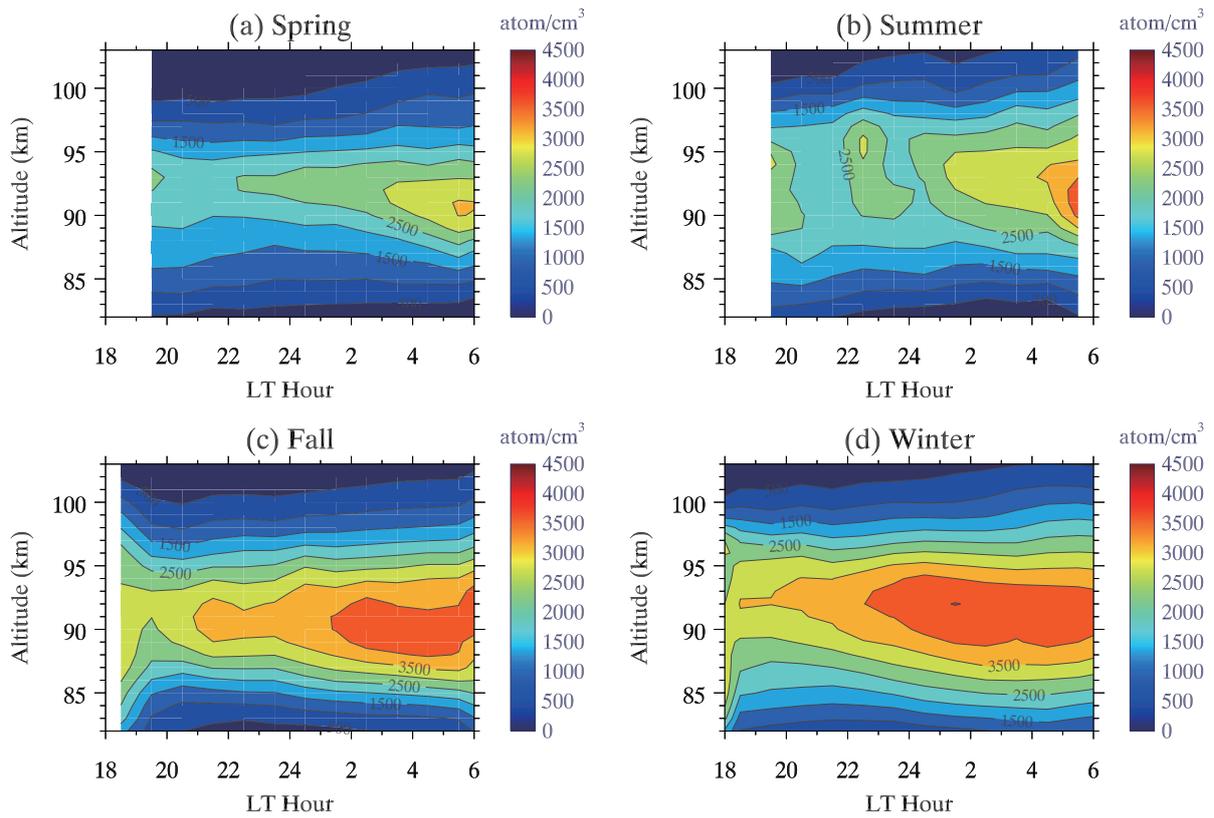
637 summer, (c) fall, and (d) winter.



638

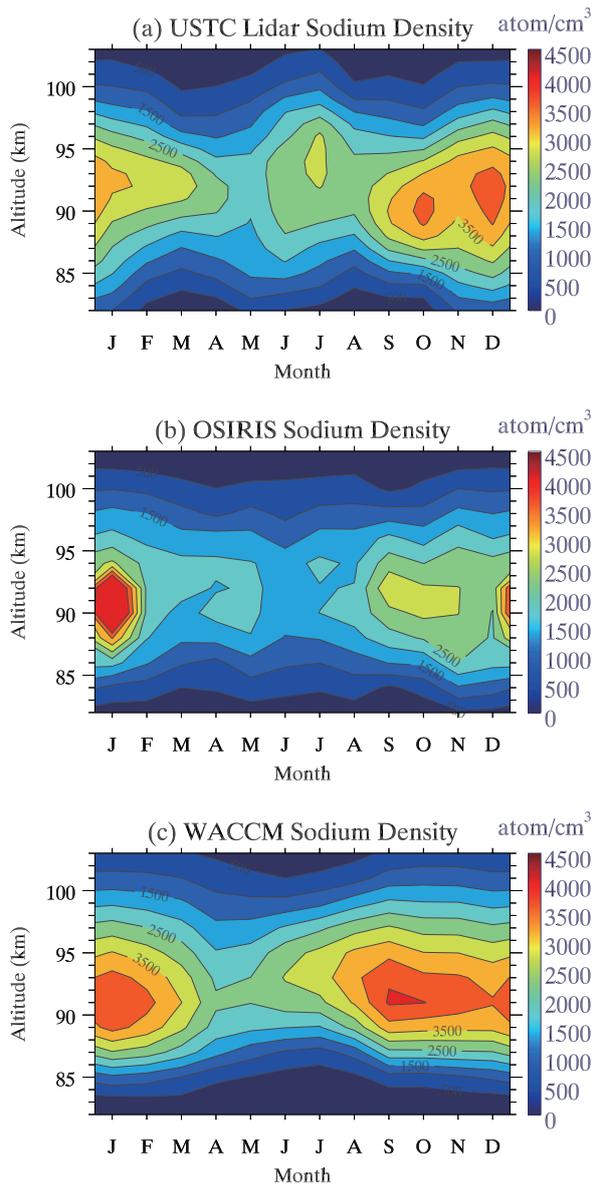
639 **Figure 3.** Monthly mean of mean temperature observed by (a) lidar, (b) SABER, and

640 simulated by (c) WACCM.



641

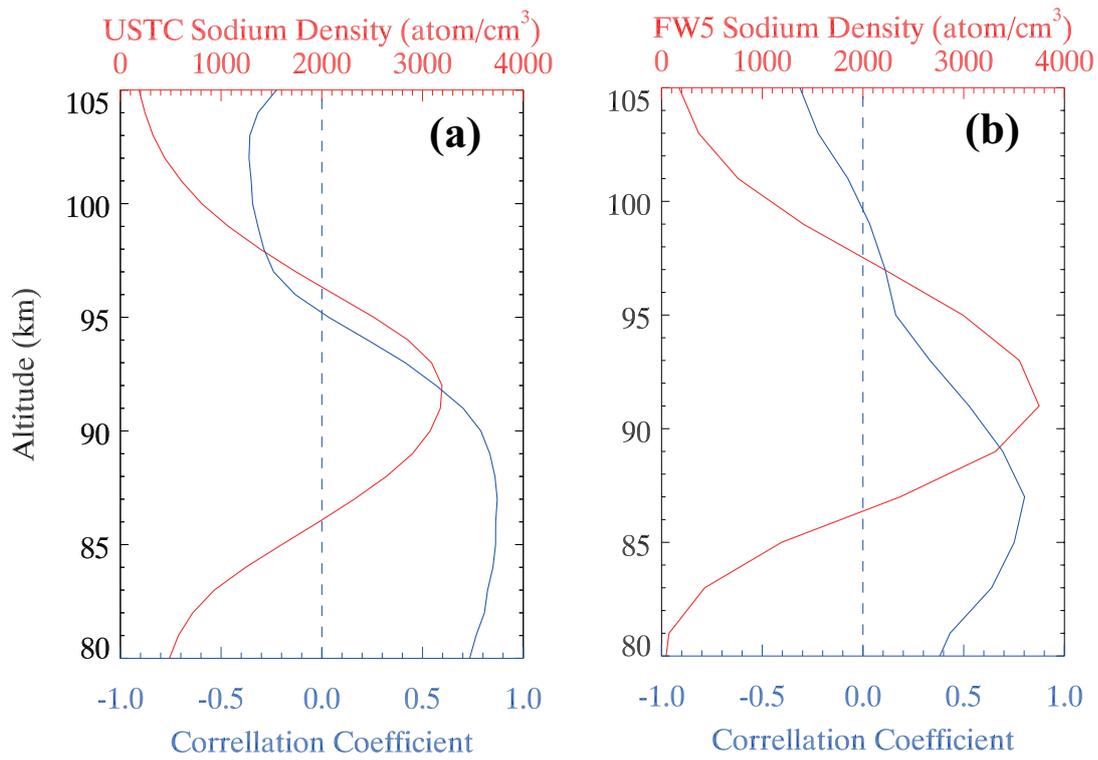
642 **Figure 4.** Same as Figure 2, but for sodium number density.



643

644 **Figure 5.** Monthly mean of nightly mean sodium density observed by (a) lidar and (b) Odin/

645 OSIRIS, and simulated by (c) WACCM.



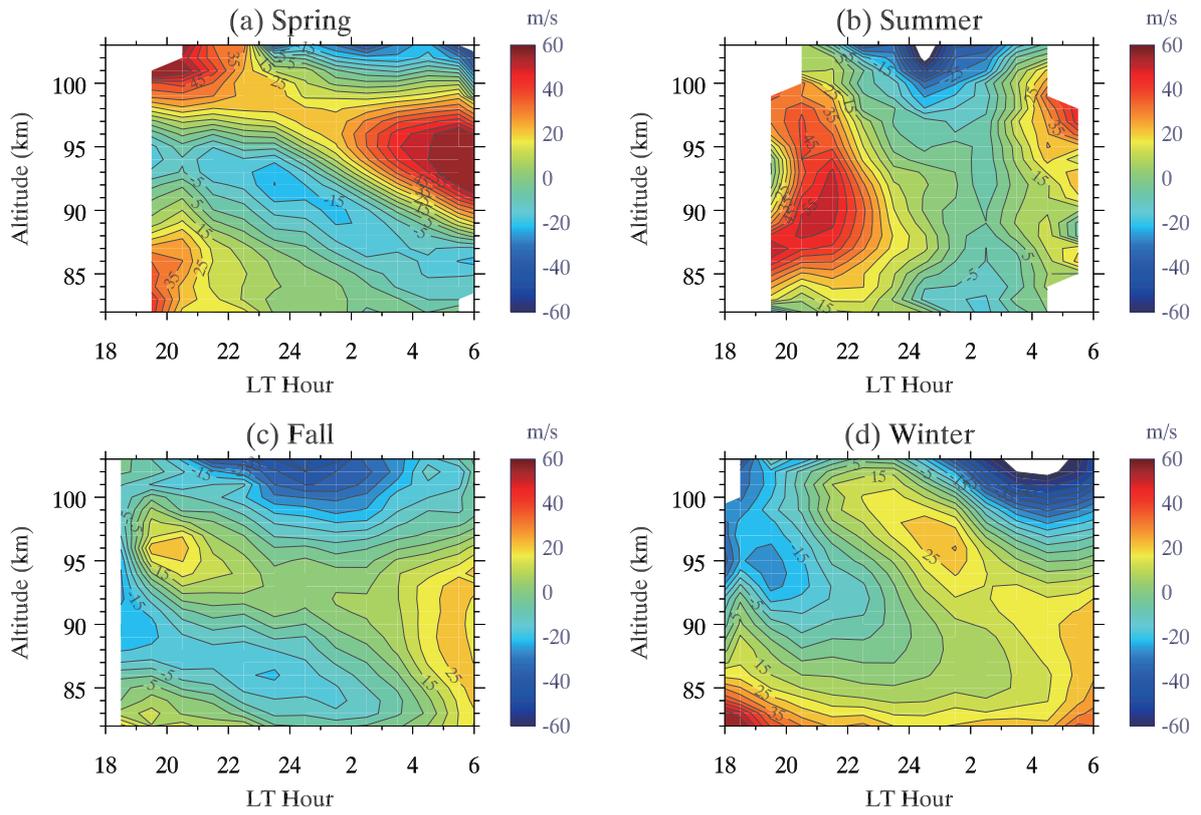
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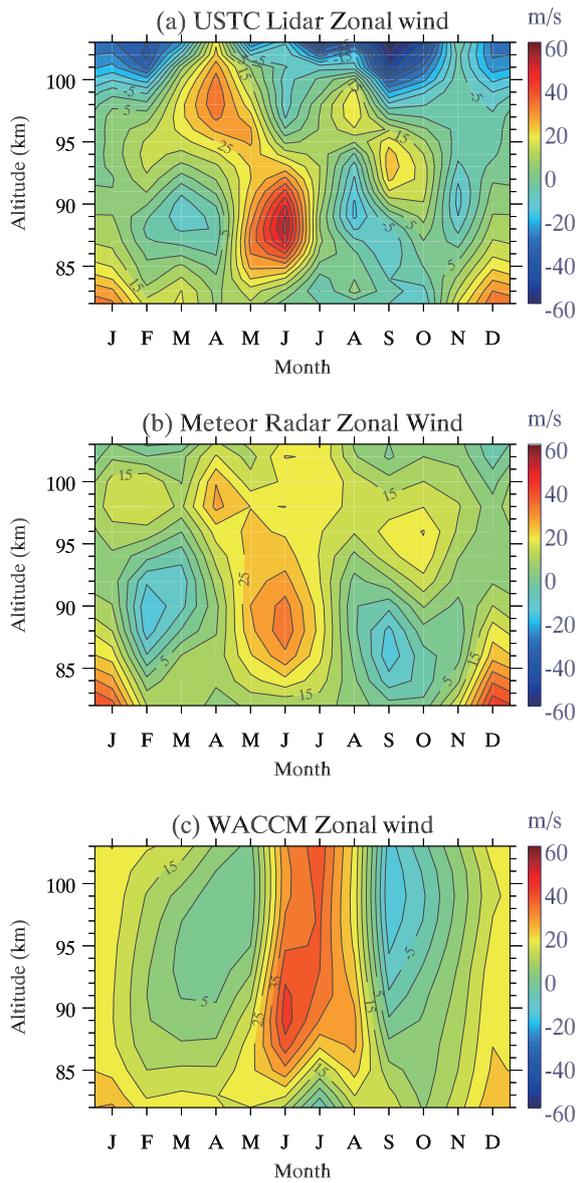
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Figure 6. The vertical profiles of correlation coefficient (blue) between composite temperature and relative sodium density perturbations, and annual mean sodium density (red), observed by lidar (left) and simulated by WACCM (right).



650

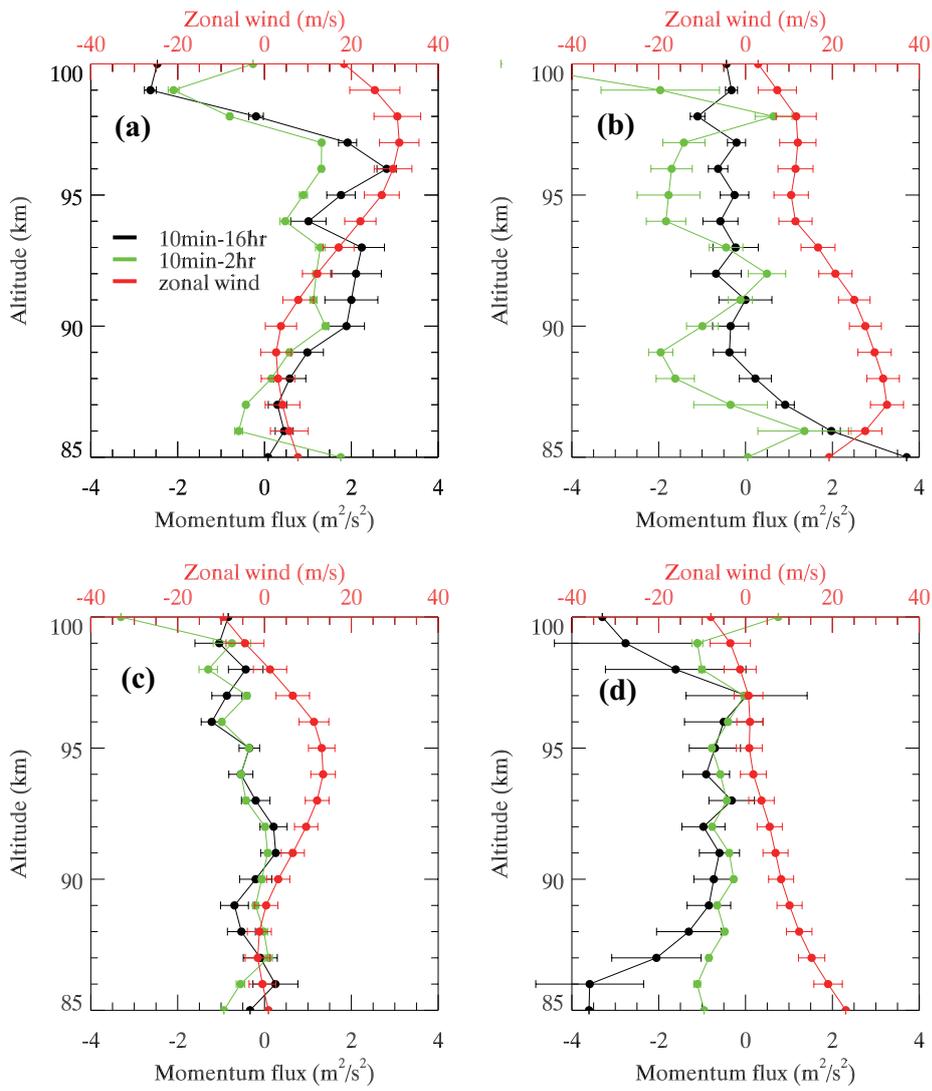
651 **Figure 7.** Same as Figure 2, but for zonal wind.



652

653 **Figure 8.** Monthly mean of nightly mean zonal wind observed by (a) lidar, (b) meteor radar,

654 and simulated by (c) WACCM.



655

656 **Figure 9.** Comparison of seasonal mean of nightly mean zonal wind (red) and zonal
 657 momentum flux for 10min - 16hr (blue) and 10min - 2hr (green) observed by lidar in (a)
 658 spring, (b) summer, (c) fall, and (d) winter.