

## **EARLY ONLINE RELEASE**

This is a PDF of a manuscript that has been peer-reviewed and accepted for publication. As the article has not yet been formatted, copy edited or proofread, the final published version may be different from the early online release.

This pre-publication manuscript may be downloaded, distributed and used under the provisions of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY 4.0) license. It may be cited using the DOI below.

The DOI for this manuscript is

DOI:10.2151/jmsj.2021-025

J-STAGE Advance published date: January 13th, 2021

The final manuscript after publication will replace the preliminary version at the above DOI once it is available.

# 1 A case study of a quasi-stationary, very long Polar Stratospheric Cloud layer edge

2

3 Peter Voelger<sup>1</sup> and Peter Dalin<sup>1</sup>

4

5 <sup>1</sup> *Swedish Institute of Space Physics, Box 812, SE-981 28 Kiruna, Sweden*

6

7 Keywords: troposphere, stratosphere, polar stratospheric clouds, mountain gravity waves

8 Corresponding author: Peter Voelger (E-mail: peter.voelger@irf.se)

9

## 10 **Abstract**

11 A case study of occurrence of polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) on February 13<sup>th</sup>, 2017 in  
12 northern Sweden is discussed in the present paper. For the first time a quasi-stationary edge of a  
13 bright and extended PSCs layer (~600 km long) on the Eastern side of the Scandinavian Mountain  
14 Range was photographed as well as registered with lidar observations. Both lidar measurements and  
15 model simulations demonstrated that atmospheric conditions were fairly unchanged for several  
16 hours during the presence of the PSC. Strong winds across the Scandinavian Mountain Range were  
17 responsible for triggering the formation of mountain lee waves in the Kiruna area, which in turn  
18 induced the formation of the quasi-stationary long and straight edge of the PSCs.

19

## 20 **1. Introduction**

21 Polar Stratospheric Clouds (PSCs) are a common phenomenon during Arctic and Antarctic  
22 wintertime. Their formation requires the stratospheric temperature to fall below ~ 195K (see e.g.  
23 Browell et al., 1990; Tabazadeh et al., 1994; Larsen et al., 1997). The formation temperature is  
24 usually only reached inside the polar vortex. Temperatures over the Arctic tend to be higher than  
25 over Antarctica since the Arctic vortex is more unstable. Therefore PSCs occur more frequently  
26 over Antarctica (Maturilli et al., 2005; Tilmes et al., 2006; Spang et al., 2016). This also means that

27 PSC formation in the Arctic is more strongly influenced by atmospheric disturbances such as waves  
28 (Carslaw et al., 1998; Kohma and Sato, 2011; Alexander et al., 2013). Sources for waves can be  
29 wind shear in the troposphere (e.g. the polar jet stream) or topographic features like ridges or  
30 mountain chains. One well-known, and well-documented source in Northern Europe is the  
31 Scandinavian Mountain Range (see e.g. Dörnbrack and Leutbecher, 2001; Blum et al., 2004;  
32 Kirkwood et al., 2010; Kaifler et al., 2017). Waves originating at the mountain range are known to  
33 produce temperature modulations due to vertical motion of air which allow the formation of PSCs  
34 at certain locations downstream (Voigt et al., 2000; Dörnbrack et al., 2002).

35 In an ideal case the uniform flow across a straight mountain ridge should result in a wave-like  
36 modulation of temperature downstream, with no variations parallel to the ridge. This would lead to  
37 long crests of clouds (see e.g. Fig. 16 of Fritts and Alexander, 2003). In reality clouds in the lee of  
38 the Scandinavian Mountain Range have more complex, patchy structures. Reasons are  
39 inhomogeneities in the horizontal wind field (horizontal wind shears), either due to local  
40 topographic effects or mesoscale variations. PSCs over Kiruna have been documented  
41 photographically for many years (see [https://doi.org/10.34474/data.jmsj.133845\\*\\*.v\\*](https://doi.org/10.34474/data.jmsj.133845**.v*)  
42 and <http://data.irf.se/data/dalin2020psc>). Based on those observations it can be concluded that  
43 clouds with patchy structures are common over Kiruna, while well-defined cloud boundaries are a  
44 rare exception.

45 In the present paper we discuss an unusual case in which a PSC layer, that formed due to  
46 mountain lee waves, had an extended edge and remained stationary over a rather long period of  
47 time. In the following we will first explain the instruments and methods which are used in this  
48 study. Thereafter, the observations are described, followed by an interpretation and a summary.

49

## 50 **2. Instruments and methods**

51 This study is based on a combination of optical observations and model data. Photographic  
52 images were taken with a Canon G5 camera (resolution of 2592 x 1944 pixels) from the roof of the

53 main building of the Swedish Institute of Space Physics in Kiruna, Northern Sweden (IRF, located  
54 at 67.84°N, 20.41°E). Lidar measurements were performed with a backscatter lidar located at IRF.  
55 The lidar operates at a wavelength of 532 nm and has two detection channels to distinguish parallel  
56 and perpendicular polarisation of the backscattered light. The altitude range for observations is 5 to  
57 50 km. Height and time resolution are 30 m and 133 s, respectively (see Voelger and Nikulin (2005)  
58 for more details).

59 For interpretation of atmospheric conditions during the period of interest, simulations with the  
60 Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al., 2008) were performed. WRF  
61 allows the calculation of the state of the atmosphere on a user-defined 3D grid for chosen time  
62 steps. As input for WRF we used ERA5 reanalysis data from the European Centre for Medium-  
63 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). ERA5 data has a horizontal resolution of 31 km and 137  
64 vertical levels (Hersbach et al., 2020).

65

### 66 **3. Observational data**

67 Images of a Polar Stratospheric Cloud were taken in Kiruna (67.84°N, 20.41°E) during the  
68 afternoon of February 13<sup>th</sup>, 2017 (Fig. 1). The cloud edge was unusual in that (a) it remained at the  
69 same location for several hours (at least during the period of visual and photographic observations  
70 14-17 UT, corresponding to 15-18 LT) and (b) it was long and straight (modulated with filaments)  
71 along a line from southwest to northeast as long as about 600 km at least. Based on geographical  
72 features on the photographic images (e.g. mountains and the position of the sunset) it was possible  
73 to determine the angle between geographical north and cloud edge to be  $44^{\circ} \pm 5^{\circ}$  (Fig. 2). At the  
74 same time winds were consistently blowing from directions between north and northwest, hence  
75 approximately along the normal of the cloud edge. Wind speed at the ground was between 6 and 8  
76 m/s as recorded by IRF's weather station. Such wind conditions are favourable for the formation of  
77 mountain gravity waves on the lee side of the Scandinavian Mountain Range, i.e. on its eastern side.  
78 This strengthens the assumption that the cloud frontal shape is a result of mountain gravity waves.

79 During the following night IRFø's backscatter lidar was performing measurements 1 km south of  
 80 the location where the photos were taken. The lidar operated from 17 UT until next morning 04:45  
 81 UT. Backscatter signals with both parallel and perpendicular polarisation were recorded. During the  
 82 whole observation period a cloud layer was present in the stratosphere between 24 and 27 km  
 83 altitude (Fig. 3). In lidar measurements PSCs can be characterized by (a) the depolarisation ratio  
 84  $= I_{perp} / I_{par}$  with  $I$  being the measured backscatter intensity of the parallel and perpendicular  
 85 channel, respectively, and (b) the backscatter ratio  $R$ , defined as  $R = ( \beta_{psc} + \beta_{mol} ) / \beta_{mol}$  where  $\beta$  is  
 86 the backscatter coefficient for PSCs and molecules, respectively. The combination of  $R$  and  
 87 allows for the determination of the chemical composition of the cloud (see Browell et al., 1990 for  
 88 details). In the case discussed here the combination of both large backscatter ratio and large  
 89 depolarisation ratio indicated that the cloud consisted of ice particles. Over Northern Scandinavia  
 90 such clouds most times only are formed in connection with mountain gravity waves (Blum et al.,  
 91 2005).

92

#### 93 4. Data Analysis

94 In order to put our local observations in a regional context we examined atmospheric conditions  
 95 with help of WRF simulations. The model grid covered the northern part of Fennoscandia with 5.4  
 96 km distance between horizontal grid points and 160 height levels up to 10 hPa (see Fig. 2 for area  
 97 covered by grid). Simulations were performed for a period of 96 hours, starting 48 hours before the  
 98 photos were taken. Time resolution of output was set to 10 min.

99 Figure 4 shows simulated wind and temperature fields at 25 km altitude for times 12 and 18 UT  
 100 on date 13/02/17 and at 00 UT on date 14/02/17, as derived with WRF. During all three times wind  
 101 directions north of 65°N were roughly perpendicular to the Scandinavian Mountain Range. Both  
 102 wind speed and direction changed only marginally during this period. The wind field induced a  
 103 wavelike horizontal quasi-stationary motion which resulted in a perturbation of the temperature  
 104 field above and in the lee of the mountains. The position and orientation of the main temperature

105 minimum just behind the mountains corresponds well to the position of the PSC edge at 12 UT and  
106 18 UT on February 13<sup>th</sup>, 2017. The orientation of the temperature minimum at 00 UT on February  
107 14<sup>th</sup> corresponds less to the orientation of the PSC edge. Visual observation of the development of  
108 the cloud edge was not possible at that time of the day due to darkness. However, our lidar  
109 observations proved the continuing presence of a PSC layer. Additionally, the spaceborne lidar  
110 CALIOP detected a PSC at approximately 69°N, 29°E while passing the Gulf of Bothnia east of  
111 Kiruna during that night, shortly after 01 UT.

112 A commonly used indicator for the vertical stratification of the atmosphere is the buoyancy  
113 frequency,  $N$ , also called the Brunt-Väisälä frequency (see e.g. Holton, 1992). Figure 5 illustrates a  
114 cross section of  $N$  through the location of the ground-based observations and along the wind  
115 direction at 18 UT. One can see that the first positive maximum is observed right above the  
116 mountains at about 2 km, then other maxima occur at 14, 27-28, 37-39 km altitudes, hence a  
117 vertical wavelength of the main mountain wave is about 10-12 km above the Kiruna area. The  
118 upward direction of energy propagation can be seen from the vertical phase propagation directed  
119 downward relative to the mean flow (which is from the left to right in Figure 5) and westward  
120 relative to the mountains (Holton, 1992). Two buoyancy minima at 5 and 10 km as well as two  
121 maxima at 14 and 28 km are directed westward relative to the mountain ridge and with height.  
122 These phase tilts provide the evidence of the upward wave energy propagation as expected since the  
123 energy source for these waves was located at the ground (mountains).

124 Figure 6 shows the temporal development of the buoyancy frequency near the mountain crest at  
125 69°N, 19°E (left panel) and in the lee of the mountains at 67.84°N, 20.41°E (right panel). Here,  
126 WRF was used to achieve better time resolution than with ERA5. At both locations vertical profiles  
127 of  $N$  remained fairly unchanged for about 24 hours showing wave-like structures. In Fig. 7 a profile  
128 for the buoyancy frequency near the mountain crest is displayed. While some temporal variation of  
129 absolute numbers does occur, the height of the features varies only marginally. Estimating the  
130 vertical length of the wave-like motion is straight forward. It was in the range of 10-12 km, both

131 above the mountain range and in the lee of the mountains where both photos were taken and lidar  
 132 measurements were performed.

133 An apparently stationary wave in the lee of a mountain is a special case of a topographic wave  
 134 (see e.g. Holton, 1992). For a wave to appear to be stationary its phase speed  $c$  has to be exactly the  
 135 opposite of the speed of the mean flow  $\bar{u}$ . The dispersion relation for a stationary wave is then

$$136 \quad 0 = \bar{u} \pm \frac{N}{\sqrt{k^2 + m^2}} \quad (1)$$

137 Here,  $N$  is the buoyancy frequency,  $k$  and  $m$  are horizontal and vertical wavenumber, respectively.

138 Note that Figure 4 demonstrates the background wind which is quasi perpendicular to the PSC edge  
 139 hence is almost parallel to the  $k$  vector. The equation can be simplified to

$$140 \quad m^2 = \frac{N^2}{\bar{u}^2} - k^2 \quad (2)$$

141 In our case the horizontal wavelength is longer than 200 km as one can see in Figure 4, hence

142  $k < N / \bar{u}$ . For a wave with a vertical wavelength of 12 km to be created the horizontal wind speed  
 143 needs to be  $\sim 40$  m/s. This means that the stationary wave was created at an altitude range where  
 144 horizontal wind speed is around that value, i.e. in the lower troposphere right above the mountains  
 145 as demonstrated in Fig. 8. Figure 8 illustrates that the horizontal wind speed was varying around 40  
 146 m/s in the range of 35-45 m/s between 2 and 15 km. Small amplitude modulations of the mean wind  
 147 speed between 5 and 15 km are also seen due to interference with small-scale gravity waves. These  
 148 small-scale modulations are also reproduced in the buoyancy frequency between 6 and 13 km seen  
 149 in Fig. 7. Since the vertical wavelength  $m$  is a function of both the buoyancy frequency and mean  
 150 wind speed (see Eq. 2),  $m$  might slightly change due to these small variations. However, the main  
 151 period of the vertical wavelength of 10-12 km is unchanged and is clearly seen both in the  
 152 buoyancy frequency (Fig. 7) and in the horizontal wind speed (Fig. 8) between 3 and 13 km. Note  
 153 that the horizontal wind speed, along the horizontal wavenumber vector, does not approach to zero  
 154 meaning that there were no any critical levels for mountain gravity waves propagating from the  
 155 ground to the PSC altitude. The created mountain wave induced its own variations on the horizontal





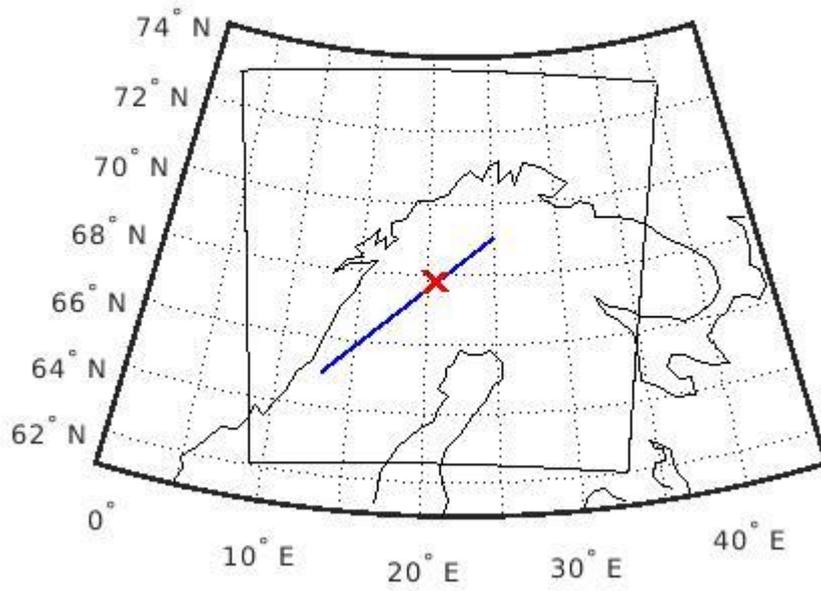




282 **Figures**

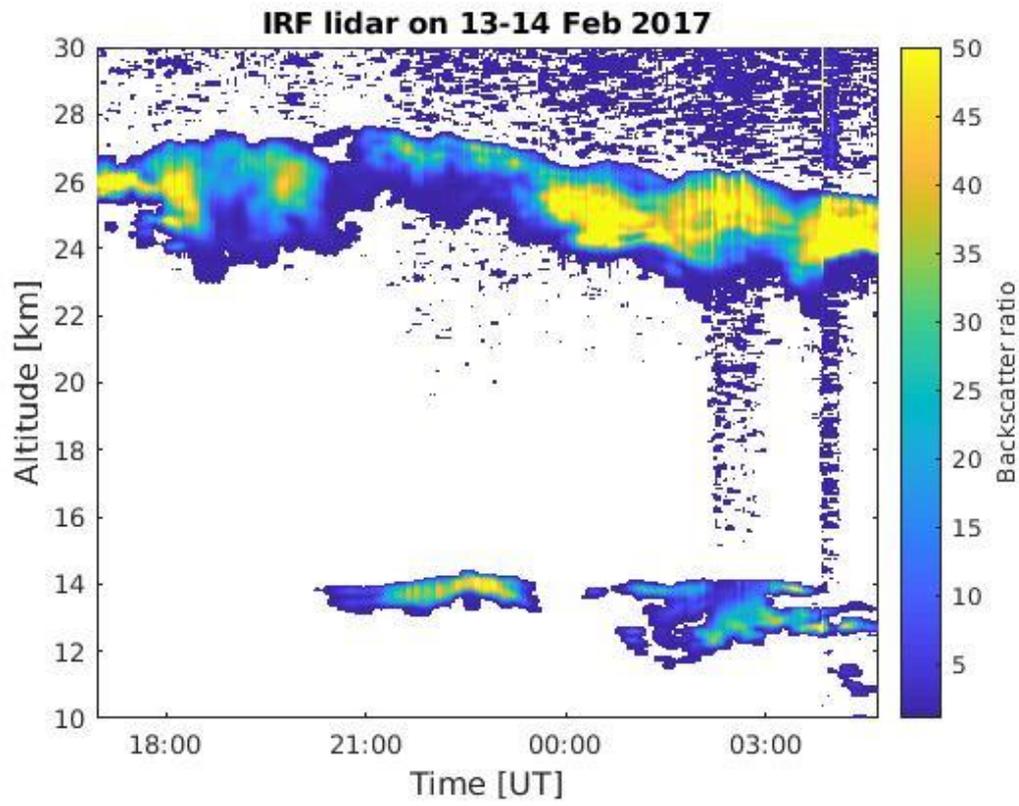
283

284 **Figure 1.**



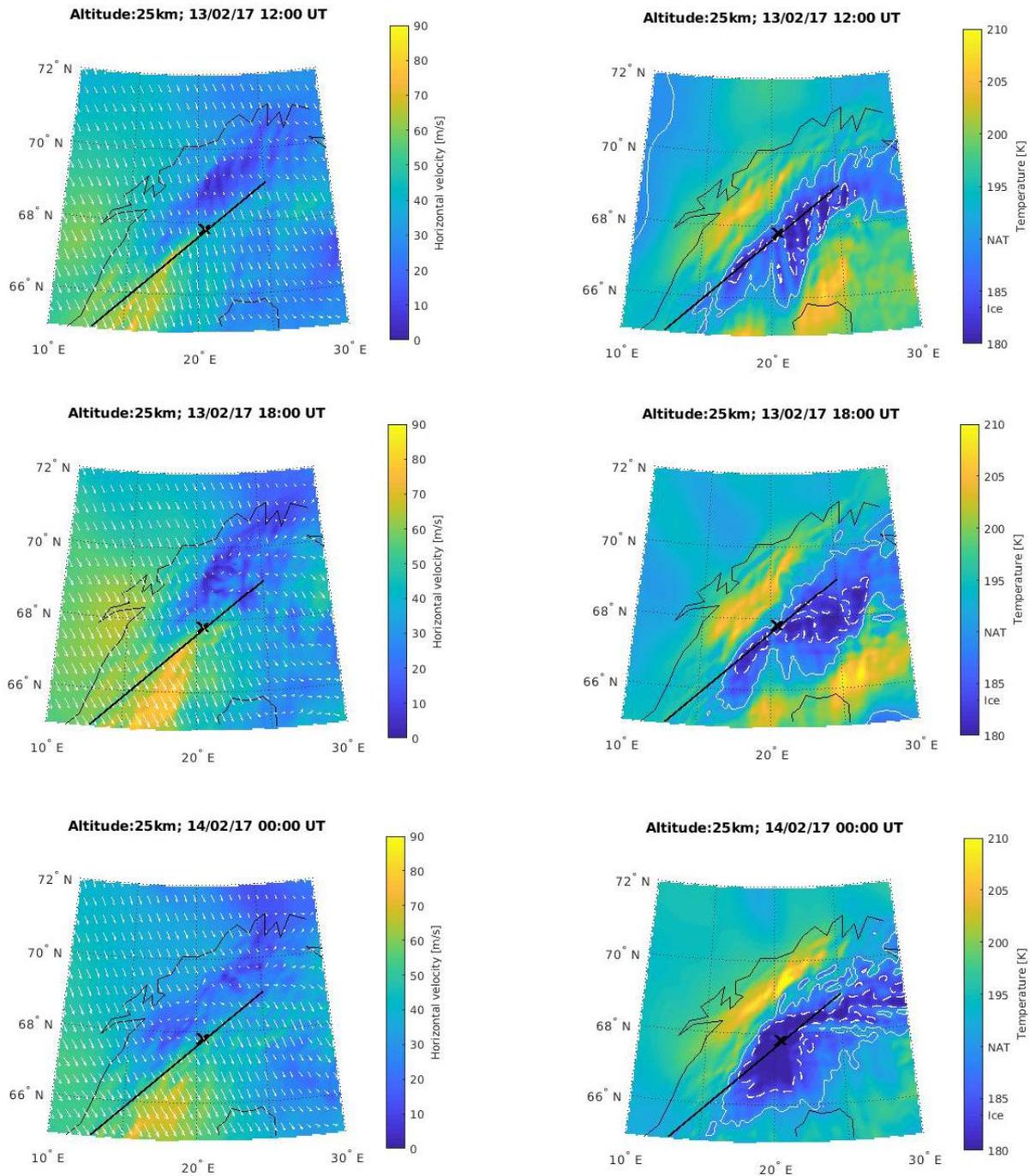
285

286 **Figure 2.**



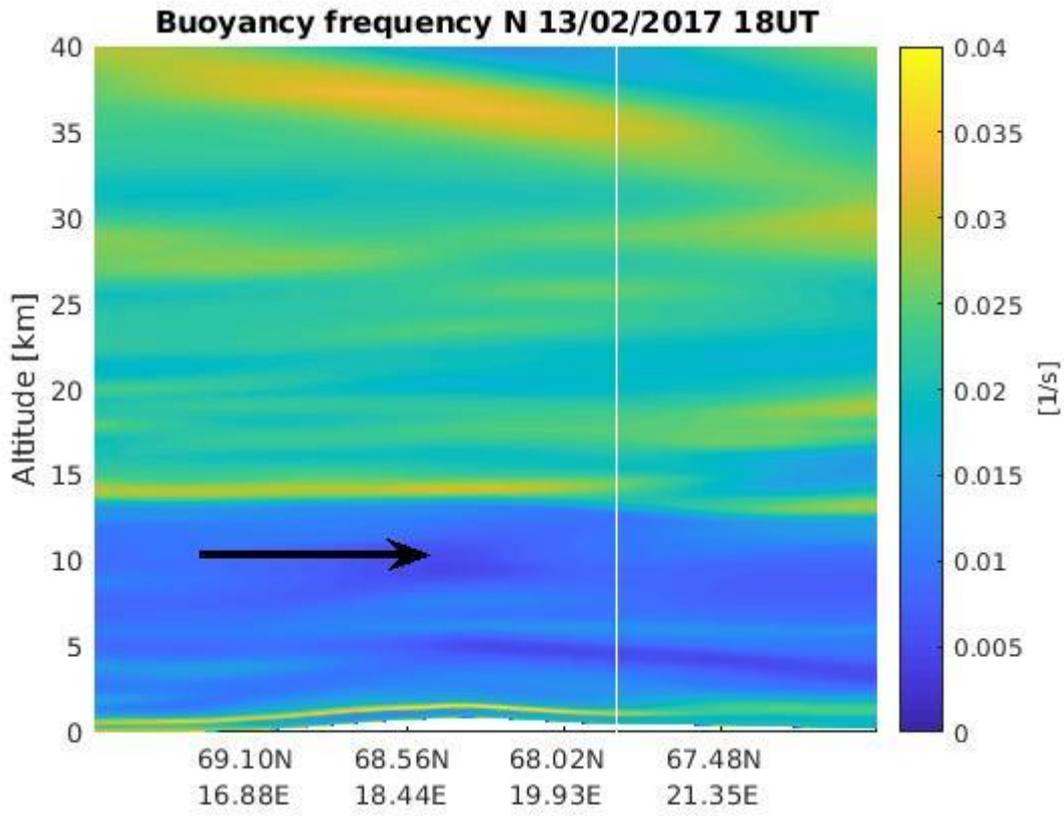
287

288 **Figure 3.**

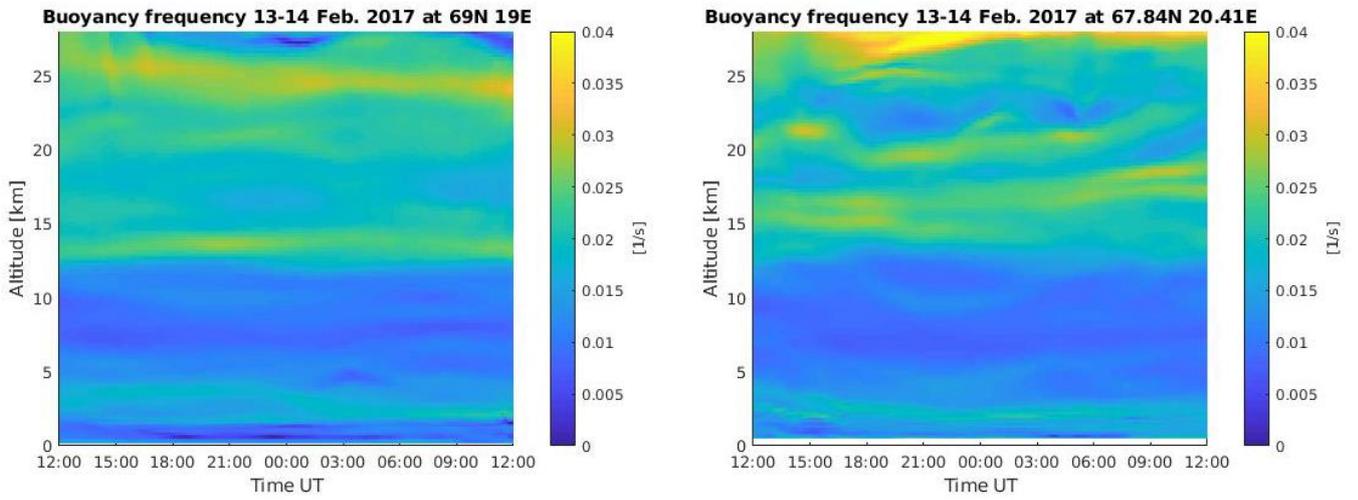


289

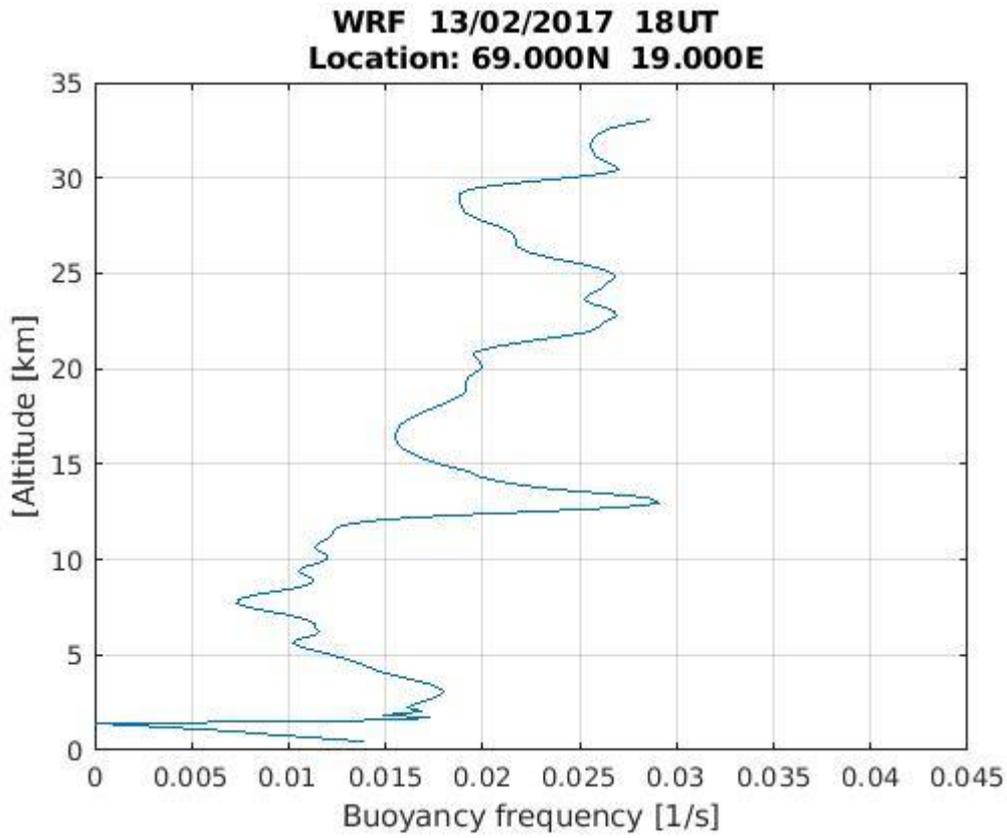
290 **Figure 4.**



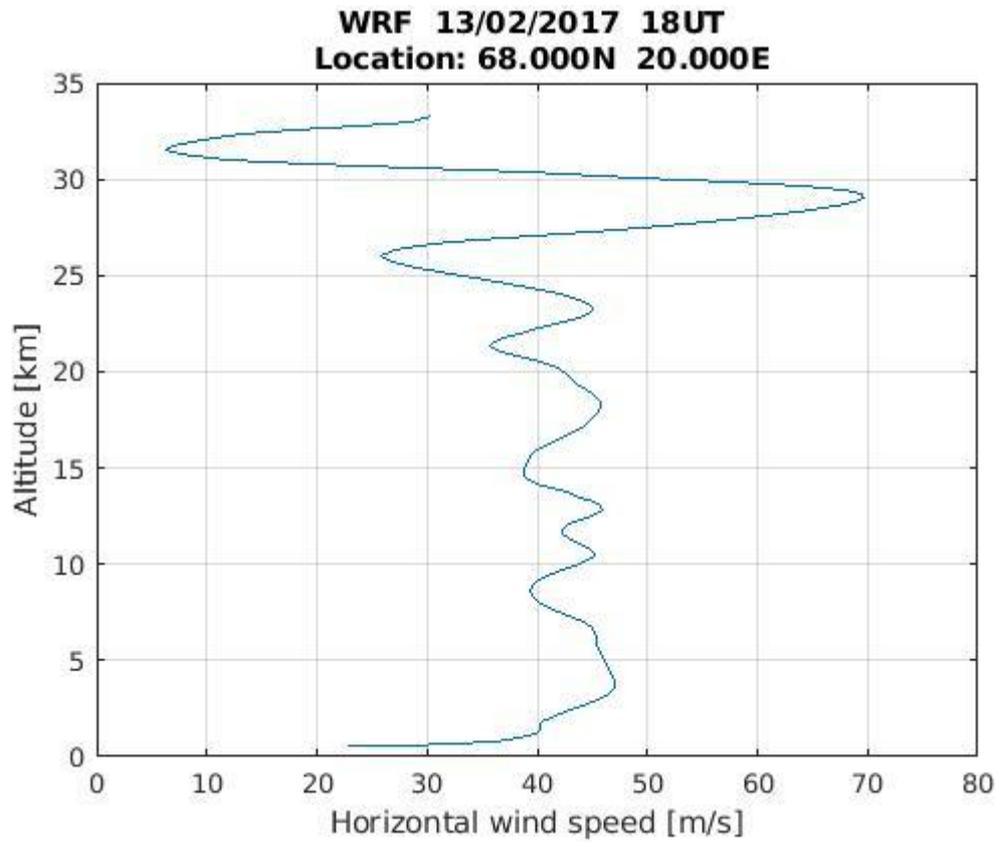
291  
292 **Figure 5.**  
293



294  
295 **Figure 6.**



296  
297 **Figure 7.**  
298



299  
300 **Figure 8.**  
301