Responses to Reviewers of acp-2015-382 "Controlled meteorological (CMET) free balloon profiling of the Arctic atmospheric boundary layer around Spitsbergen"

4 T.J. Roberts, M. Dütsch, L. R. Hole, P. Voss

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6 We thank the two anonymous referees and GJ Steeneveld for their reviews and comments. 7 These have greatly helped us revise the manuscript. We have refocused the manuscript 8 scope following the comment of Anonymous Referee #3 to no longer include the WRF 9 simulations that had some issues. Rather we compare the CMET measurements to the ERA-I 10 reanalysis product and to a new high resolution (15 km) Arctic System Reanalysis. The main 11 focus of the manuscript is the same: demonstrating the CMET balloons with in-flight 12 repeated soundings as a new technology to probe the remote Arctic troposphere and 13 boundary layer. The major science change we have made is about the model output used to 14 compare to the CMET observations. The text has been updated accordingly. The structure is: 15

- 16 Title
- 17 Abstract
- 18 1 Introduction
- 19 2. Methods:
- 20 2.1 CMET balloon and payload description
- 21 2.2 Balloon Launches in Svalbard
- 22 2.3 Model reanalyses produces ERA-I and ASR
- 23 3. Results and Discussion
- 24 3.1 Meteorological conditions during the campaign
- 25 3.2 CMET profiles over sea-ice compared to ERA-I and ASR
- 26 3.3 CMET profiles in coastal area compared to ERA-I and ASR
- 27 3.4 CMET soundings in detail: decoupled flows and wind-field estimation
- 28 3.5 Discussion: ASR and ERA-I model reanalyses in comparison to CMET
- 29 4 Conclusions
- 30

31 Below we write our responses to the reviewer comments followed by track-changes 32 illustration of all changes made to the manuscript. Given the improvements made, several 33 sections of text have been re-written to reflect the revised focus. Specific improvements to 34 the figures include: comparison between 4-D interpolated ASR & ERA-I model data and 35 CMET observations, which is more instructive than the simple transects presented for WRF 36 previously. Spatial maps of surface temperature and humidity over the course of the day (JD 37 131) are also presented to enable visual distinction between diurnal effects and advection, 38 presented as part of the discussion. The wind-roses have been corrected for an error in the 39 original figures (that the software does not automatically calculate from due North, as might 40 be expected). The Ny-Alesund time-series is now presented using publically available minute 41 data rather than 6-hrly averaged data presented previously. Figures have also been 42 improved for general clarity, and size of fonts. 43

1 Anonymous Referee #3

2

3 This paper presents the use of a new balloon technology to obtain numerous vertical

- 4 soundings during a flight, an extremely useful tool for improving knowledge of weather
- 5 with links to to climate in the Arctic region. Then, the balloon data is compared with the
- 6 regional weather model WRF run during the same period. The strength of this paper
- 7 is the measurements, there are some concerns about the WRF modeling that make it
- 8 difficult to draw conclusions about the model performance as already pointed out by the
- 9 short comment by GJ Steeneveld. This is a really interesting and exciting measurement
- 10 technique and upon addressing the major and minor comments, the paper should be 11 accepted as it's well within the scope of ACP.
- 12 We thank the reviewer for their detailed reading of the manuscript and useful comments.
- 13 We appreciate the concerns expressed on the modelling aspect of the manuscript and have
- 14 undertaken revisions to improve on these issues as described below.
- 15
- 16 Major comments:
- 17 Recently a large problem in the surface skin temperature for the Noah Land Surface
- 18 Model (LSM) over snow/ice was discovered and corrected in the most recent
- 19 version of WRF (see comments for most recent WRF release 3.7.1 found online
- 20 http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/wrfv3.7/updates-3.7.1.html). This issue combined
- 21 with the issue pointed for the YSU boundary layer scheme (noted in the short
- 22 comment by GJ Steeneveld) make it clear that the model should be re-run and compared
- 23 with the CMET data using the most recent WRF version, where these bugs have
- 24 been corrected. In addition, the authors note they did not use fractional sea ice, which
- 25 is currently commonly used for runs in the Arctic region. Finally, the authors didn't use
- 26 any type of restart or nudging for the outer domain, which is also commonly used to
- 27 ensure large scale meteorological features don't diverge from ECMWF.
- 28
- 29 Rather than fixing all of these issues with the WRF run, it would be easier (and possibly
- 30 even more convincing) for the authors to focus on the measurements and compare
- 31 the CMET results with the meteorological forecast provided by ECMWF directly (currently
- 32 these are used as the boundary conditions and initial conditions for their WRF
- run). Then, the authors can focus on the measurements and how they compare with
- 34 ECMWF, the meteorological features that determine the balloon movement, and where

- 1 the measurements and ECMWF do not agree, pointing to where the model can be
- 2 improved in the future.

3 We thank the reviewer for this advice which we have taken. We compare the CMET data to 4 ECMWF ERA-I reanalysis model level data. However, this is quite coarse resolution (~80 km, 5 even if we downloaded it at higher resolution – this is simply interpolated from the parent 6 model data). We therefore also chose to compare to a very new reanalysis product (Arctic 7 System Reanalysis: ASR) at high horizontal (15 km) and vertical resolution (about double the 8 number of model levels in lower troposphere compared to ERA-I). The revised manuscript 9 focus is on presenting the CMET technology for automated soundings into the Arctic BL and 10 comparing the CMET observations from two flights to 4-D interpolated model data from two 11 reanalyses. The revised manuscript first discusses the meteorological conditions of the 12 study then compares the CMET observations with 4D interpolated model data for two flights 13 that made automated/repeated soundings into the ABL. We discuss possible reasons for 14 differences in the model outputs and also present detailed analysis of CMET flight to derive 15 wind-fields.

16

We appreciate the concerns expressed with the original WRF modelling that is no longer include in the revised manuscript, instead we compare CMET to ERA-I and ASR outputs. For a future follow-up WRF study we will follow these recommendations. Regarding this study: we note that both ERA-I and ASR include fractional sea-ice (sea-ice description is most detailed in ASR). ASR uses Polar WRF 3.3.1 with MYNN boundary layer scheme (Bromwich et al., 2012), rather than YSU which was reported to have a bug. ASR includes nudging above 100

- 23 hPa. The use of data assimilation will also help to constrain the model.
- 24 Regarding the recently discovered bug in surface skin temperature for LSM over snow/ice: it
- 25 is possible that this bug is also present in ASR. Nevertheless, our comparison of ASR to CMET
- 26 flight 4 seems relatively good suggesting this bug was not critical in this case.
- 27
- 28 The paper will be much stronger if the authors use the data to evaluate and improve
- 29 WRF in a second paper mostly focused on modeling.
- 30 We agree and do consider a possible follow-up sensitivity study to compare CMET balloon
- 31 flights to (polar) WFR using a range of boundary layer schemes/surface schemes.
- 32

33 Minor comments:

- 34 The paper should be re-edited for clarity and wording
- We have taken care to carefully revise the manuscript to make it clear. Given the majorchange in the modelling part there are sections of text that are completely reworded.
- 37 I would suggest to move the meteorological overview from the supplement into the main
- 38 text of the paper.
- 39 This has been moved to the start of the Results section.
- 40 A few more details of how Figure 12 was generated and some more discussion of

1 what this figure shows are needed.

We agree this figure was not well enough described in the original ms and have improved
the description and included views of the 3D Figure from multiple angles. Please see
response to reviewer 2 below.

5

6

7 Anonymous Referee #2

- 8 The paper compares model simulations carried out using a mesoscale meteorological
- 9 model, with resolution down to 1 km, with observations from controlled meteorological
- 10 balloons. This comparison bears on the polar atmospheric boundary layer, the balloons
- 11 being laucnhed from Svalbard. The outcome demonstrates that the model fails
- 12 to reproduce many characteristics of the observaed boundary layer. The balloon technology
- 13 used is new and makes it possible to obtain numerous vertical soundings along
- 14 a flight. This study is of interest both because it is a demonstration of the usefulness of
- 15 these controlled meteorological balloons and because it shows the deificiencies of the
- 16 mesoscale model at these high latitudes and in the presence of complex terrain and of
- 17 fractional sea-ice. The paper is clearly written, the conclusions are well supported. I
- 18 recommend publication after a minor revision.
- 19 We thank the reviewer for their detailed reading of the manuscript and useful comments.
- 20
- 21 Major points:
- 1. CMET balloons are a new technology and this paper is an important demonstration
- 23 of the possibilities that these balloons offer for investigating the Boundary Layer. As
- 24 they are new, it would be useful to give some more description of the balloons, their
- 25 design and principle, and the implementation. At present, there are a few sentences
- 26 at the top of p27543. We understand or imagine what the balloons may be. It would
- 27 be best to give more details (principle, autonomy, timescales for a vertical sounding,
- ascent/descent rates, range of altitudes that can be sampled...). Of course, this is
- 29 certainly described in Voss et al, 2013; but a few sentences in the present paper would
- 30 make it more self-sufficient...
- Detailed text has been added to Methods to describe the balloon design, principle ofoperation and the different sensors.
- 33 "Controlled Meteorological (CMET) balloons can fly for multiple days in the troposphere with
- 34 altitude controlled via satellite link (Voss et al., 2012). Altitude control is achieved by the
- 35 dual balloon design (high-pressure inner and low pressure outer balloon) between which

helium is transferred by a miniature pump-valve system. Commands sent through an Iridium

2 satellite link can set target altitude (typically 0-3500 m), control band (~50 - 500 m with the

3 higher band using less power), vertical velocity (~0.5 - 1.5 m/s), termination countdown

4 timer, and numerous other operational parameters. For this study, a new capacity was

5 added to perform automated soundings between two specified pressure altitudes.

The 215-gram CMET payload (excluding balloon envelopes) includes the control electronics,
GPS receiver, satellite modem, pump-valve system, lithium polymer battery, photovoltaic
panel, aspirated T-RH sensor, and a vacuum-insulated pouch for the payload. The payload

9 temperature is maintained within acceptable operating limits (typically +20 $^\circ$ C above

10 ambient) even at altitudes of several kilometres in the Arctic.

An aviation-grade pressure sensor (Freescale MPXH6115A) coupled to a 16-bit analog-todigital converter (Analog Devices AD7795) provides altitude information to the balloon's control algorithm every 10 seconds during flight. As part of data post-processing, this pressure-derived altitude is corrected for pressure offsets using the in-flight GPS altitude (Inventek ISM300X). GPS latitude and longitude provide the in-flight CMET coordinates and are also further analysed post-flight to determine wind speeds in eastward (U) and porthward (U) directions

17 northward (V) directions.

18 Temperature is measured using a thermistor (General Electric MC65F103A) in a 10k-Ohm

19 divider circuit coupled to the aforementioned analog-to-digital converter. A capacitance

humidity sensor (G-TUCN.34 from UPSI, covering 2 to 98 % RH range over -40° C to + 85° C)

21 generates a signal which is a function of the ambient relative humidity (RH) with respect to

- water. Relative humidity was converted to specific humidity (Q) for comparison to the ERA-I
- and ASR model outputs.

24 CMETs are easy to launch (requiring just 1-2 people with standard meteorological balloon

25 skills: launches have been achieved under a wide range of surface winds to date) and are

similar in size to a standard meteorological balloon. Further details of the CMET balloon,
payload design and balloon flight engineering are described by Voss et al. (2012)."

28 2. The relative performances of the three ABL schemes used are not sufficiently described;

- 29 the main conclusion insists that the three are fairly close together, and far from
- 30 the observations, indicating that there is work yet to be done in understanding and
- 31 modeling the polar ABL. Fine. Nonetheless, in the frame of the present study, were

32 there some aspects which seemed better described with one scheme rather than the

33 others?

34 We agree with the reviewer's comment that more information on the WRF schemes would

35 be have been useful, as part of their discussion compared to CMET. Note that the revised ms

36 no longer includes WRF, instead compares the CMET observations to two reanalyses (ASR

and ERA-I). Care has been taken to describe these reanalyses products in Methods. In the

conclusions we discuss that the higher vertical and horizontal resolution of ASR compared to
 ERA-I is probably important. We discuss that a follow-up WRF study might test e.g. different

40 boundary layer schemes.

41 Minor points: p27540, line 11: useful to add preicison on finest resolution: 'nested

- 1 grids down to 1 km'
- 2 This test no longer exists in the revised ms. We do describe the resolution of the two model
- 3 reanalyses products in Methods. Our study indicates that resolution is likely an important
- 4 aspect of model performance.
- 5 p27541, line 9: remove comma: 'processes, is' -> 'pocesses is' (commas around 'however'
- 6 could also be removed)
- 7 Text updated.
- 8 p27542, lines 9-20: make a table perhaps (type of instrument, number of observations,
- 9 publication..)? This sentence is not readable.
- 10 This paragraph on previous WRF studies no longer exists in the revised version. We agree
- 11 that the original sentence was too long and a Table would be needed for long lists of studies.
- 12 p27543, line 2: commanded -> command
- 13 Text updated.
- 14 p27543, line 17: 'nunatak' will not be understood by many readers I expect; it may be
- 15 justified to leave as is (and motivated readers will learn a new word...) or to change to
- 16 something like "topographically induced convection", although less precise...
- 17 This text has been shortened in the new manuscript so nunatak is no longer mentioned.
- 18 p27546, line 22: 'Gulf Stream' -> North Atlantic Drift rather...
- 19 Corrected to North Atlantic Drift.
- 20 p27547, line 3: 'cumulus convection was neglected' -> 'the cumulus convection scheme
- 21 was unused'
- 22 This text no longer exists given the revised ms scope.
- 23 p27548, line 2: become -> became line 3: 'given occurence of' -> 'due to the presence
- 24 of'?
- 25 Corrected.
- 26 p27566, figure 5: fonts are too small
- 27 Care has been taken that all figures now have reasonable sized fonts.
- 28 p27568, figure 7: bottom right panel: for the direction, could the authors use or set up
- a color table that is periodic (ie the color for 360 should be the same as that for 0, eg
- 30 by setting up the colormap twice, head to tail (there would be an inconvenient: a 180
- 31 degree ambiguity as each color would correspond to 2 angles) or by creating a periodic
- 32 color table (eg blue to green to yellow to red to purple to blue)
- 33 This has been corrected to a periodic colorscheme for winddirection.
- 34 p27570, figure 9: color map should be the same for all three panels in each column

- 1 (see column 1, middel panel)
- 2 Care has been taken to ensure the revised figure panels now all have the same colormap.
- 3 p27570-1, figure 9, 11: it is somewhat misleading to show observations from the whole
- 4 flight and a cross section at only one given time on the same plot. Perhaps the observations
- 5 should be restricted to those within +/- 4 hours of the cross section
- 6 We agree this was not the best way to present and compare CMET and model data. We now
- 7 perform full 4D interpolations (latitude, longitude, pressure, time) of the model data to the
- 8 CMET balloon location in order to compare directly to the CMET observations. We present
- 9 model output across a range of pressures (i.e. vertical transect at the CMET location) to aid
- 10 interpretation of the observed and modelled along-flight meteorology.
- 11 p27573, figure 12 is difficult to read. This is perhaps an attempt to show too much
- 12 information on one figure. The trajectories launched from a given height (black lines)
- 13 seem fairly regular. Perhaps the authors could obtain a figure that is easier to read by
- 14 showing only the balloon track and the final positions?
- 15 We agree that this is a complex figure and it wasn't described clearly enough. The wind-field
- 16 was estimated from one CMET balloon flight, and the figure shows this flight, the starting
- 17 point of the calculation, and wind-fields at regular altitude intervals that are calculated using
- 18 wind-vectors from the balloon soundings. We now show the figure from three different
- angles to make it easier to understand. (we experimented with using different colors but
- 20 found it did not help much). We also improve the text that describes the figure.
- The new Figure caption reads: "Figure 12. Wind-field calculated from the CMET balloon flight 5. Air parcel trajectories are calculated over an eight hour period for each 50 m altitude layer according to the winds observed by the CMET soundings. The red line shows the actual balloon track, the black vertical line shows the initialization of the calculation, and the derived air parcel trajectories (wind field grid) are shown in gray. The blue line shows the final locations after eight hours."
- 27 The new text reads: "Wind-fields are estimated from the CMET balloon 5 flight path 28 for an 8-hour period starting in the early morning of 11 May, Figure 12. As per previous 29 figures, the CMET balloon movement during the soundings has been used to estimate wind-30 speed and direction. Here, wind-trajectories are derived from the observed winds at 50 m 31 altitude intervals for each up or down profile. The trajectory vectors (of length proportional 32 to the wind-speed × time elapsed between soundings) are placed end-to-end to estimate the 33 wind-field, shown in Figure 15 (gray mesh) alongside the CMET flight (red). This approximate 34 technique assumes horizontally uniform flow (in the vicinity of the balloon and computed 35 trajectories). The lowermost layer exhibited greatest wind-speed thus has the longest (and 36 least certain) trajectory, approximately double that of the balloon during the same period. 37 The uppermost layer flows southwards before reversing direction, approximately returning 38 to its initial position at 600 m altitude. The middle layer trajectory is quite similar to that of 39 the overall CMET balloon flight ... "
- 40
- 41

1 Comment by GJ Steeneveld

- 2
- 3 This is an interesting study that documents the WRF model performance against a new
- 4 measurement technique for the challenging Arctic region.
- 5 Just two remarks:
- 6 -In the study you use the WRF 3.3.1 version. It is known that WRF versions older than
- 7 the release 3.4.1 is suffering from a bug in the YSU scheme concerning the stable boundary
- 8 layer. It appeared that the stability was not correctly activated. This results
- 9 in too deep stable boundary layers, with low levels jets that are too much diluted (thick
- 10 and low wind speeds). These have been documented in
- 11 Sterk, H. A. M., G. J. Steeneveld, and A. A. M. Holtslag (2013), The role of snowsurface
- 12 coupling, radiation, and turbulent mixing in modeling a stable boundary layer
- 13 over Arctic sea ice, J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 118, 1199–1217, doi:10.1002/jgrd.50158
- 14 Sterk, H.A.M., G. J. Steeneveld, T. Vihma, P. S. Anderson, F. C. Bosveld, A. A. M.
- 15 Holtslag, Clear-sky stable boundary layers with low winds over snow-covered surfaces.
- 16 Part 1: WRF model evaluation, Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society,
- 17 2015, 141, 691, 2165.
- 18 Xiao-Ming Hu, Petra M. Klein, Ming Xue, Evaluation of the updated YSU planetary
- 19 boundary layer scheme within WRF for wind resource and air quality assessments,
- 20 Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 2013, 118, 18, 10,490
- 21 Although I believe the model biases that are shown also are the result of other aspects
- 22 of the modelling effort, perhaps it is worth checking.
- 23 We thank GJ Steeneveld for highlighting these issues with WRF 3.3.1. In response to this and
- 24 reviewer comments we changed our manuscript to now instead compare the CMET to ERA-I
- 25 and ASR reanalysis data in this study. We will certainly take the comments about WRF into
- 26 account for future follow-up studies using (polar) WRF.
- 27 -A second question is related to the land/snow-atmosphere coupling. The representation
- 28 of the complex process of how to represent the heat and moisture transport from
- 29 the subsurface and the land surface to the atmosphere is crucial. Do the model results
- 30 remain the same in case another land-surface scheme is used?
- 31 We did not test different land-surface schemes with WRF, but we agree with the reviewer's
- 32 comment that this can be important influence on the near-surface atmospheric conditions.
- 33 This question should be considered in any follow-up sensitivity study using WRF. For this
- 34 study our revised manuscript now compares CMET to ERA-I and ASR instead of WRF.
- 35

Controlled meteorological (CMET) <u>free</u> balloon profiling of
 the Arctic atmospheric boundary layer around Spitsbergen,
 compared to <u>a mesoscale modelERA-Interim and Arctic</u>
 <u>System Reanalyses</u>

5

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14

15 Abstract

16 Observations from CMET (Controlled Meteorological) balloons are analyzed in combination with mesoscale model simulations to provide insights into tropospheric meteorological 17 conditions (temperature, humidity, wind speedwinds) around Svalbard, European High 18 19 Arctic. Five Controlled Meteorological (CMET) balloons were launched from Ny-Ålesund in 20 Svalbard (Spitsbergen Island) over 5-12 May 2011, and measured vertical atmospheric 21 profiles-above Spitsbergen Island and over coastal areas to both the east and west. One 22 notable CMET flight achieved a suite of 18 continuous soundings that probed the Arctic 23 marine boundary layer over a period of more than 10 hours. The CMET profiles are compared 24 to simulations using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model using nested grids 25 and three different boundary layer schemes. Variability between the three model schemes was typically smaller than the discrepancies between the model runs and the observations. Over 26 27 Spitsbergen, the CMET flights identified temperature inversions and low-level jets (LLJ) that 28 were not captured by the model. Nevertheless, the model largely reproduced time series

obtained from the Ny-Ålesund meteorological station, with exception of surface winds during 1 2 the LLJ. Over sea-ice east of Svalbard the model underestimated potential temperature and overestimated wind-speed compared to the CMET observations. This is most likely due to the 3 full sea ice coverage assumed by the model, and consequent underestimation of ocean-4 5 atmosphere exchange in the presence of leads or fractional coverage. The suite of continuous CMET soundings over a sea-ice free region to the northwest of Svalbard are analysed 6 7 spatially and temporally, and compared to the model. The observed along-flight daytime 8 increase in relative humidity is interpreted in terms of the diurnal cycle, and in the context of 9 marine and terrestrial air-mass influences. Analysis of the balloon trajectory during the CMET soundings identifies strong wind-shear, with a low-level channeled flow. The study 10 11 highlights the challenges of modelling the Arctic atmosphere, especially in coastal zones with varying topography, sea-ice and surface conditions. In this context, CMET balloons provide a 12 13 valuable technology for profiling the free atmosphere and boundary layer in remote regions where few other(ABL) over a period of more than 10 hours. Profiles from two CMET flights 14 are compared to model output from ECMWF Era-Interim reanalysis (ERA-I), and to a high 15 16 resolution (15 km) Arctic System Reanalysis (ASR) product. To the east of Svalbard over 17 sea-ice the CMET observed a stable ABL profile with a temperature inversion that was reproduced by ASR but not captured by ERA-I. In a coastal ice-free region to the west of 18 19 Svalbard the CMET observed a stable ABL with strong wind-shear. The CMET profiles 20 document increases in ABL temperature and humidity that are broadly reproduced by both ASR and ERA-I. The ASR finds a more stably stratified ABL than observed but captured the 21 22 wind-shear in contrast to ERA-I. Detailed analysis of the coastal CMET automated soundings 23 identifies small-scale temperature and humidity variations with a low-level flow, and provides an estimate of local wind-fields. We demonstrate CMET balloons as a valuable approach to 24 profile the free atmosphere and boundary layer in remote regions such as the Arctic where 25 26 few other in-situ observations are available for model validation.

27

28 **1** Introduction

29 The polarIn remote regions provide a challenge such as the Arctic there exists very limited in-30 situ observational data to evaluate atmospheric numerical models. Firstly, model 31 parameterisations are often adapted to and validated against lower latitudes and might not 32 necessarily be applicable to high latitude processes. Secondly, there exists limited This study <u>demonstrates CMET (Controlled Meteorological) balloons as a new approach for detailed in-</u>
 <u>situ observational data for model initialization and validation in remote polar regions. probing</u>
 <u>of the Arctic atmospheric boundary layer on local to regional scales, and compares the</u>
 observations to model reanalysis outputs.

5 Accurate representation of polar meteorology and small-scale air-sea-ice interaction 6 processes, is, however, essential for meteorological forecast models, whose comparison and 7 to observations is particularly relevant for improving understanding of understand climate in 8 the Arctic, a region undergoing rapid change (Vihma, 2014). A particular challenge is that the 9 polar The atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) in the Arctic is usually strongly stable during 10 winter, and only weakly stable to neutral during summer (Persson et al., 2002). Strong temperature inversions can occur as warmer air masses from lower latitudes are advected over 11 the cold polar air masses. This stability acts as a barrier to vertical atmospheric mixing and 12 13 exchange, and can magnify the effects of flows over small--scale topography, such as 14 channeling, channelling and katabatic flows and mountain waves, and can promote the formation of low-level jets. Further, in coastal areas,. The Barents Sea near Svalbard is 15 especially implicated in Arctic climate (Smedsrud et al., 2013). To the east of Svalbard, the 16 17 Barents Sea is typically partially covered by sea-ice during winter and spring, whilst sea-ice is typically absent in the Greenland Sea to the west of Svalbard. This is due to the northward 18 flowing warm and saline Atlantic Warm Current (AWC) or 'North Atlantic Drift' that 19 elevates temperatures along Svalbard's west coast, with a secondary branch that enters the 20 Barents Sea. The warm saline AWC releases heat to the atmosphere as it cools to sink beneath 21 22 the polar waters. The polar waters experience thermodynamic ice formation, growth and melt 23 of sea-ice, and wind- and oceanic current driven advection of sea ice that can lead to highly variable surface conditions that controlaffect air-sea exchange of heat and momentum, and 24 25 affect-the radiative balance e.g. through albedo. Snow layers Even at high sea-ice density, 26 small patches of open water amongst very close (90%-100%) or close (80-90%) drift ice tend 27 to promote sea-air exchange, enhancing both temperature and specific humidity at the surface 28 (Andreas et al., 2002). Conversely, snow deposited upon sea-ice provide a further provides an 29 insulating layer that modifies heat exchange between the ocean and the overlying atmosphere. For example, for polar winter conditions at low atmospheric temperature (e.g. -40 °C), the 30 surface temperature of open water areas is practically at the freezing point of water (-1.8 °C), 31 while the surface temperature of thick snow covered sea ice is substantially lower, being close 32 to the atmospheric temperature (e.g. -40 °C).reduces heat exchange. Hence, the heat and 33

energy fluxes to the Arctic atmospheric boundary layer can vary by up to twoseveral orders of
 magnitude, depending on the surface state (Kilpeläinen et al., 2011).

3 Thus, significant uncertainties remain in modelling Arctic meteorological variables. For 4 example, a comparison of eight different RCM (Regional Climate Model) simulations over the Western Arctic to European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) 5 6 analyses over Sept 1997- Sept 1998 found general agreement to the model ensemble mean but 7 large across-model variability, particularly in the lowest model levels (Rinke et al., 2006). 8 Direct comparisons of Arctic ABL meteorology observations to mesoscale model simulations 9 using the regional Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (in standard or 'polar' version) have also been performed. These include comparison to automatic weather stations 10 (AWS) on the Greenland ice sheet in June 2001 and December 2002 (Hines and Bromwich, 11 12 2008); to drifting ice station SHEBA meteorological measurements over the Arctic Ocean in 1997-1998 (Bromwich et al., 2009); to tower observations and radio sonde soundings in three 13 14 Svalbard (Spistbergen) fjords in winter and spring 2008 (Kilpeläinen et al., 2011); to AWS 15 stations along Kongsfjorden in Svalbard in spring 2010 (Livik, 2011); to meteorological mast measurements in Wahlenbergfjorden, Svalbard in May 2006 and April 2007 (Makiranta et al., 16 2011); to tethered balloon soundings and mast observations in Advent- and Kongsfjorden in 17 Svalbard in March April 2009 (Kilpeläinen et al., 2012), and to a remotely controlled model 18 aircraft equipped with meteorological sensors (the small unmanned meteorological observer, 19 SUMO) over Iceland and Advent valley in Svalbard (Mayer et al. (2012a;b). These studies 20 collectively found that (Polar) WRF was able to partially reproduce the meteorological 21 22 observations, typically only when operated at higher model resolution (e.g. 1 km). Sea-ice 23 was found to be particularly important at high sea air temperature differences, and occurrence of low-level jets were observed yet not always reproduced by the model. Such comparisons 24 25 between model and observations are, however, limited by the spatial scale of the field 26 observations, typically only a few km.

Model reanalyses provide temporally consistent representations of atmospheric and surface
state, and are a valuable tool to understand Arctic processes and climate. A global model
reanalysis product is ERA-Interim (ERA-I) from the European Centre for Medium-Range
Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), Dee et al. (2011). At approximately 80 km resolution ERA-I
has been widely used including for Arctic studies, e.g. Rinke et al. (2006). Recently, Arctic
System Reanalysis (ASR) products have been developed at higher resolution (15 - 30 km) and

specifically focused on high latitudes (Bromwich et al., 2016). There is an ongoing effort to 1 2 validate and compare the ASR and ERA-I reanalyses datasets. The ASR (version 1: 30 km 3 resolution) and ERA-I reanalyses exhibit comparable RMS errors for surface meteorology 4 compared to Arctic-wide collated meteorological station data (December 2006-Novemeber 5 2007), Bromwich et al. (2016). Wind-speed biases were significantly smaller in the ASRv1. North of 60 °N, ASRv1 showed smaller precipitation biases than ERA-I except during 6 7 summer. Moore et al. (2015) showed that the higher resolution ASRv1 is more able to fully 8 resolve mesoscale features in the atmosphere, such as katabatic winds, to the south-east of 9 Greenland, compared to ERA-I. Wesselen et al. (2014) compared ASRv1 and ERA-I 10 reanalyses to surface and radiosonde meteorological data obtained during a 3 week ice-drift 11 experiment in summer 2008, a period typically influenced by clouds. ERA-I was found to 12 have a systematic warm bias in lowest troposphere, whilst ASRv1 had a systematic cold bias 13 of similar magnitude. The ASR version 2 at 15 km resolution has recently been developed. 14 Moore et al. (2016) demonstrate the added value of ASRv2 compared to ASRv1 in resolving 15 topographically forced winds and capturing mesoscale spatial features around Greenland due 16 to the higher resolution. 17 In this study we compare ASRv2 (at 15 km resolution) and ERA-I to in-situ CMET balloon

18 observations in the Svalbard region during the 2011 Arctic spring. In this region in-situ 19 measurements of the boundary layer and lower troposphere are limited. Meteorological 20 stations provide continuous ground-based data and regular daily meteorological balloon profiles, but are sparsely located. In Svalbard, such datasets may be occasionally 21 22 supplemented by tethered balloon or meteorological mast observations (e.g. Mäkiranta et al., 23 2011). Intensive field-campaigns probe more remote regions of the Arctic by aircraft (e.g. Vihma et al., 2005) or by drifting ice stations e.g. Rinke et al., (2006), Tjernström et al. 24 25 (2012), but these can only be rarely undertaken due to cost. Remotely piloted aircraft systems 26 (RPAS) also known as unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV) equipped with meteorological 27 sensors provide an alternative cost-effective means to spatially probe the Arctic boundary 28 layer around Svalbard at local scales, Mayer et al. (2012a;b). However, most UAVs are 29 operated over timescales up to a few hours and over ranges typically limited to a few 10s of km. For low-altitude flights the range may be further limited if terrain blocks the signal. 30

To provide an in-situ meteorological ABL dataset covering a that samples the wider Svalbard
 Arctic region, we deployed five Controlled METeorological METeorological (CMET)

balloons, launched in May 2011 from Ny-Ålesund onin Svalbard. CMET balloons are capable 1 of performing sustained flights within the troposphere at designated altitudes, and can 2 3 takemake vertical soundings at any time during the balloon flight on commanded command via satellite link (Voss et al., 2012). The CMETs can also be configured for automated 4 5 profiling of the atmospheric boundary layer during the flight, as we demonstrate in this study. The nested dual balloon design ensures very little helium loss, enabling the balloons to make 6 7 multi-day flights. This gives the opportunity to investigate areas far away from research 8 bases, at greater spatial scales (many hundreds of kilometers from the launch point) than can 9 be obtained by line-of-sight unmanned aerial vehicle (RPAS/UAV) approaches, radio-sondes 10 or tethered balloons. Previous CMET balloon applications include The study builds upon 11 previous uses of CMET balloons to probe regional scale meteorology including atmospheric trajectories (Riddle et al. (., 2006), air-flow downwind from a city pollution source (Voss et 12 13 al. (2010), Mentzoni (2011) and Antarctic meteorology on local to regional scales (Stenmark et al. (., 2014). Voss, Hole et al. (2010) investigated 2016). Here we demonstrate the evolving 14 vertical structure of capability of CMET balloons to repeatedly make in-flight soundings 15 down to low altitudes that reach into the polluted Mexico City Area outflow by making 16 17 repeated balloon profile measurements atmospheric boundary layer. We present multiple CMET flights of long duration (up to several days) in the Arctic including a CMET 18 19 configured to make automated continuous profiling into the atmospheric boundary layer. 20 These CMET in-situ profiles of temperature, humidity and wind in the advecting outflow. Riddle et al. (2006) winds are compared to ERA-I and Mentzoni (2011) used the CMET 21 balloons as a tool to verify atmospheric trajectory models - namely FlexTra (Stohl et al., 22 23 1995) and FlexPart (Stohl et al., 1998) - in the United States and in the Arctic, respectively. 24 Stenmark et al. (2014) combined data from CMETs, ground-based and a smallASR model airplane data with WRF simulations to highlight the role of nunatak-induced convection in 25 26 Antarctica. reanalyses.

Here we compare the soundings performed during the five Svalbard balloon flights of May
2011 to simulations made using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) mesoscale
model with three different boundary layer schemes, and thereby provide insights into key
processes influencing meteorology of remote Arctic regions.

2 Methods

2.1 Observations

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4 **<u>2. Methods</u>**

5 2.1 CMET balloon and payload description

Controlled Meteorological (CMET) balloons can fly for multiple days in the troposphere with 6 7 altitude controlled via satellite link (Voss et al., 2012). Altitude control is achieved by the 8 dual balloon design (high-pressure inner and low pressure outer balloon) between which 9 helium is transferred by a miniature pump-valve system. Commands sent through an Iridium satellite link can set target altitude (typically 0-3500 m), control band (~50 - 500 m with the 10 11 higher band using less power), vertical velocity (~0.5 - 1.5 m/s), termination countdown 12 timer, and numerous other operational parameters. For this study, a new capacity was added 13 to perform automated soundings between two specified pressure altitudes.

The 215-gram CMET payload (excluding balloon envelopes) includes the control electronics,
GPS receiver, satellite modem, pump-valve system, lithium polymer battery, photovoltaic
panel, aspirated T-RH sensor, and a vacuum-insulated pouch for the payload. The payload
temperature is maintained within acceptable operating limits (typically +20 °C above
ambient) even at altitudes of several kilometres in the Arctic.

An aviation-grade pressure sensor (Freescale MPXH6115A) coupled to a 16-bit analog-todigital converter (Analog Devices AD7795) provides altitude information to the balloon's
control algorithm every 10 seconds during flight. As part of data post-processing, this
pressure-derived altitude is corrected for pressure offsets using the in-flight GPS altitude
(Inventek ISM300X). GPS latitude and longitude provide the in-flight CMET coordinates and
are also further analysed post-flight to determine wind speeds in eastward (U) and northward
(V) directions.

Temperature is measured using a thermistor (General Electric MC65F103A) in a 10k-Ohm
 divider circuit coupled to the aforementioned analog-to-digital converter. A capacitance
 humidity sensor (G-TUCN.34 from UPSI, covering 2 to 98 % RH range over -40° C to + 85°
 C) generates a signal which is a function of the ambient relative humidity (RH) with respect

to water. Relative humidity was converted to specific humidity (Q) for comparison to the
 <u>ERA-I and ASR model outputs.</u>

<u>CMETs are easy to launch (requiring just 1-2 people with standard meteorological balloon</u> <u>skills: launches have been achieved under a wide range of surface winds to date) and are</u> <u>similar in size to a standard meteorological balloon. Further details of the CMET balloon,</u> pavload design and balloon flight engineering are described by Voss et al. (2012).

8 2.2 Balloon launches in Svalbard

9 Five CMET balloons were launched from the research station of the Alfred Wegener Institute and the Polar Institute Paul Emile Victor (AWIPEV) in Ny Ålesund, over the period 5 May to 10 12 May 2011. The CMET payload included meteorological sensors for temperature, relative 11 12 humidity (RH) and pressure, as well as GPS and satellite modem for in-flight control. The CMET balloon design and control algorithms are described in detail by Voss et al. (2012). 13 Figures 1a;b show the balloon flights of the May 2011 campaign as well as two 14 meteorological sites providing additional ground-based data: the Ny-Ålesund AWI-PEV 15 station (from where the balloons were launched), and Verlegenhuken in North-East 16 Spitzbergen. (JD 125 to 132), Figure 1. Balloons 1 and 2 had short flights due to technical 17 18 issues encountered at the start of the campaign, and included only one vertical sounding each. 19 Balloon 3 flew far north and was the longest duration flight in this campaign but did not 20 perform any soundings after leaving the coastal area of Spitzbergen, thus only the vertical sounding (ascent and descent) at the very beginning of the flight is used for this 21 22 studySvalbard. Balloon 4 flew eastwards, but despite strong balloon performance needed to be terminated before encroaching Russian airspace. In addition to its vertical sounding 23 obtained shortly after launch it includes It performed two closely spaced (ascent and descent) 24 25 soundings over sea-ice in the Barents Sea, east of Svalbard. Balloon 5 undertook a 24 hr duration flight that first exited Kongsfjorden, then flew northwards along the coast. It was 26 27 placed into an automated sounding mode and measured achieved a much longer series of 18 consecutive profiles of the ABL-in automatic sounding mode, before being raised to higher 28 altitudes where winds advected it eastwards (. Voss et al., 2012). To the best of our 29 knowledge, this was the first automated sounding sequencedemonstration of a set of extended 30 31 controlled soundings made byusing a free balloon.

1 Temperature and humidity profiles were extracted from the CMET flights for model 2 comparison as indicated in Figure 1a;b, in locations over Svalbard topography, over a sea-ice 3 covered region east of Svalbard, and over a sea-ice free region west of Svalbard where 4 continuous automated soundings were performed. The capacitance humidity sensor (G-5 TUCN.34 from UPSI, covering 2 to 98 % RH range over -40° C to + 85° C) generates a signal which is a function of the ambient relative humidity (RH) with respect to water. 6 7 Humidity was therefore reported as RH over (supercooled liquid) water, which is standard procedure for atmospheric balloon-sonde measurements (even at sub-zero temperatures). 8 9 Land- and/or sea ice were, however, present for some of the campaign locations (although not during the automated soundings of flight 5 over ice-free ocean west of Svalbard). Where 10 11 present, they could promote ice deposition, thus act to lower the water saturation vapour 12 pressure. In such conditions, RH calculated over water underestimates the RH with respect to 13 ice. Nevertheless, for the relatively warm ambient surface temperatures encountered over ice during the campaign (typically a few degrees negative °C or higher) such effects are modest. 14 15 For consistency, RH over water is reported across the field campaign and is similarly 16 illustrated for the model output.

17 For comparison to two WRF nested model runs (see details below), the balloon profiles were 18 interpolated to 50m height intervals and the measurement from paired ascent/descent 19 soundings were averaged at each height. These ascent/descent profiles typically each required between 30 minutes and about one hour depending on the altitude change. These averaged 20 ascent/descent profiles were compared to WRF model output at the longitude and latitude of 21 22 the balloon location at the maximum of its ascent/descent cycle, averaged over a full hour 23 centred on the middle of the balloon profile. A more detailed analysis was made of the meteorological evolution observed during consecutive automated soundings of flight 5, by 24 25 comparing to WRF output at selected times along a transect line approximately following the CMET flight path, and geographically within the model layer corresponding to the average 26 CMET flight altitude.

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28 2.2 Numerical model implementation

Regional model simulations were performed using the Weather Research and Forecast (WRF) 29 30 version 3.3.1. It is based on non-hydrostatic and fully compressible Euler equations that are integrated along terrain following hydrostatic pressure (sigma) coordinates, see Skamarock et 31 32 al. (2008). The model was run for the simulation period from 3 May 2011 00:00 UTC to 12

May 2011 00:00 UTC allowing for a spin up time of 48 hours. An adaptive time step was 1 2 used (minimum 1 s) to avoid numerical instabilities. Three domains with a respective horizontal resolution of 9km, 3km and 1km were used, where the two inner domains both 3 4 were two-way nested to their mother domain. The domain locations are shown in Figure 2. 5 The outer domain was centered at 78.9° N, 16.5° E (78.9° N, 19.5° E for model run 2) and 6 included 114 x 94 gridpoints covering the whole Svalbard archipelago and a large part of the 7 surrounding Arctic ocean. The second domain included 175 x 184 (187 x 202) gridpoints for 8 model run 1 (model run 2) and covered the whole Svalbard archipelago, whilst the innermost 9 domain, which covered the area where the correspondent balloon profiles and timeseries were 10 measured, had 232 x 190 (253 x 202) gridpoints for model run 1 (model run 2). All three 11 domains had a high vertical resolution with 61 terrain-following sigma levels, where the 12 model top was set to 50hPa. The lowest 1000m included 19 model levels with the lowest full 13 model level at 19m. Static field data, such as topography and land use index, were provided by the US Geological Survey in a horizontal resolution of 30 arcseconds (0.9km in north-14 15 south direction). Initial and lateral boundary conditions were taken from the ECMWF operational analysis data on a 0.125° x 0.125° horizontal resolution and on 91 vertical levels, 16 17 and updated every six hours. Sea ice and sea surface temperature (SST) were taken directly 18 from the ECMWF data at the time the simulation started (3 May 2011) and remained fixed 19 during the whole simulation period, assuming full sea ice coverage for any model grid-point with positive sea-ice flag. This approach is justified by the good agreement between the 20 21 ECMWF sea-ice flag and satellite images of sea-ice coverage on 5 May, both showing dense 22 sea ice east of Svalbard (Figure 3). Conversely, to the west of Svalbard, sea ice is absent. Sea 23 surface temperatures are, as usual, higher to the west than east of Svalbard. This is due to the 24 northward flowing warm and saline Atlantic Warm Current (AWC) or 'Gulf stream' that 25 elevates temperatures along Svalbard's west coast (the AWC subsequently sinks below the 26 cold polar waters further north).

For cloud microphysics the WRF single moment 3 class simple ice scheme (Dudhia, 1989;
Hong et al., 2004) was used. Radiation was parameterised with the Rapid Radiative Transfer
Model (RRTM) longwave scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997), and the Dudhia shortwave scheme
(Dudhia, 1989). Surface fluxes were provided by the Noah Land Surface Model (LSM), a
four layer soil temperature and moisture model with snow cover prediction (Chen and
Dudhia, 2001). In the first and second domain, the Kain-Fritsch cumulus scheme (Kain, 2004)
was applied in addition, whereas in the third domain, cumulus convection was neglected.

1 Sensitivity tests were made with three different boundary layer parameterisation schemes as 2 follows: the Yonsei University (YSU) scheme (Hong et al., 2006) is a non-local first order 3 closure scheme that uses a counter gradient term in the eddy diffusion equation, and is the default ABL scheme in WRF. The Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (MYJ) scheme (Janjic, 1990, 1996, 4 5 2002) uses the local 1.5 order (level 2.5) closure Mellor-Yamada model (Mellor and Yamada, 1982), where the eddy diffusion coefficient is determined from the prognostically calculated 6 7 turbulent kinetic energy (TKE). According to Mellor and Yamada (1982), it is an appropriate 8 scheme for stable to slightly unstable flows, while errors might occur in the free convection 9 limit. The Quasi Normal Scale Elimination (QNSE) scheme (Sukoriansky et al., 2006) is, as 10 the MYJ scheme, a local 1.5 order closure scheme. In contrast to the MYJ scheme, it includes 11 scale dependence by using only partial averaging instead of scale independent Reynolds 12 averaging, and is therefore able to take into account the spatial anisotropy of turbulent flows. 13 It is thus considered especially suited for the stable ABL.

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The data analysis of this study focuses on balloon flights 4 and 5 that made repeated soundings quantifying as a function of pressure (altitude) the meteorological variables: 16 temperature (T), specific humidity (Q) and northward and eastward winds (V,U). The balloon 18 locations during these flights are shown in Figure 1. A detailed model comparison is made for 19 flight 4 over time-periods 06-12h UTC on 8 May (JD 128) and for the 24hr flight 5 (21-21h 20 UTC) on 10-11 May (JD 130-131).

2.3 Model reanalyses products ERA-I and ASR

23 The CMET observations are compared to two model reanalyses; ECMWF ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) and the Arctic System Reanalysis (Bromwich et al., 2016). ERA-I (available 24 25 from http://apps.ecmwf.int/) has approximately 80 km (T255 spectral) resolution on 60 26 vertical model levels from the surface up to 0.1 hPa, at 6 hrly resolution. The boundary layer 27 and lower troposphere (> ~800 hPa) correspond to 14 model levels. For this study, bi-linearly interpolated model level data was downloaded at 0.125° spatial resolution then further linearly 28 interpolated. ASR uses the polar-optimised version of the Weather Research and Forecasting 29 30 Model (Polar-WRF: Bromwich et al., 2009) with an inner domain that extends over latitudes >40°N, using ERA-I output as boundary conditions. ASR (version 2) has 15 km resolution on 31 70 vertical model levels from the surface up to 0.1 hPa, at 3 hrly resolution (ASR version 1 at 32

30 km resolution is used in this study only for comparison to a surface station). The boundary 1 2 layer and lower troposphere (> ~800 hPa) correspond to 30 model levels. For this study, full 3 ASRv2 model level data was made specially available by the ASR team for selected field dates. Pressure-level data for ASRv2 will soon be publically available from 4 5 http://rda.ucar.edu/. The ASR and ERA-I reanalyses were 4-D (latitude, longitude, pressure and time) interpolated to the CMET balloon for direct comparison. A main difference 6 between these two reanalyses is the much higher temporal (3 hrly) and spatial (15 km) 7 8 resolution of ASR. This provides a more highly resolved simulation of small-scale 9 meteorological processes (especially within the boundary layer) as well as topography. Another difference is that ASR Polar WRF has non-hydrostatic dynamics whilst ERA-I 10 11 pressure is hydrostatic. Both model reanalyses include assimilation of remotely sensed 12 retrievals and in-situ surface and upper air data, 4D for ERA-I and 3D for ASR. ASR uses a 13 high resolution land data assimilation system and uses Polar WRF which includes the Noah 14 land surface model and a detailed fractional sea-ice description including extent, 15 concentration, thickness, albedo and snow cover (see Bromwich et al., 2016 for details). For ERA-I surface properties are less detailed (spatially, temporally) than for ASR, but sea-ice is 16 17 also fractional and updated daily. Sea-ice concentration in ERA-I and ASR models is shown in Figure 2 for 8th May (JD 128), 18 19 the date of the CMET flight 4 soundings. Also shown is a satellite image of sea-ice coverage 20 (obtained for 5 May, JD 125). The west of Svalbard is ice-free, consistent with sea-surface 21 temperature in this region (see Introduction), whilst dense sea-ice occurs east of Svalbard. 22 The satellite image also shows some small-scale features ice-free areas (polynyas). These are not seen in the ERA-I ice-field but are represented in ASR as zones of lower ice

32 3 Results and Discussion

concentration.

27 3.12.13.1 Meteorological conditions and ground-stations compared to the 28 WRF simulation during the campaign

The period of 3-12 May 2011 was characterized by rapidly changing meteorological conditions, reflected in the different CMET flight paths (Figure <u>1a;b)1</u>). The time evolution of <u>the pressure systems driving the winds that advected the CMETs is illustrated by ERA-I</u>

model surface pressure maps in Figure 3. The start of the campaign is influenced by a high 1 2 pressure system that slowly advected balloon 3 northwards. A low pressure system then develops to the north and the 6-hourly averaged east of Svalbard, which is responsible for the 3 south-eastwards advection of Balloon 4. Presence of a high pressure system causes a slow 4 5 northwards followed by eastwards advection of Balloon 5. Surface observations (resolution: minutes) from the AWIPEV meteorological station-surface observations shown in Figure 4 6 (AWIPEV,, in Ny- Ålesund) (Maturilli et al., 2013) are shown alongside the ERA-I and 7 Supplementary Material S1 (Verlegenhuken, N Svalbard). At first, northerly winds carried 8 cold air to Ny-Ålesund, causing surface temperatures to decline, reaching an hourly minimum 9 of -9.ASR model outputs in Figure 4-°C. Greatest wind-speeds during the campaign are 10 observed on 58th-10th May. The wind direction then changed to southerly with the AVIPEV 11 station registering a maximum wind-speed of 17.4 m/s around noon on 9 May. During this 12 13 period the winds over not much more than one day, leading to increasing temperatures and an hourly maximum of 2.9 °C on 6 May. The wind direction subsequently become more became 14 north-westerly and then northerly with high wind speeds on 8 and 9 May, given 15 occurrencedue to the presence of a high pressure system SW and a lower pressure system NE 16 17 of Svalbard, and the AVI-PEV station registered a maximum wind-speed of 17.4 m/s around noon on 9 May... This caused temperature to decrease during this period. This was followed 18 19 by a period of lowwindlow wind-speed over 11-12 May, also reflected in the 24 hr CMET flight to the east of Svalbard, with low but increasing temperatures recorded at the 20 21 Spitsbergen-meteorological stations. The WRF simulations station. Both models show good general agreement to the 6 hourly averagedNy-Ålesund surface meteorological observations 22 at Ny Ålesund of 2m temperature, relative humidity and surface pressure, Figure 4, (and 23 Verlegenhuken station in N Svalbard, Figure S1), with similar results for all three ABL 24 25 schemes. However, This is not entirely unexpected given the high (> 10 m/s) southerly surface winds predicted on 6-7 May for Ny-Ålesund were not observed. Outside of these 26 dates, the model generally use of data assimilation in both reanalyses. The models reproduced 27 28 the winds, albeit at avariation in 10m wind-speed, but not always the wind-direction 30° greater (clockwise) than typically observed in Ny-Ålesund (see wind-roses reported at AWI-29 PEV, Figure <u>S2)</u>,4. This is likely due to aknown along-fjord wind channeling 30 effectchannelling in the Kongsfjorden that is not fully captured by occurs on finer scales than 31 32 the model. Temperature was well reproduced however somewhat overestimated during cold periods (e.g. 5 and 11-12 May) at both surface stations. 33

3.2 Atmospheric boundary layer over Spitsbergen: topography, inversions and low level iets

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The four CMET soundings over Svalbard topography are compared to WRF wind-speed, relative humidity and temperature profiles in Figure 5, for the three different boundary layer schemes. Notably the results using the three ABL schemes are not strongly differing from each other, but collectively show greater disagreement to the observed ABL profiles. WRF captures the profiles with weak winds (profile 1, 4) well, but not on 5-6 May (profile 2, 3) where the CMET observations show the occurrence of a weak low level jet (LLJ) with a wind speed maximum at around 1200m and lower wind speeds above and below. WRF in contrast predicts the highest wind-speeds below 1000m and also does not capture the 10 observed inversion above 1300 m. Thus, the model difficulty to predict the lofted altitude of the LLJ appears connected to the model overestimation of surface wind-speed in Ny-Ålesund on 5-6 May (a model observation discrepancy not found in Verlegenhuken further north in 14 Svalbard). The occurrence of LLJs is likely promoted by the Svalbard topography in conjunction with a stable boundary layer.

16 These model-observation discrepancies are consistent with previous studies: Molders and 17 Kramm (2010) found that WRF had difficulties in capturing the full strength of the surface 18 temperature inversion observed during a five day cold weather period in Alaska. Kilpeläinen et al. (2012) found that WRF reproduced only half the observed inversions, and often 19 20 underestimated their depth and strength, and that the average modeled LLJ was deeper and 21 stronger than that observed. An overestimation of surface wind-speeds by WRF, especially in case of strong winds, has also been reported by Claremar et al. (2012), in comparison to AWS 22 placed on three Svalbard glaciers, and by Kilpeläinen et al. (2011) and Kilpeläinen et al. 23 24 (2012), in a study of Kongsfjorden. Since low wind-speeds are associated with inversion 25 formation, WRF's overestimation of wind-speed might partly explain the difficulties in 26 capturing (the strength of) inversions (Molders and Kramm, 2010). Consequently, since 27 elevated inversions are often connected to low level jets (Andreas et al., 2000), the difficulties in capturing inversions could help explain the model difficulties in predicting low level jets. 28

29 A likely limitation to the WRF model capability over complex topography is its horizontal and vertical resolution. The model set up used here includes 61 vertical layers, which Mayer 30 et al. (2012b) suggests are necessary to resolve ABL phenomena, such as low level jets. 31 However of the reanalyses. Indeed, Esau and Repina (2012) notefound that even a model 32

resolution of 1 km in the horizontal does not properly represent the valley and steep 1 2 surrounding mountains in Kongsfjorden, finding that even avery fine resolution model (56 x 61 m grid cell, 20 times higher than the 1 km grid cell used in this and other WRF studies) 4 could not fully resolve near-surface small-scale turbulence in the strongly stratified 5 Kongsfjorden atmosphere-, where the valley is surrounded by steep mountain topography.

3.3 CMET atmospheric profiles east of Spitsbergen: the role of sea-ice 6

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7 The two consecutive CMET profiles over sea-ice east of Svalbard are compared to WRF 8 model run 2 in Figure 6. All three schemes tend to overestimate wind-speed, especially at the 9 low levels. Nevertheless the slope of the wind profile corresponds approximately to the 10 observations. Potential temperature is underestimated by around 2.5K in all schemes. The largest difference between the observations and the model is found at the low levels, where it 11 12 reaches up to 4K. However, relative humidity is in better agreement, meaning that specific humidity must also be lower in the model than in the observations (e.g. a 4K difference at 85 13 % RH corresponds to a 9.10⁻⁴ kg/m³ absolute humidity, a difference of around one quarter to 14 one third ambient levels). The temperature and specific humidity bias is most probably due to 15 16 an over representation of sea ice in the WRF model setup, which exerts a strong control on surface conditions. Even though the sea ice flag from the ECMWF data seems to agree fairly 17 18 well with satellite sea-ice observations (Figure 3), areas of polynyas and leads that can be 19 recognized on the satellite picture were represented as homogeneous sea ice in the model. 20 Further, the 100% sea-ice coverage assumed in the model for grid cells with positive sea-ice 21 flag may not reflect reality: small patches of open water amongst very close (90%-100%) or 22 close (80-90%) drift ice would promote sea air exchange, enhancing both temperature and specific humidity at the surface (Andreas et al., 2002). 23

24 Inclusion of fractional sea-ice in WRF (available for WRF version 3.1.1 and higher) might 25 rectify this problem, but is not straightforward to implement: the amount of sea ice in a grid 26 cell varies with time through sea ice formation, break up and drifting, the latter typically a 27 dominant control on ice presence during late spring east of Svalbard. However, the WRF 28 meteorological model does not simulate surface oceanographic processes, thus predicted sea-29 ice presence depended only on whether the SST was above or below the freezing point of sea-30 water. An option is to remove excessive sea ice manually, as, e.g., in Mayer et al. (2012b) or to update the sea ice field and the SST at certain intervals (e.g. six hours) with data from 31 32 observations or re-analyses, as in Kilpeläinen et al. (2012), but this becomes demanding over large regions. Nevertheless, given its strong control on ABL processes, a fractional sea ice approach is recommended for future studies, particularly if a longer series of CMET soundings can be achieved, e.g. during balloon flights advected in a pole-ward direction, rather than towards Russia, which necessitated the flight to be terminated on command after only two profiles in our study.

3.4 Automated CMET soundings during a 24 hr flight west of Spitsbergen

3.2 CMET profiles over sea-ice compared to ERA-I and ASR: Temperature inversion

9 The two consecutive CMET profiles of temperature, specific humidity, U and V winds over sea-ice east of Svalbard (Balloon flight 4) on the morning of JD 128 are compared to 4-D interpolated ERA-I and ASR model data, Figures 5 and 6. The in-flight CMET soundings quantify temperature and humidity profiles that increase towards the surface, as expected, and winds (derived from the balloon flight path) from the north-west. There is good general agreement to ASR and ERA-I. However, the CMET observes a temperature inversion at around 990-970 hPa that persists for most of the sounding time-series. This temperature inversion is captured by ASR in good agreement to the CMET but is not reproduced by ERA-I. ASR finds a strong gradient in humidity related to this inversion barrier, but the CMET observes a more shallow humidity gradient. ERA finds an even shallower gradient in humidity than the CMET. Both models show strengthening westerly winds during the soundings, as observed. The CMET observed a reversal in V winds near the surface (> 1000 hPa). This is better captured by ASR than ERA-I, where it is related in the model to the inversion layer. However, there are differences in V winds at higher altitudes, which are more variable in ASR than in the CMET and ERA-I.

24 The potential temperature and specific humidity profiles from the CMET flight are further shown in Figure 7, alongside equivalent 4D interpolated model outputs at each CMET 25 latitude, longitude, pressure and time location. The CMET potential temperature profile 26 27 shows three distinct layers: weakly stable layer at > 990 hPa, a strongly stable layer between 28 990 and 980 hPa (related to the abovementioned inversion) and stable layer <980 hPa. This agrees well with similar layers identified in the ASR, whereas the absence of an inversion 29 30 layer in ERA-I leads to a more linear potential temperature profile. The specific humidity 31 profile of ASR shows better agreement to CMET at ~980 hPa where ERA-I overestimates by 0.2 g/kg. At higher altitudes, ERA-I is in better agreement (overestimated by about 0.1 g/kg)
 whilst ASR shows greater humidity variability (overestimations by up to 0.3 g/kg) than the
 trend observed by CMET.

It is difficult to infer any temporal trend in the flight 4 CMET profiles over JD 128 morning.
The final profile (JD >128.45) shows slightly greater humidity at low altitudes but also
slightly lower temperature and the inversion is less clear. ERA-I and ASR show a tendency
for increasing surface temperature and humidity. Over the morning ASR predicts deepening
layer beneath the inversion, whose top remains at constant height. Unfortunately the
experiment could not be continued eastwards into the afternoon as the CMET flight had to be
terminated to avoid Russian airspace.

3.3 CMET profiles in coastal area compared to ERA-I and ASR: wind-shear and temperature and humidity trends

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Flight 5 provided a series of 18 boundary-layer profiles over a largely sea-ice free region west 13 14 of Svalbard. With the low wind-speeds (< 5 m/s), the 24 hr balloon trajectory remained relatively close to Svalbard coastline. Figure 7 shows Figures 8 and 9 compare the 15 observedalong-flight profiles of temperature, specific humidity, U and V winds measured by 16 17 the CMET to ERA-I and ASR model reanalyses. From morning to afternoon increases in 18 temperature and humidity at the surface are observed by the CMET and shown by both 19 models. Note that the lowest ERA-I model level intersects the CMET sounding at low 20 altitudes (likely due to non-realistic surface topography), preventing model comparison, 21 whereas this problem does not occur for ASR.

22 Overall there is good agreement between the reanalyses and CMET observations but some differences. During the night of JD 130-131 ERA-I underestimates temperature compared to 23 24 CMET. This is better reproduced by ASR up until midday on JD 131, although still under-25 predicted. Both models and the CMET nevertheless show relatively small variations in the 26 temperature profiles at this time. Humidity is well reproduced by ASR during the JD 130-131 27 night and slightly underestimated by ERA-I. On JD 131 morning ERA-I better reproduces the 28 observed enhanced humidity near the surface than ASR. In ASR the vertical humidity transition is sharper than observed by the CMET and humidity underestimated near the 29 30 surface. Both ERA-I and ASR capture the observed increase in near-surface temperature and specific humidity up to the mid-afternoon. However, the CMET temperature increase is either 31

stronger or earlier than in the models. These temperature and humidity enhancements are also
 temporally/spatially more localised for ASR than ERA-I. This leads to closer CMET
 agreement with ERA-I for mid-afternoon temperature but ASR for humidity. Temperature is
 underestimated by both models at high altitudes in the JD 131 evening whilst humidity is well
 reproduced.

6 There are also differences in the U and V winds between ASR and ERA-I, figure 9. The 7 CMET observes strong V wind-shear on the morning of JD 131. This wind-shear pattern is 8 reproduced by ASR but is not captured by ERA-I. V winds become southerly (from direction) in mid-afternoon in both models, but more localised in ASR leading to better early afternoon 9 10 model agreement, although ERA-I better reproduces the persistence of northerly winds to higher altitudes observed late on JD 131. Westerly U winds are modelled and observed on the 11 12 evening of JD 131. ERA-I shows high positive U winds at high altitudes only, whereas ASR 13 shows high positive U winds at all levels.

Closer inspection of the CMET temperature shows some signs of hysteresis in this flight with 14 15 greater temperatures reached during ascents than descents. This is despite the fast time 16 response of the (aspirated) thermistor. A possible explanation might be heating of the balloon 17 surface by the sun, raising the temperature of the air layer in direct contact with the balloon. 18 This air layer could be transported over the sensor during ascents, but not descent profiles. 19 Nevertheless, measurements made during descent only (> 0.1 m/s vertical descent speed) are 20 consistent with the complete ascent-descent inpotential temperature and specific humidity 21 profiles, Figure 10. These profiles show an overall increase (~5-6 K) in potential temperature 22 observed close to the surface that is reproduced by the models but where ASR underpredicts 23 the temperature rise (~3-4 K) and ERA-I exhibits a potential temperature bias of ~-2 K. The 24 observed trend in specific humidity surface is less clear but with an overall enhancement. 25 ASR specific humidity is in agreement to the CMET on JD 131 morning but is underestimated by up to 0.5 g/kg during the afternoon. ERA-I better captures the afternoon 26 27 humidity maximum but overestimates midday humidity by 0.5 g/kg. The CMET, ERA-I and 28 ASR flight 5 profiles all show a more stable ABL than found for flight 4.

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30 **<u>3.4 CMET soundings in detail: decoupled flows and wind-field estimation</u></u>**

Further analysis of the observations from the CMET flight 5 on JD 131 enables to consider
 local-scale patterns at higher resolution than the reanalyses. The observed profiles of potential

temperature, specific humidity, wind-speed and wind-direction, over $\sim 02 - 12.5$ UTC (JD 1 2 131.08 - 131.52) are shown with interpolated data between the soundings- to highlight 3 temporally consistent features, Figure 11. The soundings ranged from approximately 150m to 700m during the first part of the flight (~02 - 12.5 UTC, JD 131.08 - 131.52). Specific 4 5 humidity is greatest and potential temperature lowest nearer the surface, as expected. Specific this period. As mentioned previously, specific humidity tends to increase during the 6 7 flight, particularly in the lower and middle levels, which can be interpreted as a diurnal 8 enhancement from surface evaporation. However, beyond JD 131.40 (9.6 UTC) there is 9 actually a decrease in humidity in the lowermost levels, with maximum humidity in the sounding occurring around 350 m altitude. Concurrent to this there is also a small increase in 10 11 potential temperature at low altitudes. The wind-speed and direction plots indicate relatively 12 calm conditions, with greatest wind-speed in the lower levels generally from a southerly 13 direction. In contrast, at the top of the soundings the balloon encountered winds from a 14 northerly direction, above 600 m. From JD 131.35 onwards, the observed winds became broadly southerly also at 600 m. However, a band of rather more west-south-westerly winds 15 developed at mid-altitudes (~450 m), and low-level winds became (east)-south-easterly from 16 17 JD 131.4 onwards. An important overall conclusion from these measurements is This indicates that the balloon was not strictly sampling a uniform air-mass during this flight, 18 19 rather it encountered a variety of period. Whilst previous studies have used CMET's to study Lagrangian air mass trajectories (e.g. Voss et al., properties and behaviours over2010), here 20 the course of the soundings. While the complex flow in this case largely precludes a flight 21 22 path is quasi-Lagrangian-type process study,. As consequence, the temperature and humidity 23 trends observed along the flight path cannot be wholly interpreted in Lagrangian terms (e.g. 24 tracing of diurnal signature on a single air parcel), rather must also consider the series of 25 profiles none-the-less provides a nuanced understanding that is not possibleEularian 26 perspective (e.g. advection of air masses with traditional rawinsondes or constant altitude balloons.distinct properties into and out of the CMET flight path, and their mixing). 27

The CMET observations appear The continuous series of CMET vertical profiles provide a more detailed overview on local-scale meteorology than is possible with traditional rawinsondes or constant-altitude balloons. The CMET observations are consistent with the occurrence of a low-level flow that is decoupled from higher altitudes, and – at least initially — a diurnalan increase in surface humidity through enhanced ocean evaporation... The observed wind shear is consistent with a tilted high pressure system (that tilts with altitude

towards the west of Svalbard, according to the WRF model), whilst surface winds may be 1 2 further influenced by low-level channel flows. An outflow commonly exits- from nearby Kongsfjorden-Kongsvegen valley (e.g. Esau and Repina, 2012) but is hard to identify from 3 the ground-station in Ny Ålesund (south side of Kongsfjorden) given the rather low wind-4 5 speeds during this period. -Winds that originate over land are likely colder, with lower 6 humidity than marine air masses. Thus, the CMET observations of lower specific humidity 7 between JD 131.40 – 131.5 (9.6- 12 UTC) might be explained by fumigation from or simply 8 sampling of such a channel outflow. Alternatively, the CMET's location overnear Kapp Mitra 9 Penninsula at this time may indicate an even more local source of dry air impacting low levels. A final possibility could be overturning of air masses in the vertical, bringing less 10 11 humid air, with higher potential temperature to lower altitudes. At mid-levels (~450 m) a 12 relatively humid air layer persists, properties which suggest it likely has origins from the 13 surface. It appears to be advected north-eastwards, potentially replenishing air over Svalbard 14 to replace that which may be lost from the channel outflow. Further discussion is provided in 15 conjunction with the WRF model results.

16 The CMET observations are compared to WRF model output at two time-periods, UTC 07h 17 and 15h on 11 May (JD 131.3 and 131.6, respectively). Model output (in 2D) is presented in 18 two ways: (i) cross sections of relative humidity (RH) and potential temperature with altitude 19 along a transect in the WRF model (QNSE, YSU and MYJ schemes) that lies in an 20 approximately S-N direction and is reasonably close to (but not identical to) the balloon flight path, see Figure 8; (ii) maps of temperature and absolute humidity (kg/kg) at a constant model 21 22 layer (equivalent to ~ 300m asl over the oceans although reaching higher altitudes over the 23 Svalbard terrain) that provide a geographic spatial context. For clarity, only output from WRF MYJ BL scheme is illustrated (see Supplementary Material for QNSE and YSU schemes). 24

25 For (i), the WRF model temperature and humidity cross-sections at 07h and 15h are shown alongside CMET observations along the whole balloon flight, in Figure 9 and 10, 26 respectively, and where the balloon locations at 07h and 15h are denoted by a triangle or 27 eross, respectively. The model generally agrees with the balloon observations: potential 28 29 temperature increases with altitude, and surface temperature decreases with increasing latitude in the 07h cross section. Boundary layer height is denoted by a sharp humidity decrease, at 30 31 approx. 600 m (declining to 400 m at higher latitudes) in the 07h WRF cross section. For all the model schemes, a greater relative humidity and a higher boundary layer is predicted in the 32

1 15h cross section, as expected from the diurnal cycle, whereby solar heating increases
 2 evaporation to enhance RH, and increases thermal buoyancy to enhance ABL height. By 15 h,
 3 the model potential temperature is also generally higher, however, surface temperatures now
 4 increases with latitude. This may reflect greater solar heating experienced at higher Arctic
 5 latitudes in the spring.

6 This overall RH trend of the model is in agreement to the observations: the CMET balloon 7 data also exhibits a higher relative humidity at 15 h than 07h. There is also some variability 8 between the different model boundary layer schemes: for the 15 h cross-section boundary 9 layer height, YSU > QNSE > MYJ in terms of both relative humidity and ABL height. However, diurnal variability is not the only control on ABL humidity (as discussed above). 10 The geographical influence is illustrated by (ii); spatial maps of absolute humidity across a 11 12 model layer (corresponding to ~300m asl over oceans, somewhat higher over land) in Figure 13 11. As expected, humidity in the marine air in the ice free coastal region is greater than over 14 Spitsbergen land, where temperatures were below freezing (see AWIPEV station time series 15 Figure 4). Mixing or transfer between the marine and land influenced air masses can thus exert a significant influence on the observations, consistent with the findings from the CMET 16 analysis above. The model results presented at 07 and 15 h clarify this influence in a 17 geographic context. Between launch and 7am the CMET moved into a more marine 18 19 environment thus humidity increased. The balloon then moved northwards, perhaps drawn by a channel outflow from Kingsbay. Over this period humidity is constant or declining slightly, 20 as the balloon passes across Kongsfjorden Bay and over the Kapp Mitra peninsula. From 21 -midday to 15h the humidity increases again as the balloon travels northwards (a temporary 22 23 westerly diversion occurs following blocking of the low-level flow by Svalbard terrain). This 24 humidity enhancement appears mostly caused by the diurnal effects of enhanced evaporation. 25 Alternatively, simple transport of the balloon into or air-mass mixing with moister marine air 26 could play a role, but in any case the diurnal humidity signal appears strong across this NW 27 region. After 15h the balloon was raised to higher altitudes hence the humidity decreased 28 compared to that in the fixed model level (a similar decrease can be seen in the model 29 altitude-transect plots, Figure 10).

Finally, we return to the subject of the quasi-Lagrangian nature of the CMET balloon flight. A
 detailed analysis is beyond the scope of this study, nevertheless the wind, humidity and
 temperature observations indicate presence of more than one air mass in this coastal region.

Whilst CMETs have previously been used in Lagrangian type experiments to track the 1 2 evolution of an airmass (e.g., Voss et al, 2010), this case-study presents more complex atmospheric conditions. Both vertical winds and horizontal wind-shear can affect the 3 Lagrangian nature of the CMET balloon experiment. Vertical air mass movement is not 4 5 measured by the CMET payload but is estimated by the WRF model to be sufficiently low (typically << 0.01 m/s) to be negligible in most cases, with the exception of localized areas in 6 7 ONSE scheme (see Supplementary Material, Figure S4). The CMET balloon movement was 8 itself used to determine horizontal winds (Figure 7), and showed decoupled air flows of near 9 opposite direction in the morning of 11 May (southerly winds at low altitudes, northerly winds at higher levels). Balloon soundings that traverse these layers will thus influence its 10 11 overall trajectory. Trajectories were estimated from the observed winds at 50 m altitude 12 intervals. Wind-fields are estimated from the CMET balloon 5 flight path for an 8-hour period 13 starting in the early morning of 11 May (JD 131), Figure 12. As per previous figures, the CMET balloon movement during the soundings has been used to estimate wind-speed and 14 15 direction. Here, wind-trajectories are derived from the observed winds at 50 m altitude intervals for each up or down profile. The trajectory vectors (of length proportional to the 16 17 wind-speed \times time elapsed between soundings) are placed end-to-end to estimate the wind-18 field, shown in Figure 15 (gray mesh) alongside the CMET flight (red). This approximate 19 technique assumes horizontally uniform flow (in the vicinity of the balloon and computed trajectories) during the 8-hour period starting in the early morning of 11 May, Figure 12.). 20 The lowermost layer exhibited greatest wind-speed thus has the longest (and least certain) 21 22 trajectory, approximately double that of the balloon during the same period. The uppermost 23 layer flows southwards before reversing direction, approximately returning to its initial 24 position- at 600 m altitude. The middle layer trajectory is quite similar to that of the overall 25 CMET balloon flight, but is transported initially somewhat more westwards, and later 26 somewhat more eastwards, due to the ESE winds experienced in the late morning (see Figure 711). It is worth noting this final direction mirrors findings from two of the other CMET 27 28 flightsballoons, whose initial flight paths out of Kongsfjorden deviated to the north-east into 29 the nearby Krossfjorden. While the, Figure 1. These balloon-based trajectories and repeating 30 profile measurements are not Lagrangian, they do provide insight into the complex local 31 dynamics of low-altitude circulation influenced by complex terrain. Furthermore, the 32 trajectories and profile data can be computed and displayed in near-real time, allowing future 33 experiments to be modified during inform the real-time in-flight decisions on CMET altitude <u>control</u> (e.g., to track specific layers or events). Such experiments can provide observational insights that help constrain the complex meteorology. of meteorological interest).

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3.5 Discussion: ASR and ERA-I model reanalyses in comparison to CMET

5 Both reanalyses showed good general agreement to the CMET flights, finding more stable conditions for flight 4 (over sea-ice) than flight 5 (coastal). For flight 4: ASR showed a better 6 7 capability than ERA-I to reproduce a temperature inversion observed over sea-ice. ASR and 8 ERA-I broadly reproduced the enhanced humidity near the sea-ice surface but showed some 9 discrepancies with the CMET in the vertical-spatial distributions. For flight 5: ASR better 10 reproduced observed wind-shear near to Svalbard coast. Both models exhibit increasing 11 specific humidity and temperature in the near-surface atmosphere from morning to afternoon 12 on JD 131, in agreement to the trend observed. However, compared to the CMET the surface 13 temperature and humidity enhancements were under-predicted by ASR. ERA-I 14 underestimated ABL temperature. Whilst increasing humidity and temperature over the daytime might be expected based on the diurnal cycle, Section 3.4 highlights the quasi-15 Lagrangian nature of flight 5 that also requires consideration of air-mass advection and 16 17 mixing. Figure 13 presents ERA-I (regional-scale) and ASR (local-scale) pattern in surface 18 2m temperature and humidity for the duration of JD 131, alongside the CMET flight path. A 19 zone of warm and humid air initially to the south-west of Svalbard advects northwards and 20 eastwards. This likely exerted a significant influence on the observed and modelled alongflight surface trends. The ASR also clearly shows local diurnal influences on surface 21 22 meteorology, particularly on 2m temperature over the elevated topography east of the flight. 23 The temperature and humidity increases along flight 5 are temporally-spatially broader for

24 ERA-I than for ASR (Figure 8). This may to some degree reflect model diffusion on the 25 larger ERA-I grid-size ~80 km compared to 15 km for ASR). The poorer ERA-I resolution of Svalbard topography will also affect simulated meteorology in this coastal area, where there 26 27 may be local mixing, e.g. between marine and land-influenced air masses. A major contributing factor to ASR performance in capturing observed wind-shear (flight 5) and 28 29 temperature inversion (flight 4) and is likely the higher vertical model resolution of ASR 30 compared to ERA-I, with ASR having about double the number of model levels than ERA-I 31 at > 800 hPa, see Methods for descriptions. This improves the representation of the shallow polar ABL with its distinct layers. Noting that higher resolution models that better capture 32

spatial patterns can nevertheless lead to worse agreement to observations due to slight spatial 1 2 shifts (Wesselen et al., 2014), we choose not to reduce the ERA-I, ASR, and CMET 3 comparison to standard metrics (e.g. a correlation coefficient) here. The representations of Arctic air-sea-ice interaction and parameterisation of turbulence fluxes in the boundary layer 4 schemes will also influence the model outputs (e.g. Mölders and Kramm, 2010), but are 5 difficult to assess from this study. In future, campaigns where multiple CMET balloons are 6 7 sequentially co-launched to horizontally and vertically and probe an atmospheric region combined with model sensitivity simulations to test the different processes and model 8 9 boundary layer schemes could provide this insight.

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11 4<u>3 4</u>Conclusions

Five Controlled Meteorological (CMET) balloons were launched from Ny-Ålesund, Svalbard 12 13 on 5-12 May 2011, to measure in-situ the meteorological conditions (RHhumidity, 14 temperature, wind speed) over Spitsbergen and winds, pressure) in the surrounding Arctic region. Analysis of Repeated soundings were performed along the meteorological data, in 15 conjunction with simulations using the Weather and Research Forecasting (WRF) model at 16 17 high (1 km) resolution provide insight CMET flights that probed into processes governing the Arctic atmospheric boundary layer-and its evolution. The CMET data are analysed in 18 comparison to model output from the ERA-Interim and Arctic System reanalyses. 19

20 Three ABL parameterizations were investigated within the WRF model, YSU (Yonsei University), MYJ (Mellor-Yamada-Janijc) and ONSE (Ouasi-Normal Scale Elimination). 21 22 These schemes showed closer similarity to each other than between the model runs and the observations. This indicates more fundamental challenges to mesoscale modellingCMETs are 23 a novel balloon technology capable of multi-day flights in the Arctic, as identified from this 24 25 study to include (i) the occurrence of inversions and low level jets over Svalbard topographytroposphere and performing in association with stable boundary conditions, which 26 likely can only be captured at greater model resolution (ii) the presence of (fractional) sea-ice 27 that acts to modify sea-air exchange, but whose dynamical representation in the model is not 28 29 straight-forward to implement.

The WRF model simulations showed good general agreement to surface meteorological
 parameters (temperature, wind speed, RH) in Ny Ålesund and Verlegenhuken, N Svalbard
 over 03-12 May, 2011. However, temperatures were somewhat underestimated during colder

periods, and surface winds were severely overestimated on 5-6 May in Ny Ålesund. 1 2 Comparison of four CMET profiles over Svalbard topography to the WRF model indicated 3 model difficulties in capturing inversion layers and a low-level jet (LLJ). The CMET observations thereby provided a context for the predicted high surface wind speeds in Ny 4 5 Ålesund, which were observed aloft but not at the surface during the campaign. A higher resolution is likely required to improve the model ability to simulate the small-scale 6 7 atmospheric dynamics particularly for stable Arctic boundary layer conditions combined with 8 Svalbard topography.

9 Two CMET-flight soundings also probed on command. Five CMET balloons were launched in May 2011. Balloons 1 and 2 had only short flights whilst balloon 3 made multi-day flight to 10 the north but did not perform any soundings. Flights 4 and 5 made repeated soundings that 11 profiled the ABL. CMET balloon 4 made two soundings into the boundary layer over sea-ice 12 13 to the east of Svalbard, during a balloon flight which despite. Despite good performance this 14 flight needed to be terminated to avoid encroaching on Russian territory. Model biases in 15 wind-speed and surface level temperature (and inferred for specific humidity) over this region are likely due to the representation of sea-ice in the model. Whilst the ECMWF-derived sea-16 17 ice flag used appears reasonable, the presence of fractional sea-ice east of Svalbard may have enabled greater air-sea exchange of heat and moisture than predicted by the model, which 18 assumed 100 % sea ice coverage for positive sea ice flag. Fractional representation of sea ice 19 20 in WRF is thus desirable, but is not straightforward to implement as sea-ice coverage depends 21 on both sea-surface temperature driven freezing/melting processes and ocean-current driven 22 advection, the latter being dominant East of Svalbard during spring. Improved sea-ice 23 representation (e.g. applying a manual correction every 6 h) is recommended for future studies especially if multiple soundings over sea-ice during longer duration CMET flights (i.e. 24 25 northerly rather than easterly advected) can be achieved.

A series of continuous <u>CMET balloon 5 was placed in an automated soundings was</u> performed during a <u>CMET flight over a sea ice free region west of Svalbard, tracing</u> atmospheric boundary layer temperature and relative humidity profiles<u>mode and made a suite</u> of 18 continuous soundings along the flight and with altitude. Meteorological conditions encountered were complex, including a low level flow decoupled from the air mass at higher altitudes. An increase in low level relative humidity was observed, consistent with diurnal enhancement expected from evaporation. The WRF model predicted both an increase in RH and ABL height over the diurnal cycle concurrent with the CMET observations. The data model interpretation also considers influence of air masses of different origin which augment
 the diurnal trends: air masses originating over the warm saline ocean waters have typically
 greater humidity than over the cold Svalbard topography.

Finally, the semi Lagrangian nature of CMET flights is discussed. In this ABL study the balloon likely sampled different air masses through vertical soundings undertaken during thenorth-west coast of Svalbard, during a 24 hr flight, under conditions of strong vertical wind-shear. Analysis of the observed wind-fields provides an indication of the balloon trajectory in the context of surrounding wind trajectories at different altitudes. To our knowledge, this was the first automated sounding sequence made by a free balloon.

11 This study focuses on the two flights that performed repeated profiling into the boundary layer. Overall both observations and models identify the ABL was more stable for flight 4 12 (over sea-ice) than flight 5 (coastal). To the east of Svalbard (flight 4), the observed 13 temperature and humidity increases towards the surface are generally well reproduced by 14 15 ERA-I and ASR. The CMET observed a temperature inversion over sea-ice which was 16 reproduced by ASR but was not captured by ERA-I. ASR and ERA-I broadly reproduced the 17 enhanced humidity near the sea-ice surface but showed some discrepancies with the CMET in 18 the vertical-spatial distributions. The CMET flight 5 along the north-west coast of Svalbard 19 observed increases in near-surface humidity and temperature, and strong wind-shear. Detailed 20 analysis of the CMET data identifies a low-level flow and provides an estimate of local windfields. The wind-shear was captured by ASR but not ERA-I. Both model reanalyses find 21 22 increasing specific humidity and temperature near the surface, from morning to afternoon on 23 JD 131. The enhancements are more temporal-spatially localised in ASR than ERA-I. The 24 temperature enhancement was under-predicted by ASR whilst ERA-I underestimated ABL temperature. The higher vertical and horizontal resolution of the ASR enables to capture 25 features (temperature inversion, wind-shear) that are not described by ERA-I. However, there 26 are other aspects of the model-observation comparison that are in better agreement for ERA-I 27 than ASR. This might be due to the different representations of processes in the model and 28 29 could be investigated in future by deploying a suite of CMET balloons over a region combined with model sensitivity studies. 30

In summary, CMET balloons provide a novel technological means to profile the remote
 Arctic boundary layer over multi-day flights, including the capacity to perform

multiplecontinuous automated soundings. CMET capabilities into the atmospheric boundary 1 2 layer. CMETs are thus highly complementary to other Arctic observational strategies including fixed station, free and tethered balloons, meteorological masts and RPAS/UAVs-3 (drones). Whilst <u>RPAS/UAVs</u> offer full 3D spatial control for obtaining the meteorological 4 5 observations, their investigation zone is generally limited to tens of kilometers based on both range and regulatory restrictions. CMETs flights provide a relatively low-cost approach to 6 7 observing the boundary layer at greater distances from the launch site (e.g. tens to hundreds of 8 km), at tropospheric altitudes potentially all the way down to the surface, and more remote 9 from the disturbances of Svalbard topography. Analysis of the CMET observations along with output from a regional model output provides insights into the processes that control the 10 11 observed evolution of meteorological parameters and that pose a challenge to mesoscale simulations of the Arctic atmosphere., for quasi-Lagranian and long-range transport and 12 13 process studies..

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5

6 7

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Figure 1-

Trajectories of five CMET balloons launched from Ny-Ålesund in May 2011. Soundings used for comparison to WRFFlight paths are labelled P1si, P2si (over sea ice east of shown on the regional scale of Spitsbergen Island, Svalbard for comparison to WRF model run 2), and P1, P2, P3, P4 (over Svalbard topography for comparison to WRF model run 1). P5 and P6 9 denote balloon locations at 03h and 12h UTC during flight 5 whilst the balloon made automated continuous soundings toon the Svalbard. of west-



local scale Figure 2.- of Kongsfjord. Ny Ålesund is maked by a yellow circle and lies at the south side of Kongsfjord. Balloons 4 and 5 performed repeated soundings as shown by the pressure variations in time (marked '*'). Analysis periods for flights 4 (06- 12 UTC) and 5 (full flight) are denoted by 'x'.





in ERA-I and ASR reanalyses. The ERA-I image shows a map of Svalbard (left) to sea-ice
 flag in WRF model (right).overlain. The ERA-I map coordinates are depicted on the ASR
 image for ease of comparison. Also shown is the Lance rapid response image (right) from the
 MODIS satellite (downloaded from http://lance-modis.eosdis.nasa.gov/, land and sea-ice are
 shown in red, cloud cover in white) for 5 May, 2011 and the ECMWF sea-ice flag as used in

the WRF model (white = 1, blue = 0).(JD 125).





Figure 3. Sea-level pressure in ERA-I shown as a function of latitude and longitude at 12 hrly intervals for the duration of the field-campaign, starting JD 125 (5 May). Overlain in white are Ny-Ålesund location and the CMET flight tracks as a function in time (full extents of flights 3 and 4. 6 hourly averaged meteorology are shown at JD 128.5, and for flight 5 at JD 132).



6 layer schemes (YSU, MYJ, QNSE).and observed (from) wind directions.



Figure 5. CMET wind-speed, potential temperature and relative humidity profiles P1-P4 made over Svalbard topography compared to WRF model. The 3 ABL schemes are depicted with the same colour key as for Figure 4. The grey band represents a range of 25 profiles of the YSU scheme on a 4km x 4km square centred the balloon profile to illustrate horizontal variability in the model output.





Figure

7.



- 1 Figure 5. Temperature and specific humidity measured during the CMET flight 4 soundings
- 2 (filled circles) compared to 4-D interpolated (latitude, longitude, pressure, time) model data
- 3 <u>from ERA-I and ASR.</u>



<u>ASR.</u>





by the CMET balloon and according to the 4-D interpolated ERA-I and ASR model outputs.





Figure 8. Temperature and specific humidity measured during the CMET flight 5 soundings (filled circles) compared to 4-D interpolated (latitude, longitude, pressure, time) model data from ERA-I and ASR.





Figure 10. Profiles of potential temperature and specific humidity during flight 5 as observed by the CMET balloon and according to the 4-D interpolated ERA-I and ASR model outputs. CMET measurements made during descents only (> 0.1 m/s vertical descent speed) are shown as filled circles with full data-set shown as open circles.



Figure 11. Potential temperature, specific humidity, wind-speed and wind direction

determined from the CMET balloon observations (131.08 to 131.52 JD, equivalent to ~ 202 to

12.5 UTC on 11 May) of flight 5 during a series of automated soundings between 150 m and

700 m altitude. Data between the balloon soundings has been interpolated to facilitate

visualization.





Figure 8. Map of the WRF cross section transect (red lines) and the CMET balloon trajectory (yellow line) of flight 5. Approximate balloon locations at 07h and 15h UTC (JD 131.3 and 131.6) are denoted by a triangle and cross, respectively.



Figure 9. Crossection of the WRF model relative humidity (RH) and potential temperature (TPot) at 07h UTC (JD 131.3) shown as a function of altitude along the transect line. CMET observations for the whole flight are also illustrated, with approximate balloon location at 07h denoted by a triangle.

WRF at 07:00, 11 May 2011

WRF at 15:00, 11 May 2011



Figure 10. Crossection of the WRF model relative humidity (RH) and potential temperature (TPot) at 15h UTC (JD 131.6) shown as a function of altitude along the transect line. CMET observations for the whole flight are also illustrated, with approximate balloon location at 15h denoted by a cross.



Figure 11. Absolute humidity (kg/kg) in the WRF model (with MYJ scheme) layer

asl thus not probing the ABL) has been omitted for clarity.

corresponding to 300 masl (over oceans) at 07h and 15h compared to the CMET flight 5

whilst it performed automated ABL soundings centred around ~300 masl. The CMET balloon

positions at 07h and 15h (equivalent to JD 131.3 and JD 131.6) are marked by a triangle and a

eross, respectively. Data from the final stages of the balloon flight (at greater than ~1000 m



Figure 12. Approximate air-parcel trajectories_Wind-field_calculated from the CMET balloonmeasured winds. The flight 5. Air parcel trajectories are calculated over an eight hour period for each 50 m altitude layer-according to the winds observed by the CMET soundings. The red line shows the actual balloon track, the black vertical line shows the initialization, the black of the calculation, and the derived air parcel trajectories (wind field grid-shows the trajectories, and-) are shown in gray. The blue line shows the final locationlocations after eight hours.





(upper) and ASR (lower). ERA-I outputs shown on the regional scale at 6 hrly intervals whilst

ASR outputs are shown on a local scale at 3 hrly intervals. The CMET flight 5 trajectory up to

each time-point is illustrated shown as a white line.