1 How <u>do are the gravity waves triggered by a typhoon propagate</u>

2 from the troposphere to <u>the</u> upper atmosphere?

- 3 Qinzeng Li¹, Jiyao Xu^{1,2}, Hanli Liu³, Xiao Liu⁴, Wei Yuan¹
- ¹State Key Laboratory of Space Weather, National Space Science Center, Chinese Academy of
- 5 Sciences, Beijing, 100190, China,
- ²School of Astronomy and Space Science, University of Chinese Academy of Science, Beijing,
- 7 100049, China,
- 8 ³High Altitude Observatory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO
- 9 80307-3000, USA,
- ⁴School of Mathematics and Information Science, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, 453007,
- 11 China,
- 12
- 13 Correspondence to: xujy@nssc.ac.cn

14 Abstract

Gravity waves (GWs) strongly affect atmospheric dynamics, and photochemistry, as 15 well as and the coupling between the troposphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, and 16 thermosphere. Also In addition, GWs generated by strong disturbances in the troposphere 17 (such as e.g., thunderstorms, and typhoons, etc.) can affect the atmosphere of the Earth 18 ranging from the troposphere to the thermosphere. However, the fundamental process of GW 19 propagation from the troposphere to the thermosphere is poorly understood because it is 20 challenging to constrain this process by using observations. Moreover, GWs tend to 21 dissipate rapidly in the thermosphere because the molecular diffusion increases 22 exponentially. In this study, a double-layer airglow network is-was used to capture the 23 concentric gravity waves GWs (CGWs) over China, which that were excited by the Super 24 25 Typhoon Chaba (2016). We used the ERA-5 reanalysis data and Multi-functional Transport Satellite-1Robservations and to quantitatively described the physical mechanism of 26 typhoon-generated CGWs propagating throughout the stratosphere, mesosphere, and 27 thermosphere. We found that the CGWs in the mesopause region were generated directly by 28 the typhoon in the troposphere. However, like the relay, the backward ray tracing analysis 29 suggested that CGWs in the thermosphere originated from the secondary waves generated 30 by the dissipation of the CGW and/or nonlinear processes in the mesopause region, thereby 31 32 resembling the relay in the context.

1. Introduction

34	Gravity waves (GWs) can transfer momentum and energy from the lower to upper
35	atmospheres, thereby affecting the global circulation and thermal structures, as well as and
36	the distribution of chemical composition in the middle and upper atmospheres (Holton, 1983;
37	Fritts and Alexander, 2003). Studies on The-dynamic, photochemical, and electrodynamics
38	processes have indicated that GWs are fundamental for the coupling process between the
39	troposphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, and thermosphere (Liu and Vadas, 2013; Smith et al.,
40	2013; Vadas and Liu, 2013; Xu et al., 2015 <u>; Vadas and Becker, 2019</u>).
41	Concentric GWs (CGWs) are <u>a</u> unique type of GWs that are considered to be <u>mainly</u>
42	generated by convective activities activity in the troposphere. CGWs can also be generated
43	by primary wave breaking (Vadas and Becker, 2019; Lund et al., 2020; Kogure et al., 2020)
44	volcanoes (Duncombe, 2022), nuclear explosions (Pfeffer and Zarichny, 1962; Pierceet
45	al.,1971), and rockets (Liu et al., 2020). CGWs in the stratosphere and mesosphere generated
46	by thunderstorms have been widely reported since their sources are ubiquitous (Taylor and
47	Hapgood, 1988; Sentman et al., 2003; Suzuki et al., 2007; Yue et al., 2009; Vadas et al., 2012;
48	Xu et al., 2015; Heale et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2020) have been widely reported since their
49	sources are ubiquitous. In previous studies, CGWs induced by typhoons were detected using
50	ground-based optical remote sensing (Suzuki et al., 2013) while those induced by hurricanes
51	and tropical cyclones were detected using the Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership
52	satellite (Yue et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2019) in the mesopause region.
53	Notably, GWs tend to dissipate rapidly in the upper atmosphere due to molecular

viscosity and thermal diffusion (Vadas, 2007). Thermosphere GWs that are not dissipated

55	can originate directly from the troposphere (Vadas, 2007; Azeem et al., 2015) or from
56	secondary GWs, which are generated as a result of from the breaking of primary GWs in the
57	mesosphere or thermosphere region (Vadas and Fritts, 2003; Vadas and Crowley, 2010;
58	Vadas and Azeem, 2021). Furthermore, Vadas and Becker (2019) for the first time presented
59	global simulations of tertiary CGWs from the dissipation of secondary CGWs in the
60	thermosphere. Moreover, wave-wave, wave-mean flow, self-acceleration, and nonlinear
61	breaking also signify are other potential secondary wave generation mechanisms (Lund and
62	Fritts, 2012; Fritts et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2020; Fritts et al., 2020; Franke and Robinson,
63	1999; Zhou et al. 2002; Heale et al. 2020). At the same time, tunneling has been deemed as a
64	mechanism that can couple waves from tropospheric sources to the thermosphere (e.g.
65	Walterscheid and Hecht, 2003,-; Gavrilov and Kshevetskii,-; 2018, Heale et al., 2021).
66	However, the lack of observations of the entire atmosphere limits our understanding of the
67	fundamental process of how the GWs propagate from the lower atmosphere to the upper
68	atmosphere step by step on the aspect of observations.
69	This paper presents a case study examining CGWs excited by Super Typhoon Chaba

(2016). This study examined the CGWs excited by Super Typhoon Chaba (2016) as a study
case. To this end, we utilized Multi-functional Transport Satellite-1R (MTSAT-1R)
observations, multi-layer European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF)
ERA-5 reanalysis data (Hoffmann et al., 2019; Hersbach et al., 2020), and high
spatiao-temporal resolution double-layer airglow network (DLAN) (Xu et al., 2021)
observations. The CGW observations from the troposphere to the stratosphere and then to
the mesosphere were taken from MTSAT-1R, ERA-5, and the DLAN. However, given the

observational limitations, the DLAN was utilized to identify the mesosphere and
thermosphere via the ray_-tracing theory. The objectives of this study were to (a) scrutinize
multi-layer CGW features produced by Super Typhoon Chaba (2016) from near the ground to
a height of 250 km, (b) to examine the entire propagation process of the CGWs excited by
typhoon from the lower atmosphere to the upper atmosphere, and (c) to provide new insights
into the coupling between different atmospheric layers.

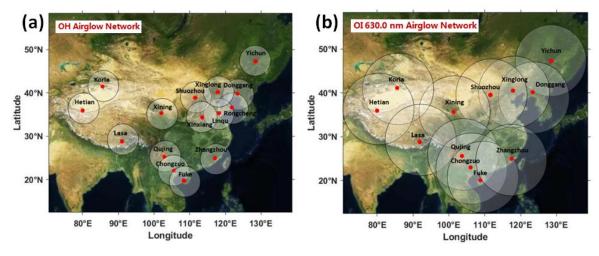
83 **2. Data and Methods**

84 **2.1 Double layer all-sky airglow imager network data**

85 The A DLAN, including an OH layer (~87 km) and an OI 630.0 nm layer (~250 km) was established over the mainland China. The research aim of the DLAN is to explore the 86 physical mechanism of vertical and horizontal propagation, as well as and the evolution of 87 atmospheric waves; triggered by severe disasters, such as typhoons, earthquakes, and 88 tsunamis, in various middle and upper atmospheric layers. The OH airglow network 89 comprises 15 stations, including the first no-gap OH airglow all-sky imager network located 90 in northern China (Xu et al., 2015). The OI 630.0 nm airglow network contains 12 stations. 91 Each imager consists of a 1024×1024 pixel back-illuminated CCD detector and a Nikon16 92 93 mm/2.8D fish-eye lens with a 180 ° field of view (FOV). The OI 630.0 nm imager is operated at the 3.0 nm band-width filter with a central thecentre wavelength of 630.0 nm. Observations 94 using airglow optical remote sensing require only a few airglow imagers to cover a wide area, 95 although it is limited by meteorological conditions. Moreover, airglow observations can be 96 used to monitor multi-layer GW activities. Figure 1a and 1b illustrate the OH and OI 630.0 97 nm network station distribution maps, respectively, in China. The OI 630.0 nm network 98

covers nearly the entire mainland China. Furthermore, the DLAN provides an excellent 99 solution for studying the coupling process among different atmospheric layers, especially the 100 101 mesosphere and thermosphere.

Several standard procedures were applied to raw airglow images, including star 102 contamination subtraction, flat fielding to remove van Rhijin, and atmospheric extinction (Li 103 et al., 2011). The GW structure was retrieved by taking the deviation of each processed 104 image from a half-hour running average window image. Finally, the images were projected 105 onto the Earth's surface using the standard star map software and the altitude of the airglow 106 107 layer (Garcia et al., 1997). The altitudes of the OH and OI 630.0 nm emission layers were set as approximately 87 km and 250 km, respectively. 108



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Figure 1. (a) OH airglow all-sky imager network (15 stations). (b) Red line (630 nm) airglow all-sky 111 imager network (12 stations). The circles on the maps give the effective observation ranges of OH and 112 Red line airglow imagers with diameters of about 800 km and 1800 km, respectively.

2.2 Development of Super Typhoon Chaba 113

Super Typhoon Chaba (2016) developed in the north-western Pacific on 24 September 114 2016 and its track is shown in Fig. 2a. Initially, it moved westward and then turned 115 north-westward on 30 September. The central pressure in the eye of the typhoon and the 116

117	maximum wind speed are shown in Fig. 2b. On 3 October 2016 at 1220:00 UTLT, the
118	typhoon was in the mature stage with a minimum central pressure of 905 hPa and maximum
119	sustained winds of approximately 59 m/s. The typhoon moved northward on $3-4$ October
120	2016 at <u>1802</u> :00 UT-LT until 4-5 October 2016 at <u>1802</u> :00 UTLT. The typhoon continued
121	moving towards the northeast and disappeared on 7-8 October 2016 at 1802:00 UTLT.
122	Consecutive satellite images of the typhoon from MTSAT-1R from 18:00 LT on 3 October
123	2016 to 00:00 LT on 5 October 2016 are shown in Fig. 3. MTSAT-1R, which belongs to the
124	Japan Meteorological Agency, comprises a series of Geo-stationary Meteorological Satellites.
125	MTSAT-1R is located at around 140 °E and covers East-Asia and the western Pacific region.
126	The MTSAT-1R consists of four infrared channels (IR1, IR2, IR3, and IR4) and one visible
127	channel (VIS). The MTSAT- IR1 was used in this study. The track of the typhoon was beyond
128	the effective FOV of the OH network and at the edge of the effective FOV of the OI 630.0 nm
129	network, which provides an excellent example for observing the CGWs stimulated by the
130	typhoon and studying the coupling among the atmospheric layers.

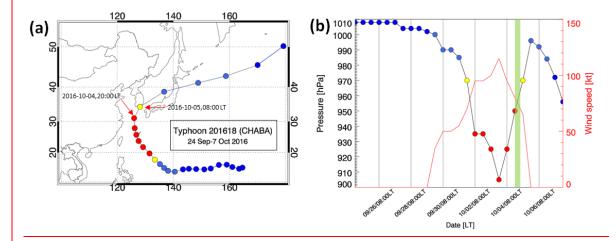




Figure 2. (a) The track of Typhoon Chaba is denoted by dots from 24 September to 7 October 2016 every
12 hours. (b) Central pressure of Typhoon Chaba corresponding to the tracks in (a). The red line denotes
the maximum sustained wind speed is presented in red line. The green shadow band denotes marks the

time of ground-based airglow observation from 20:00 LT to 04:00 LT during the night of 4-5 October

136 2016.

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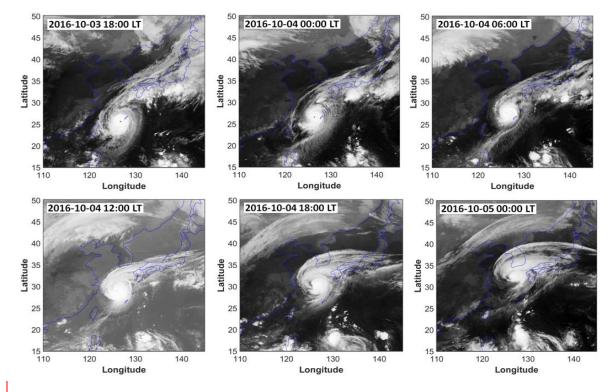


Figure 3. Consecutive satellite images of the typhoon Chaba from MTSAT-1R. The time spanperiod is
from 18:00 LT on 3 October 2016 to 00:00 LT on 5 October 2016, with an interval of 6 hours.

140 2.3 ERA-5 reanalysis data

ERA-5 is a fifth-generation ECMWF atmospheric reanalysis that provides hourly data 141 for many atmospheric and wave parameters. ERA-5 is produced using a four-dimensional 142 variational data assimilation algorithm based on Integrated Forecast System (IFS), with 137 143 hybrid sigma/pressure (model) levels in the vertical from 1000 hPa to 0.01 hPa (0 km to 80 144 km). More details of the model, data assimilation system, and observation data used to 145 produce ERA-5_have been_were described by Hersbach et al. (2020). Horizontal reanalysis 146 temperature and wind data with a pre-interpolated resolution of 0.25 °×0.25 °were used in this 147 study. The horizontal resolution of the reanalysis temperature and wind data with a 148 pre-interpolated resolution of $0.25 \,^{\circ} \times 0.25 \,^{\circ}$ wasused in this study. 149

150 2.4 Ray tracing model

We used a ray-tracing method to estimate the source location of the thermospheric secondary CGWs We use a ray tracing method to track the excitation source of the thermosphere secondary CGWs. This-The model is-was based on the a dispersion relation that considers the molecular viscosity and thermal diffusivity (Vadas, 2007), as shown in Equation (1):

156
$$m^{2} = \frac{k_{H}^{2} N^{2}}{\omega_{Ir}^{2} (1 + \delta_{+} + \delta^{2}/\mathrm{Pr})} \left[1 + \frac{\nu^{2}}{4\omega_{Ir}^{2}} (k^{2} - \frac{1}{4H^{2}})^{2} \frac{\left(1 - \mathrm{Pr}^{-1}\right)^{2}}{\left(1 + \delta_{+}/2\right)^{2}} \right]^{-1} - k_{H}^{2} - \frac{1}{4H^{2}}, \qquad (1)$$

where ω_{lr} is the intrinsic frequency; $\mathbf{k}^2 = k_H^2 + m^2$, $k_H^2 = k^2 + l^2$; k_H , and m are the zonal, 157 meridional, and vertical wave number components of the GW, respectively. The horizontal 158 wavelength (ky) of the CGW was obtained from the ground-based airglow observations; 159 $N^2 = (g/T)(dT/dz + g/c_p)$ is the square of the Brunt-V äs ä ä frequency, where g is the 160 gravitational acceleration, T is the background temperature, c, is the specific heat at constant 161 pressure, respectively; H is the scale height; $\nu = \mu/\rho$ is the kinematic viscosity, where μ is the 162 molecular viscosity, and $\bar{\rho}$ is the background density; $\delta = \nu m/H\omega_{\rm Ir}$, $\delta_+ = \delta(1 + Pr^{-1})$, where Pr163 is the Prandtlnumber. k, l, and m are the zonal, meridional, and vertical wave number 164 components of the GW, respectively. The horizontal wavelength (k_H) of the CGW was 165 obtained from the ground-based airglow observations; $N^2 = (g/T)(dT/dz + g/c_p)$ is the 166 square of the Brunt-V as a a frequency, where g is the gravitational acceleration, T is the 167 background temperature, c_p is the specific heat at constant pressure, respectively; The 168 background temperature T and density ρ were obtained from the NRLMSISE-00 model 169 (Picone et al., 2002). 170

171 The group velocity of the wave packet is formalized by Equation (2):

172
$$c_{gi} = dx_i/dt = \partial \omega/\partial k_i + V_i,$$
 (2)

where $V_i(u,v,w)$ is the background wind, which was obtained from the Horizontal Wind Model 14(Drob et al., 2015), and *w* is the vertical wind velocity, which was neglected. Using Equations (1)-(2), we yield the ground-based (zonal, meridional, and vertical) group velocity equation as follows (Vadas and Fritts, 2005):

177
$$c_{gx} = \frac{k}{\omega_{lr}B} \left[\frac{N^2 (m^2 + 1/4H^2)}{(k^2 + 1/4H^2)^2} - \frac{\nu^2}{2} (1 - \Pr^{-1})^2 (k^2 - \frac{1}{4H^2}) \frac{(1 + \delta_+ + \delta^2/\Pr)}{(1 + \delta_+/2)^2} \right] + u, \quad (3)$$

178
$$c_{gy} = \frac{l}{\omega_{h}B} \left[\frac{N^2 (m^2 + 1/4H^2)}{(k^2 + 1/4H^2)^2} - \frac{v^2}{2} (1 - Pr^{-1})^2 (k^2 - \frac{1}{4H^2}) \frac{(1 + \delta_+ + \delta^2/Pr)}{(1 + \delta_+/2)^2} \right] + v, \qquad (4)$$

$$c_{gz} = \frac{1}{\omega_{Ir}B} \left\{ m \left[-\frac{k_{H}^{2}N^{2}}{(k^{2}+1/4H^{2})^{2}} - \frac{v^{2}}{2} \left(1 - \Pr^{-1}\right)^{2} \left(k^{2} - \frac{1}{4H^{2}}\right) \frac{(1 + \delta_{+} + \delta^{2}/\Pr)}{\left(1 + \delta_{+}/2\right)^{2}} \right\} \right\},$$
179
$$v^{4} \left(1 - \Pr^{-1}\right)^{4} \left(k^{2} - \frac{1}{4H^{2}}\right)^{2} + k^{2} \left(1 - \Pr^{-1}\right)^{2} \left(k^{2} - \frac{1}{4H^{2}}\right)^{2} \right),$$
(5)

$$+\frac{v^{4}(1-\Pr^{-1})}{16H^{2}\omega_{lr}^{2}}\frac{(k^{2}-1/4H^{2})^{2}}{(1+\delta_{+}/2)^{3}}-\frac{v^{2}}{\Pr H^{2}}\left[-\frac{v_{+}\omega_{lr}}{2H}\right]$$

180 where B =
$$\left[1 + \frac{\delta_{+}}{2} + \frac{\delta^{2} v^{2}}{16\omega_{lr}^{2}} \left(1 - \Pr^{-1}\right)^{4} \frac{(k^{2} - 1/4H^{2})^{2}}{\left(1 + \delta_{+}/2\right)^{3}}\right], \nu_{+} = \nu (1 + Pr^{-1}).$$

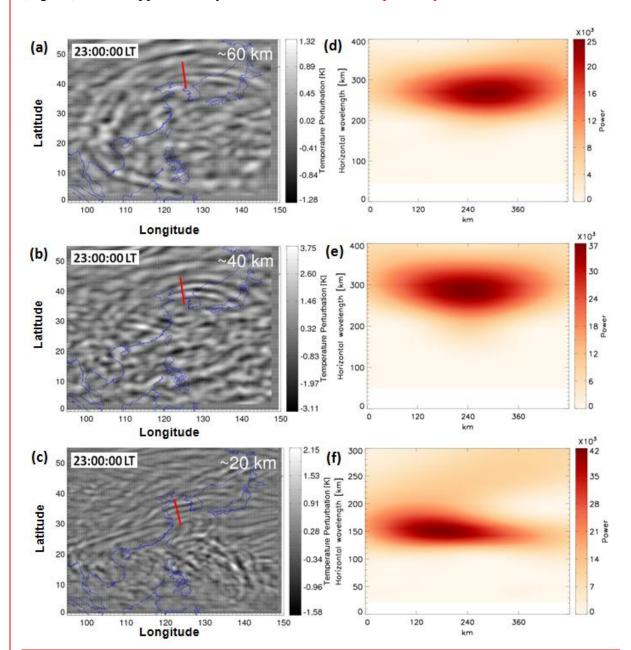
181 **3. Results**

182 CGWs were observed in OH and the OI 630.0 nm airglow networks during 2-5 October
 183 and 3-4 October, respectively, during super Typhoon Chaba (2016). This study focused on the
 184 CGW event that occurred on 4 October.

185 **3.1 Propagation of typhoon_induced CGWs in the stratosphere**

We extracted the CGWs excited by Typhoon in the stratosphere from the ERA-5 reanalysis data. Figure 4a, 4b, and 4c show the multilayer temperature perturbations at approximately 60 km at 24:00LT,40 km, and 20 km at 23:00 LT, retrieved from the ERA-5

189	reanalysis on 4 October 2016, respectively. Temperature perturbations were calculated by
190	subtracting the background with a $\underline{7} \times \underline{7}$ grid point running mean at 20 km and 17 $\times 17$ grid
191	point running mean at 40 km and 60 km. We found that the temperature disturbance was
192	about ± 1.5 -2 K at 20 km and ± 3 -4 K at 40 km. Using the ECMWF reanalysis data, Kim
193	et al. (2009) reported a similar temperature disturbance(\pm 4K) at 40 km altitude. Becker et al.
194	(2022) showed that typical temperature perturbation amplitudes simulated by a High
195	Altitude Mechanistic general Circulation Model were ±1-2 K in the wintertime lower
196	stratosphere and ±5 K in the stratopause region. However, the temperature disturbance at 60
197	km altitude was only ± 1.3 K and did not increase with increasing altitude, which may be
198	caused by this altitude being well within the sponge layer of the reanalysis model. Figure 4d,
199	4e, and 4f show the corresponding wavelet analysis contours of the red line in Fig. 4a, 4b,
200	and 4c. The temperature perturbations were calculated by subtracting the background from a
201	$\frac{5 \times 5}{\text{grid point running mean.}}$ The expansion area of CGW at the height of 20 km (Fig. 4c)
202	was small, and the horizontal wavelength is was approximately 150 km from Fig. 4f. Liu et al.
203	(2014) utilized the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate model and showed that the
204	horizontal area of the CGW expansion increases with increasing an increase in altitude. The
205	CGWs were present over embraced a large area of $(0 \text{ N} - 50 \text{ N})$ and $(100 \text{ E} - 150 \text{ E})$ at
206	approximately 60 km. The distance of the CGWs, extending from the center of the circle
207	ranged from 500 km (at approximately 20 km height) to 3000 km (at approximately 60 km
208	height). The ERA-5 reanalysis data was utilized for characterizing the scale of the CGWs and
209	indicated no small-scale fluctuation. According to the wavelet analysis of Fig. 4d and 4e, the
210	horizontal wavelengths of the northward propagating CGW at 60 km (Fig. 4a) and 40 km



211 (Fig. 4b) is were approximately 265 km and 290 km, respectively.

212

Figure 4. Temperature perturbations at (a) ~60 km at 24:00LT, (b) ~40 km, and (c)~20 km at 23:00LT
on 4 October 2016 derived from ERA-5 reanalysis. (d) The wWavelet power spectrum along the red line
in (a), (e) the wavelet power spectrum along the red line in (b), and (f) the wavelet power spectrum along
the red line in (c).

217 **3.2 Propagation of typhoon_induced CGWs in the mesosphere**

As the typhoon moved along the coast of China, CGWs were identified at ten stations

219	in the OH network. Animation 1 shows that CGWs were observed by the OH airglow
220	network during 20:00-04:00 LT (the detailed data can be downloaded from the
221	Supplementary Material). As the weather conditions in North China during the study period
222	were better than those in South China, we identified clearer wave structures at the northern
223	stations compared to those than at the southern stations. Nevertheless, circular wave
224	structures were visible for brief clear weather intervals at the Zhangzhou, Qujing, and
225	Chongzuo stations. The CGWs in the mesopause region extended to 2500 km, thereby
226	nearly covering the effective FOV of the OH airglow network.
227	Although the time resolution of the ERA-5reanalysis data is only 1 h, we can use the
228	OH airglow network with a high spatial (1 km) and temporal resolution (1 min) to track the
229	CGWs at different altitudes throughthe reanalysis data. As long as the CGWs do not
230	encounter the critical layer or break, the phase plane of CGWs from ERA-5 reanalysis
231	datasets can propagate to the OH airglow layer. Through the propagation group velocity, we
232	can determine the propagation time to the OH layer. Compared with the A single dominant
233	horizontal wavelength is seen at the altitudes of 20 km, 40 km, and 60 km in the ERA-5
234	reanalysis due to the limited resolution. In contrast, the horizontal scales of the CGW
235	obtained by the OH airglow network were diverse, ranging from approximately 30 km to
236	300 km as the imager has much higher spatial resolution. A single dominant horizontal
237	wavelength of CGW at the altitude of 20km, 40km, and 60km obtained by the
238	ERA-5reanalysisdue to the limitation of resolution.In contrastthe horizontal scales of CGW
239	obtained by OH airglow network are diverse, ranging from approximately 30km to 300km.
240	More importantly, we found some CGWs in the OH airglow layer, which are-were close to

241	the CGW wavelengths at 20 km, 40 km, and 60 km altitudes. To verify whether the phase
242	plane of the same wave was propagated from the reanalysis data layer to the OH layer, In
243	order to verify whether it is the same event, we used the group velocity to estimate the time
244	when the phase plane of CGW at the altitudes of 20 km, 40 km, and 60 km reaches reached
245	the OH airglow layer. The times required for the CGW in the three-layer disturbance
246	diagram in Fig. 4a, 4b, and 4c to reaching the OH layer were approximately 18 21 minutes,
247	36 minutes, and 53 minutes. Therefore, the time when the phase plane of CGWs from
248	ERA-5 at the height of 60 km, 40 km, and 20 km reaches the OH airglow layer is
249	approximately 0023:1821 LT, 23:36 LT, and 23:53 LT as shown in Fig. 5a, 5b, and 5c,
250	respectively. The wavelet analysis of Fig. 5f showed We find that the horizontal wavelength
251	of CGW in the OH airglow layer (Fig. 5c) is approximately 156 km-from the wavelet
252	analysis of Fig. 5f, the observed observation period is approximately 23 min, and the
253	horizontal speed is approximately 113 m/s, which is similar to the dominant horizontal
254	wavelength of the CGWs in the ERA-5 reanalysis horizontal wavelength of the atmosphere
255	at a height of 20 km altitude. Similarly, the horizontal wavelengths of CGW in the OH
256	airglow layers (Fig. 5a and 5b) is were approximately 270 km and 295 km from the wavelet
257	analysis of Fig. 5d and 5e, the observation period is approximately36min, and the
258	observation horizontal speed is approximately137m/s, which is similar to the dominant
259	horizontal wavelength of the CGWs in the ERA-5 reanalysis horizontal wavelength of the
260	atmosphere at the height of 60 km and 40 km altitudes. This suggests that the same CGW
261	event can be perfectly tracked at different layer altitudes, and it also suggests that the CGWs
262	in the mesosphere come from the direct excitation of the typhoon.

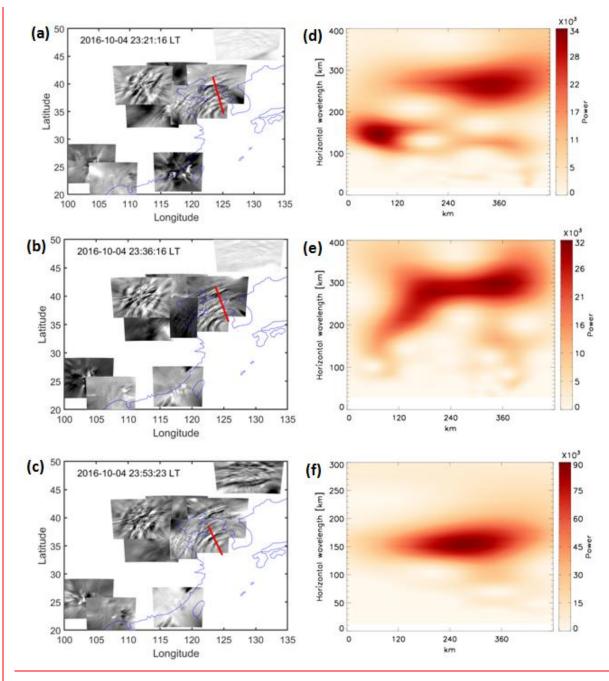


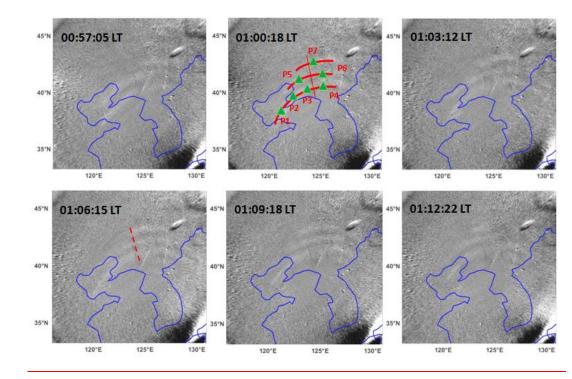
Figure 5. <u>OH airglow emission perturbations induced by</u> CGWs observed by the OH airglow imager network at (a)_0023:18-21_LT, (b) 23:36 LT, and (c) 23:53 LT on 4 October 2016. (d) The wWavelet power spectrum along the red line in (a), (e) the wavelet power spectrum along the red line in (b), and (f) the wavelet power spectrum along the red line in (c).

268 **3.3 How does-**typhoon_induced CGWs propagate to the thermosphere?

269 Furthermore, the OI 630.0nm airglow imager network observations at the Donggang
270 station revealed that the partial concentric ring feature lasted for 1 h from approximately

271	00:30 LT to 01:30 LT. The GWs generated in the troposphere can enter the thermosphere
272	before breaking and/or dissipating (Vadas, 2007; Azeem et al., 2015). In contrast,
273	thermospheric GWs can originate from secondary waves generated by the breaking of GWs in
274	the mesosphere (Vadas and Fritts, 2003; Vadas and Crowley, 2010; Vadas and Azeem, 2021).
275	Figure 6 shows the time sequence of the OI 630.0_nm airglow images from 00:57:05 LT
276	to 01:12:22 LT on the night of 4 October 2016. Three curved phase fronts are clearly visible.
277	The wave packet observed in the OI 630 nm airglow was quasi-monochromatic The wave
278	scale observed at the OI 630.0nm airglowwasmonochromatic. According to the wavelet
279	analysis spectrum in Fig. 7, the horizontal wavelength was approximately 120 km. The
280	observation period and phase velocity were 10 min and 200 m/s, respectively. It has a
281	horizontal wavelength of approximately120 km, observed period of approximately10 min,
282	and observedphase speed of approximately200m/s. The horizontal wavelength is was
283	somewhat less than the multi-scale typhoon-induced concentric traveling ionosphere
284	disturbances with a horizontal wavelength from 160 to 200 km in the GNSS-TEC network
285	as reported by Chou et al. (2017). We superimposed the thermospheric CGWs on the OH
286	airglow observation images denoted by the blue arcs in Fig. 9. The solid circles represent the
287	approximate fit of CGWs, as observed by the OH airglow network. The centre of the circles
288	is located at (31 N, 127 E), and is marked by a red dot. Compared with the single scale
289	wave observed in the OI 630.0 nm layer, multi-scale CGWs are visible from OH network
290	observations (see Fig.9). The CGW observed in the OI 630.0 nm airglow havinghad much
291	faster phase speed and shorter period, which indicate that its propagation trajectory was
292	relatively vertical. Nevertheless, the waves with a scale similar to that of the thermosphere

GWswere not identified by the OH airglow network. This means that they will not propagate 293 as far horizontally as the CGWs noted as dominant in the OH layer. Moreover Indeed, 294 295 compared with the long-distance extension of the CGWs in the mesosphere, the propagation distance of the CGWs in the thermosphere was only 600 km. Moreover, nNumerical 296 simulations revealed that the thermosphere GWs may originate from secondary GWs 297 generated by the breaking of primary GWs in the mesosphere or thermosphere region (Vadas 298 and Crowley, 2010). We argue that the following phenomenon can represent the potential 299 driver of this pattern. Specifically, the thermospheric CGW observed by the OI 630.0 nm 300 301 airglow imager was not directly generated by the typhoon, but a secondary GW. To test this hypothesis, the backward ray-tracing analysis was applied. In this way, we determined the 302 source of the CGW observed in the thermosphere. 303



304

Figure 6. A+Time sequence of OI 630.0 nm airglow emission perturbation images observed by Donggng
station during 00:57:05 - -01:12:22 LT on the night of 4 October 2016. Green triangles (P1-P7) in the red
arcs are used as ray tracing sampling points. The blue line in each panel represents the coastline.

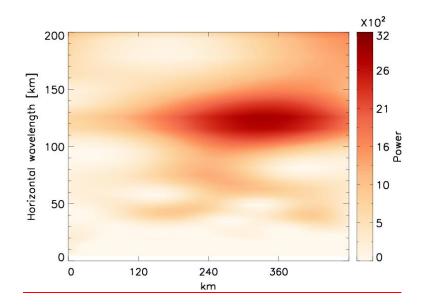




Figure 7. Wavelet power spectrum along the red line at 01:00:18 LT in Fig. 6.

310 We sampled four seven points (green triangles) on a circular wavefront (red line in Fig. 6) at 01:00:18 LT as the starting point for backward ray tracing. The starting height of the 311 312 backward ray tracing was 250 km. The profile of the winds used in the ray tracing is shown 313 in Fig. 8a. The ray tracing trajectories of the four-seven sampling points are shown in Fig. 8b. 314 We used the following criterion to terminate the ray tracing that: the square of the vertical 315 wavenumber should be negative. The ray-tracing results of three different heights of 240 km, 316 250 km, and 260 km were analyzed. The maximum uncertainty of horizontal change of 317 ray-tracing termination point caused by different starting heights was approximately $\pm 0.36^{\circ}$ in latitude and $\pm 0.17^{\circ}$ in longitude (see Figure 8c). Subsequently, four-seven backward 318 319 traced trajectories took 37 minutes and terminated at the an altitude of approximately 95 km 320 thereby indicating that it met the reflection layer 37 min earlier., which, according to linear 321 theory, suggests that the thermospheric CGW could not have come from below 95 km 322 according to linear theory. The thermospheric CGW could have been generated at any altitude between 95 km and the altitude of the OI 630.0 nm airglow. In other words, the 323

324	CGW observed in the thermosphere was excited <u>after at</u> approximately 00:23 LT.
325	Meanwhile, Figure 7e-9_presents the CGWs observed by the OH airglow network at
326	00:23:22 LT. We superimposed the thermospheric CGWs along with the starting ray tracing
327	points (green triangles) reproduced from Fig. 6, and the backward ray tracing termination
328	points (red diamonds) on the OH airglow observation images. The dotted circle represents
329	the approximate fitting thermospheric CGW fronts. The center of the circle is marked by a
330	blue cross. Compared with the single-scale wave observed in the OI 630.0 nm layer,
331	multi-scale CGWs were visible from OH network observations. We find found that the
332	termination points of ray tracing almost fall-fell above the mesopause region, which showing
333	clear signs of dissipation and/or nonlinear processes. This suggests that the CGW observed
334	in the thermosphere did not directly originate from the typhoon, but may have emerged due
335	to the dissipation and/or nonlinear processes of typhoon-induced CGW in the mesopause
336	region. However, the backward tracing terminal positions (red diamonds in Fig. 9) did not
337	coincide with the fitting circle center position (blue cross in Fig. 9). Nevertheless, according
338	to numerical simulation work by Vadas et al. (2009), large winds can shift the apparent
339	center of concentric rings from the location of the convective plume. Indeed, we found
340	strong southward winds from100 km to 140 km (with a peak value of 50 m/s at 150 km
341	altitude) and from 160 km to 220 km (with a peak value of 25 m/s at 175 km altitude)
342	altitudes (right panel of Figure 8a). So the center of the thermospheric CGW can be shifted
343	southward from the location of the thermospheric CGW sources in the mesopause region.
344	For the zonal wind, the westward wind dominated from the upper mesosphere to the
345	thermosphere (left panel of Figure 8a). Similarly, the thermospheric CGW center position

346	shifted westward. Therefore, the assumed center (blue cross) of the partial concentric ring
347	GWs (blue arcs) actually shifted to the southwest from the real source location, which can
348	explain why the ray-tracing result for the assumed GW source did not match the fitting
349	center of the partial concentric ring thermospheric GWs. As the ray-tracing model used in
350	this study depended on the linear theory and does did not consider the wave-wave
351	and wave-mean flow interactions and tunneling, the ray tracing results are were limited and
352	should be carefully taken into consideration carefully.

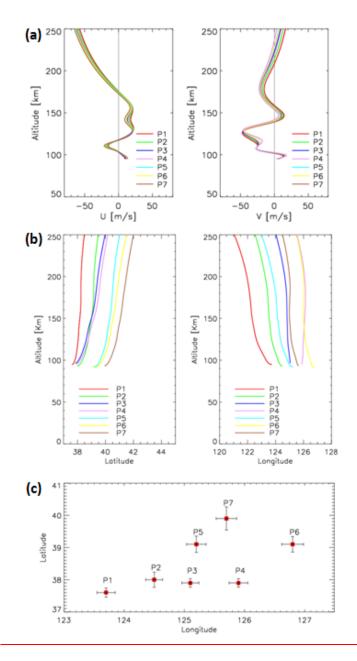


Figure 78. (a) Wind profiles along the seven ray-tracing paths. (b) Ray paths of the wave starting from the
seven sampling points in Fig.6. (c) Horizontal area distribution of the terminal positions of the seven
backward traced trajectories. Error bars give standard deviation for each point from the starting altitude of
240 km, 250 km, and 260 km.

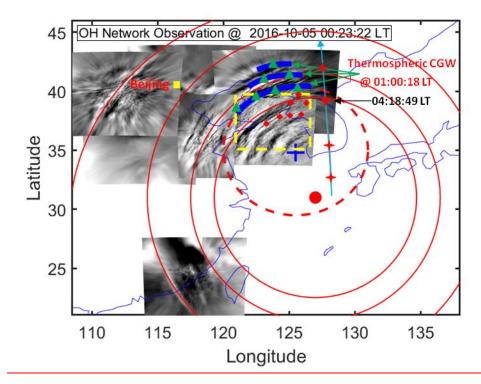
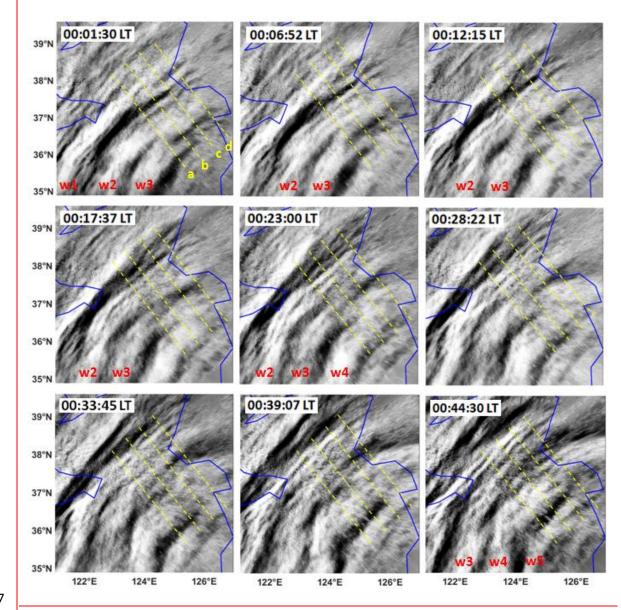


Figure 9. TwoDouble layer CGW_superimposed graph: The blue arcs represent the thermospheric CGW observed at 01:00:18 LT. The dotted circle represents the approximate fitting blue arcs. The blue cross marks_The_the_center of the circle-is marked by a blue cross. The solid circles represent the approximate fitting CGWs observed by the OH airglow network. The red dot marks the center of the circles-is marked by a red dot. The green triangles and red solid-diamonds_lines_represent the trace start and termination points-and backward trajectories, respectively._The red crosses represent the sounding footprints of the TIMED/SABER measurements. The yellow box marks the location of the meteor radar station.

358

367 **4. Discussion**

We showed that the strong CGWs and wave dissipating events were observed by the OH airglow network both before and during the observed thermospheric CGWs on 4 October 2016. Figure 8-10 presents a time sequence of OH airglow images in the range marked by the yellow dotted rectangle in Fig.7e9. The images were retrieved from the Rongcheng station from 00:01:30_to 00:44:30 LT on the night of 4 October 2016. At 00:01:30 LT, three distinct curved wavefronts with thehorizontal wavelengths of approximately 96 km were identified. Interestingly, the-wavefronts 2 and 3 collided and
connected in the northeast, indicating that <u>wave-wave</u> nonlinear interactions may have
occurred.



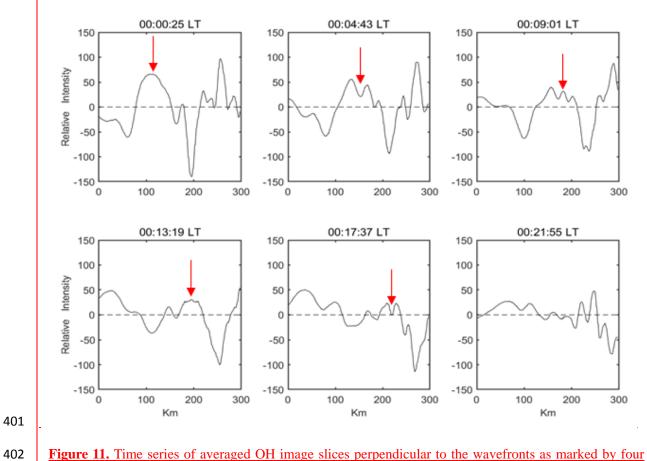
377

Figure810. <u>A tT</u>ime sequence of OH airglow <u>emission perturbation</u> images observed by Rongcheng
station during 01:01:30-00:44:30 LT on the night of 4 October 2016.w1-w5 denote the wavefronts of the
CGW. Red squares denote the terminal positions of the four backwardtraced trajectories in Fig. 7a. The
blue line in each panel represents the coastline.

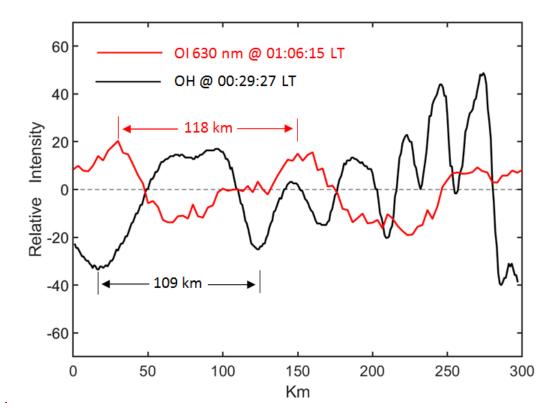
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We elucidated the dissipation process of the CGWs in detail_by examining_the

383	evolution process of its-their amplitude. Figure 9-11 shows the time series of the OH image
384	slices perpendicular to the wavefronts. A dominant wavelength of approximately 150 km
385	can be confirmed. As a result, we found a significant attenuation of the amplitude from
386	00:06:52 LT to $00:\frac{2117}{55}$. At 00:06:52 LT, while the relative average power is was
387	2.3×10^3 , and the amplitude decreased gradually with time. At $00:\frac{21}{17}:\frac{55}{37}$ LT, the
388	average power decreased_to_ $0.140.15 \times 10^3$. At the same time, w We also identified the
389	generation of <u>approximately 110 km and 20-50 km</u> small-scale waves from the larger scales,
390	which may be caused by wave-wave nonlinear interactions and/or wave breaking. We
391	overlayed the OI 630 nm airglow relative intensity variation on the OH airglow variation
392	and Figure 12 shows OH and OI 630 nm airglow relative intensity variations. The OH plot
393	was obtained at 00:29:27 LT and the OI 630 nm plot at 01:06:15 LT. The time interval of 37
394	min was calculated by the above ray tracing analysis. We obtained similar scale fluctuations
395	were obtained in the two airglow layers. The horizontal wavelength of the wave obtained by
396	the OI 630 nm airglow layer was approximately 118 km. The OH airglow layer has also
397	obtained near-scale fluctuations with wavelengths of approximately 109 km. Therefore, the
398	CGW in the thermosphere may come from breaking or nonlinear processes of that primary
399	gravity waves



yellow dotted lines (a, b, c, and d) in Fig.10. The wavefronts propagate from left to right. The red arrows mark the evolution of the wavefront peak.



406 Figure 12. OH (black) and OI 630 nm (red) airglow relative intensity variations. The OH relative
407 intensity variation is obtained as in Fig. 11. The OI 630 nm relative intensity variation is from the red
408 dotted line in Fig.10 at 01:06:15 LT.

409 However, wavepacket amplitude fluctuations can also result from the transient nature 410 of the wavepacket. However, the observed CGW dissipation may be caused by the upward 411 CGW passing through the airglow. Notably, the observed CGW dissipation is real, unless it propagates horizontally. The propagation state can be studied by using the dispersion 412 relationship with GW, but the dissipation region of the CGW lacks the real-time background 413 temperature and wind field. In this context, TIMED/SABER can be beneficial because it 414 415 occurred near the wave-dissipation region; however, the time lag was close to approximately 4 h. On this basis, we used the meteor radar wind field data from the Beijing station as 416 auxiliary information. We further examined the dispersion relationship of GW, thereby 417 418 shedding some light on the possible propagation state of dissipative waves. Figure $\frac{1013}{10}$

419	presents the vertical wave number m ² profile derived from the Beijing meteor radar wind
420	and the temperature from the TIMED/SABER sound at 04:18:49 LT, as marked in Fig.7e9.
421	The wave parameters used were from the wavefronts (w1-w5) in Fig.10. The average
422	horizontal wavelength was approximately 96 km and the average observed phase velocity is
423	approximately 90 m/s. We identified a clear_duct (from 87 km to 94 km) near the peak of the
424	OH airglow layer. Note that the duct can control the horizontal propagation of CGW. This
425	implies that the CGW may indeed be dissipated. In contrast, the upper boundary of the duct
426	coincides <u>coincided</u> with the height of the ray-tracing termination area mentioned above.
427	During the wave dissipation, momentum deposition occurs in the background atmosphere
428	and can produce bodyforces that stimulate the secondary GWs (Fritts et al., 2006; Chun and
429	Kim, 2008; Smith et al., 2013; Vadas et al., 2018; Heale et al., 2020). In addition, the
430	secondary waves can be generated by momentum transferred nonlinearly from the primary
431	wave mode to harmonics or subharmonics (Snively, 2017). Local momentum flux
432	divergence associated with wave breaking, vortex generation, and wave interactions can also
433	generate secondary GWs (Fritts et al., 2006).
42.4	

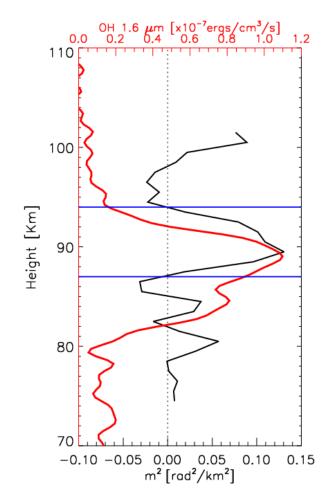


Figure 1013. Vertical wave number m² derived from the temperature from TIMED/SABER sound at
04:18:49 LT and the meteor radar wind from Beijing station marked in Fig. 7e9. The red line represents
the OH1.6 μm emission intensity obtained by the TIMED/SABER. The horizontal lines represent the top
and bottom boundaries of the duct region.

5. Summary

442	In this study, a double layer airglow network (DLAN) was used to capture the CGWs
443	over China, which that were excited by the Super Typhoon Chaba (2016). When As Super
444	Typhoon Chaba (2016) moved northward along the coast of the Chinese Mainland and
445	developed to a mature stage, remarkable multi-layer CGW features produced by the
446	Typhoon from near the ground to a height of 250 km were observed by ERA-5 reanalysis and

447 <u>airglow network.</u> We applied <u>the MTSAT-1R observations</u>, ERA-5 reanalysis data, and
448 <u>backward ray tracing and to quantitatively described</u> the physical mechanism of
449 typhoon-generated CGWs propagating throughout the stratosphere, mesosphere, and
450 thermosphere.

The temperature disturbance was approximately ± 1.5 -2 K at 20 km and ± 3 -4K at 40 km. However, the temperature disturbance (± 1.3 K) at 60 km altitude did not increase with further increase in altitude, which may be caused by the sponge layer effect. Using reanalysis of multi-layer temperature disturbance, group velocity of gravity wave and wavelet analysis, we demonstrated that the CGWs in the mesopause region were excited directly by the typhoon.

Due to the observational limitations, a backward ray-tracing theory was used to connect 457 the upper mesosphere and GWs to the thermosphere. We found that the termination points of 458 459 ray tracing of the thermospheric CGW almost fell above the mesopause region, which shows clear signs of primary CGW dissipation and/or nonlinear processes. Backward ray-tracing 460 461 analysis and the CGWs evolution process observed by OH network suggested that the CGW 462 observed in the thermosphere did not directly originate from the typhoon but may have 463 emerged due to dissipation and/or nonlinear processes of typhoon-induced CGWs in the mesopause region. Airglow network observations combined with numerical simulation to 464 study the generation of secondary wave in detail will be carried out in the future. 465 466 467

- 468
- 469

470 *Data availability*

The Double Layer Airglow Network data are available at http://159.226.22.74/. The ERA-5 reanalysis data are downloaded from the Copernicus Climate Change Service Climate Data Store through https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5. The typhoon information are provided at http://agora.ex.nii.ac.jp/digital-typhoon/. MTSAT-1R data is accessed from http://webgms.iis.u-tokyo.ac.jp/.

476

477 Video supplement

A video of detailed evolutions of CGWs excited by the Typhoon observed by OH airglow
observation network is provided (https://doi.org/10.5446/55348).

480

481 Author contributions

J. X conceived the idea of the manuscript. Q. L. carried out the data analysis, interpretation
and manuscript preparation. H. L. L., X. L and W. Y. contributed to the data interpretation
and manuscript preparation. All authors discussed the results and commented on the
manuscript.

486

487 *Competing interests*

488 The authors declare no competing interests.

489

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