

1 **Co-located wind and temperature observations at**
2 **mid-latitudes during mesospheric inversion layer events**

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6 **Key Points:**

- 7 • First simultaneous wind and temperature observations in the altitude range 30-
8 90 km during mesospheric inversion layer events.
9 • According to these new observations, there is a strong wind deceleration occur-
10 ring at the same altitude that the temperature inversion.
11 • These results argue in favor of the MIL's formation mechanism involving gravity
12 wave dissipation.

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Abstract

[The mesospheric inversion layer (MIL) phenomenon refers to a temperature enhancement (10-50 K) in a vertical layer (~ 10 km) lasting several days and spanning thousands of kilometers within the mesosphere. As MILs govern the mesospheric variability, their study is crucial for a better understanding of the middle-atmosphere global circulation and applications in aeronautics since perturbations in the mesosphere are significant issues for the safe reentry of rockets, space shuttles, or missiles. However, the description of this phenomenon remains partial, as no observations of MIL's effects on winds exist, preventing a complete understanding of the mechanisms responsible for their formation. Here, we first report an investigation of simultaneous wind-temperature observations in the altitude range of 30-90 km during MIL events. As a result, the profiles exhibit a strong winds deceleration occurring in the same altitude range that the temperature inversion, confirming the role of gravity waves in MIL's formation mechanisms.]

Plain Language Summary

[In the atmosphere, waves propagate from the lower to upper layers, transferring their momentum to the medium. The mesosphere (50-90 km) is subject to these energy transfers causing unexpected temperature increases (10-50 K) over a vertical layer (~ 10 km). These deviations are named mesospheric inversion layers (MILs). Though largely observed in temperature profiles, the MIL phenomenon is partially misunderstood as MIL's impacts on the wind in the middle atmosphere remain unknown. In this study, we first provide observed simultaneous wind-temperature profiles between 30 and 90 km during MIL events. We found a strong wind deceleration in the same altitude range where the temperature increases. This result argues in favor of the role of gravity waves in MIL's formation mechanisms.]

1 Introduction

The mesosphere (50-90 km) is a substantial layer where large and small-scale perturbations occur, essentially due to the propagation and the breaking of atmospheric tides and waves from sources above and below, inducing deviations from its natural thermal structure. Among these perturbations, the so-called Mesospheric Inversion Layer (MIL) is now recognized to be responsible for a large part of the mesospheric variability. Additionally, since mesospheric perturbations are significant issues for applications in aeronautics and particularly the safe reentry of space shuttles and missiles (Wing et al., 2020), MILs have aroused large interest. Indeed, since the first MIL phenomenon's signatures observed by rockets (e.g., Stroud et al., 1960; Theon et al., 1967; Schmidlin, 1976), reporting a non-expected positive lapse rate in the mesosphere, numerous observations, and studies of MIL events have been performed, regularly documenting the advances on this topic (e.g., Leblanc & Hauchecorne, 1997; Gan et al., 2012; Dao et al., 1995; Duck et al., 2001; Leblanc et al., 1995; Cutler et al., 2001). An important review of the knowledge state on the MIL phenomenon has been carried out by Meriwether and Gardner (2000). At first, the MIL is defined as a layer of about 10 km with enhanced temperature between 15 and 50 K, spanning over a thousand square kilometers over several days. Currently, MILs are known to occur quite often at low to mid-latitudes, preferentially in winter, and have been separated into two subtypes: the lower MIL, occurring between 65 and 80 km, especially in winter, and the upper MIL, occurring above 85 km. Different mechanisms have been suggested to explain their formation: planetary waves dissipation (Salby et al., 2002; France et al., 2015), gravity waves and tides interaction (Liu & Hagan, 1998; Meriwether & Gardner, 2000) or chemical heating (Meriwether & Mlynczak, 1995; Ramesh et al., 2013), but they remain not entirely described and are still an active research field. Among the missing information in the description of the MIL phenomenon, the wind behavior in the whole middle atmosphere (30-90 km) when a MIL

63 event occurs remains an unanswered question even though several studies have suggested
64 its significant role in the MIL appearance (Meriwether & Gerrard, 2004). For instance,
65 Hauchecorne et al. (1987), who estimated the role of gravity wave dissipation in the MIL's
66 persistence, shows that this process strongly depends on the temperature and the back-
67 ground wind. On the other hand, Salby et al. (2002) and Sassi et al. (2002), focusing on
68 the mechanism of MIL creation, have revealed with simulations that the planetary wave
69 breaking is supposed to occur in the same altitude range of a weak zonal wind region.
70 Therefore, this question is a substantial stake in understanding the MIL phenomenon
71 and, more broadly, the impacts on general middle atmosphere circulation. Although some
72 studies have reported simultaneous wind-temperature observations in the middle atmo-
73 sphere (e.g., Stroud et al., 1960; Theon et al., 1967; Baumgarten, 2010), most of them
74 did not focus on the MIL phenomenon, while sometimes detecting a MIL without know-
75 ing the phenomenon, and therefore did not lead to further wind observations in the frame
76 of the MIL study. For instance, Stroud et al. (1960), unaware of the MIL phenomenon,
77 reported a temperature inversion at 80 km with strong wind shear at the same altitude
78 without giving any explanation to this observed behavior.

79 Despite this supposed role, among studies focusing on MILs, only simultaneous zonal
80 wind and temperature observations from Na LiDAR in the altitude range 85-100 km have
81 been reported in Huang et al. (1998, 2002) who detected a large wind shear associated
82 with a MIL. However, more than this partial description of the wind signature at up-
83 per MIL altitudes is required to determine the entire shear profile or study how grav-
84 ity waves propagate from the stratosphere to the thermosphere (Le Du et al., 2022).

85 Consequently, all the theoretical and modeled wind behavior assumptions in the
86 middle atmosphere during a MIL event have never been confirmed due to the absence
87 of accurate co-located and simultaneous temperature and wind measurements in this part
88 of the atmosphere. The main reason was the challenge of measuring winds accurately
89 across this wide range of altitudes with the former instruments (Meriwether & Gerrard,
90 2004). To our knowledge, the DYANA campaign, which took place in the northern hemi-
91 sphere in 1990, is one the rare campaign during which Rayleigh LiDAR and falling spheres
92 simultaneously measured temperature and wind, respectively, in the whole middle at-
93 mosphere. However, the characteristics of the MILs observed during this campaign were
94 not studied as this was not one of the main objectives and are therefore revealed for the
95 first time in this study. Since then, and as the falling sphere profiles suffer from signif-
96 icant smoothing and bias (see here Fig. 1) due to the large speed of the payload in the
97 mesosphere, making this technique, not enough reliable (Lübken et al., 1994), the remote
98 sensing techniques have been developed, particularly with the rise of the Doppler Rayleigh
99 LiDAR technology capable of accurately measuring the temperature and wind in the at-
100 mospheric window of 30-90 km. Such LiDAR currently operates at the Observatoire of
101 Haute-Provence (OHP) in addition to the Rayleigh LiDAR and Ozone LiDAR, measur-
102 ing the temperature and monitoring the ozone, respectively, making the OHP one of the
103 rare station in the world where co-located and simultaneous wind-temperature obser-
104 vations in the middle-atmosphere are possible.

105 In this context, our study aims to answer how the winds evolve during MIL events
106 by providing the first time simultaneous temperature and wind observations acquired
107 at two locations in the south of France in the altitude range of 30-90 km. The two ob-
108 servation data sets used here were acquired at Biscarrosse during the DYANA campaign
109 in 1990 and at the OHP, located 550 km apart, in 2021/2022 winter. As Biscarrosse and
110 OHP stations exhibit a similar mesospheric climatology (Hauchecorne et al., 1991), it
111 is interesting to investigate the MIL's signature at both sites. Additionally, we explored
112 how ERA5 reanalyses simulated the wind and temperature during MIL events.

113 The publication is structured as follows. In Section 2, the data set from DYANA
114 and Aeolus Validation campaigns as well as ERA5 reanalyses are presented. Then, the
115 method to identify and to characterize MIL events is described in Section 3. Afterward,

116 the temperature-wind observations for each selected date with MIL events are shown and
 117 commented in Section 4. Finally, mechanisms responsible for lower MILs are discussed,
 118 and perspectives are given in Section 5.

119 2 Data description

120 2.1 The DYANA Campaign: Rayleigh LiDAR and Falling Spheres

121 The DYANA (DYnamics Adapted Network for the Atmosphere) campaign was con-
 122 ducted in the northern hemisphere over a large horizontal area from January to March
 123 1990 in order to explore the middle atmosphere dynamics (10-100 km). The DYANA cam-
 124 paign was designed to improve the lack of horizontal coverage missing during previous
 125 campaigns. The main dynamical objectives were to study the large, medium, and small-
 126 scale variations generated by planetary waves, gravity waves, tides, and turbulence. An-
 127 other aim was to inter-compare measurements in order to cross-check experimental meth-
 128 ods. Thus, several techniques were employed during these three months to measure tem-
 129 perature and density from multiple ground-based stations. The set of these techniques
 130 with their monitored height range was: rocket bornes (90-115 km), falling spheres (30-
 131 90 km), Rayleigh LiDAR (30-90 km), sodium LiDAR (80-105 km), data sondes (25-65
 132 km) and radiosondes (0-32 km). Coordinated temperature and density measurements
 133 were occasionally performed from different instruments at the exact location and approx-
 134 imately the same periods (about 1h) to perform inter-comparisons. For instance, the sta-
 135 tion based in southwest France at Biscarrosse (44°N-1°W) benefited from simultaneous
 136 observations from Rayleigh LiDAR and falling spheres. During the campaign, falling spheres
 137 were released at about 110 km altitude to obtain, from the radar position information,
 138 density, temperature, and winds profiles in the middle atmosphere. A detailed descrip-
 139 tion of the falling sphere technique can be found in Engler (1965) and Jones and Peter-
 140 son (1968). At the ground, a Rayleigh LiDAR measured the density profile by count-
 141 ing the number of photons, and then the temperature was inferred by assuming hydro-
 142 static equilibrium in the 30-90 km range, where a pure molecular backscattering is ex-
 143 pected. The vertical resolution of LiDAR temperature profiles is typically 200 m. The
 144 Rayleigh Lidar method and the technical information about the LiDAR located at Bis-
 145 carrosse have been described in Hauchecorne et al. (1991). The complete description of
 146 the DYANA campaign and its objectives have been reported in Offermann (1994). The
 147 presentation of each instrumental technique and the inter-comparison results are shown
 148 in Lübken et al. (1994). In the measurements data set carried out at Biscarrosse in 1990,
 149 eight dates of co-located and simultaneous temperature-wind observations are available.

150 2.2 Aeolus Validation Campaign: OHP LiDARs

151 In August 2018, in the frame of the Living Planet Program, Aeolus satellite was
 152 launched by the European Space Agency (ESA) in order to provide global wind profiles
 153 from the surface to 30 km for a three years period (Straume, A.G. et al., 2020). The Ae-
 154 olus satellite measures horizontal line-of-sight (HLOS) winds with a Doppler wind Li-
 155 DAR named ALADIN (Atmospheric LAsER Doppler Instrument) which is the first ever
 156 Doppler Wind LiDAR (DWL) embarked on a satellite. In the meantime and in order
 157 to assess and to validate Aeolus wind observations, ground-based Doppler LiDAR ob-
 158 servations within the AboVE-2 (Aeolus Validation Experiment) were undertaken at the
 159 Observatory of Haute-Provence (OHP, 44°N, 6°E) (Ratynski et al., 2022) where the double-
 160 edge technique for wind profiling, which is realized in ALADIN Rayleigh channel, was
 161 first demonstrated (Chanin et al., 1989; Garnier et al., 1992). For decades, several co-
 162 located LiDARs have been monitoring the middle atmosphere at the OHP within the
 163 Network for the Detection of Composition Changes (NDACC). Since 1993, a LIOvent
 164 Doppler LiDAR has been measuring the wind velocities at OHP providing the first lidar-
 165 based wind climatology in the middle atmosphere (Souprayen et al., 1999). The prin-

166 ciple, using the Rayleigh backscattering at 532 nm, is based on the Doppler shift between
 167 the emitted and the backscattered laser light caused by the displacement of scattering
 168 molecules relative to the LiDAR. The detection of Doppler shift is performed employ-
 169 ing a double-edge Fabry-Perot interferometer. The complete description of the Doppler
 170 LiDAR's technique and the instrument design at OHP has been reported in Chanin et
 171 al. (1989) and more recently in Khaykin et al. (2020).

172 Finally, an Ozone LiDAR has been monitoring the ozone as part of the Network
 173 for the Detection of Stratospheric Changes (NDSC). The Ozone LiDAR's principle rests
 174 on the DIAL (Differential Absorption Lidar) technique requiring the emission of two sim-
 175 ultaneous laser wavelengths, 308 (absorbing) and 355 (non-absorbing) nm here, with
 176 differential absorption by ozone to provide its vertical profile. The method and the tech-
 177 nical information about the Ozone LiDAR at OHP have been described in several stud-
 178 ies (e.g., Godin-Beekmann et al., 2003; Wing et al., 2018). Thus, in order to perform sim-
 179 ultaneous wind and temperature measurements at OHP, the temperature observations
 180 can also be derived by the Ozone LiDAR in off mode by using only the non-absorbing
 181 channel (355 nm). Therefore, in addition to the dataset from the DYANA campaign, we
 182 benefited from 44 dates of simultaneous observations of temperature and wind carried
 183 out at the OHP from 2018 to 2022.

184 2.3 ERA5 Reanalyses

185 The ERA5 reanalyses are the last generation of reanalyses, archiving the past cli-
 186 mate on earth from 1950 to the present, produced by the ECMWF (European Center
 187 Medium for Weather Forecast) since 2016. These ERA5 reanalyses are produced with
 188 a 4DVar assimilation scheme and the integrated system forecast (IFS) Cycle 41r2. The
 189 ERA5 output is constructed every hour on a 0.25° latitude-longitude grid and 137 ver-
 190 tical levels lying from the surface to the level pressure 0.01hPa (approximately 80 km).
 191 More technical information about ERA5 reanalyses can be found in Hersbach et al. (2020).
 192 Here, in order to pursue investigations on how the ECMWF model simulates the MIL
 193 phenomenon already undertaken in Mariaccia et al. (2022), ERA5 wind and tempera-
 194 ture reanalyses are extracted at the nearest hour of the mid of acquisitions for the six
 195 dates shown above Biscarrosse and the OHP (Fig. 1 and 2).

196 3 Method for identifying and characterizing MILs

197 Here, in order to identify MIL events within the temperature profiles, we followed
 198 the method developed by Leblanc and Hauchecorne (1997) and Fechine et al. (2008), which
 199 has been applied in numerous previous studies (e.g., Cutler et al., 2001; Leblanc et al.,
 200 1998; Ardalan et al., 2022). According to them, a MIL is identified when these three cri-
 201 teria are observed:

- 202 • The MIL bottom must be at least 5 km above the stratopause and the MIL top
 203 below 90 km.
- 204 • The temperature perturbation must be significant relative to the measurement un-
 205 certainty, i.e., $T_{err} < \Delta T$.
- 206 • Finally, the temperature amplitude must be 2σ larger than the temperature fluc-
 207 tuations expected by gravity waves at these altitudes. According to Mz e et al. (2014),
 208 gravity waves are expected to generate perturbations of 1.6 K at 50 km and 4 K
 209 at 75 km.

210 Afterward, we characterized each observed MIL by computing their amplitude, thick-
 211 ness, and gradient similarly to the method developed in Ardalan et al. (2022) (see their
 212 Figure 2). Thus, for each observed temperature profile, our algorithm identified two al-
 213 titudes: the altitude of the bottom MIL from which the temperature gradient reverses

214 and the altitude of the top MIL where the temperature maximum is reached. These two
 215 altitudes are pointed out with horizontal solid lines in Figures 1 and 2 delimiting the ob-
 216 served MIL's altitude range (ΔZ_{MIL}). Finally, the altitude corresponding to the poten-
 217 tial extension of the temperature anomaly is determined when the temperature profile
 218 returns to the standard climatology which is determined somehow arbitrarily. Thus, am-
 219 plitudes of temperature increase (ΔT) within the MIL is computed over the ΔZ_{MIL} thick-
 220 ness (Fig. 1) for each profile. As the reversal of temperature gradients remains a bet-
 221 ter indicator than a wind drop to identify MILs and since observed wind drop occurs around
 222 where temperature rises, zonal (ΔU) and meridional (ΔV) wind deviations caused by
 223 these temperature inversions are also calculated over the thickness ΔZ_{MIL} .

224 4 Results

225 4.1 DYANA campaign in Biscarrosse

226 As a result, only two dates in the data from the DYANA campaign possess lower
 227 MIL presences which are exploitable. Figure 1 shows temperature zonal and meridional
 228 wind profiles measured by LiDAR and falling spheres. Simulated temperature profiles
 229 are provided by ERA5 for these two cases in the middle atmosphere during which lower
 230 MILs were present. According to these profiles, it is evident that a connection exists be-
 231 tween the temperature and wind evolutions, i.e., a wind deceleration occurs, sometimes
 232 leading to a wind reversal for both meridional and zonal winds when the temperature
 233 increases. Moreover, this wind deceleration tends to start at an altitude around the al-
 234 titude where the temperature inversion starts. For instance, the MIL observed on 18 Jan
 235 1990 illustrates very well this behavior with a temperature increase of 13.6 ± 0.8 K, caus-
 236 ing the deceleration of the total wind lying from 92 m.s^{-1} to 12 m.s^{-1} . While, for the
 237 MIL observed on 5 Feb 1990, a lower deceleration of the total wind is found lying from
 238 51 m.s^{-1} to 37 m.s^{-1} for a temperature elevation of 24.4 ± 3 K. Thus, according to these
 239 results, the magnitude of the wind deceleration is not necessarily linearly linked with the
 240 temperature amplitude of the MIL. However, since the method to compute the wind de-
 241 crease is based on the vertical domain where the temperature positive gradient is observed
 242 and not in the altitude range where the observed wind really started and finished to de-
 243 accelerate, these results possess some uncertainties on calculated values. Nevertheless, this
 244 method allows to capture the wind deceleration process occurring during a MIL phenomenon.

245 The temperature measured by the falling sphere are compared with the collocated
 246 LiDAR temperature profile for the same dates. As a result, falling spheres' temperatures
 247 are systematically lower than LiDAR temperatures between 65 and 70-75 km for the two
 248 dates. Lübken et al. (1994) have reported that this difference is about 5 K between 65
 249 and 77 km and is mainly due to drag uncertainty associated with the sphere descent that
 250 has a big impact during the transition from super to sub-sonic at these altitudes. Thus,
 251 18 Jan 1990, the LiDAR detected the MIL bottom at around 65 km, while the falling
 252 sphere temperature profiles exhibit the MIL bottom higher near 68 km. However, the
 253 bottom of the MIL observed by the LiDAR corresponds better to the altitude where zonal
 254 and meridional winds start to decrease. Furthermore, the temperature profile from the
 255 falling spheres possesses a noise not realistic between 30 and 40 km, caused by an effect
 256 of vertical winds (Lübken et al., 1994), that is absent in the LiDAR profile. Therefore,
 257 to characterize mesospheric inversions with minimum uncertainty, only the temperature
 258 profiles acquired from Rayleigh LiDAR during the DYANA campaign are used to com-
 259 pute MIL's temperature amplitudes.

260 On the other hand, we notice that the ERA5 reanalyses imprecisely simulated the
 261 magnitude, thickness, and altitude of the temperature inversion for these two dates. Sur-
 262 prisingly, for both dates, the zonal and meridional winds deceleration processes associ-
 263 ated with the MIL are simulated with quite realistic magnitudes in ERA5 but starting
 264 at lower altitudes than in spheres' observations.

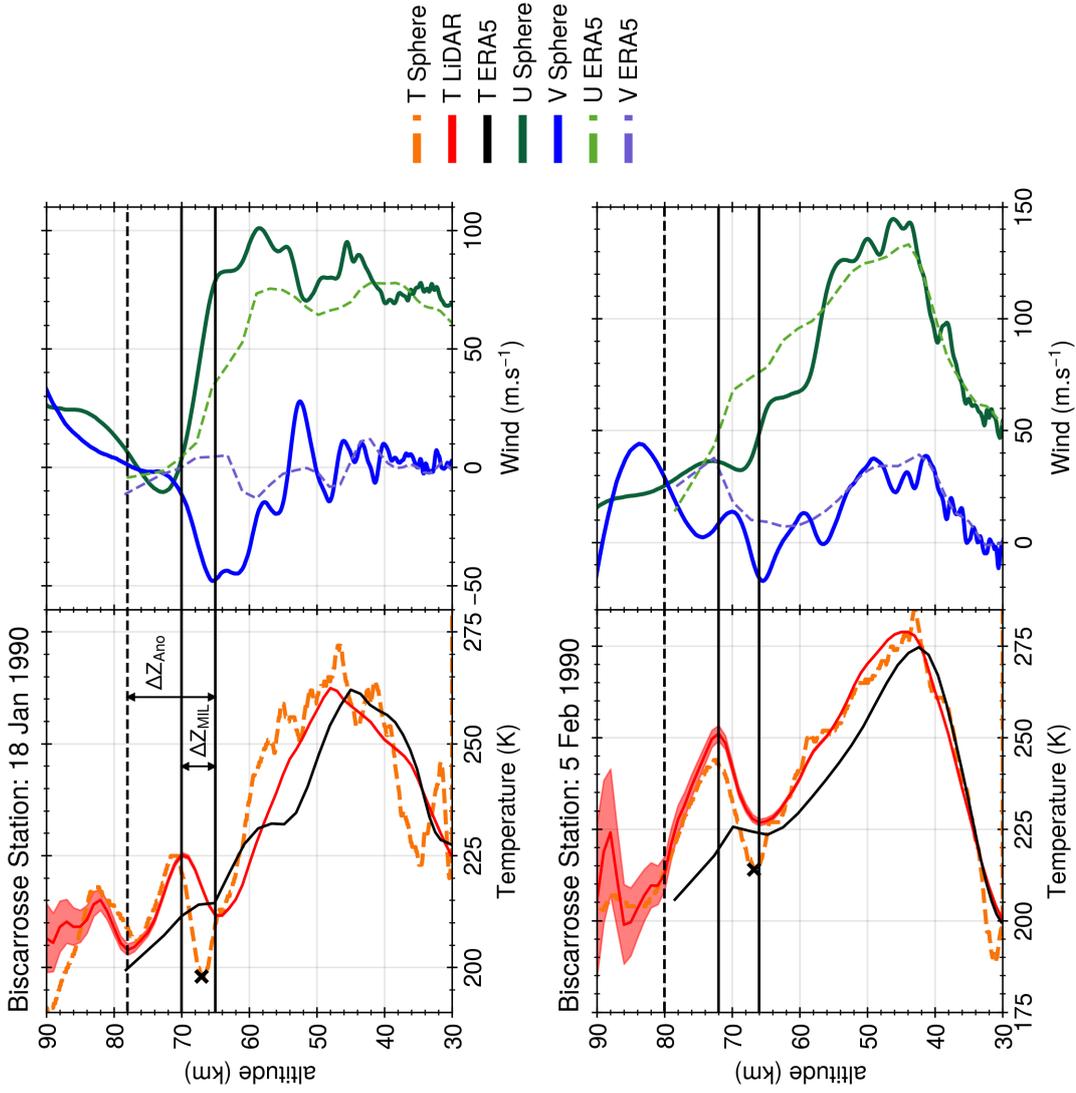


Figure 1. Temperature and wind profiles measured at Biscarrosse from falling spheres and Rayleigh LiDAR between 30 and 90 km for two dates during the DYANA Campaign. The statistical noise (red shaded area) of the LiDAR temperature signal is displayed. The two horizontal black solid lines indicate, respectively, the derived bottom and top of the MIL detected by the Rayleigh LiDAR. The horizontal dashed line represents the altitude of the potential total extension of the temperature anomaly (ΔZ_{Ano}). The black cross points out the bottom of the MIL measured from falling spheres. In addition, the ERA5 temperature-wind profiles extracted for each date are shown.

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4.2 AboVE-2 campaign at OHP

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After to have applied the MIL identification method to the 44 available temperature profiles, we found only four cases during the 2021/2022 winter in which a lower MIL was identifiable. In the mesosphere lidar wind measurements are challenging and depend on sky transparency, therefore, many actual wind observations suffer from weak signals, limiting accurate detection of lower MILs during this period. For the recent observations, only zonal wind measurements were performed by the Doppler LiDAR during the 2021/2022 winter to facilitate the inter-comparisons with the collocated Aeolus observations which measures essentially the zonal component of winds. Nevertheless, as the zonal wind is often larger than the meridional wind in the mesosphere by a factor of 10, we supposed that a zonal wind reduction implies very likely a total wind deceleration.

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Figure 2 shows temperature and zonal wind profiles observed above the OHP for these four dates in the mesosphere where lower MILs were detected. Similar zonal wind deceleration behavior, as observed in Figure 1, is found within the lower MILs. Additionally, the altitudes at which the temperature starts to increase match well with those where the zonal wind starts to decelerate similarly to previous observations (Fig. 1) confirming the temperature-wind interconnection. Afterward, we computed the MIL's characteristics as described in section 3 for these four MIL events. For instance, on 3 Dec 2021, the MIL detected was characterized by a temperature elevation of 11.1 ± 3.9 K associated with a zonal wind deceleration of 43.3 ± 17 m.s⁻¹. However, since the zonal wind dropped over a larger altitude range than the one where the temperature increased, this computed zonal wind fluctuation is lower than the one observed which is in reality around 150 m.s⁻¹ (Fig. 2). Consequently, as already mentioned above, these computed zonal wind amplitudes possess uncertainties due to the methodological conditions. These results also illustrate the Doppler LiDAR's capacity to capture strong wind fluctuations over narrow layers, as observed on 6 Dec 2021, where we computed, over a layer of 1.65 km, a zonal wind deceleration of 105.5 ± 57.5 m.s⁻¹ associated with a temperature elevation of 29.5 ± 19.2 K. Finally, the MIL events on 12 Dec 2021, with a temperature elevation of 6.5 ± 2.9 K associated with a zonal wind drop of 34.3 ± 10.1 m.s⁻¹, while on 31 Jan 2022, with a temperature elevation of 46.8 ± 14.3 K associated with a zonal wind deceleration of 59.4 ± 68.7 m.s⁻¹, show, unlike above Biscarrosse, that large temperature amplitudes within MILs tend to be directly related to substantial wind deceleration (see Fig. 3). Thus, over these six MIL events, we found a mean temperature gradient of 7.5 K.km⁻¹ associated with a mean zonal wind deceleration gradient of 21 m.s⁻¹.km⁻¹.

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On 3 Dec 2021, a second MIL was present at 75 km in the temperature profile but the altitude range of the wind observations at this altitude do not allow to derive wind deceleration of this MIL. Despite this inherent uncertainty, the Doppler LiDAR technique appears to be an excellent instrument for documenting MIL's effects on winds. Finally, unlike the two MILs above Biscarrosse, ERA5 reanalyses, whether temperature or wind, did not reproduce MILs' presences for these four dates above the OHP.

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5 Discussion and perspectives on mechanisms responsible for lower MILs

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Given these new investigations of co-located temperature and wind observations in the mesosphere during MIL events (Figures 1 and 2), we can observe that MIL's formation involved systematic wind drops within the altitude range where the temperature increases. Figure 3 shows this interconnection between the zonal wind and the temperature for the six MIL events studied here where, interestingly, four cases appear aligned suggesting the existence of a positive correlation between these two variations. However, the two remaining cases depict a different behavior which can be due to several reasons such as observations carried out aside of the MIL center, other geophysical processes or

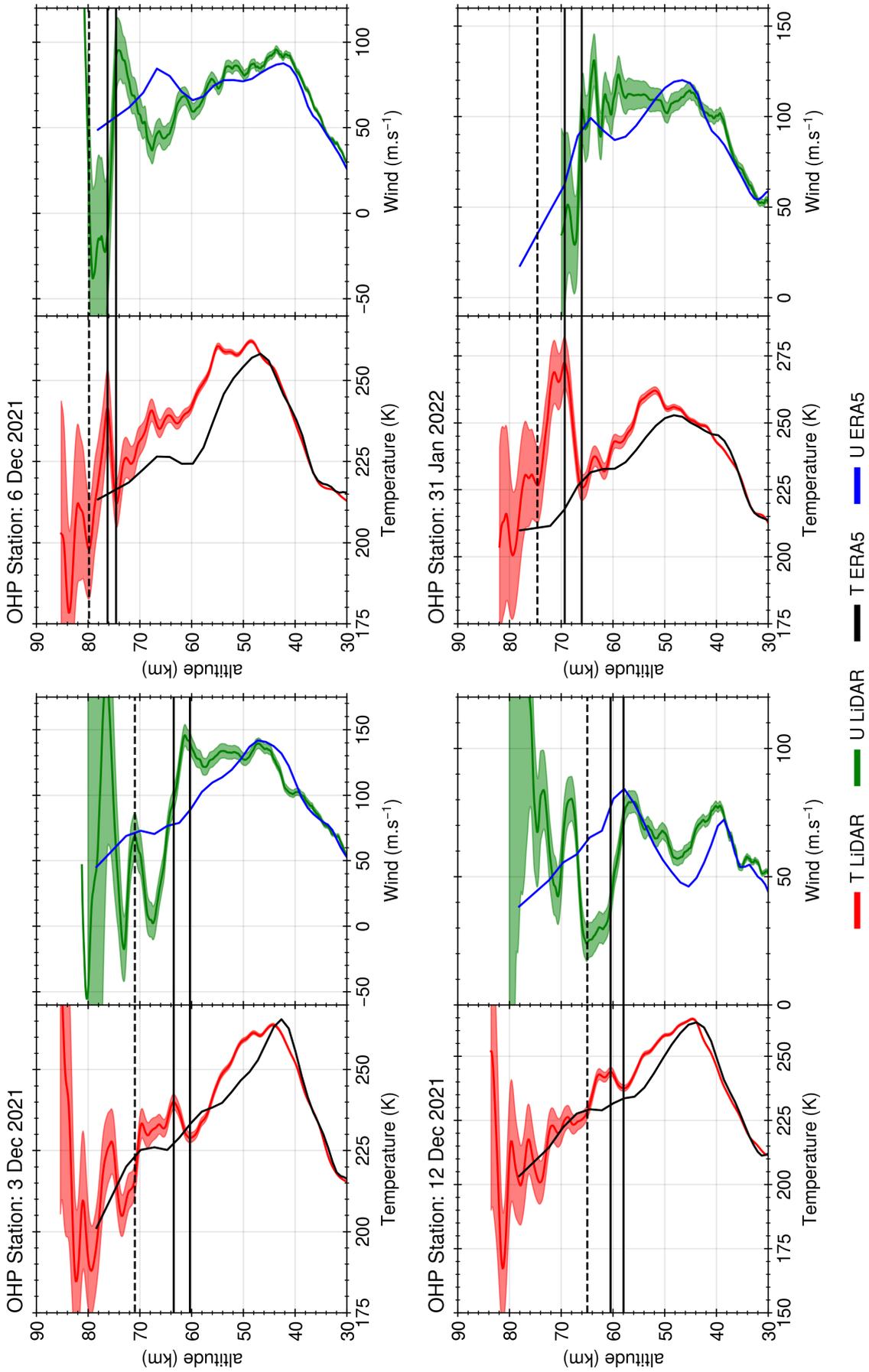


Figure 2. Temperature (red) and zonal wind (green) profiles measured for four dates in 2021/2022 winter from the Ozone LiDAR (temperature mode) and the Doppler LiDAR, respectively, located at the OHP. The statistical noise (shaded area) associated with these profiles is displayed. The three horizontal black lines indicate the same MIL's features that in Figure 1. Additionally, ERA5 temperature (black) and wind (blue) reanalyses profiles are shown for these four dates.

316 the employed method to compute wind shears. In the end, to lift these uncertainties, fur-
317 ther temperature-wind observations are required.

318 Among the reported existing mechanisms, this observed connection between tem-
319 perature and wind argues in the way of the MIL's formation mechanism as first intro-
320 duced by Hauchecorne and Maillard (1990) who have simulated a temperature inversion
321 by the breaking of gravity waves inside and above the MIL. In this simulation, the grav-
322 ity wave dissipation occurs in a well-defined region where the associated momentum trans-
323 fer decreases wind above the mesospheric jet, generating turbulence. The critical layer
324 from which the zonal wind starts to decelerate appears when the wave phase speed is
325 similar to the background wind. Then, the MIL is maintained with two processes: the
326 heating due to viscous dissipation of turbulent motions and the downward vertical heat
327 flux from the upper layer due to the turbulent vertical mixing in order to homogenize
328 the potential temperature. Following the same aim, Sassi et al. (2002) have simulated
329 a lower MIL between 70 and 80 km at mid-latitudes with the breaking of planetary waves,
330 which generates warming in the upper stratosphere and cooling in the lower mesosphere
331 favorable towards MIL's appearance. Their analysis has also shown that such lower MIL
332 event occurs in a weak westward wind region produced by the deposition of momentum
333 from westward gravity waves known to occur above 70 km (Mzé et al., 2014). Addition-
334 ally, when they remove the gravity wave activity in their model, the positive tempera-
335 ture lapse rate created in the mesosphere disappears, confirming the crucial role of grav-
336 ity waves in the lower MIL's formation and persistence.

337 Regarding the ERA5 capacity to reproduce the MIL's impact on the temperature
338 and winds, Figure 1 shows that the ECMWF model is able, sometimes, to simulate the
339 wind deceleration phenomenon with similar magnitude than the observations reported
340 here while the temperature inversion is nearly overlooked. Nevertheless, for most cases,
341 particularly over the OHP, Figure 2 shows that ERA5 reanalyses did not capture tem-
342 perature and wind fluctuations in the mesosphere during MIL events. As already dis-
343 cussed in Mariaccia et al. (2022), who suggested that, first, the coarse vertical resolu-
344 tion of the model at these altitudes prevent the simulation of such fluctuations, and also,
345 enhanced by the lack of assimilated observation by the model at these altitudes. Addi-
346 tionally, the sponge layer implemented in the model probably damps the gravity wave
347 energy propagation up to the mesosphere which is necessary for MIL's apparition and
348 sustainability. The realistic MIL characteristics statistics simulated by the Whole At-
349 mosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM), benefiting from a better vertical res-
350 olution in the mesosphere than ERA5 (France et al., 2015), suggests that this is the first
351 crucial step in the MIL's simulation achievement. Hence, according to these new obser-
352 vations, these suggested MIL's formation mechanisms should be considered as a first lead
353 to pursue the elaboration of an accurate theory on the lower MIL's apparition. Future
354 investigations are necessary to test how the energy transfer from gravity wave dissipa-
355 tion can create such background wind drop and temperature increase in the mesosphere.
356 The elaboration of a new 3-D mechanistic model, in the same manner, that the one de-
357 veloped by Hauchecorne and Maillard (1990) should be pursued but with a better ver-
358 tical resolution, to simulate temperature inversions by reducing locally wind.

359 On the other hand, regarding the LiDAR temperature profiles, as expected, the in-
360 strumental error associated with the Rayleigh LiDAR grow less quickly than for the Ozone
361 LiDAR which is an expected result as this latter was not designed for measuring tem-
362 perature. On the same aspects, the Doppler LiDAR observations still suffer of large in-
363 strumental errors in the higher mesosphere impacting the study of MIL's effects on zonal
364 wind. Therefore, in order to improve our description of the MIL phenomenon, more wind
365 observations performed by LIOwind Doppler LiDAR with meridional winds are required
366 in addition to temperature measurements to benefit more extensive statistics of simul-
367 taneous wind temperature. Furthermore, the improvement of this technique to reduce
368 instrumental errors in the upper mesosphere should be pursued. Finally, the develop-

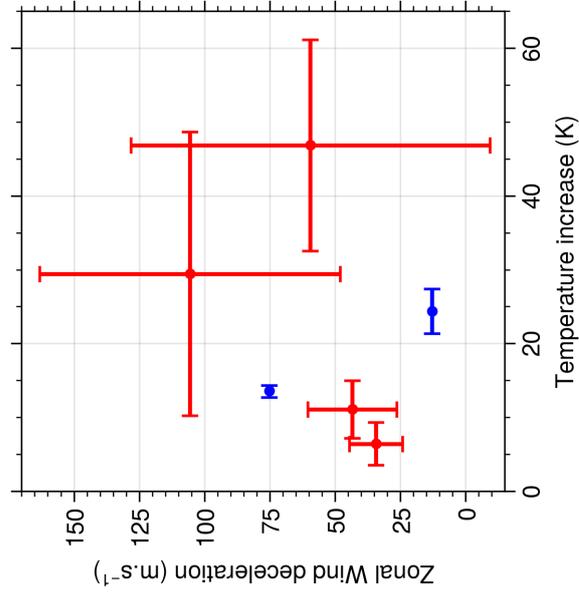


Figure 3. Zonal wind deceleration associated with their temperature increase for the six MIL events identified above Biscarrosse (in blue) and the OHP (in red). The errors associated with each computed value are shown as well.

369 ment of technical instruments capable of measuring the turbulence generated by grav-
 370 ity waves within MILs should be undertaken (Hauchecorne et al., 2016).

371 Open Research

372 The OHP ground-based lidar data can be obtained via NDACC lidar database [https://](https://ndacc.larc.nasa.gov/)
 373 ndacc.larc.nasa.gov/. The indications to download the ERA-5 data over 137 levels
 374 are given on the ECWMF website [https://confluence.ecmwf.int/display/CKB/How+](https://confluence.ecmwf.int/display/CKB/How+to+download+ERA5)
 375 [to+download+ERA5](https://confluence.ecmwf.int/display/CKB/How+to+download+ERA5).

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