

1 **Monthly climatologies of zonal-mean and tidal winds in**  
2 **the thermosphere as observed by ICON/MIGHTI**  
3 **during April 2020–March 2022**

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12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • Monthly climatologies of zonal-mean winds and tides at 90–110 km and 200–300  
14 km are determined using v05 ICON/MIGHTI observations.
- 15 • ICON/MIGHTI and HWM14 results are in general agreement, providing a val-  
16 idation of the v05 ICON/MIGHTI data.
- 17 • HWM14 reproduces the zonal-mean winds well, but often underestimates tidal am-  
18 plitude.

**Abstract**

Version 5 (v05) of the thermospheric wind data from the Michelson Interferometer for Global High-resolution Thermospheric Imaging (MIGHTI) instrument on the Ionospheric Connection Explorer (ICON) mission has been recently released, which largely avoids local-time dependent artificial baseline drifts that are found in previous versions of the ICON/MIGHTI wind data. This paper describes monthly climatologies of zonal-mean winds and tides based on the v05 ICON/MIGHTI data under geomagnetically quiet conditions ( $H_p30 < 3\sigma$ ) during April 2020–March 2022. Green-line winds in the lower thermosphere (90–110 km) and red-line winds in the middle thermosphere (200–300 km) are analyzed, as these data cover both daytime and nighttime. The altitude and latitude structures of zonal-mean winds and tides are presented for each month, and the results are compared with the widely-used empirical model, Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14). The v05 wind retrieval algorithm does not involve HWM14. The ICON/MIGHTI and HWM14 results are in general agreement, providing a validation of the v05 ICON/MIGHTI data. The agreement is especially good for the zonal-mean winds. The tidal amplitudes in HWM14 are often too small compared with those from ICON/MIGHTI as well as previous studies. A more accurate description of tides in the thermosphere is key to the future improvement of HWM.

**1 Introduction**

The uppermost layer of the Earth’s atmosphere, the thermosphere, extends from  $\sim 90$  km up to  $\sim 600$  km (e.g., Richmond, 1983; Kato, 2007). Early studies evaluated densities of the thermosphere based on the measurement of orbital decay of artificial satellites. Jacchia (1965) developed a global empirical model of thermospheric densities under the assumption of diffusive equilibrium. A by-product of the model was an estimate of the global distribution of air pressure. Theoretical studies found that the model pressure provides useful information for evaluating the global wind system in the thermosphere (Geisler, 1967; Kohl & King, 1967). It has been demonstrated that global motion of the air above approximately 150 km is primarily driven by solar-induced pressure gradients. That is, horizontal winds blow from the higher-temperature (and higher-pressure) dayside to the lower-temperature (and lower-pressure) nightside. On the other hand, the motion of the air in the lower thermosphere ( $< 150$  km) is often dominated by waves from the lower layers of the atmosphere. In particular, atmospheric tides (e.g., Lindzen

51 & Chapman, 1969) are known to play an important role for the meteorology of the meso-  
52 sphere and lower thermosphere.

53 Theoretical models of the thermosphere were developed and used to explain how  
54 solar heating, as well as Joule heating in the polar region, drives the global circulation  
55 of the thermosphere under different seasonal conditions (e.g., Dickinson et al., 1975, 1977;  
56 Roble et al., 1977; Fuller-Rowell & Rees, 1980, 1981). These early modeling studies led  
57 to the development of upper atmosphere models that self-consistently couple the ther-  
58 mosphere and ionosphere (e.g., Roble et al., 1988; Richmond et al., 1992; Fuller-Rowell  
59 et al., 1994). Thermospheric winds can have a significant impact on ionospheric dynam-  
60 ics (e.g., Rishbeth, 1998) and electrodynamics (e.g., Heelis, 2004), and thus are impor-  
61 tant for the accurate description of space weather.

62 There are several ways to observe thermospheric winds. For instance, wind veloc-  
63 ities can be measured using an accelerometer onboard a low-Earth-orbit satellite. Past  
64 satellite missions like Dynamic Explorer 2 (DE2) (Spencer et al., 1982), CHALLENGING Min-  
65 isatellite Payload (CHAMP) (H. Liu et al., 2006; Sutton et al., 2007), and Gravity Field  
66 and Steady State Ocean Circulation Explorer (GOCE) (Doornbos et al., 2010; H. Liu  
67 et al., 2016) provided global in-situ observations of thermospheric winds. Wind veloc-  
68 ities can also be measured with a sounding rocket, which can reach the thermosphere.  
69 For example, the chemical release technique (e.g., Larsen, 2002; Pfaff et al., 2020) uses  
70 measurements of trails of a chemical tracer released by a rocket to derive thermospheric  
71 wind velocities. Moreover, optical measurements of Doppler shifts in airglow emissions,  
72 such as the 557.7 nm O(<sup>1</sup>S) green line and the 630.0 nm O(<sup>1</sup>D) red line, have also been  
73 used to observe thermospheric wind velocities from ground stations (e.g., Shiokawa et  
74 al., 1999; Meriwether, 2006; Makela et al., 2012) as well as from satellites such as DE2  
75 (Hays et al., 1981), Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS) (Hays et al., 1993)  
76 and Thermosphere-Ionosphere-Mesosphere Energetics and Dynamics (TIMED) (Killeen  
77 et al., 2006). Ground-based meteor radars can be used to measure wind velocities in the  
78 mesosphere and lower thermosphere around 80–100 km (e.g., Hocking et al., 2001; Chau  
79 et al., 2019). Thermospheric wind velocities at E-region and F-region heights can also  
80 be estimated using incoherent scatter radar measurements of ionospheric parameters (e.g.,  
81 Salah & Holt, 1974; Harper, 1977).

82 Global empirical models of thermospheric winds have been developed based on the  
83 measurements obtained through the techniques mentioned above and others. The most  
84 commonly used empirical model is the Horizontal Wind Model (HWM) series (e.g., Hedin  
85 et al., 1991, 1996; Drob et al., 2008, 2015). HWM is constructed by fitting analytical func-  
86 tions to a large volume of historical data. It predicts the zonal and meridional compo-  
87 nents of the neutral wind velocity at a given location (latitude, longitude and altitude)  
88 and time (day of year and UT). The latest version is HWM14 (Drob et al., 2015), and  
89 since its release, the model has been widely used in the space physics community. The  
90 validation of HWM is a community effort. Thermospheric wind measurements are of-  
91 ten compared against HWM for a validation of the observational data as well as for a  
92 performance evaluation of HWM (e.g., Englert et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2018; Li et al.,  
93 2021; Tang et al., 2021; Okoh et al., 2022). The present study shows comparisons of HWM14  
94 with thermospheric wind observations from the Ionospheric Connection Explorer (ICON)  
95 mission, which was launched on October 11, 2019 (Immel et al., 2018).

96 The Michelson Interferometer for Global High-Resolution Thermospheric Imaging  
97 (MIGHTI) instrument onboard ICON measures the horizontal wind velocity by observ-  
98 ing Doppler shifts of the atomic oxygen airglow emissions (e.g., Englert et al., 2017; Hard-  
99 ing et al., 2017). The green-line wind measurements extend from an altitude of 90 km  
100 to 300 km during the daytime but to only 110 km at night, as the strength of the green-  
101 line emission varies considerably from day to night. The red-line wind data cover the height  
102 range approximately 160–300 km during day and 200–300 km at night. These wind data  
103 are useful not only for studying the neutral dynamics of the thermosphere (e.g., He et  
104 al., 2021; Cullens et al., 2020; Yiğit et al., 2022; Forbes et al., 2022; Englert et al., 2017;  
105 Triplett et al., 2023) but also for investigating atmosphere-ionosphere coupling processes,  
106 which can be realized by combining the ICON/MIGHTI wind data with ionospheric mea-  
107 surements made by ICON (e.g., England et al., 2021; Immel et al., 2021; Forbes et al.,  
108 2021; Park et al., 2021; Heelis et al., 2022; R. Zhang et al., 2022) or by other missions  
109 (e.g., Gasperini et al., 2021, 2022; G. Liu et al., 2021; Yamazaki et al., 2021; Yamazaki,  
110 Arras, et al., 2022; Aa et al., 2022; Le et al., 2022; Harding et al., 2022; Oberheide, 2022).

111 The studies mentioned above used version 4 (v04) or an earlier version of the ICON/MIGHTI  
112 wind data. The v04 wind data, especially during the early period of the mission, showed  
113 reasonable agreement with other independent observations (e.g., Harding et al., 2021;  
114 Makela et al., 2021; Dhadly et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). However, later it became clear

115 that the baseline of the v04 data has slowly drifted over time, leading to errors of 50–  
116 100 m/s for some cases in 2021. This issue was described in detail by Englert et al. (2023).  
117 The baseline drift was found to be dependent on the local time and height, which has  
118 made the reliable assessment of zonal-mean winds and tides difficult. Version 5 (v05) of  
119 the ICON/MIGHTI wind data has been recently (in November 2022) released. A new  
120 calibration method for the so-called “zero wind” has been developed for v05, which uses  
121 a long-term comparison of the ascending- and descending-orbit data to perform a self-  
122 calibration of the zero baseline, independent of external data or models (Englert et al.,  
123 2023). The present study evaluates, for the first time, zonal-mean winds and tides us-  
124 ing the v05 ICON/MIGHTI wind data for the height ranges 90–110 km and 200–300 km,  
125 where wind measurements are made during both day and night. Monthly climatologies  
126 derived from the ICON/MIGHTI observations during April 2020–March 2022 are com-  
127 pared with HWM14 predictions.

## 128 **2 Method to Determine Zonal-mean Winds and Tides**

129 The v05 ICON/MIGHTI wind data (level 2.2, cardinal vector winds) during the  
130 24-month period from April 2020 to March 2022 are analyzed to determine zonal-mean  
131 winds and tides. The estimated accuracy of the v05 wind data is generally 10–25 m/s  
132 (Englert et al., 2023). Only the data that are flagged as “Good” (`Wind_Quality = 1`) are  
133 used. This largely eliminates (1) the observations from the South Atlantic Anomaly where  
134 the retrieval of wind velocities is difficult due to increased radiation, (2) the observations  
135 with little airglow signal, and (3) the observations from the day-night terminators where  
136 mode changes of the instrument take place. Cullens et al. (2020), using synthetic data  
137 sampled along the ICON/MIGHTI measurement points, demonstrated that (3) does not  
138 have a large impact on the estimation of tidal amplitude.

139 We use only the measurements made during geomagnetically quiet periods. Our  
140 criterion for the geomagnetically quiet periods is  $\text{Hp30} < 3\sigma$ , where Hp30 is the geomag-  
141 netic activity index described by Yamazaki, Matzka, et al. (2022). Briefly, Hp30 is a plan-  
142 etary geomagnetic activity index, similar to  $Kp$  (Matzka et al., 2021) but with a higher  
143 temporal resolution of 30 minutes in contrast to the 3-hourly  $Kp$  index. The higher tem-  
144 poral resolution has an advantage in accurately selecting quiet-time data. Hp30 is pro-  
145 duced at the GeoForschungsZentrum (GFZ) Potsdam and distributed at their website:  
146 <https://kp.gfz-potsdam.de/en/hp30-hp60>.

147 The green-line winds are given at every  $\sim 3$  km for the height range 91–112 km, while  
 148 the red-line winds are given at every  $\sim 10$  km for 203–301 km. At each height, the data  
 149 were binned in hourly UT bins, in  $5^\circ$  latitude bins every  $2.5^\circ$  latitude from  $10^\circ\text{S}$  to  $40^\circ\text{N}$ ,  
 150 and in  $15^\circ$  longitude bins every  $15^\circ$  longitude. This was done separately for each month  
 151 of the year (but without distinction of different years) and for the zonal and meridional  
 152 components of the wind. The mean value and standard deviation were computed for each  
 153 bin. The standard deviation is used, in a later step, to evaluate  $1\text{-}\sigma$  uncertainties in zonal-  
 154 mean winds and tides. The bin-mean values at given latitude and height were expressed  
 155 as a function of UT ( $t$  in hours), longitude ( $\lambda$  in degrees), and month ( $M=1, 2, \dots, 12$ )  
 156 using the following analytical representation:

$$157 \sum_{n=0}^4 \sum_{s=-4}^4 \sum_{m=0}^3 \left\{ a_{nsm} \cos \left( n \frac{t}{24} - s \frac{\lambda}{360} + m \frac{M}{12} \right) + b_{nsm} \sin \left( n \frac{t}{24} - s \frac{\lambda}{360} + m \frac{M}{12} \right) \right\}. \quad (1)$$

158 Formula (1) takes into account zonal-mean winds, tides and stationary planetary waves,  
 159 and their seasonal variations.  $n$  represents the tidal frequency. That is,  $n=1, 2, 3, 4$  cor-  
 160 respond to the 24-h (or diurnal) tide, 12-h (or semidiurnal) tide, 8-h (or terdiurnal) tide  
 161 and 6-h tide, respectively. The higher order tides are generally not as important in the  
 162 thermosphere (e.g., Oberheide et al., 2011).  $|s|$  denotes the zonal wavenumber, and the  
 163 sign of  $s$  indicates the direction of the zonal propagation of tides. That is,  $s>0$  and  $s<0$   
 164 correspond to eastward- and westward-propagating tides, respectively. The standard tidal  
 165 nomenclature is used throughout this paper, such as DE3 and SW2, where the first let-  
 166 ter indicates the period (i.e., “D” for diurnal and “S” for semidiurnal), the second let-  
 167 ter represents the propagation direction (i.e., “E” for eastward and “W” for westward),  
 168 and the last number is the zonal wavenumber  $|s|$ . Going back to formula (1), the zonal-  
 169 mean winds are represented by the terms with  $n=0$  and  $s=0$ , while stationary planetary  
 170 waves are represented by the terms with  $n=0$  and  $|s|>0$ . The seasonal variations of the  
 171 zonal-mean winds, tides and stationary planetary waves are represented by  $m=1, 2, 3$ ,  
 172 corresponding to the annual, semiannual and terannual cycles. The coefficients  $a_{nsm}$  and  
 173  $b_{nsm}$  were determined in such a way that the deviation of formula (1) from the binned  
 174 values of the ICON/MIGHTI data will be the smallest in a least-squares sense.

175 The goodness-of-fit was evaluated using two statistical metrics. One is the correla-  
 176 tion coefficient between the observations ( $X$ ) and fit ( $Y$ ):

$$177 r = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Cov(X, X) Cov(Y, Y)}}, \quad (2)$$

178 where  $Cov$  is the covariance. The other is the root-mean-square error:

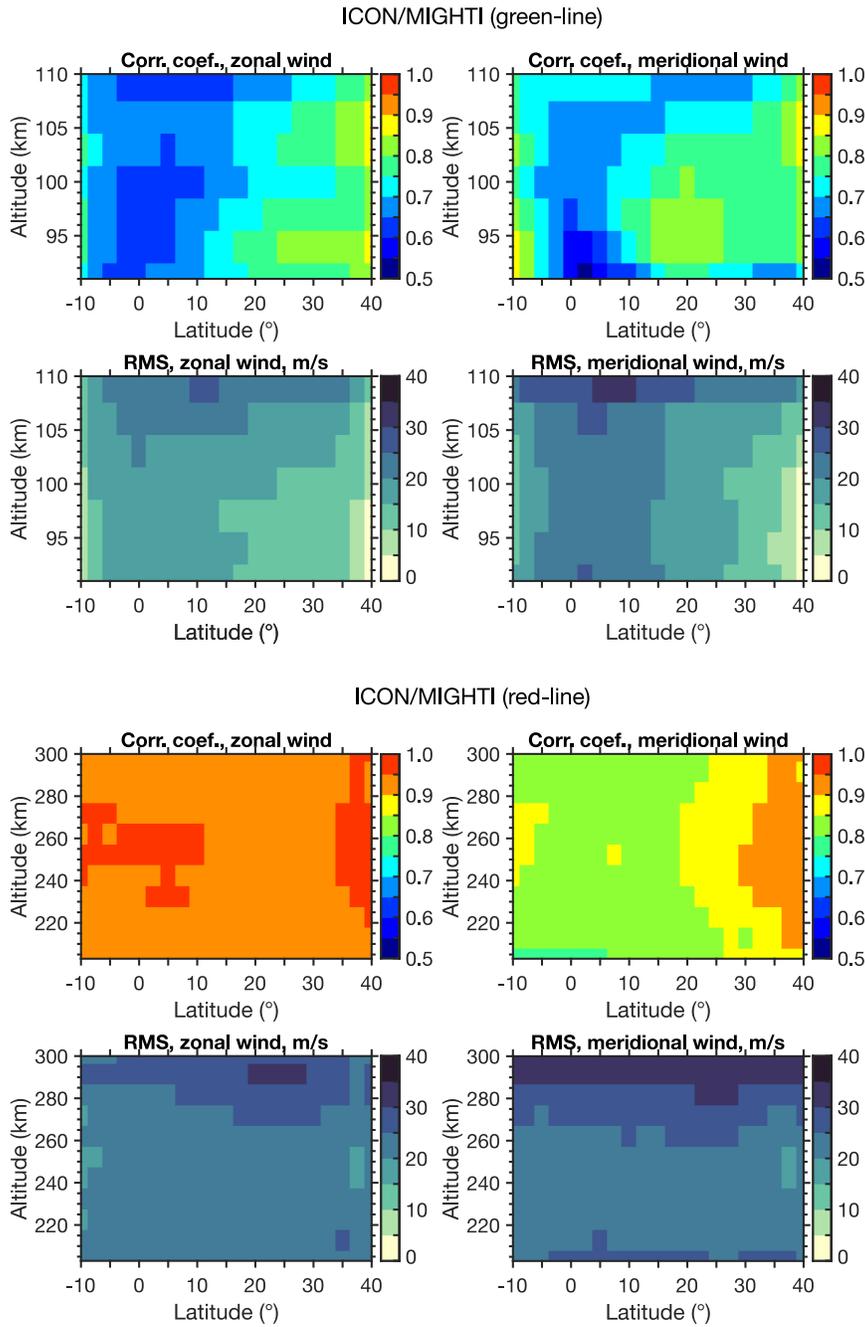
$$179 \quad \text{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - Y)^2}{N}}, \quad (3)$$

180 where  $N$  is the number of the observations. The latitude and height distributions of the  
 181 correlation coefficient and root-mean-square error are presented in Figure 1. The cor-  
 182 relation coefficient is generally higher in the middle thermosphere ( $r=0.8-1.0$ , based on  
 183 red-line winds) than in the lower thermosphere ( $r=0.65-0.85$ , based on green-line winds).  
 184 This is mainly due to the fact that the lower thermosphere is more strongly influenced  
 185 by the waves that are not described by formula (1) such as acoustic waves, gravity waves,  
 186 lunar tides, Kelvin waves, and Rossby waves (e.g., Yiğit & Medvedev, 2015; H.-L. Liu,  
 187 2016). These waves are generated in the lower layers of the atmosphere and propagate  
 188 into the thermosphere. They can interact with tides and other waves to produce secondary  
 189 waves, which makes the spatial temporal variability of the lower thermosphere rather com-  
 190 plex (e.g., Chang et al., 2011; H.-L. Liu, 2014; Nystrom et al., 2018). The waves from  
 191 the lower atmosphere get strongly dissipated before reaching the middle thermosphere.  
 192 The middle thermosphere is dominated by the diurnal tide that is locally generated by  
 193 solar heating (Hagan et al., 2001), which can be represented well by formula (1). RMS  
 194 is somewhat larger in the middle thermosphere (20–30 m/s) than in the lower thermo-  
 195 sphere (15–25 m/s). This reflects generally larger wind velocities in the middle thermo-  
 196 sphere. These RMS values are much smaller than those reported for HWM14 (40–80 m/s)  
 197 by Drob et al. (2015). This is not surprising given that HWM14 involves more diverse  
 198 sources of data from many different years with various degrees of accuracy.

199 For a given month  $M$ , formula (1) can be rewritten in the following form, which  
 200 more explicitly represents the zonal-mean winds and waves:

$$201 \quad \bar{A} + \sum_{n=1}^4 \sum_{s=-4}^4 A_{ns} \cos\left(n\frac{t}{24} - s\frac{\lambda}{360} + P_{ns}\right) + \sum_{s=1}^4 A'_s \cos\left(s\frac{\lambda}{360} + P'_s\right). \quad (4)$$

202 Here,  $\bar{A}$  is the zonal-mean wind velocity (in m/s),  $A_{ns}$  and  $P_{ns}$  are the amplitude (in m/s)  
 203 and phase (in rad) of a tide, respectively.  $A'_s$  and  $P'_s$  are the amplitude and phase of a  
 204 stationary planetary wave, respectively.  $1-\sigma$  uncertainties in the zonal-mean winds, tides  
 205 and stationary planetary waves were evaluated using the standard deviation obtained  
 206 during the binning procedure described earlier. A Monte Carlo method was used for this  
 207 purpose. That is, random noise was generated for each bin based on the standard de-  
 208 viation, and the noise was superimposed on the corresponding mean value. Fitting of



**Figure 1.** Correlation coefficient and root-mean-square error (RMS), as measures of goodness-of-fit of formula (1) to the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data (top four panels) and red-line data (bottom four panels). The left and right panels are for the zonal and meridional winds, respectively.

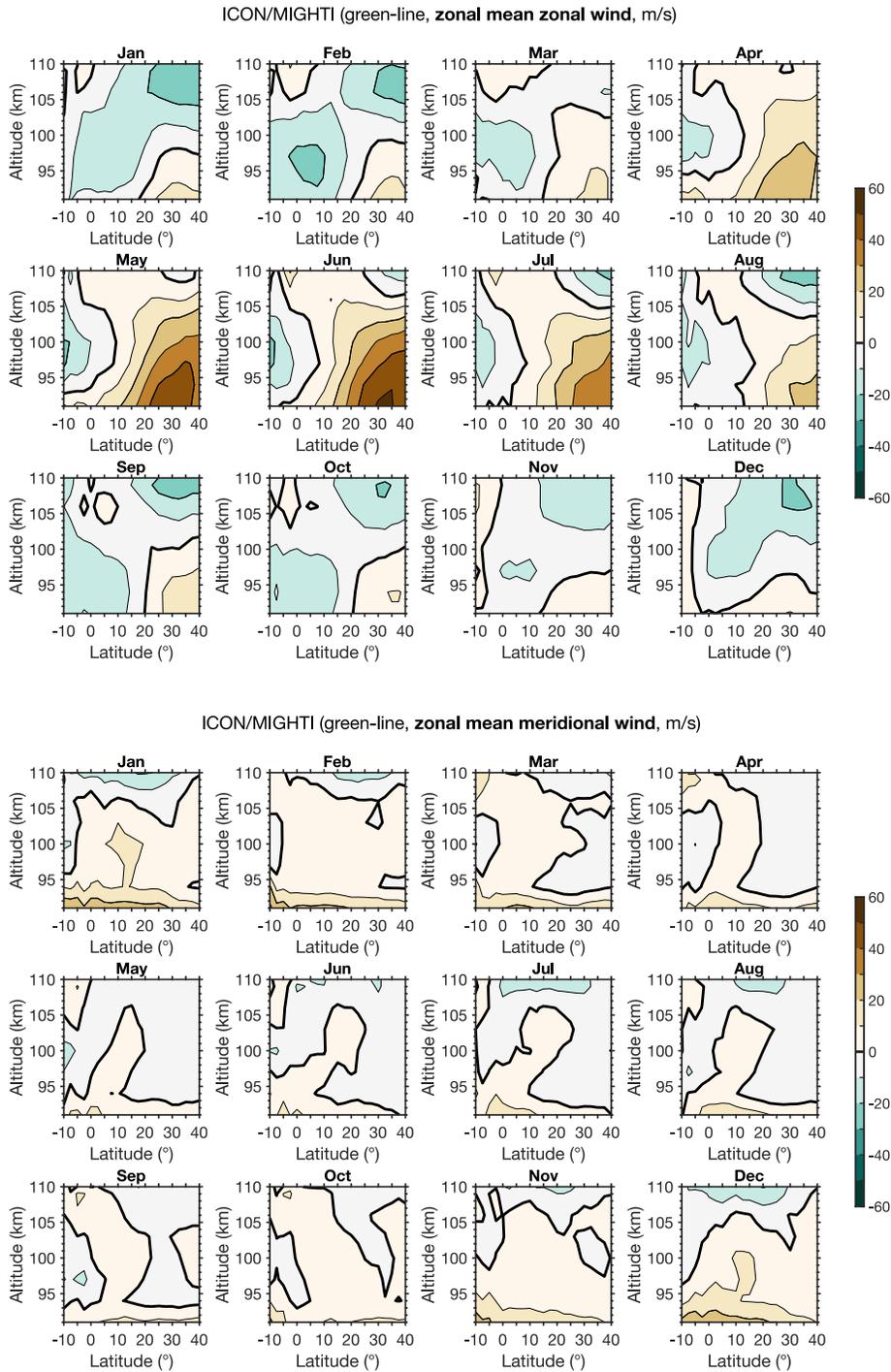
209 formula (1) was repeated for 250 Monte Carlo samples, and  $1-\sigma$  uncertainties were com-  
 210 puted for the zonal-mean wind velocity, and the amplitude and phase of tides and sta-  
 211 tionary planetary waves at each latitude and height. The derived  $1-\sigma$  uncertainty in the  
 212 zonal-mean wind velocity is typically 1.0–3.5 m/s for both green-line and red-line winds.  
 213 The  $1-\sigma$  uncertainties in the amplitude and phase of tides and stationary planetary waves  
 214 are typically less than 4.5 m/s and  $20^\circ$ , respectively. These uncertainty values are ap-  
 215 preciable smaller compared to the features discussed in this paper.

216 Zonal-mean winds, tides and stationary planetary waves were also evaluated us-  
 217 ing HWM14 for the purpose of comparison. Hourly values of the zonal and meridional  
 218 wind velocities were derived from HWM14 for each month by running the model for the  
 219 15th day of the month without including disturbance winds (Emmert et al., 2008). At  
 220 each latitude and height, the zonal-mean wind velocity, and the amplitude and phase of  
 221 tides and stationary planetary waves were determined by least-squares fitting of formula  
 222 (4), which can be directly compared with the ICON/MIGHTI results.

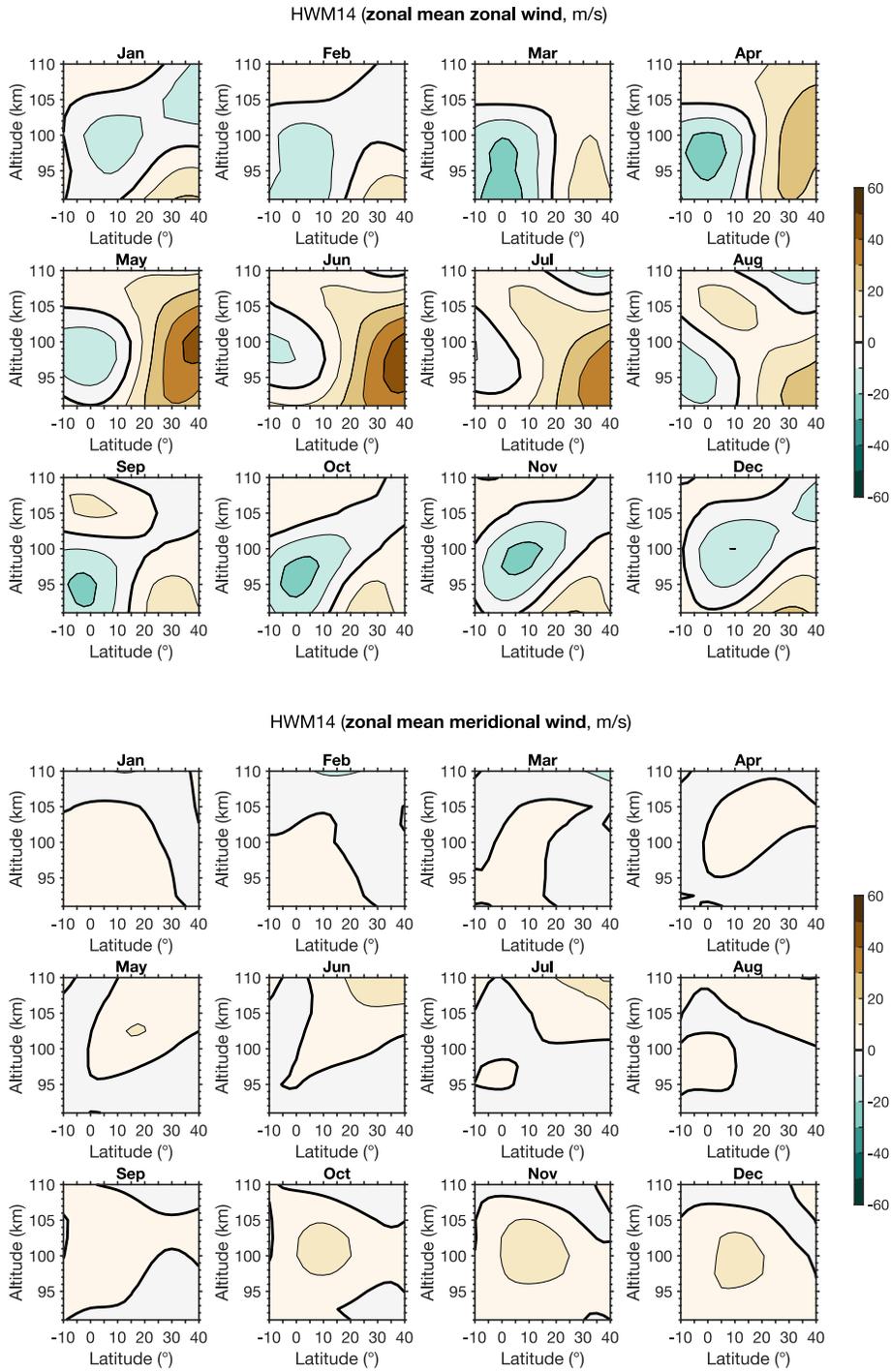
### 223 **3 Results**

224 First, we examine seasonal climatologies of zonal-mean winds. Figure 2 depicts the  
 225 zonal-mean zonal and meridional winds in the lower thermosphere (91–110 km) as de-  
 226 rived from the ICON/MIGHTI green-line measurements. Below  $\sim 105$  km, the zonal-mean  
 227 zonal wind in the equatorial region ( $10^\circ\text{S}$ – $10^\circ\text{N}$ ) tends to be weakly westward through-  
 228 out the year. An eastward jet can be seen at  $30^\circ\text{N}$  during the Northern Hemisphere (N.H.)  
 229 summer. The reversal of the zonal-mean zonal wind is often seen around 105 km, which  
 230 was also noted by Yiğit et al. (2022). The zonal-mean meridional wind is generally weak  
 231 with little seasonal variation. The corresponding results obtained from HWM14 are pre-  
 232 sented in Figure 3. HWM14 captures the salient features of the observed zonal-mean zonal  
 233 and meridional winds well.

234 Figure 4 shows the zonal-mean zonal and meridional winds in the middle thermo-  
 235 sphere (203–300 km) as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI red-line measurements. An  
 236 annual variation of the zonal-mean zonal wind is evident. That is, the zonal wind in the  
 237 N.H. is largely eastward and westward during the local winter and summer, respectively.  
 238 The seasonal variation of the zonal-mean meridional wind is also dominated by an an-  
 239 nual cycle. That is, the meridional wind is primarily northward during the N.H. winter



**Figure 2.** Quiet-time monthly climatologies of the zonal-mean zonal wind (top 12 panels) and zonal-mean meridional wind (bottom 12 panels) in the lower thermosphere (91–110 km) as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data during April 2020–March 2022.



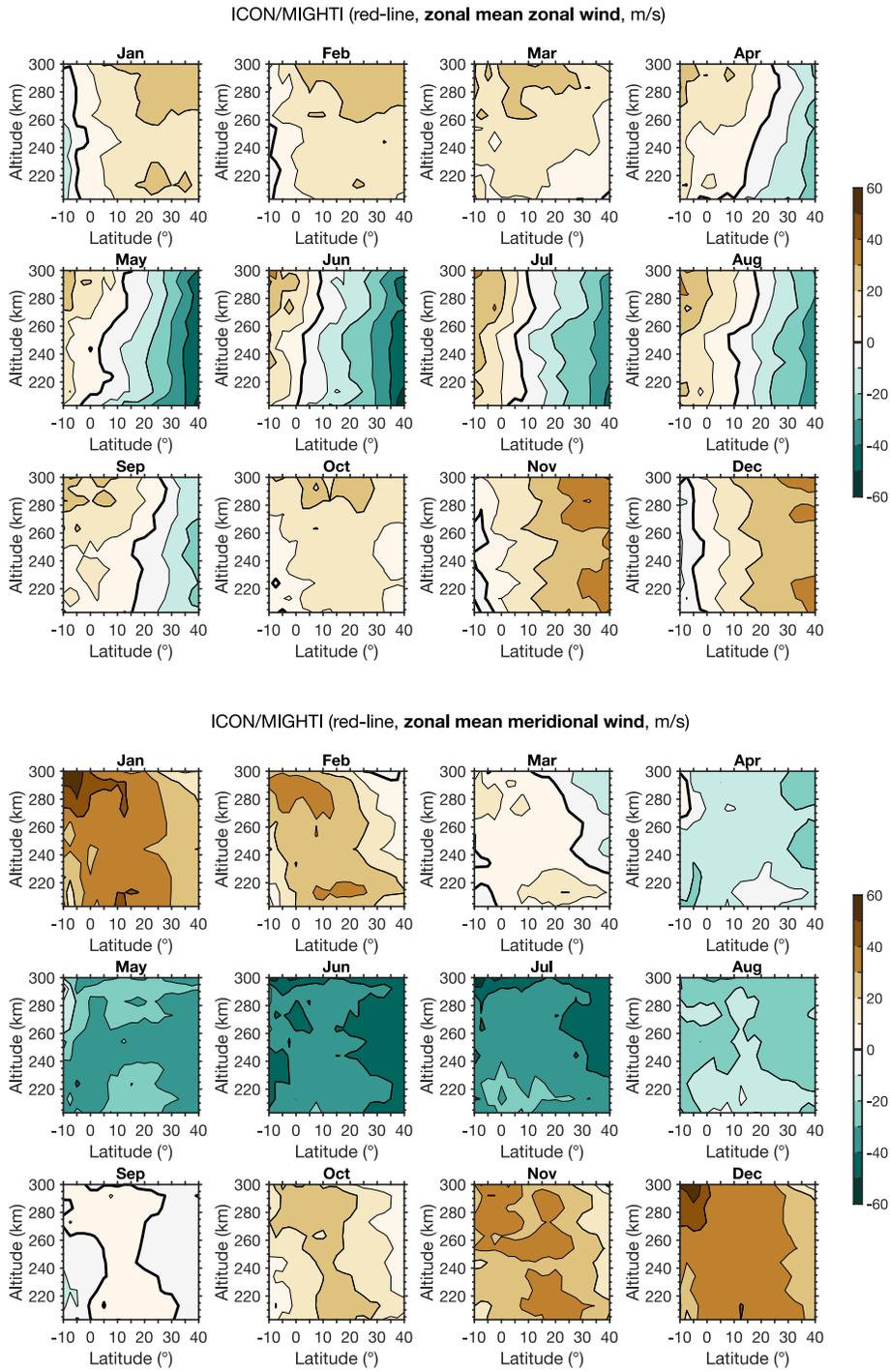
**Figure 3.** Same as Figure 2 but from Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14).

240 and southward during the N.H. summer. The seasonal transitions occur in March and  
 241 September. The annual variations in the zonal-mean zonal and meridional winds are re-  
 242 produced well by HWM14 as shown in Figure 5.

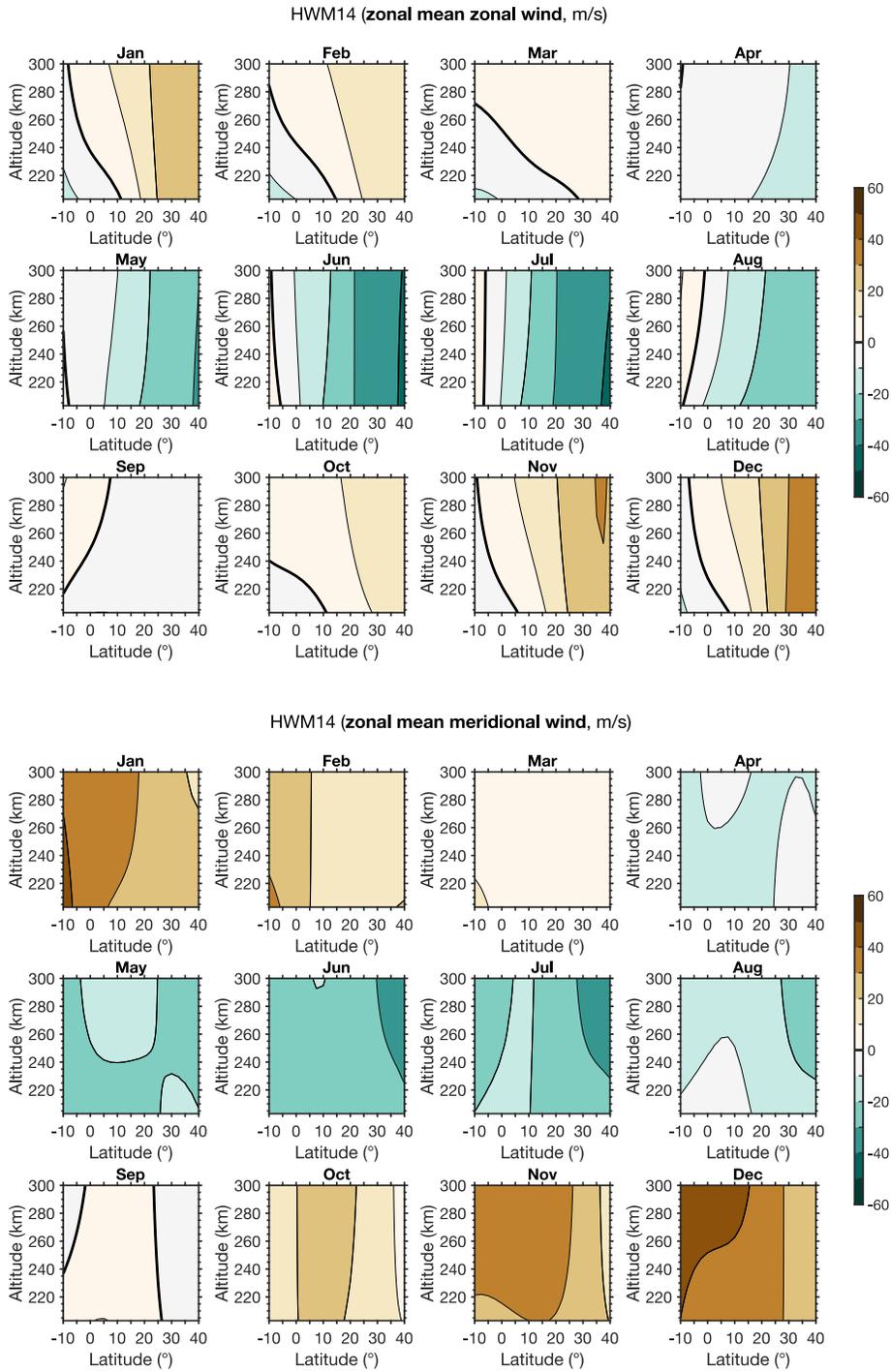
243 Next, we examine seasonal climatologies of tides and stationary planetary waves.  
 244 Different components of waves, as expressed by different combinations of  $(n, s)$ , have vary-  
 245 ing degrees of significance in the thermosphere (e.g., Truskowski et al., 2014; Forbes et  
 246 al., 2014). Figures 6 and 7 depict wave spectra for two representative altitudes. Figure  
 247 6 shows the amplitude of different wave components for the green-line winds over the  
 248 equator at an altitude of 106 km. At this particular latitude and height, the eastward-  
 249 propagating diurnal tide with zonal wavenumber 3 (DE3;  $n=1, s=3$ ) dominates the tide  
 250 in the zonal wind, especially during July–November, and the migrating semidiurnal tide  
 251 (SW2;  $n=2, s=-2$ ) dominates the tide in the meridional wind, especially during April–  
 252 September. Figure 7 is similar to Figure 6 but for the red-line winds at  $30^\circ\text{N}$  at an al-  
 253 titude of 273 km. In the middle thermosphere, the migrating diurnal tide (DW1;  $n=1,$   
 254  $s=-1$ ) is by far dominant. Since DW1, SW2 and DE3 are found to be dominant within  
 255 the latitudinal and altitudinal range of the ICON/MIGHTI wind measurement, we fur-  
 256 ther analyze these specific tides.

257 Figure 8 shows the amplitude and phase of DW1 in the meridional wind in the lower  
 258 thermosphere as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI green-line measurements. The am-  
 259 plitude is largest at  $15\text{--}20^\circ\text{N}$  and 95–97 km, and it shows a semiannual variation with  
 260 equinoctial maxima of  $\sim 60$  m/s. The phase of DW1 tends to decrease with increasing  
 261 height. This ‘downward phase propagation’ is a fundamental feature of upward-propagating  
 262 tides (e.g., Forbes, 1995). The results suggest that DW1 in the lower thermosphere orig-  
 263 inate from lower layers of the atmosphere. The latitude-height pattern of the DW1 phase  
 264 does not vary much with the season. DW1 derived from HWM14 is presented in Figure  
 265 9. The DW1 amplitude in HWM14 is largest at  $15\text{--}20^\circ\text{N}$ , which is in agreement with  
 266 the ICON/MIGHTI results. HWM14 also reproduces the semiannual variation in the  
 267 DW1 amplitude. However, the DW1 amplitude in HWM14 is generally too small, and  
 268 its height structure does not agree well with the observations. The latitude and height  
 269 structures of the DW1 phase are reproduced by HWM14 during equinoctial months.

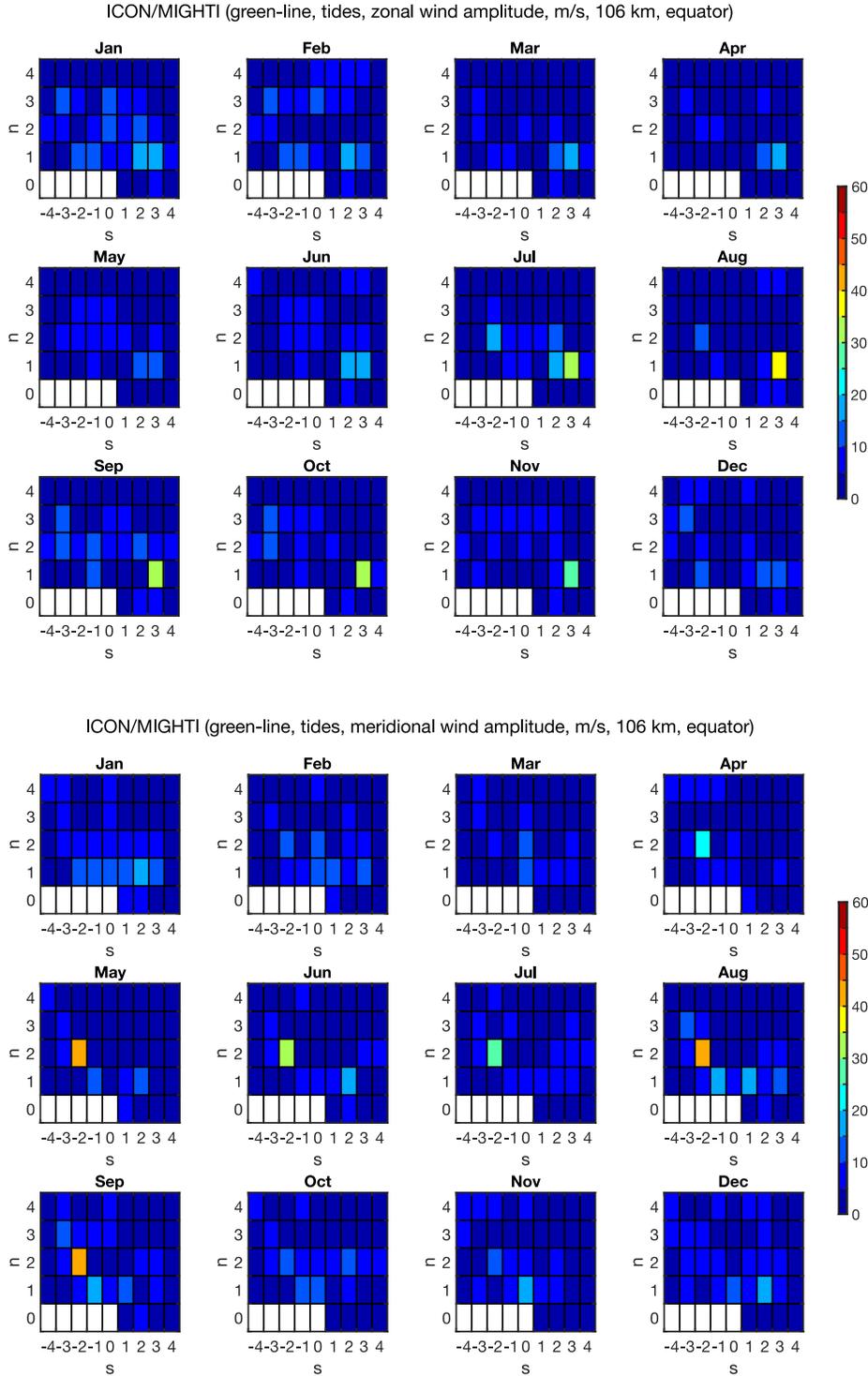
270 Figure 10 presents the SW2 amplitude and phase in the meridional wind in the lower  
 271 thermosphere as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI green-line measurements. The am-



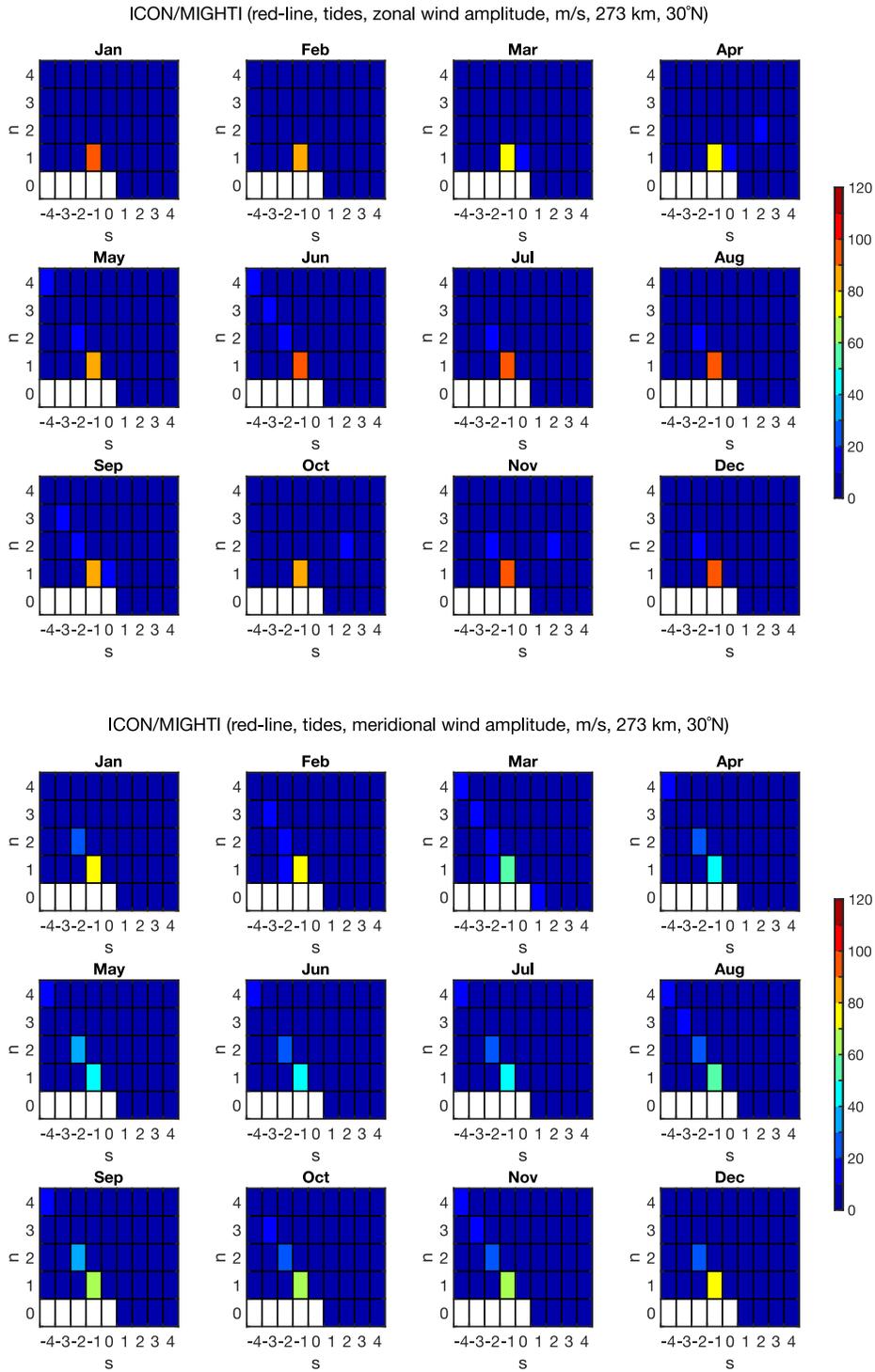
**Figure 4.** Quiet-time monthly climatologies of the zonal-mean zonal wind (top 12 panels) and zonal-mean meridional wind (bottom 12 panels) in the middle thermosphere (203–300 km) as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI red-line data during April 2020–March 2022.



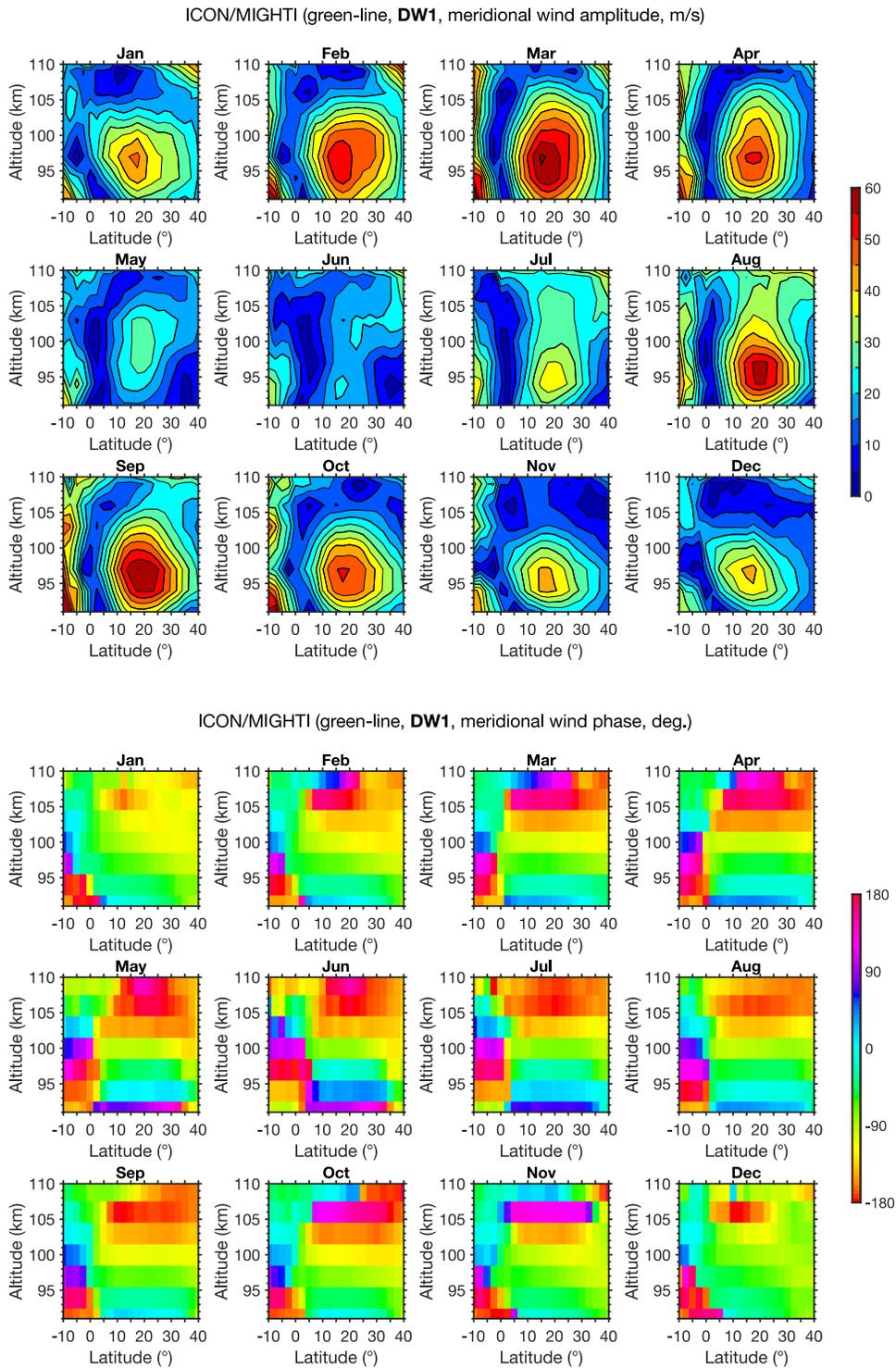
**Figure 5.** Same as Figure 4 but from Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14).



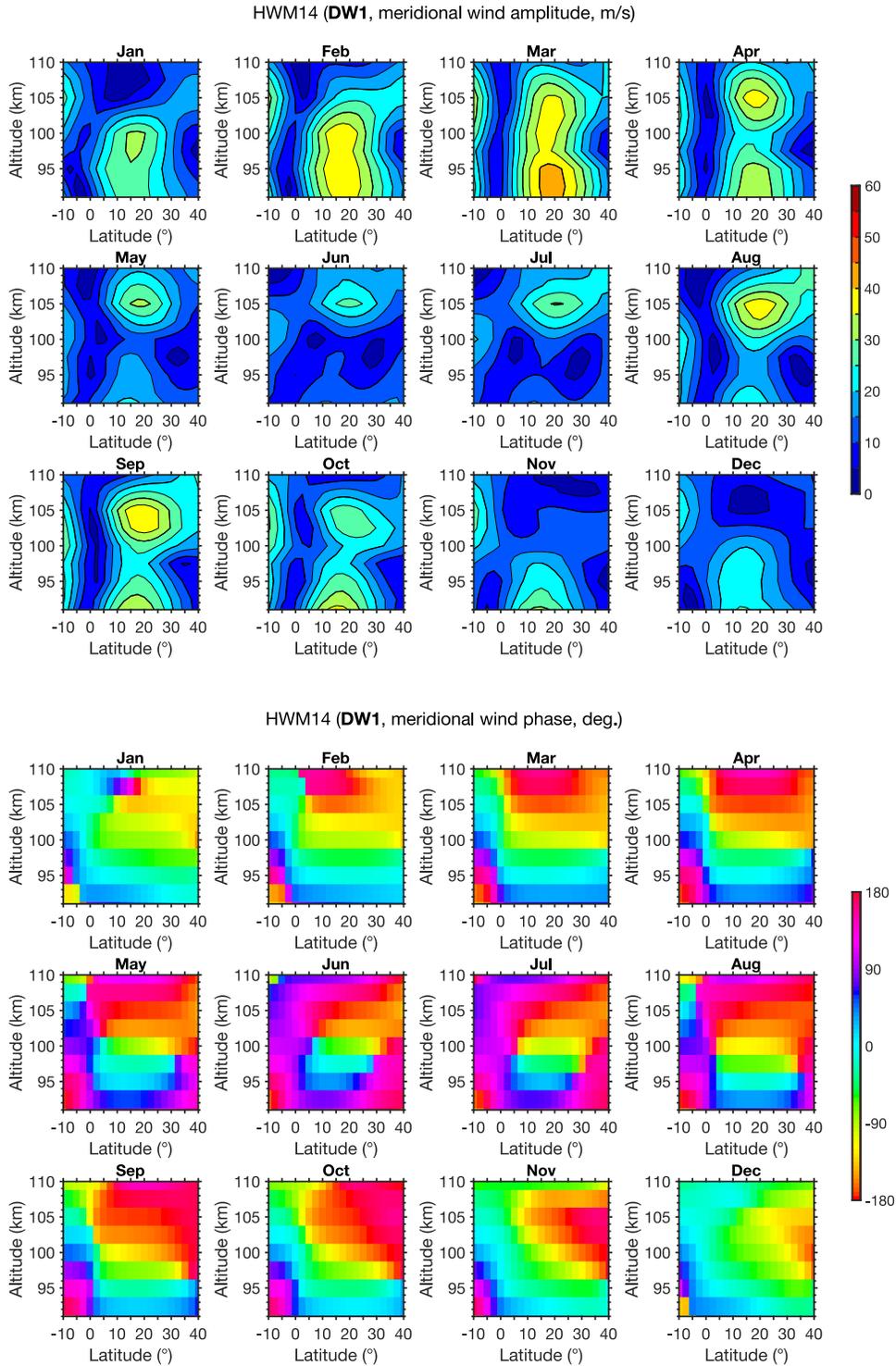
**Figure 6.** Amplitude of tides and stationary planetary waves in the zonal wind (top 12 panels) and meridional wind (bottom 12 panels) at 106 km at the equator as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data.  $n$  represents tidal frequency. That is,  $n=1$  for diurnal tides,  $n=2$  for semidiurnal tides, and so on.  $n=0$  for stationary planetary waves.  $s$  is the zonal wavenumber.  $s>0$  for eastward-propagating waves, while  $s<0$  for westward-propagating waves.



**Figure 7.** Same as Figure 6 but at 273 km at 30°N as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI red-line data.



**Figure 8.** Amplitude (top 12 panels) and phase (bottom 12 panels) of the migrating diurnal tide (DW1) in the meridional wind in the lower thermosphere as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data. The corresponding results for the zonal wind can be found in Figure S1 of Supporting Information.

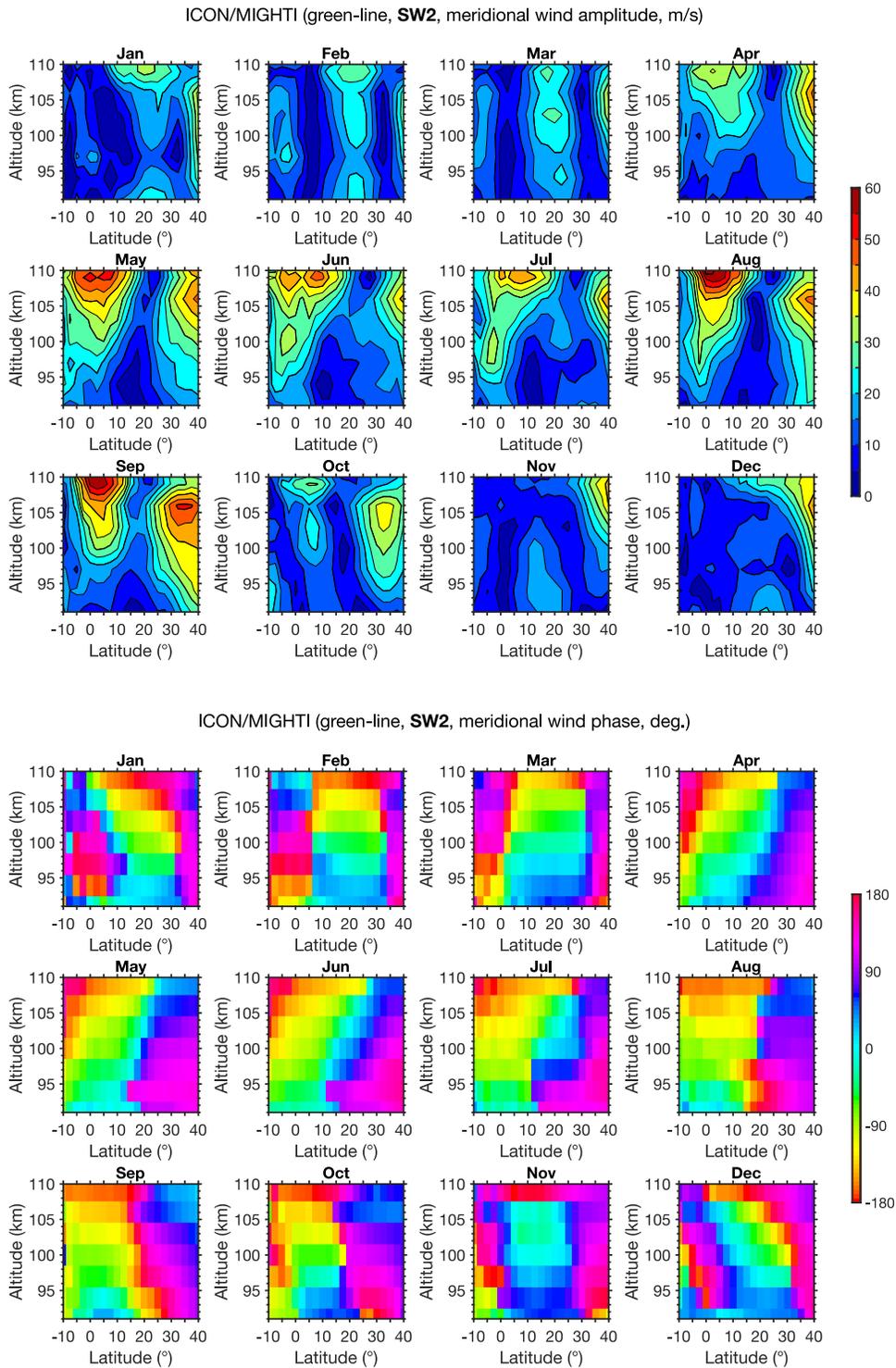


**Figure 9.** Same as Figure 8 but from Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14).

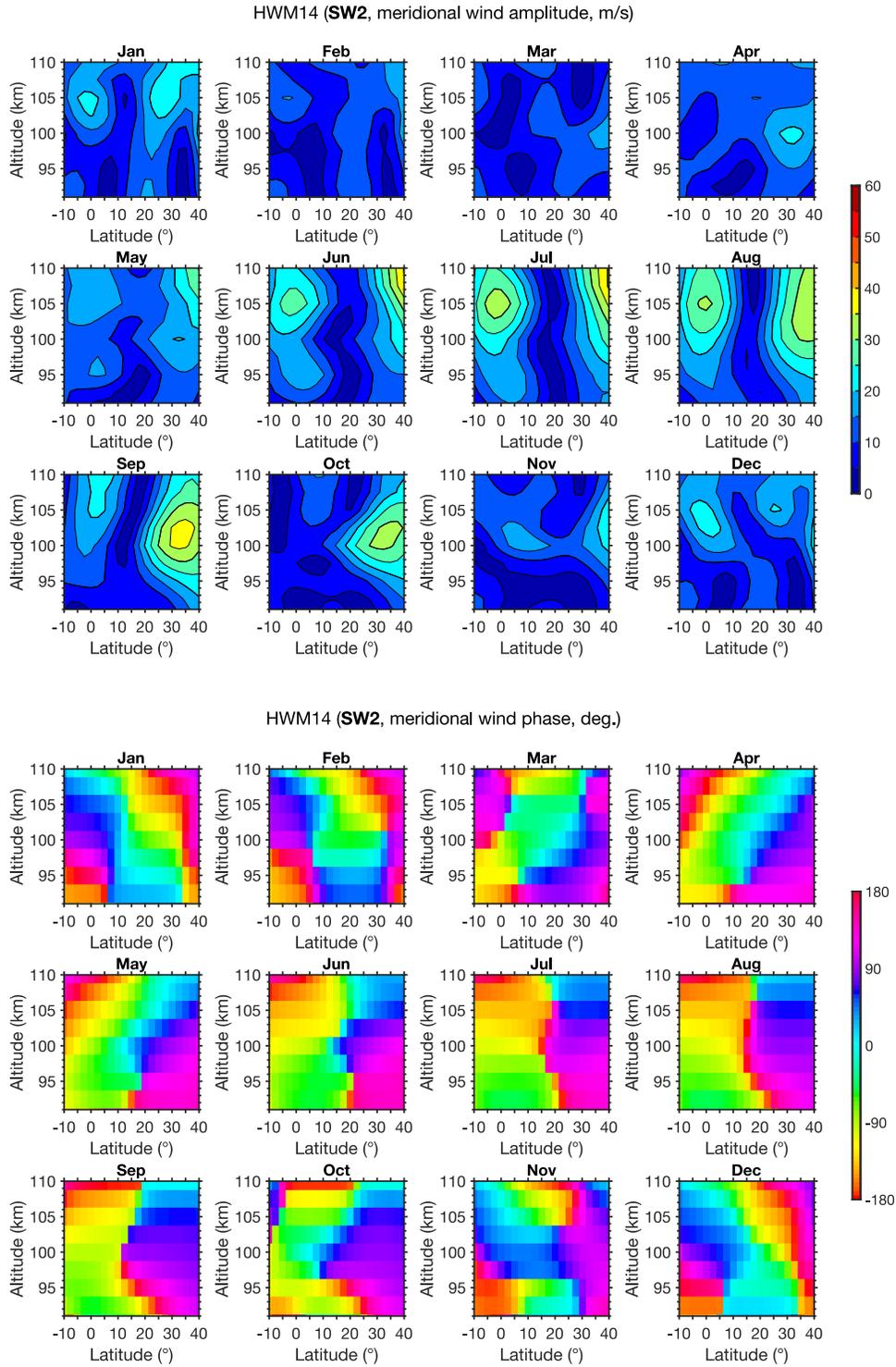
272 plitude is relatively large over the equator ( $10^{\circ}\text{S}$ – $10^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) and at N.H. middle latitudes ( $>30^{\circ}\text{N}$ ).  
 273 In the equatorial region, the amplitude grows with height, reaching 60 m/s at 110 km  
 274 during August–September. The maximum amplitude probably occurs above 110 km. At  
 275 middle latitudes, the amplitude peaks at 105 km. The downward phase propagation is  
 276 seen at both equatorial and middle-latitude regions, indicating that the SW2 energy prop-  
 277 agates upward at these heights. The corresponding results derived from HWM14 are shown  
 278 in Figure 11. Again, the amplitude in HWM14 is generally too small, and its height struc-  
 279 ture does not agree well with the observations. Interestingly, there is remarkable agree-  
 280 ment in the phase of SW2 in the lower thermosphere between the ICON/MIGHTI and  
 281 HWM14 results.

282 Figure 12 shows the amplitude and phase of DE3 in the zonal wind in the lower  
 283 thermosphere as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI green-line measurements. DE3 is the  
 284 largest non-migrating (i.e., non-sun-synchronous) tidal component found in the green-  
 285 line data. The zonal-wind amplitude is largest over the equator at a height of 105–110  
 286 km. The maximum amplitude exceeds 30 m/s during July–October. The downward phase  
 287 propagation is visible, indicating upward energy propagation of DE3. DE3 is nonexis-  
 288 tent in HWM14, as the model does not take into account any non-migrating tide.

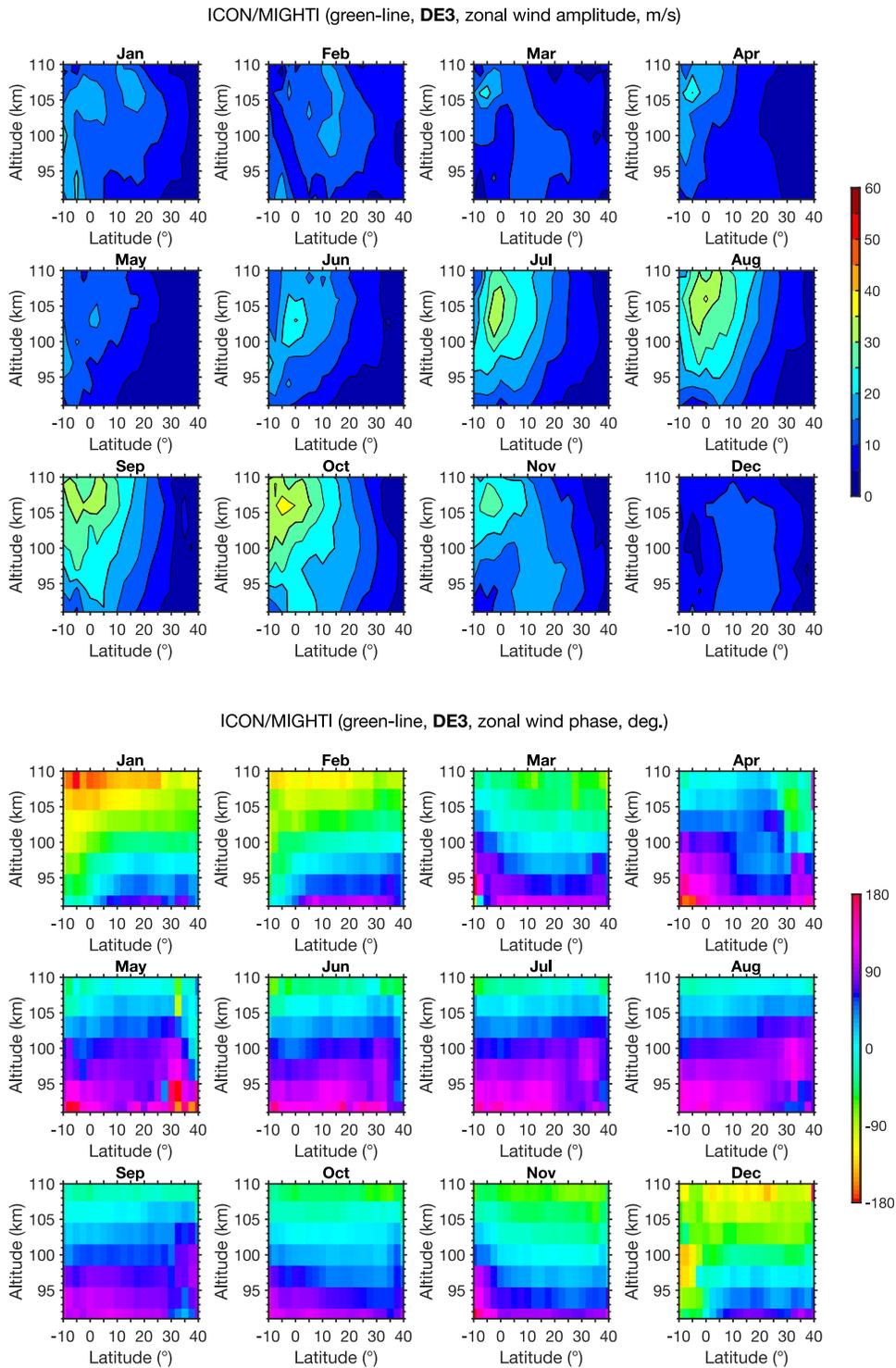
289 We now look at DW1 in the middle thermosphere. Figure 13 shows the amplitude  
 290 and phase of DW1 in the zonal wind in the middle thermosphere as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI  
 291 red-line observations. It is noted that the scale range for the amplitude is different from  
 292 those used for the green-line results (Figures 8, 10 and 12). The DW1 amplitude grows  
 293 with height from  $\sim 50$  m/s at 200 km to  $\sim 90$  m/s at 300 km. It exceeds 100 m/s in some  
 294 months. The phase does not vary with height, indicating that DW1 in the middle ther-  
 295 mosphere is a vertically-trapped (evanescent) tidal mode that is locally generated, rather  
 296 than an upward-propagating mode from below. The corresponding results derived from  
 297 HWM14 are presented in Figure 14. HWM14 reproduces the latitude and height struc-  
 298 tures of the amplitude and phase well. Figure 15 also shows the amplitude and phase  
 299 of DW1 from the ICON/MIGHTI red-line measurements, but for the meridional wind.  
 300 The amplitude is small over the equatorial region but can exceed 100 m/s at middle lat-  
 301 itudes ( $>30^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) above 280 km. The phase depends strongly on latitude. The phase struc-  
 302 ture is well captured by HWM14 (Figure 16), but the model severely underestimates the  
 303 DW1 amplitude at middle latitudes.



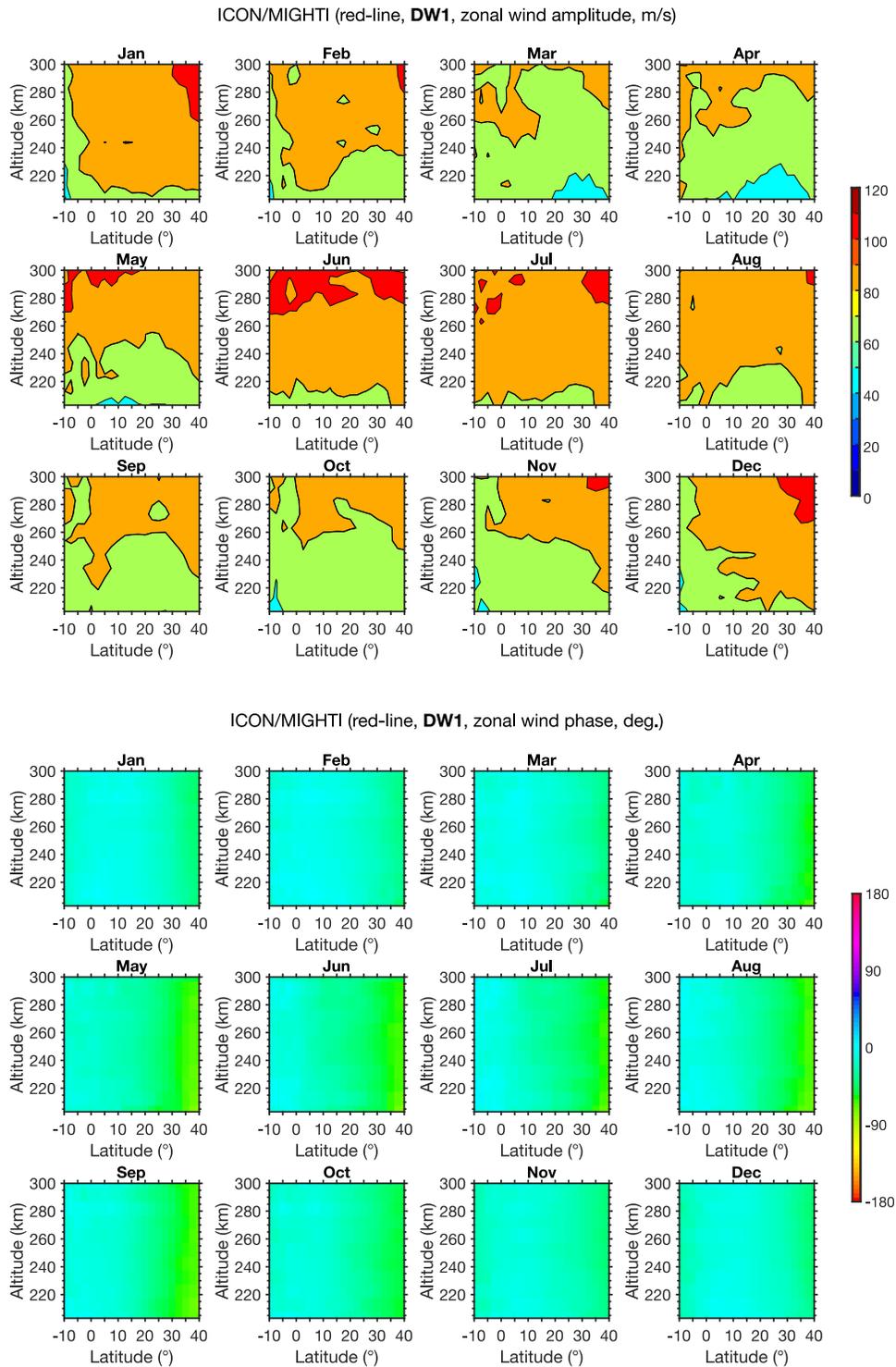
**Figure 10.** Amplitude (top 12 panels) and phase (bottom 12 panels) of the migrating semidiurnal tide (SW2) in the meridional wind in the lower thermosphere as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data. The corresponding results for the zonal wind can be found in Figure S2 of Supporting Information.



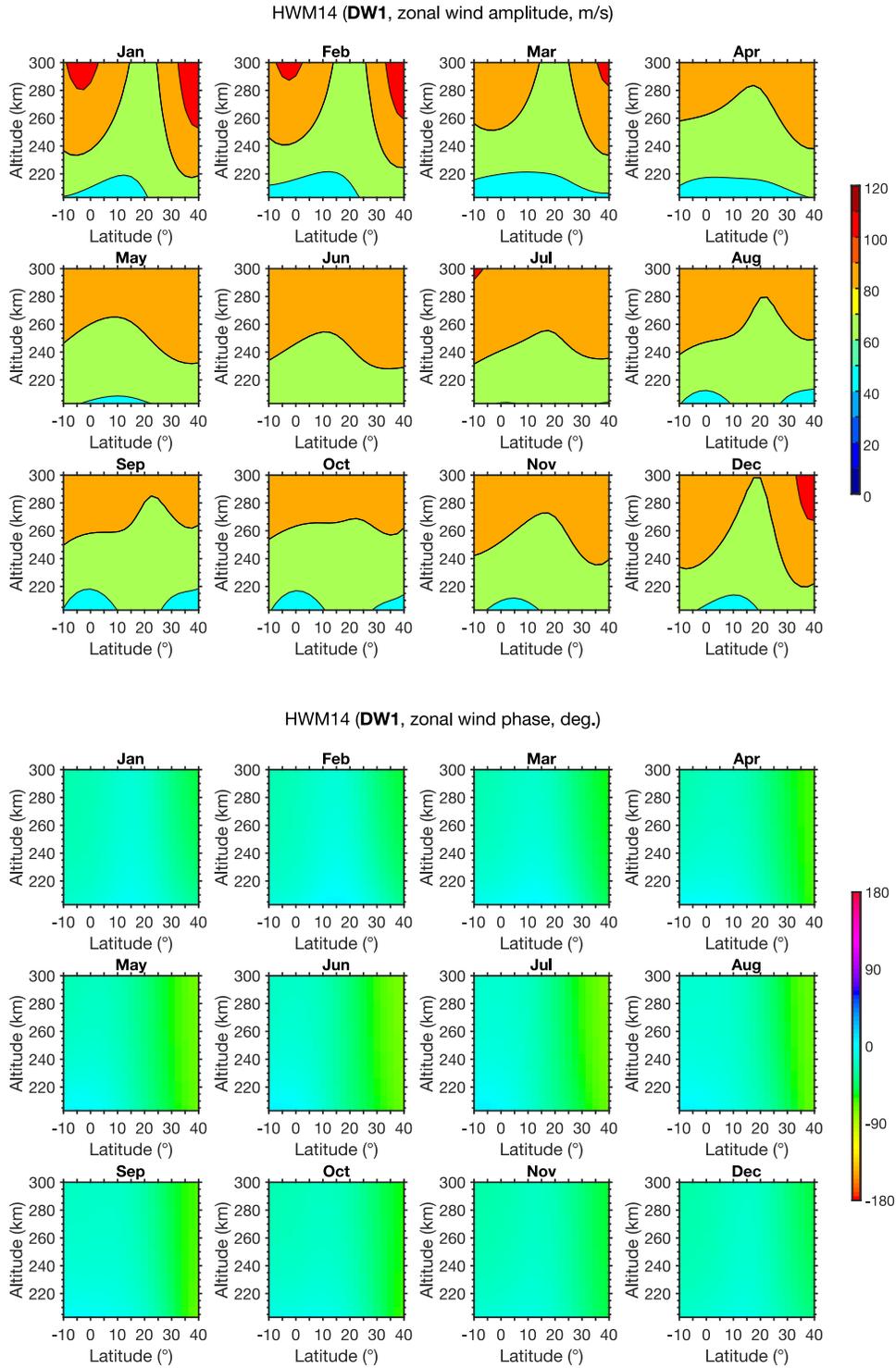
**Figure 11.** Same as Figure 10 but from Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14).



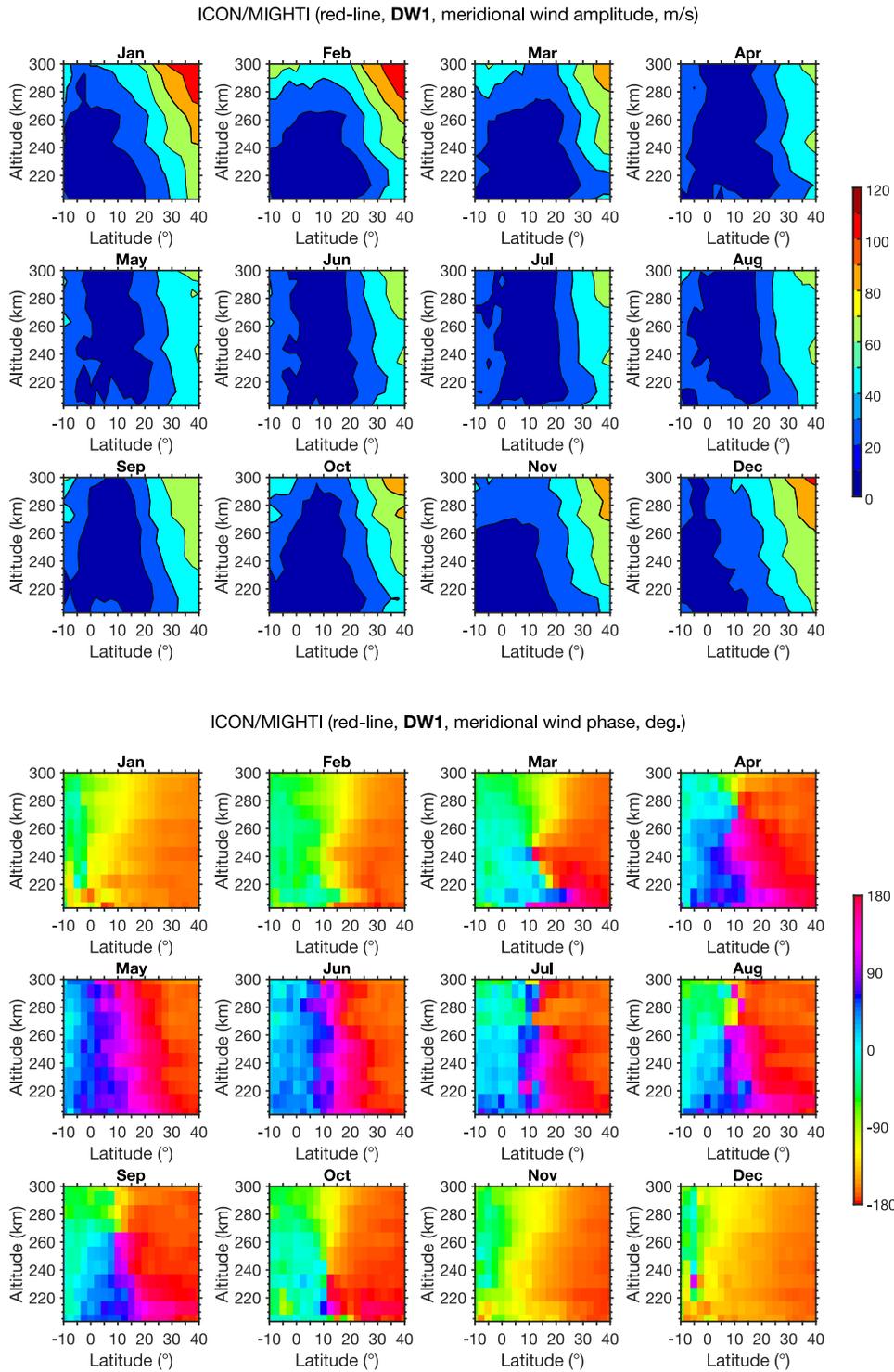
**Figure 12.** Amplitude (top 12 panels) and phase (bottom 12 panels) of the eastward-propagating diurnal tide with zonal wavenumber 3 (DE3) in the zonal wind in the lower thermosphere as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI green-line data. The corresponding results for the meridional wind can be found in Figure S3 of Supporting Information.



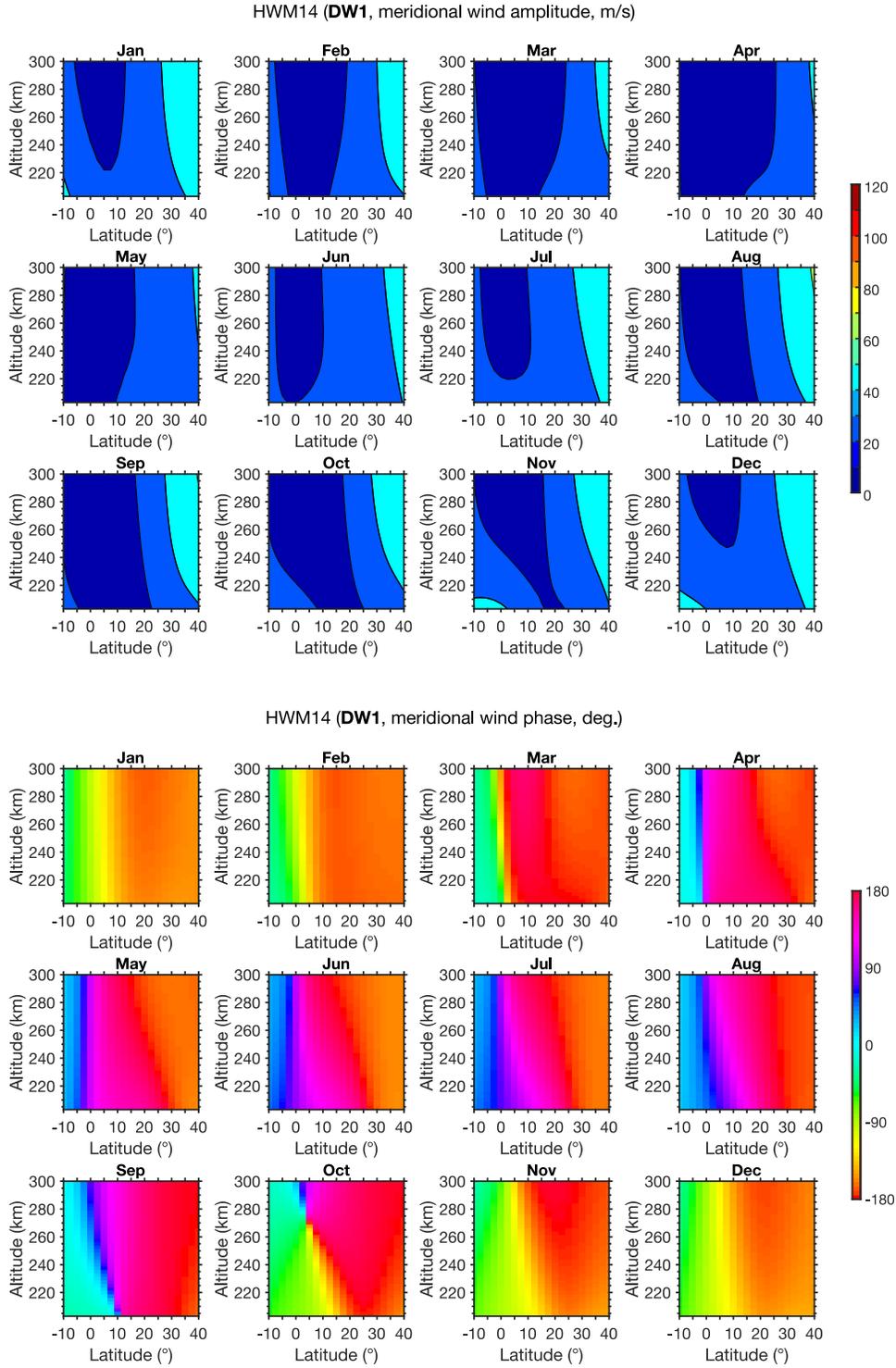
**Figure 13.** Amplitude (top 12 panels) and phase (bottom 12 panels) of the migrating diurnal tide (DW1) in the zonal wind in the middle thermosphere as derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI red-line data. The corresponding results for the migrating semidiurnal tide (SW2) can be found in Figure S4 of Supporting Information.



**Figure 14.** Same as Figure 13 but from Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (HWM14).



**Figure 15.** Same as Figure 13 but in the meridional wind. The corresponding results for the migrating semidiurnal tide (SW2) can be found in Figure S5 of Supporting Information.



**Figure 16.** Same as Figure 14 but in the meridional wind.

## 4 Discussion

We have presented seasonal climatologies of the zonal-mean winds and tides derived from the v05 ICON/MIGHTI data, and compared the results with those from HWM14. Here we compare the ICON/MIGHTI results with those presented in earlier work based on other observations and models. Also, we discuss physical mechanisms behind some of the features observed in the ICON/MIGHTI winds, referring to previous theoretical studies.

Wang et al. (1997) created an empirical model of lower thermospheric winds (90–120 km) using the measurements from the wind imaging interferometer (WINDII; Shepherd et al., 1993) onboard UARS. They presented the zonal-mean zonal and meridional winds for different seasons, which can be compared with our ICON/MIGHTI results (Figures 2 and 4). S. P. Zhang et al. (2007) later analyzed an updated version of UARS/WINDII data and obtained similar results as Wang et al. (1997). The UARS/WINDII results showed a westward jet of 10–30 m/s over the equator at  $\sim 100$  km throughout the year. This is also seen in the ICON/MIGHTI results (Figure 2), as well as in HWM14 (Figure 3). It is noted that the UARS/WINDII data are already incorporated in HWM. The westward jet over the equator is considered to result from the westward momentum deposition by dissipating migrating (thus westward-propagating) tides (e.g., Miyahara, 1981, 1978; Lieberman & Hays, 1994; Jones Jr et al., 2014). Wang et al. (1997) and S. P. Zhang et al. (2007) noted that the equatorial westward jet is sandwiched by eastward jets centered around  $\pm 40^\circ$  latitudes. The eastward jets were reported to be stronger in the summer hemisphere, with the magnitude of 30–40 m/s. The ICON/MIGHTI results (Figure 2) clearly capture the N.H. part of the eastward jets. The mechanism for the middle-latitude eastward jets is not well understood. The numerical work by Forbes et al. (1993) predicted that the equatorial westward jet induced by tidal dissipation is accompanied by eastward jets at higher latitudes. However, the eastward jets due to tidal dissipation are predicted to be much weaker than the westward jet, which agrees with neither ICON/MIGHTI nor UARS/WINDII observations. Besides tides, Miyoshi and Fujiwara (2006) numerically demonstrated that the momentum deposition by eastward-propagating equatorial Kelvin waves also plays a significant role for the zonal-mean zonal wind in the equatorial lower thermosphere. More studies are required to determine the relative importance of different waves to explain the observed westward and eastward jets.

336 The zonal-mean meridional wind in the lower thermosphere as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI  
337 data is generally weak (Figure 2), which is consistent with the UARS/WINDII results  
338 presented by Wang et al. (1997) as well as HWM14 (Figure 3). S. P. Zhang et al. (2007)  
339 noted that the zonal-mean meridional wind sometimes show a cell-like structure in the  
340 low latitude region, which is characterized by poleward winds on both sides of the equa-  
341 tor at altitudes of 95–105 km and equatorward winds at 105–115 km. There is some hint  
342 of such a cell-like structure in the ICON/MIGHTI zonal-mean meridional wind (see, e.g.,  
343 August–September), but it is not well resolved because of the small magnitude. The cell-  
344 like structure in the zonal-mean meridional wind in the lower thermosphere is sometimes  
345 found in numerical models and is considered to be driven by tidal dissipation (e.g., Miya-  
346 hara et al., 1993; Forbes et al., 1993).

347 ICON/MIGHTI red-line measurements revealed seasonal climatologies of the zonal-  
348 mean zonal and meridional winds at 200–300 km (Figure 4). HWM14 reproduces the  
349 ICON/MIGHTI observations well for both the zonal and meridional components (Fig-  
350 ure 5). HWM14 at this height range is well constrained by UARS/WINDII red-line winds  
351 as well as observations by ground-based Fabry-Perot interferometers. The zonal-mean  
352 meridional wind in the middle thermosphere is directed from the summer to the winter  
353 hemisphere, which is not surprising given the higher temperature and pressure in the sum-  
354 mer hemisphere. The seasonal transition in the meridional circulation occurs in March  
355 and September. Using a numerical model, Roble et al. (1977) showed that the seasonal  
356 transition of the zonal-mean circulation takes place within a few weeks of equinox. Such  
357 an abrupt seasonal transition is not fully resolved in our monthly analysis. The zonal-  
358 mean zonal wind in the middle thermosphere arises mainly from the correlation between  
359 diurnal variations of pressure gradient and ion drag (Dickinson et al., 1975, 1977). That  
360 is, the wind is weaker on the dayside than the nightside as the ion drag is larger on the  
361 dayside due to higher plasma concentration. Since the wind in the middle thermosphere  
362 undergoes a diurnal cycle due to day-night pressure differences, an unbalance between  
363 the daytime and nighttime winds leads to the zonal-mean winds.

364 The three most dominant tidal components in the ICON/MIGHTI green-line winds  
365 are DW1, SW2 and DE3 (Figures 8, 10, 12). This is as expected from previous studies  
366 on tides in the lower thermosphere (e.g., Forbes et al., 2008; Oberheide et al., 2011). DW1  
367 and SW2 are sun-synchronous, while DE3 is non-sun-synchronous. In the lower thermo-  
368 sphere, they consist mainly of upward-propagating modes, which can be seen from their

369 downward phase propagation. They are driven by radiative heating through insolation  
370 of H<sub>2</sub>O in the troposphere and O<sub>3</sub> in the stratosphere (e.g., Forbes, 1982b, 1982a) as well  
371 as by latent heating in the troposphere (Hagan & Forbes, 2002, 2003; X. Zhang et al.,  
372 2010a, 2010b). DW1 in the meridional wind, as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI ob-  
373 servations, shows an amplitude maximum at 15–20°N at an altitude of 95–98 km (Fig-  
374 ure 8). The results are consistent with those from UARS/WINDII (McLandress et al.,  
375 1996; S. P. Zhang et al., 2007) and TIMED/TIDI (Wu et al., 2008a). The amplitude is  
376 larger during the equinoxes than the solstices, which is well known from previous stud-  
377 ies (e.g., Burrage et al., 1995; Xu et al., 2009). McLandress (2002b, 2002a) examined the  
378 mechanism for the semiannual variation of DW1 using a numerical model, and concluded  
379 that the change in the latitudinal shear of the zonal-mean zonal wind plays a leading role  
380 for the seasonal variation of DW1 in the lower thermosphere. HWM14 reproduces the  
381 semiannual variation of DW1 (Figure 9) but the model underestimates the amplitude  
382 in comparison not only with the ICON/MIGHTI results but also with the UARS/WINDII  
383 and TIMED/TIDI results (S. P. Zhang et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2008a). Previous stud-  
384 ies reported that the amplitude of DW1 at low latitudes can change by a few tens of m/s  
385 from one year to the next (e.g., Burrage et al., 1995; Hagan et al., 1999). Variation as-  
386 sociated with the quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) of the equatorial atmosphere is an im-  
387 portant part of the interannual variation of DW1 in the lower thermosphere, account-  
388 ing for up to 10 m/s (e.g., Xu et al., 2009). The interannual variability of tides is not  
389 taken into account in the present study. Resolving the QBO effect would require a larger  
390 data set.

391 SW2 in the meridional wind, as derived from the ICON/MIGHTI observations, is  
392 relatively strong during May–September (Figure 10), which is consistent with the UARS/WINDII  
393 observations (S. P. Zhang et al., 2007). HWM14 reproduces the seasonal variation of SW2  
394 but with somewhat smaller amplitude (Figure 11). The mechanism for the seasonal vari-  
395 ation of SW2 is not well established. DE3 in the lower thermosphere has characteristics  
396 of a Kelvin wave (e.g., Forbes et al., 2003). In classical theory, a Kelvin wave travels east-  
397 ward, and its zonal wind component has a Gaussian-shaped latitudinal profile with max-  
398 imum amplitude over the equator (e.g., Forbes, 2000). The latitude and height struc-  
399 tures of DE3 and its seasonal variation in the ICON/MIGHTI green-line zonal wind (Fig-  
400 ure 12) are consistent with those from the UARS/WINDII (Forbes et al., 2003) and TIMED/TIDI  
401 observations (Oberheide et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2008b). As the zonal wind amplitude of

402 DE3 reaches its maximum in the equatorial dynamo region at 105–110 km, it has a sig-  
403 nificant impact on the equatorial zonal electric field and current (e.g., England et al., 2006;  
404 Fejer et al., 2008) as well as on the F-region plasma concentration (e.g., Immel et al.,  
405 2006; Lin et al., 2007). Despite the importance of DE3 in low-latitude ionosphere-thermosphere  
406 coupling, it is not included in HWM14 like other non-migrating tides.

407 DW1 in the middle thermosphere (Figures 13 and 15) is predominantly a vertically-  
408 trapped tidal mode that is excited by in-situ solar heating (e.g., Forbes, 1982b; Hagan  
409 et al., 2001). This contrasts with DW1 in the lower thermosphere (Figure 8), which is  
410 primarily an upward-propagating mode. The latitude and height structures of DW1 in  
411 the middle thermosphere are not well documented, particularly those based on obser-  
412 vations. The simulation results by Hagan et al. (2001) showed that (1) the amplitude  
413 of DW1 at 200–300 km grows with height at all latitudes, (2) both zonal and meridional  
414 wind amplitudes are largest at high latitudes, (3) the meridional wind amplitude is van-  
415 ishing small over the equator but it increases with latitude, (4) the zonal wind ampli-  
416 tude does not depend strongly on latitude over the middle- and low-latitude regions, (5)  
417 both zonal and meridional wind phases do not depend strongly on height, (6) the zonal  
418 wind phase does not vary strongly with latitude, and (7) the meridional wind phase also  
419 does not vary strongly with latitude except that the phase reversal occurs at the equa-  
420 tor. The ICON/MIGHTI results (Figures 13 and 15) are consistent with these numer-  
421 ical predictions.

422 Some previous studies have addressed a potential impact of the solar flux, mainly  
423 at the wavelengths of extreme ultraviolet (EUV), on neutral winds in the middle and up-  
424 per thermosphere (e.g., Hedin et al., 1994). The ICON/MIGHTI observations examined  
425 in this paper are obtained during the period April 2020–March 2022. The mean value  
426 of the  $F_{10.7}$  index (Tapping, 2013), which is often used as a proxy of the EUV flux, was  
427 82.8 sfu ( $1 \text{ sfu} = 10^{-22} \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{Hz}^{-1}$ ), with the minimum and maximum monthly val-  
428 ues of 69.2 sft in May 2020 and 117.8 sfu in March 2022, respectively. We have ignored  
429 possible variations in the wind velocities associated with the change in the solar flux, as  
430 the ICON/MIGHTI data used in this study are not sufficient for evaluating the solar ac-  
431 tivity effect on the thermospheric winds. HWM14 also does not take into account the  
432 dependence of wind velocities on solar activity. Hedin et al. (1994) reported that although  
433 the solar flux significantly influences the temperature, the zonal-mean winds in the mid-  
434 dle thermosphere do not strongly depend on solar activity. Hagan et al. (2001) noted in

435 their simulation results that the solar flux has a marked effect on the temperature am-  
436 plitude of DW1 in the middle thermosphere but not on the wind amplitudes. H. Liu et  
437 al. (2006) examined the effect of the solar flux on thermospheric winds ( $\sim 400$  km) us-  
438 ing the CHAMP accelerometer data. They found that the solar flux effect can be sig-  
439 nificant depending on the season and local time. The solar flux effect on tides is gener-  
440 ally small below about 130 km, where tidal waves are mainly of lower atmospheric ori-  
441 gin (Oberheide et al., 2009; Dhadly et al., 2018). More observational studies are required  
442 to establish the solar activity dependence of zonal-mean winds and tides in the thermo-  
443 sphere.

## 444 5 Conclusions

445 Monthly climatologies of quiet-time zonal-mean winds and tides are derived using  
446 the recently-released v05 of the ICON/MIGHTI thermospheric wind measurements dur-  
447 ing April 2020–March 2022 at the altitude ranges 90–110 km and 200–300 km. Earlier  
448 versions of the ICON/MIGHTI wind data suffered from artificial baseline drifts that de-  
449 pend on local time. Thus, it was previously difficult to obtain reliable climatological es-  
450 timates of zonal-mean winds and tides. The v05 data avoids this issue by the use of a  
451 renewed baseline calibration technique (Englert et al., 2023).

452 The ICON/MIGHTI results are compared with those from the latest version of HWM  
453 (i.e., HWM14) as well as previous studies. Salient features of zonal-mean winds and tides  
454 in the lower and middle thermosphere are in general agreement between ICON/MIGHTI  
455 and HWM14, including latitude and height structures and their seasonal variations. This  
456 provides a validation of the v05 ICON/MIGHTI data. HWM14 reproduces the zonal-  
457 mean zonal and meridional winds well in both the lower and middle thermosphere. How-  
458 ever, HWM14 tends to underestimate tidal amplitude. Also, HWM14 does not include  
459 non-migrating tides such as DE3, which is especially important in the equatorial lower  
460 thermosphere. The latitude and height structures of DE3 and their seasonal variations  
461 in the ICON/MIGHTI green-line zonal wind are found to be consistent with those from  
462 the UARS/WINDII and TIMED/TIDI observations. The future improvement of HWM  
463 can benefit from the inclusion of the ICON/MIGHTI winds for better description of tides.

## Open Research Section

The ICON/MIGHTI Level 2.2 product Cardinal Vector Winds (Version 5) is accessible from the ICON website <https://icon.ssl.berkeley.edu/Data>. The Hpo indices including Hp30 used in this study are available at the GFZ website <https://kp.gfz-potsdam.de/en/hp30-hp60/data>; see also data publication Matzka et al. (2022). The monthly F10.7 index is available at the website of the Canadian Space Weather Forecast Centre <https://spaceweather.gc.ca/forecast-prevision/solar-solaire/solarflux/sx-5-mavg-en.php>.

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