



# 1 **Return glider radiosonde for in-situ upper-air research** 2 **measurements**

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## 12 13 14 **Abstract**

15 Upper-air balloon soundings for weather predictions have been made since the beginning of  
16 the 20th century. New radiosonde instruments for in-situ humidity-, radiation- and gas profile  
17 measurements in the troposphere and the lower stratosphere, were introduced in recent years  
18 for atmospheric research and climate monitoring. Such instruments are often expensive and  
19 aimed at being reused on many flights. However, recovering instruments that freely descent  
20 with parachutes is time-consuming and sometimes difficult and even dangerous. Here we  
21 introduce the Return Glider Radiosonde (RGR), which enables flying and retrieving valuable  
22 in-situ upper-air instruments. The RGR is lifted with weather balloons similar to traditional  
23 radiosondes to a preset altitude, at which time a release mechanism cuts the tether string, and  
24 a built in autopilot flies the glider autonomously back to the launch site or a desired  
25 preprogrammed location. Once the RGR reaches the landing coordinates it circles down and  
26 releases a parachute 100 m above ground for landing. The motivation for this project was to  
27 measure radiation profiles throughout the atmosphere with the same instrument multiple  
28 times. The paper describes technical aspects of the return glider radiosonde and the built in  
29 radiation instruments, and shows first low and high altitude test flights up to 24 km that are



1 analyzed in terms of flight performance and maximal distances covered. Several successive  
2 flights measuring radiation profiles demonstrate the reliability and the operational readiness  
3 of the RGR, allowing new ways for atmospheric in-situ research- and monitoring  
4 measurements with different built-in sensors and instruments to be utilized.

5

## 6 **1 Introduction**

7 Balloon-borne instruments have been used for in-situ atmospheric measurements for more  
8 than 100 years (Hoinka, 1997). Instruments that send data from weather balloons to the  
9 ground using small radiofrequency transmitters, now commonly known as radiosondes, were  
10 invented by the French scientist Robert Bureau in 1929. Some radiosondes are now capable of  
11 capturing and transmitting data from other instruments, greatly expanding the measurement  
12 capabilities of balloon-borne payloads.

13 With strong evidence of climate change and a refined knowledge that atmospheric  
14 composition in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) plays an important role  
15 on radiative effects in Earth's climate system (Forster and Shine, 2002; Solomon et al., 2010),  
16 upper-air observations for climate have been given more attention in recent years. The Global  
17 Climate Observing System (GCOS) Reference Upper Air Network (GRUAN) is designed to  
18 produce long-term, climate-quality records of essential climate variables in the troposphere  
19 and stratosphere (Trenberth et al., 2002; GCOS-112, 2007; Seidel et al., 2009; Bodeker et al.,  
20 2015) at 20-30 globally distributed sites.

21 While the primary objectives of GRUAN are to monitor changes in temperature and water  
22 vapor profiles in the lower troposphere and the UTLS (Thorne et al., 2005; Randel et al.,  
23 2006), in-situ upper-air radiation profile measurements recently revealed very interesting  
24 insight in the absorption and emission of radiation in the atmosphere and the full radiation  
25 budget as a function of altitudes (Philipona et al., 2012). The radiation measurements were  
26 made with a new double balloon technique, which reduces the pendulum motion during  
27 ascent and provides controlled descent with the parachute balloon (Kräuchi et al., 2016).  
28 However, despite numerical model calculations to predict flight trajectories, sophisticated  
29 GPS technology and the controlled balloon descent, the free fall and recovery of the valuable  
30 payload is still risky, difficult and time consuming, particularly in mountainous terrain or  
31 coastal areas



1 Here we describe a ballooning technique that is based on the experience made with the double  
2 balloon technique, but uses a new technology to fly back the payload after measurements are  
3 completed. The return glider radiosonde (RGR) consists of a flying wing with a built-in  
4 radiosonde, a release mechanism, an autopilot and a parachute for autonomous landing. The  
5 RGR was conceived for atmospheric radiation profile measurements. Short- and longwave  
6 radiation sensors, which are controlled by the radiosonde, are therefore integrated in the  
7 wings of the glider. In section 2 we discuss general aspects of different flying systems.  
8 Section 3 shows the flight procedure and section 4 the glider's hardware and scientific  
9 instruments. Section 5 describes the electronics and section 6 the software. Results from the  
10 initial flights are presented in section 7 showing flight performance and maximum flight  
11 distance. Section 8 presents research measurements with the RGR and section 9 finishes with  
12 conclusions and an outlook for new possibilities for this technique in advanced atmospheric  
13 research and climate monitoring.

14

## 15 **2 Choosing an autonomous flying system**

16 Controlling a payload during descent from high altitudes can be achieved in different ways.  
17 Two approaches were considered, namely controlling the payload by a parafoil system, or by  
18 integrating the payload into a small aircraft. Both systems have advantages and disadvantages,  
19 which are discussed in the context of returning the payload to the location where it was  
20 launched.

21

### 22 **2.1 Parafoil guiding system**

23 Since several years parafoil systems are used on airplanes to deploy supplies in remote areas  
24 safely to the ground. Parafoils are compact and similar to currently used parachutes on regular  
25 radiosondes, but with additional control over the descending direction. All the electronics and  
26 batteries for controlling the parafoil fit into a small Styrofoam box attached to the radiosonde.  
27 The costs of such a system are therefore rather low and no special training for the sounding  
28 operator is needed to launch this system. However, while a parafoil allows gaining control  
29 over the descending radiosonde payload, there are several difficulties which need to be  
30 addressed.



1 Radiosondes are usually dropped from high altitude of more than 24 km, where the air  
2 pressure is 30 times lower than ground pressure. This low air pressure is the major problem  
3 for this technique, since a parafoil system relies on the dynamic pressure during flight, which  
4 helps to keep its shape and inflates the parafoil once released from the balloon. NASA Ames  
5 Research Center made numerous experiments with high altitude parafoil guiding systems with  
6 rather mixed results. Some of the common problems were tangled lines, non-inflating  
7 parafoils or flat spins without the possibility of recovery (Benton and Yakimenko, 2013).  
8 Another issue is the rather light radiosonde payload attached to a parafoil. When entering into  
9 strong jet streams, the high wind speeds exceed the forward flying speed of the parafoil  
10 system, which then stays stationary or flies backwards with the wind. To reach the desired  
11 landing location where it was launched would not be possible, and additional preprogrammed  
12 landing sites would be needed for controlled landing of the payload.

13

## 14 **2.2 Fixed-wing aircraft**

15 Small propelled Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) became very popular in the scientific  
16 community over the past few years, opening new possibilities in acquiring different data sets  
17 in the lower atmosphere. UAVs can carry a payload of several kilograms and are generally  
18 propelled by gas or battery powered engines depending on payload size and weight. Over the  
19 past few years carbon fiber materials became available and are currently widely used for  
20 building strong air frames while still being light weight. Handling and crafting this material  
21 needs special know-how and expertise to build strong and rigid air frames.

22 Expanded Polypropylene (EPP) on the other hand gained popularity in the amateur model  
23 aircraft scene, and is today another promising material for building small aircrafts. EPP is  
24 very light weight, easy to handle and has good properties in terms of absorbing kinetic  
25 impacts while retaining its original shape. Moreover, the material is similar to the expanded  
26 polystyrene (EPS) used for radiosonde boxes, hence the knowledge to craft and handling this  
27 material already exists.

28 For fixed wings, different shapes and airfoils are available to best suit our application in terms  
29 of flying distance and payload storage. In our case the airframe profile needs to be kept as  
30 narrow as possible to not disturb the scientific measurements. However, there are other  
31 difficulties which need to be addressed when operating an aircraft at high altitudes. The  
32 material used need to withstand low temperatures in the stratosphere and large and rapid



1 temperature changes reentering the troposphere. Due to the very low air pressure in the  
2 stratosphere the aircraft needs to fly much faster to generate the same lift as would be required  
3 at low altitudes. Since little information is available about test flights in those challenging  
4 regions slow progress from low towards higher altitudes is required to analyze the aircrafts  
5 performance.

### 7 **2.3 Flying wing**

8 In terms of flight performance, even non-propelled aircrafts reach considerably higher  
9 forward speeds in high altitude winds than parafoil systems, and can therefore cover greater  
10 distances back to the original launch site. Even though the parafoil system has advantages in  
11 terms of simplicity, the problems at high altitudes and the lack of flying distance were crucial  
12 and motivated us to investigate a carrier system based on a model aircraft.

13 Several model aircrafts with a variety of different wing profiles, weight and flight  
14 characteristics have been evaluated. Electronic components need to be stored in the payload  
15 area and special scientific instruments have to fit into the wings. Therefore, the most suitable  
16 fixed wing available to build the return glider radiosonde was a tailless flying wing. The drag  
17 of a proper flying wing compared to a regular fixed wing aircraft with a vertical stabilizer is  
18 greatly reduced, and the gained structural stability due to the increased wing depth are  
19 considerable advantages for our application. The tailless feature was a further benefit since no  
20 vertical stabilizer will obstruct the radiation instruments on the glider. To stay within the  
21 payload limitations of a balloon born sounding, it was important to keep the weight of the  
22 fully equipped aircraft as low as possible. Therefore the flying wing was designed without a  
23 propulsion system to reduce the weight. However, with some modifications an electric motor  
24 with the corresponding batteries could be used to propel the flying wing.

## 26 **3 Flight procedure**

27 Handling the return glider radiosonde is similar to a regular radiosonde, except that due to the  
28 radiation measurements the RGR is lifted in a well-controlled horizontal position during the  
29 ascent. Weather balloons with a corresponding free lift need to be prepared to raise the glider  
30 with an ascending speed of 5 m/s. Before launch the radiosonde is initialized on a computer  
31 and predetermined flight parameters are set in the autopilot for the release altitude, the landing



1 coordinates and the optional emergency landing coordinates. After disconnection from the  
2 computer, data transmission at the desired frequency is checked and the RGR is attached to  
3 the tether string of the balloon and launched (Figure 1, left panel). During the flight the return  
4 glider radiosonde transmits its position and all measured physical parameters, but flies fully  
5 autonomous without receiving information from the ground.

6 As soon as the pre-set altitude is reached, the glider detaches itself from the balloon and starts  
7 flying back towards the landing site. During the flight back, the autopilot monitors the flight  
8 performance and decides whether it is possible to reach the launch station or whether it needs  
9 to choose one of the emergency landing sites nearby (Figure 1, right panel). After reaching a  
10 preprogrammed landing site, a controlled spiral pattern towards the ground is initiated. While  
11 spiraling down the altitude is constantly monitored to finally release the parachute 100 m  
12 above the ground for landing (Figure 2, left panel).

13 If the glider reaches an altitude of 2000 m above sea level but is still not within 2000 m of any  
14 landing site, or if a malfunction with any electronic component or software is detected, the  
15 parachute is released for an emergency landing (Figure 2, right panel). All decisions made by  
16 the autopilot are transmitted via the radiosonde to inform about its next steps.

17

## 18 **4 Flight hardware and scientific instruments**

### 19 **4.1 Flying wing hardware**

20 The flying wing has a wingspan of 1.4 m and is made out of the special foam EPP, which is  
21 covered with a 100  $\mu$ m thin laminate film to protect the EPP foam (Figure 3). The aircraft is  
22 controlled by two control surfaces, called elevons. All electronics except the servos that  
23 control the elevons are stored inside the payload area in the middle section of the flying wing,  
24 which is made out of two Styrofoam boxes that allow maximum storage space for the  
25 radiosonde, batteries, the release mechanism and the navigation control devices. The boxes  
26 are glued on top of each other and designed for radiosonde application to withstand extreme  
27 cold temperatures even under high airflow when flying back.

28 The scientific instruments, in this case the short and longwave radiation sensors, are  
29 integrated into the left and right wing. The instrument body has the same height as the  
30 thickness of the wing, therefore only the instrument domes protrude and all cables and  
31 connectors are inside the wing, which is connected to the radiosonde in the payload section.



1 Temperature and humidity are measured at the back of the glider with the thermocouple  
2 temperature sensor slightly extending upward to prevent temperature perturbations of the  
3 glider.

4 In the front of the middle section a parachute is embedded into a Styrofoam half sphere. The  
5 parachute is used for the landing and also serves as emergency recovery system if the  
6 autopilot detects any malfunction. The total weight of a fully equipped return glider  
7 radiosonde with batteries and radiation instruments is under 2 kg and is within the limits of  
8 standard balloon born payloads. The current glider could be equipped with heavier payloads  
9 up to a takeoff weight limit of 5 kg.

10

## 11 **4.2 Scientific instruments**

12 As mentioned above, the motivation to build the return glider radiosonde was to measure  
13 solar and infrared radiation profiles. In 2011 first experiments were made with a CNR4 net  
14 radiometer from Kipp & Zone, which consists of an upward and downward pyranometer to  
15 measure shortwave radiation as well as an upward and downward pyrgeometer for the long  
16 wave component. All domes and body temperatures were measured by the thermocouple  
17 technique used in the SRS-C34 radiosonde. Measuring the exact temperature on the different  
18 parts of the instrument is crucial and allows for corrections of the large temperature gradients  
19 between the dome and the body, which affect the thermopile measurements. The  
20 measurements in 2011 showed very promising results (Philipona et al., 2012) and led to  
21 further development of the instrumentation to adapt our needs.

22 One of the major concerns was the size and weight of the CNR4. A new design allowed to  
23 make the instruments smaller and lighter and the combination of an upward pyrgeometer and  
24 a downward pyranometer allowed to build a compact instrument in which all body and dome  
25 temperatures are measured inside. Two such instruments, one upside down (Figure 4) are  
26 built into the wings and allow measuring the four radiation components while the RGR is  
27 lifted in horizontal position 50 m below the weather balloons, or also during the flight down  
28 to the surface.

29

## 30 **5 Electronics**

### 31 **5.1 Radiosonde**



1 The RGR is equipped with a Meteolabor radiosonde, which is similar to the SRS-C34 used  
2 for routine operation at the MeteoSwiss aerological station at Payerne. Only minor  
3 modifications were needed to adapt the radiosonde to measure ten additional channels from  
4 the short- and longwave radiation devices. During the flight, air temperature, humidity,  
5 pressure and wind components and all radiation values are transmitted once per second to the  
6 ground station. Temperature measurements are made with thermocouples, which have a  
7 diameter of only 50  $\mu\text{m}$  and respond very quickly to temperature changes. Humidity  
8 measurements are made with a capacitive polymer sensor whereas pressure and wind  
9 components are determined from GPS positions. Additional information from the RGRs flight  
10 controller are also transmitted to monitor vital steps during the flight. There is currently no  
11 uplink to the glider, hence all flight configurations are made prior to launch and no remote  
12 control over the glider is possible.

13 Since the SRS-C34 radiosonde consists of two separate modules connected by a bus system  
14 they were installed separately in the back of the RGRs middle section. The upper module is in  
15 charge of all the measurements made by the various sensors and the lower transmits the  
16 measurements to the ground station. The space in the front section is used for the batteries in  
17 the lower part and for the autopilot in the upper compartment (Figure 5).

18

## 19 **5.2 Autopilot**

20 In 2013 ETH Zürich together with 3D Robotics introduced a new autopilot called  
21 PIXHAWK, which was developed mainly by the ETH Zürich Computer Vision and  
22 Geometry Lab. The autopilot (Figure 5) is equipped with all necessary sensors to perform  
23 autonomous flights and has two separate attitude sensors, a barometer for altitude  
24 measurement and two separated ports to connect GPS/GLONASS receiver modules for  
25 navigation control. The system is modular built to add future extensions with new sensors.

26 The main tasks of the autopilot are to monitor the GPS altitude, control the release  
27 mechanism, fly back to the predefined landing coordinates and spiral down and to release the  
28 parachute at the desired altitude above ground. All steps are additionally secured by several  
29 fail-safe systems which are internally and externally monitoring the autopilot during the  
30 flight, and in addition all flight information is recorded.

31





### 1    **5.3    Release mechanism**

2    The release mechanism is controlled by the autopilot and the GPS. It mainly consists of a  
3    relay switch that allows controlling the electric current in a tungsten wire, which heats up and  
4    burns the tether string. It is mounted inside the cover of the upper payload section and is  
5    connected to insulated wires which go through the cover and follow the central string of the  
6    three-point suspension of the RGR (Figure 3) up to the tungsten wire, which is wrapped  
7    around the tether string. At the pre-set GPS altitude the release mechanism burns the string  
8    and releases the balloon.

9

### 10   **5.4    Power system**

11   To guarantee an efficient RGR, the power supply on board needs to be properly sized and  
12   adapted to the different devices which require various voltages and currents to operate. The  
13   power distribution board takes care of this task and monitors at the same time the health of  
14   each battery and reports any malfunction back to the autopilot. For safety reason the power  
15   system is divided into two completely different power sources.

16   In normal operation mode the primary power source is capable of powering the RGR for  
17   more than ten hours. If the primary power source fails during operation due to a malfunction,  
18   the second power system is used to deploy the emergency recovery system, which releases the  
19   parachute. Both power systems are monitored by a temperature sensor since cold  
20   temperatures strongly affect the lifecycle of the batteries.

21

## 22   **6       Software specifications**

### 23   **6.1    Configuration**

24   The RGR encloses two independent systems and each one needs its one set of configuration  
25   software. The SRS-C34 radiosonde is configured by a program developed by Meteolabor AG,  
26   and the autopilot by a dedicated software adapted to configure the RGR. Even though both  
27   systems can run autonomously they are connected via a bus system and share the same  
28   connector at the back of the RGR allowing various parameters to be configured with a  
29   computer.



1 Many parameters can affect the behavior of the autopilot, however, once the RGR is properly  
2 tuned and adjusted only three settings may be changed from one flight to another. The most  
3 important parameter is the altitude at which the RGR is released from the balloon. This  
4 parameter needs to be set well below the burst altitude of the balloon. Furthermore, the main  
5 landing coordinates as well as several additional emergency landing sites can be set. The  
6 emergency landing points are generally selected close to the flight trajectory, which is  
7 calculated with a wind forecast model. All parameters are permanently stored and may be  
8 used for several flights.

9 While the parameters for the autopilot can be changed, the SRS-C34 radiosonde is configured  
10 once during the preparation for a flight. This way the transmission frequency of the  
11 radiosonde is set and the values of all scientific instruments can be verified before launch.

12

## 13 **6.2 RGR attitude control**

14 The attitude control is a complex algorithm for keeping the RGR in a fixed flight orientation  
15 with respect to an inertial frame of reference. Accelerometers and gyroscopes are used to  
16 guide the RGR to the desired attitude. Accelerometers basically measure the acceleration in  
17 the x, y and z axis and forward the orientation of the RGR with respect to Earth's surface  
18 once it is in motion. To compensate for short term noise from the accelerometers, gyroscopes  
19 are used.. Both sensors are combined to get precise information about the current orientation  
20 in space.

21

## 22 **6.3 RGR navigation**

23 The navigation algorithm relies on a space-based navigation system to determine its location  
24 above Earth's surface. The most common navigation system is called Global Positioning  
25 System (GPS) and was developed by the U.S. Department of Defense. It is in service since  
26 1995 and can achieve a horizontal accuracy of up to 3 m. Since the beginning of 2011 a  
27 second Russian system called Global Navigation Satellite System (GLONASS) is running,  
28 which is also available for public use like the GPS.

29 The newest generation of GPS/GLONASS receivers from the Swiss company µBlox are  
30 installed in the RGR. Different receivers from various companies were tested on regular  
31 radiosondes. The µBlox was chosen because the altitude limit is 50'000 m above sea level,



1 and the chip is able to track up to 72 different GPS and GLONASS satellites at the same time.  
2 The autopilot is capable of analyzing two different navigation data streams from two  
3 independent GPS/GLONASS receivers simultaneously. Hence, two independent navigation  
4 receiver modules are currently installed, which further contributes to safety and reliability of  
5 the entire system.

6

#### 7 **6.4 Safety features**

8 Since UAVs are new in scientific research, governments are currently developing plans and  
9 safety assessments for a safe operation in the civil airspace. We have therefore been working  
10 in tight collaboration with the Federal Office of Civil Aviation (FOCA) in Switzerland to  
11 operate the RGR as safely as possible. The RGR is a complex system manufactured with  
12 different components and sensors working all together to ensure a safe and reliable operation.  
13 Since it is not a passive system like a routine radiosonde descending on a parachute, several  
14 safety barriers were integrated to prevent complete loss or failure of the RGR resulting in a  
15 fast and uncontrolled descent.

16 Referring to chapter 5.4 “power system” the navigation and operation of the RGR is powered  
17 by two individual systems. In case of failure of one system, a passive emergency system is  
18 able to safely land the RGR with the parachute. Once the parachute is deployed the RGR  
19 descends at a vertical speed of about 4-5 m/s. In addition, an external fail safe device is  
20 monitoring the main flight controller and independently triggers the release of the parachute if  
21 necessary.

22 A balloon rupture at any given altitude is another concern and hence special attentions needs  
23 to be paid during preparation of the balloon. The balloon burst can be detected by the RGRs  
24 autopilot and leads to an immediate activation of the release mechanism to separate from the  
25 strings and remaining balloon parts. On the other hand if the ascent rate is too low, or for any  
26 reason the balloon cannot reach the preprogrammed altitude, the autopilot releases the balloon  
27 after a preset maximum time of flight. All steps conducted by the autopilot are reported to the  
28 ground station.

29

#### 30 **7 RGR test flights**



1 First tests were conducted at the aerological station in Payerne by lifting the RGR with a  
2 tethered balloon up to 150 m above ground. During first descents from the balloon, the  
3 autopilot control parameters, as well as the general flight characteristics, were inspected and  
4 tuned. Both release mechanism for detaching from the balloon string and for the parachute  
5 release were intensively tested during different wind conditions. Not only was the unfold  
6 properties of the parachute analyzed but also the descent speed and landing angle. In addition,  
7 a motorized version of the RGR was piloted manually to gain information about the glide  
8 ratio.

9 At the same time we worked closely with the FOCA to obtain a permission in Switzerland for  
10 doing test flights with a completely autonomous glider. After adding additional safety features  
11 we finally received permission for Beyond Visual Line Of Sight (BVLOS) flights at the  
12 aerological station in Payerne. The flights with the RGR were limited to an altitude of 3000 m  
13 a.s.l. during night time while not leaving a safety radius of 2 km around the aerological  
14 station. Furthermore, a Notice to Airmen (NOTAM) with a danger area of 4 km around the  
15 station has to be submitted at least one day ahead of time.

16 We first conducted night time flights in Switzerland to test all electronics and software  
17 algorithms. While working with FOCA we were also in contact with FINAVIA in Finland,  
18 who allowed us to do test flights with the RGR at the arctic research center Sodankylä, of the  
19 Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI). The permission included day and night flights up to  
20 30'000 m. The Sodankylä facility is an aerological sounding station in operation since 1949  
21 and has recently become a GRUAN station.

22

## 23 **7.1 Test flight in Payerne**

24 To stay within the limits set by FOCA a calm night in terms of wind speed was required for a  
25 first test flight in Payerne. The RGR was set to release the balloon at 2200 m above sea level  
26 and then return to the grassland next to the aerological station. After an 8 minute ascend the  
27 RGR released the balloon and after a short flight of less than one minute the landing  
28 coordinates were reached 1 km above ground, where the RGR started to circle down. Only 15  
29 minutes after the balloon start the RGR landed safely with the parachute on the grassland.

30 The flight analysis shows that the autopilot triggered the balloon release mechanism at 1930  
31 m a.s.l., 270 m below the desired altitude. The early release was activated by the maximum



1 time flight safety feature, which triggered because a balloon ascent of under 4 m/s was  
2 detected. On the flight back the analysis showed an average horizontal speed of 19 m/s while  
3 losing altitude at 3.5 m/s. The descending speed with the parachute was measured at 4 m/s.  
4 Figure 6 shows a 3D view in Google Earth where the ascent is colored in orange, the descent  
5 in red and the parachute landing in green. Overall the first flight was successful, except for the  
6 underestimation of the drag generated by the RGR when lifted in horizontal position.

7

## 8 **7.2 Test flights in Sodankylä**

9 With the successful flight in Switzerland the goals for the campaign in Sodankylä, during the  
10 first two weeks of July, were to test the RGR at high altitudes, and to learn how it handles  
11 different wind conditions and from how far it can fly back to the release point. Additionally,  
12 the overall performance and reliability of the autopilot and the gliders structure were  
13 analyzed. The radiation profiles measured during the flights, under very different atmospheric  
14 conditions, were both very successful and interesting. A total of seven flights were performed  
15 to 5 km (1x), to 20 km (2x) and to 24 km altitude (4x).

16

### 17 **7.2.1 General weather conditions**

18 According to wind analyses over recent years, summer conditions in Sodankylä are suitable  
19 for special balloon launches since wind speeds are rather low throughout the atmosphere. The  
20 average horizontal distance from the launch coordinates for July over the past years was  
21 generally in the range of 20 to 40 km. However, during our first week distances of up to 90  
22 km were observed by daily routine radiosondes. During the second week the wind decreased.  
23 Although flight distances were now shorter wind speeds in the tropopause regions were still  
24 strong, with values up to 43 m/s. In terms of wind direction the first week was dominated by  
25 west winds which in the second week turned south and finally changed to an east wind  
26 towards the end of the second week. Figure 7 shows the last five flight patterns (1x to 20 km,  
27 4 to 24 km altitude)

28

### 29 **7.2.2 Flight performance under different wind conditions**



1 A major concern are strong winds that can displace radiosondes for hundreds of kilometers.  
2 For flights with the RGR it is important to predict the flight trajectories with numerical high  
3 resolution forecast models. Since no pitot tube is installed to directly measure the wind speed  
4 during the flight back to the landing coordinates, the wind components are measured during  
5 the ascent with the balloon. The recorded information is used by the RGR to fly back after  
6 release from the balloon. To learn what maximum wind speeds the RGR can handle, flights  
7 during strong wind conditions were performed.

8 During the rather windy first week wind speeds of up to 19 m/s were measured during the  
9 ascent of a first flight to an altitude of 5 km. For this particular flight the wind velocity profile  
10 is separated into three sections with different wind speeds (Figure 8). After the release from  
11 the balloon the forward speed gained from the vertical drop in the first section is slowly  
12 reduced to an almost complete stop at 4.2 km altitude due to a constant 18 m/s head wind. In  
13 the second section the winds calmed to an average velocity of 12 m/s where the RGR was  
14 able to slowly regain forward speed up to 8 m/s. In the third section the wind calmed further  
15 to an average of 5 m/s and the RGR achieved up to 20 m/s horizontal speed, which allowed it  
16 fly back to the landing site. The landing coordinates were reached at an altitude of 1.7 km,  
17 where the horizontal speed slowed down due to the circling of the glider towards the ground.

18 In a second flight the RGR was released at 20 km altitude, and wind speeds of 43 m/s were  
19 recorded around the tropopause. The flight is again separated into three wind sections (Figure  
20 9). After the release from the balloon the RGR gained a forward horizontal speed of more  
21 than 80 m/s. With weak stratospheric winds which gradually increased to 20 m/s, the glider  
22 covered a distance of 40 km before reaching the landing coordinates at 11.4 km altitude.  
23 Circling down the RGR entered into the second wind section with maximum recorded wind  
24 speeds of 43 m/s. Under this conditions the RGR was not able to maintain its circling pattern  
25 and was pushed in the wind direction with horizontal speeds of up to 29 m/s. While flying  
26 backwards it maintained the correct horizontal course towards the landing site. Loosing  
27 altitudes the wind slowed down to around 28 m/s where the RGR came to a stop but was  
28 already pushed 12 km away from the landing site. With further decreasing winds the RGR  
29 regained forward horizontal speed and covered the distance back to the landing site at an  
30 altitude of 1.5 km, where it circled down to the ground.



1 The two flights show, that the RGR can fly against headwinds of up to 20 m/s. At higher wind  
2 velocities, the glider is pushed back but maintains its course towards the desired location. This  
3 information and pre-calculated trajectories allows precise estimates of the landing location.

4

### 5 **7.2.3 Maximum flying distance**

6 The first goal of the return glider radiosonde is to fly research instruments safely to the  
7 ground. The next important question is, from how far can it fly back once it is released from  
8 the balloon. The value we are looking at is the glide ratio, which is the ratio of the gliders  
9 horizontal distance covered over the vertical descent. The glide ratio is usually calculated  
10 during calm air, since the flight distance with respect to ground changes when the air is  
11 moving. In order to achieve an optimum glide ratio, precise control of the airspeed as well as  
12 minimizing the drag generated by deflecting the control surfaces is necessaire.

13 During the first flight in Switzerland an overall flight distance of 6.2 km, while losing 1.3 km  
14 altitude, results in a glide ratio of 4.7:1. In the section where the RGR is heading back to the  
15 landing coordinates the head winds were less than 5 m/s and a glide ratio of 5:1 results.

16 In Sodankylä only the four flights performed from 24 km altitude were used to analyze the  
17 glide ratio. Also, only data from 22 to 19 km altitude with low head wind speeds of 5 to 10  
18 m/s, were processed. Although, the required calm wind conditions were not really fulfilled the  
19 calculated average glide ratio is 5.5:1, which from an altitude of 24 km results in a theoretical  
20 maximum flying distance of more than 130 km. Looking at all flights performed from 24 km  
21 altitude an average flying distance of 105 km (circling down included) was recorded. The  
22 maximum flight distance achieved during an average wind speed of 6.7 m/s was 122 km and  
23 is close to the theoretical 130 km.

24 Flying back the theoretical distance from a single direction would not be possible, since  
25 during the ascent to 24 km altitude an average wind speed of 27 m/s would be needed to  
26 displace the RGR 130 km. However, wind directions often change at different altitudes,  
27 which allows performing flights even during higher wind speeds than the limit of the RGR.  
28 Important is also the timing of the release from the balloon, such that the RGR is initially  
29 pointing in the right direction where it has to fly to. Hence, the potential flying distance is  
30 dependent on many variables and can be optimized, but may not always allow to fly back to  
31 the launch station.



#### 1    **7.2.4 Temperature**

2    The RGR is equipped with several temperature sensors monitoring vital electronic  
3    components inside and outside the glider. Air temperature decreases from ambient to  $-60^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  
4    even lower around the tropopause and is accurately measured by the integrated SRS-C34  
5    radiosonde thermocouple. Batteries and autopilot are monitored by separate temperature  
6    sensors. During the ascent, the temperature inside the electronic bay rather increases during  
7    the first part of the flight and is still above  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$  at high altitude. Coldest temperatures are  
8    measured during the first part of the descent but stayed above  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the electronics bay.

9

#### 10    **7.2.5 Icing through cloud passes**

11    In Sodankylä, the RGR passed different clouds at various altitudes. The humidity measured  
12    on board indicated whether the RGR directly passed a cloud or just a region with high water  
13    content. During ascent, cloud passes are not a concern since water droplets deposited onto the  
14    wings are evaporated at higher altitudes. Moreover, the RGR is coming from warmer regions  
15    passing colder clouds. However, flying back from the cold stratosphere into the warmer  
16    troposphere with high water content, freezing may occur especially in cumuliform clouds  
17    with large droplets. This effect has not been observed in Sodankylä since no cumuliform  
18    clouds were formed and only flights through stratiform cloud structures were conducted.  
19    Although the flexible structure of the RGR due to the EPP material helps preventing ice  
20    buildup during descent, icing cannot entirely be excluded.

21

#### 22    **7.2.6 Parachute landing**

23    Once the RGR reached the desired landing coordinates, it circles down and releases the  
24    parachute 100 m above ground to safely land. Due to the weight distribution, the parachute is  
25    stored in the front of the glider inside a Styrofoam case, which for releasing is not an optimal  
26    place due to the fast forward flight. Therefore, once the string closing the capsule is released,  
27    a spring inside the case and a special flight path helps to eject the parachute. The parachute  
28    reliably opens within a second as soon it is dragged along the aircraft, and the descent speed is  
29    slow enough to not damage the RGR. The parachute landing is very convenient since during  
30    nighttime operation manual landing would be difficult. Additionally, in case of an emergency





1 due to a failure of the autopilot or other components, the parachute is deployed and the RGR  
2 lands safely on the ground without harming third parties.

3

#### 4 **7.2.7 Successive flights**

5 The last test flights to 24 km altitude were all made in rapid succession to examine  
6 repeatability with the same instrument. After successful landing the RGR needs little  
7 maintenance for to the next flight. The parachute is folded and restored inside the front case of  
8 the glider and the three-point suspension and the release mechanism is readjusted. The  
9 internal batteries are either charged through the connector at the back of the RGR or are  
10 exchanged with a new set. For the four flights the batteries were always charged through the  
11 connector which allowed flights every six hours.

12 The RGR opens new possibilities for atmospheric research and climate monitoring, using the  
13 same instrument over many successive flights. With the RGR as an instrument carrier, the  
14 repeatability of an experiment can be increased significantly and the time between each flight  
15 can be further decreased by using two RGRs alternately.

16

### 17 **8 Research measurements with the RGR**

18 As mentioned above the motivation to build the RGR was to routinely measure radiation  
19 profiles through the atmosphere for climate change investigations. Figure 10 shows radiation  
20 profiles measured to 24 km during two successive flights within 6 hours at Sodankylä. The  
21 first flight was in the early morning showing small downward and upward solar irradiance.  
22 During the second flight around noon a thin cloud layer between 500 and 1200 m led to a  
23 temperature inversion, and shows a large increase of shortwave down- and upward radiation  
24 through the cloud and also the influence on the longwave radiation profiles. Comparing  
25 radiation profiles that were taken under different weather conditions allows studying effects  
26 of air temperature, water vapor, clouds, ozone and other greenhouse gases on solar and  
27 thermal radiation and the radiation budget in the atmosphere.

28 There is presently also much interest in using dew/frost point humidity sensors to study water  
29 vapor in the UTLS, and air-core sensors to measure gas profiles through the atmosphere.  
30 Dew/frost point hygrometers are valuable instruments and air-cores need quickest possible



1 recovering for the gas analysis, which has to be made right after the flight. Such  
2 measurements could well be done with the return glider radiosonde.

3

## 4 **9 Conclusions and outlook**

5 The aim to fly upper-air research instruments multiple times has led to the construction of a  
6 first balloon borne radiosonde, which is able to autonomously fly back the payload to the  
7 launch station. The return glider radiosonde is a flying wing made out of EPP foam with a  
8 built in operational radiosonde, a commercial autopilot, a release mechanism, a parachute for  
9 landing and the necessary safety and power systems.

10 During several test flights from 24 km altitude the RGR proved to reliably control itself, and  
11 to maintain its flight even if very strong winds push the glider backward. Analyses showed  
12 that the RGR maintains a forward flight path with head winds of up to 20 m/s. The overall  
13 glide ratio during flights from various altitudes is 5.5:1, which from 24 km altitude results in a  
14 flight distance of roughly 130 km. This maximum flight distance can only be achieved during  
15 calm wind conditions and is reduced once the RGR passes different wind speed layers.  
16 Emergency landing points along the flight path allow flights even during strong winds since  
17 the autopilot is capable of detecting unfavorable wind conditions and reacting accordingly.

18 Using the concept of traditional radiosondes on the RGR allows connecting different upper-  
19 air research instruments, and transmitting measured physical values and all important  
20 information from the autopilot continuously to the ground station. Moreover, the system is  
21 fully autonomous relying only on preset values without receiving information from the  
22 ground. The RGR has successfully been used to measure radiation profiles through the  
23 atmosphere, but many different in-situ research- or climate monitoring measurements can be  
24 made that rely on multiple flights with the same instruments, or use specific sensors that need  
25 post processing analyses after the flight.

26

27

## 28 **Acknowledgements**

29 The authors would like to thank their colleagues at MeteoSwiss and Meteolabor for very  
30 helpful support during the preparation and launch phase of the different flights. We



1 particularly like to thank Rigel Kivi from the arctic research station of the Finnish  
 2 Meteorological Institute at Sodankylä, Finland for his generous invitation and invaluable help  
 3 during the test flights at Sodankylä. We also thank the FOCA in Switzerland and FINAVIA in  
 4 Finland for the flight permissions.

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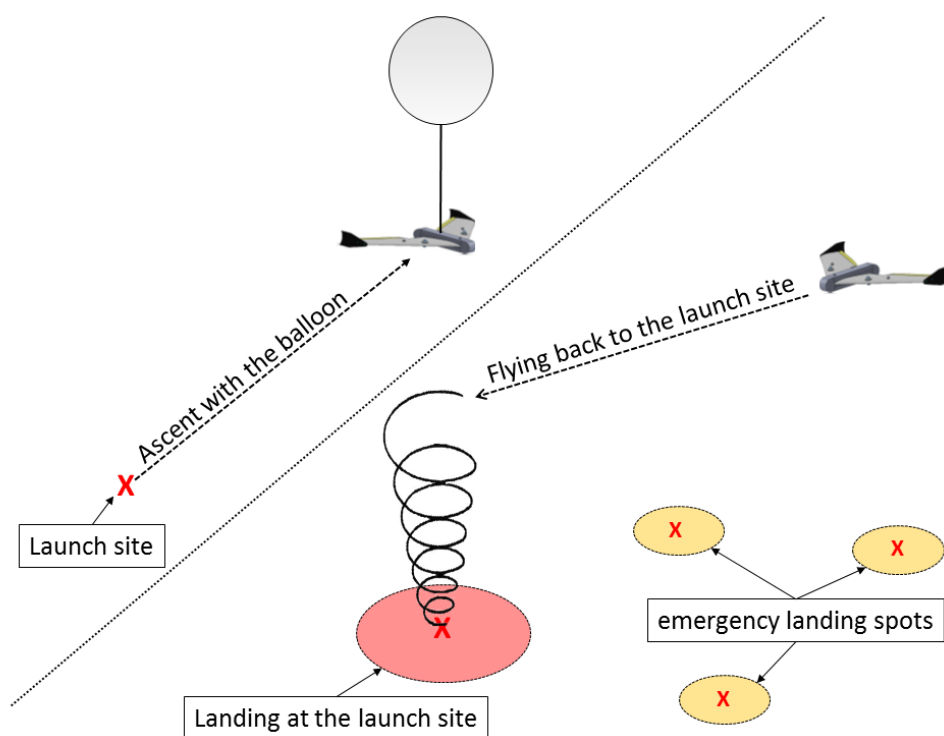
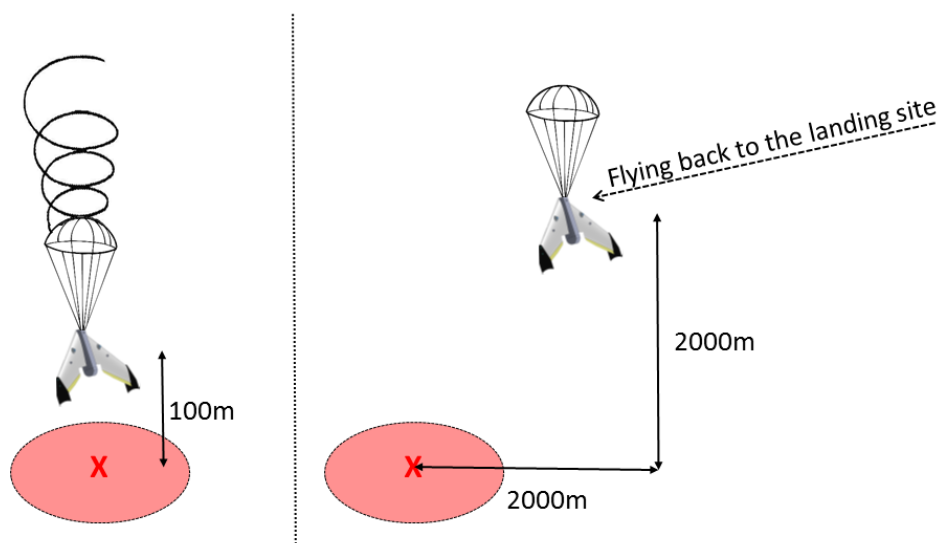


Figure 1: Schematic of ascent with the balloon (left), and descent with the RGR flying back to the launch site (right)



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8 Figure 2: Schematic of landing procedure after successfully reaching the landing site by  
 9 releasing the parachute 100 m above the ground (left). An emergency landing is performed by  
 10 releasing the parachute when not reaching the desired landing coordinates or in any  
 11 emergency situation (right).

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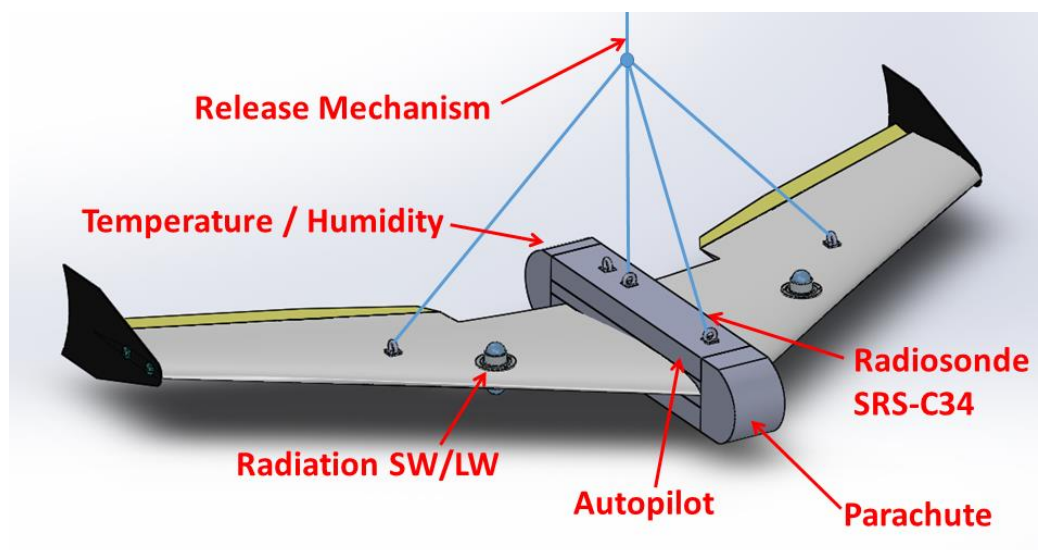
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10 Figure 3: A three dimensional view of the return glider radiosonde (RGR), including the  
 11 middle payload section where the electronic is stored, and the two short and longwave  
 12 radiation instruments mounted in the wings.

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7 Figure 4: Radiation modules consisting of short- (left) and long- (right) wave radiation  
8 sensors. In the glider they are mounted in the left and right wing one upside down as shown  
9 here, measuring the four components. They use the same thermopiles and domes as the CNR4  
10 Net Radiometer.

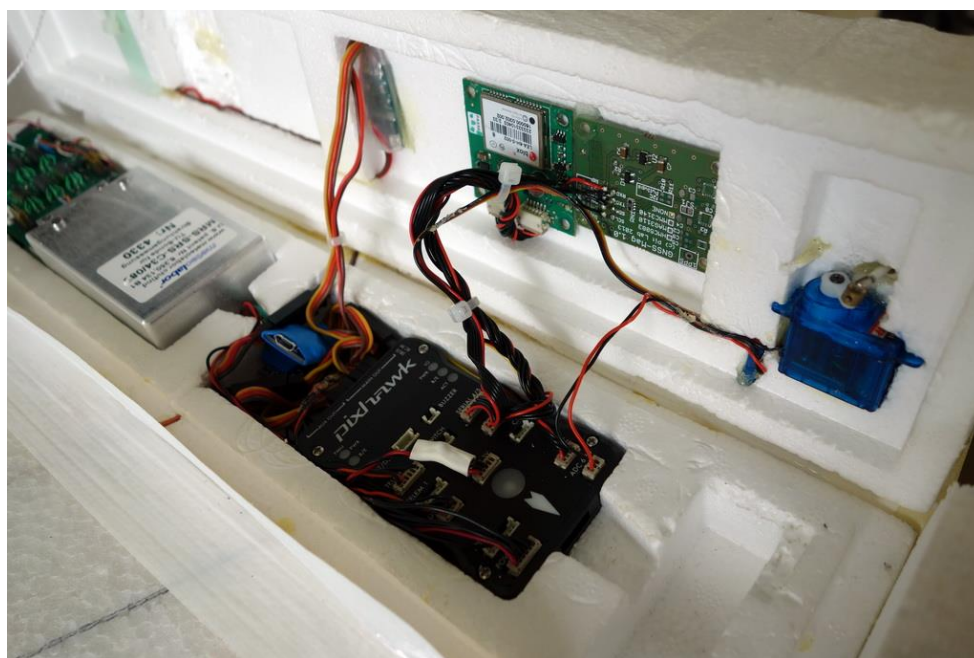
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10 Figure 5: Upper compartment of middle payload section showing the PIXHAWK autopilot in  
 11 the front part of the main box and the radiosonde module in charge of all the measurements  
 12 behind. From left to right in the cover of the upper compartment: balloon release mechanism,  
 13 two GPS/GLONASS modules, servo for parachute release

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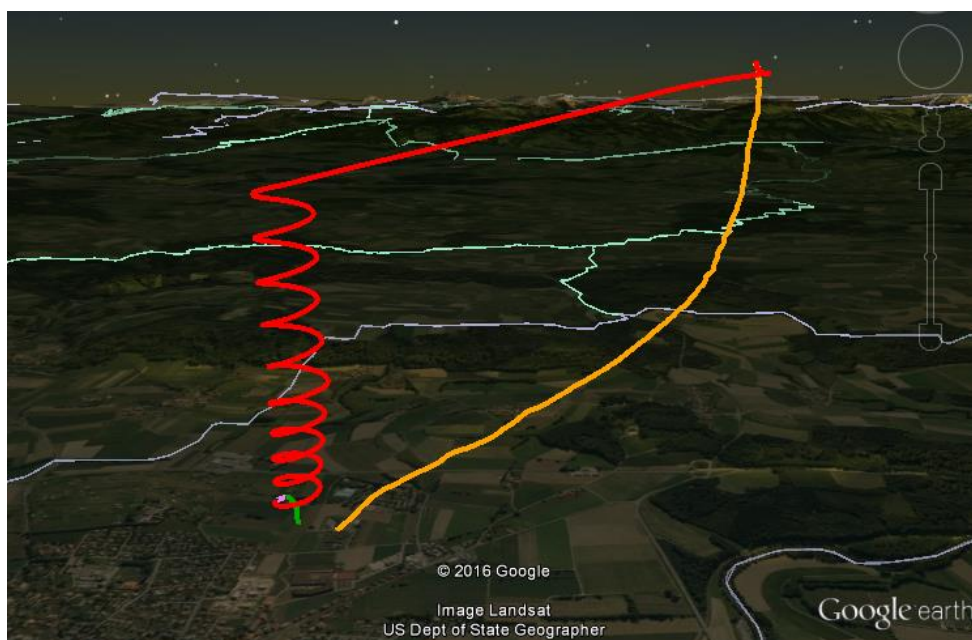
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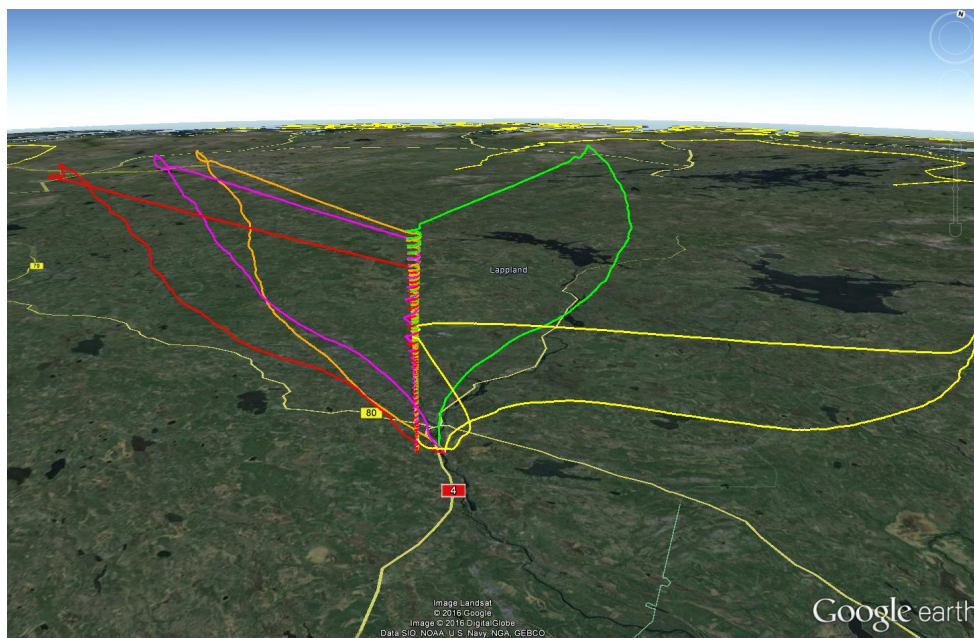
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13 Figure 6: 3D view of the first flight path performed from the aerological station in Payerne  
 14 Switzerland. Orange: ascending path with the balloon; red: glider flight path back to the  
 15 landing coordinates; green: parachute landing.

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Figure 7: Flight path from five soundings from an altitude of 20 km (1) and 24 km (4) performed in Sodankylä, Finland.

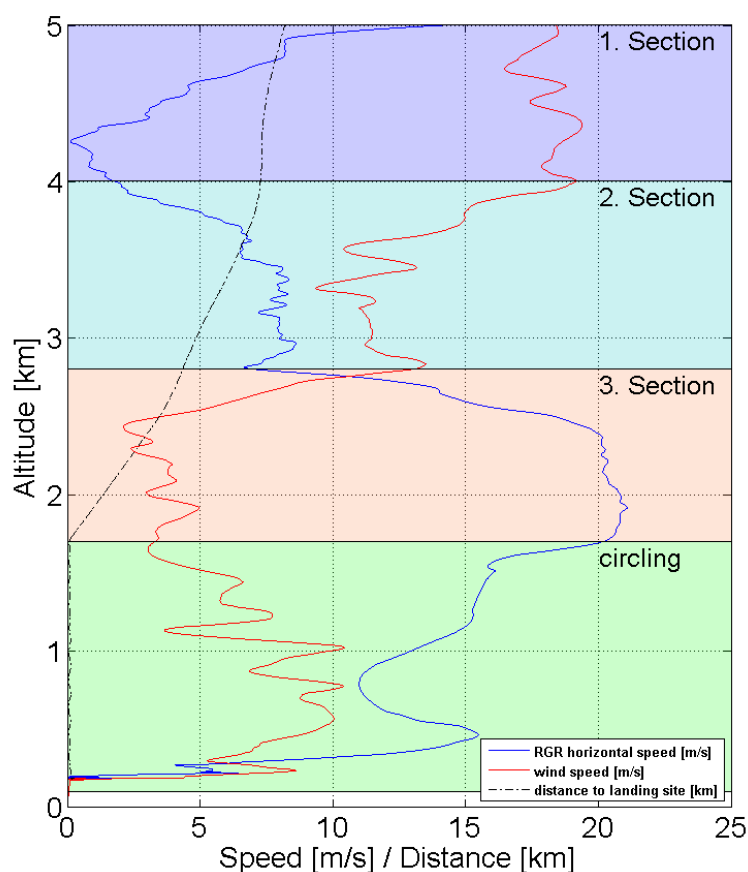


Figure 8: Wind Speed analyses from a flight beginning at 5 km altitude. Three sections of very different wind speed and horizontal flight speed occur. Wind speeds of up to 19 m/s and horizontal flight speeds of more than 20 m/s were recorded. The circling down is through moderate wind speed. The black dotted curve shows the distance to the landing site.

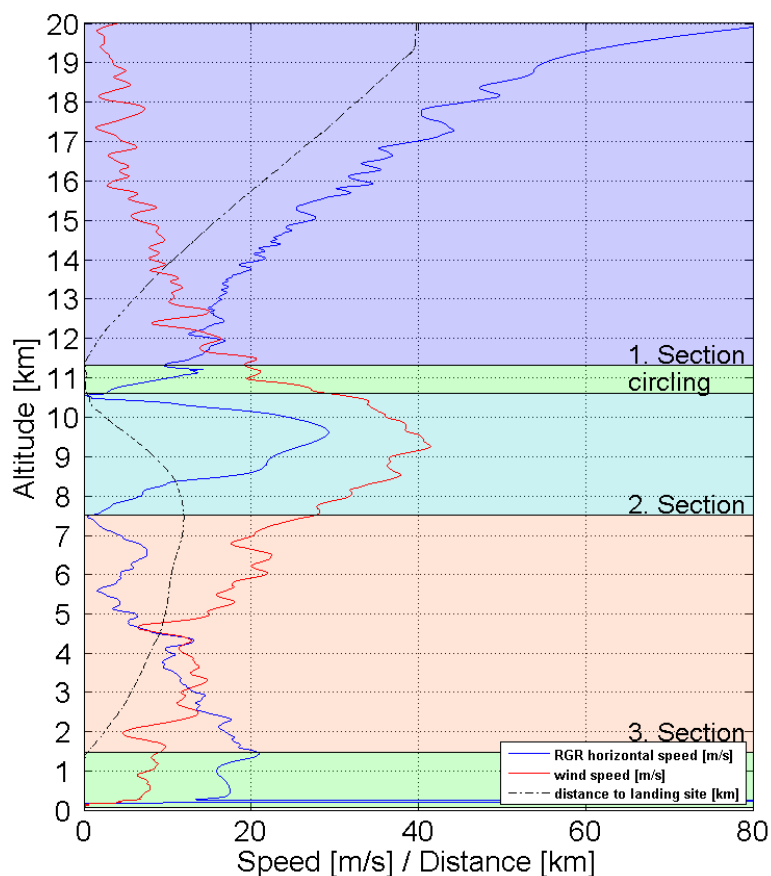
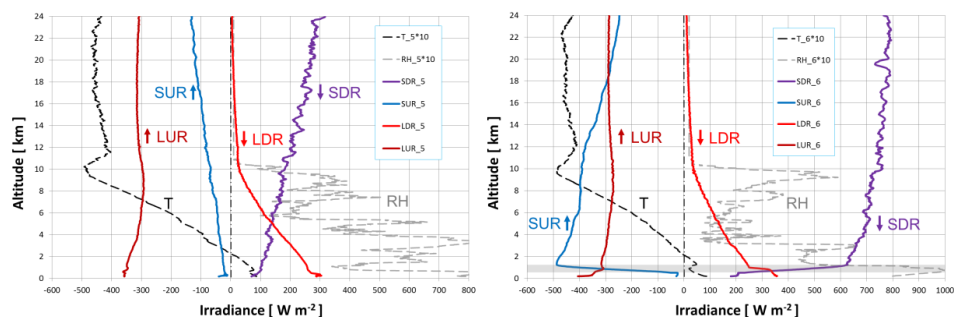


Figure 9: Wind Speed analyses from a flight from 20 km altitude. Three sections of very different wind speed and horizontal flight speed are shown. Wind speeds of up to 41 m/s and horizontal flight speeds of more than 80 m/s were recorded. The circling down happened in two phases. The black dotted curve shows the distance to the landing site.



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Figure 10: Temperature, relative humidity and radiation profile measurements with the RGR to an altitude of 24 km. Flight #5 (left) started in the early morning and flight #6 (right) six hours later. The morning flight was cloud free, whereas at noon a thin cloud layer between 500 and 1200 m shows the strong influence of clouds on shortwave and also longwave radiation. Downward SDR and LDR fluxes are positive and upward SUR and LUR fluxes are negative. Temperature and relative humidity signals are multiplied by a factor of ten.