



# 1 Atmospheric Optical Turbulence Profile Measurement and Model

# 2 Improvement over Arid and Semi-arid regions

- 3 Hao Yang<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Zhiyuan Fang<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Cheng Li<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Xu Deng<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Kunming Xing<sup>1,3</sup>, Chenbo Xie<sup>1,3\*</sup>
- 4 <sup>1</sup> Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Optics, Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics, Chinese
- 5 Academy of Sciences, Hefei 230031, China
- 6 <sup>2</sup> Science Island Branch of Graduate School, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei
- 7 230026, China
- 8 <sup>3</sup>Advanced Laser Technology Laboratory of Anhui Province, Hefei 230037, China
- 9 \* Corresponding author: Chenbo Xie (cbxie@aiofm.ac.cn)
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Abstract: From August 4th to 30th, 2020 and from November 27th to December 25th, 2020, 11 12 a self-developed radiosonde balloon system was used to observe high-altitude atmospheric 13 optical turbulence at three sites in northwestern China, and an improved model based on the observational data was established. Through comparative analysis of the observational data 14 15 and the improved model, the distribution characteristics of atmospheric optical turbulence under the combined action of different meteorological parameters and different landform 16 17 features in different seasons were obtained. The improved model can show the variation of the detailed characteristics of turbulence with the height distribution, and the degree of 18 19 correlation with the measured values is above 0.82. The improved model can provide a 20 theoretical basis and supporting data for turbulence estimation and forecasting in 21 northwestern China.

22 Keywords: optical turbulence observation, improved model, turbulence estimation.

### 23 1. Introduction

24 The atmospheric refractive index structure constant  $(C_n^2)$  is commonly used to 25 characterize atmospheric optical turbulence, and its distribution with height is called the 26 atmospheric optical turbulence profile (Hutt, 1999; Wu et al., 2007). As light waves propagate 27 in the atmosphere, they are affected by atmospheric optical turbulence, resulting in 28 light-intensity flicker, image-point jitter, and image blurring, which affect the performance of photoelectric systems (e.g., the decline in the observation level of astronomical telescopes, the 29 30 interference of laser transmission, the degradation of optical remote sensing imaging quality) 31 (Bendersky et al., 2004; Bi et al., 2020; He et al., 2008; Rani et al., 2019). Therefore, 32 obtaining the atmospheric optical turbulence profile is essential for improving the performance of optical systems. Various methods and instruments are used to measure  $C_n^2$ ; 33 however, existing measurements are extremely limited in time and space (Kornilov et al., 34 35 2007; Osborn et al., 2017; Travouillon et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2007). Research on forecasting high-altitude atmospheric optical turbulence, while meeting a certain accuracy, can not only 36 37 resolve these time and space limitations of measurement methods, but also meet the needs of engineering applications. It is an effective method to obtain the atmospheric optical 38 turbulence parameters, which can eliminate the limitation of the measurement environment. 39 For example, the Mauna Kea Observatory in Hawaii, USA, has carried out work on 40 forecasting atmospheric optical turbulence at high altitude, improving the efficiency of the 41





42 telescope (Cherubini et al., 2008).

43 Much work has been carried out by researchers on the parameterization and model forecasting of atmospheric optical turbulence. The Tatarski model established a relationship 44 between atmospheric optical turbulence and meteorological parameters (Tatarski, 1961). 45 Hufnagel et al.(1964) proposed a single-parameter, mid-latitude model, which was limited 46 in its scope of use. Van Zandt et al. (1981) statistically processed the fine structure of the 47 atmosphere and proposed a random model, which was more complex but not very satisfactory. 48 49 Other researchers have estimated atmospheric optical turbulence profiles through the 50 relationship between outer scale and meteorological parameters (Basu, 2015; Wu et al., 51 2020a). Dewan et al. (1993) proposed an outer-scale model (Dewan model) including wind shear factors through a large number of experimental observations. Through experiments, 52 53 Ruggiero et al. (2004) further derived an outer-scale model (HMNSP99 model) incorporating 54 both wind shear and temperature gradients.

55 To avoid the impact of optical turbulence on site selection of observatories, astronomers all over the world are looking for suitable sites for astronomical observations. Northwestern 56 China has a typical arid climate, with special terrain such as plateaus, deserts, mountains, and 57 58 Gobi deserts, which has attracted the attention of many scientists. To date, research on the characteristics of turbulence in northwestern China has been carried out in only a few areas, 59 60 such as Ali, Dachaidan, and Lhasa (Bi et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2020a; Wu et 61 al., 2020b). Therefore, further research on turbulence parameters in northwestern China is still 62 needed.In this study, a month-long turbulence observation campaign was carried out at three 63 typical observation sites (Golmud, Dunhuang, and Zhangye) in northwestern China. Golmud 64 is located in the hinterland of the Qinghai-Tibet plateau, with an average elevation of 2780 m, 65 and its climate is a typical plateau climate. There are mountains, Gobi deserts, wind-eroded hills, alpine plains, salt lakes, and other special types of terrain in Golmud City. Zhangye 66 67 (average altitude of 1485 m) and Dunhuang (average altitude of 1140 m) are located in the middle and at the western end of the Hexi Corridor, respectively. They are important 68 69 economic cities on the Silk Road and are home to several special terrain types and landforms, 70 such as mountains, deserts, and Gobi deserts. In addition to the arid climate, there is also a 71 special semi-arid and semi-humid climate in the Qilian Mountain alpine zone. These typical 72 geographic and climatic characteristics are useful for studying the rich characteristics of 73 turbulence.

In this paper, the turbulence distribution characteristics in summer and winter at three sites in a typical area of northwestern China are investigated based on the results of long-term turbulence observations. The empirical models representing each site were fitted based on the Hufnagel–Vally model, and these models could represent the general variation pattern of turbulence over each site. Furthermore, the HMNSP99 model was improved by refitting the limited observational data. The improved model can be well matched with the climate and geographical environment of the observation sites.

# 81 2. Data and methods

#### 82 2.1 Radiosonde data

Sounding experiments were conducted during the period Aug. 4–30, 2020 and Nov. 27 to
Dec. 25, 2020, at Golmud Meteorological Observatory (N: 36.4, E: 94.9), Dunhuang
Meteorological Observatory (N: 40.14, E: 94.6), and Zhangye Meteorological Observatory (N:





38.9, E: 100.4), using the radiosonde developed by the Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The records of the radiosonde balloon (hereinafter referred to simply as 'the balloon') released during the experiment are shown in Table 1. The radiosonde was tied under the balloon with a rope length of 60 m (to avoid the balloon disturbing the measurement accuracy). The balloon was expanded to drive the load up with an average lift speed of 6 m/s. It was released each morning and night, and 52 balloons were released at each site, with an effective sounding balloon count of 145.



Figure 1. Atmospheric optical turbulence measurement at three sites in northwestern China: (a) map
(Satellite images from © Google Earth 2021) showing the locations of the sites—namely, Golmud (N:
36.4, E: 94.9) at altitude 2780 m, Dunhuang (N: 40.14, E: 94.6) at altitude 1140 m, and Zhangye (N:
38.9, E: 100.4) at altitude 1485 m; (b) the radiosonde balloon equipment; (c) schematic circuit diagram
of the radiosonde balloon system.

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Table 1. Records of radiosonde balloons released at the three sites in this study.

Location	Altitude	Launch dates	Launch times	Effective
				balloon counts
Golmud	2780 m	Aug. 4 to Aug. 30,	Around 07:30 am and	45
		2020	19:30 pm	
Dunhuang	1140 m	Nov. 27 to Dec. 25,	Around 07:30 am and	50
		2020	19:30 pm	
Zhangye	1485 m	Nov. 27 to Dec. 25,	Around 07:15 am and	50
		2020	19:15 pm	

99 The self-developed radiosonde balloon system consists of launching and receiving parts, and the corresponding launching and receiving schematic circuit diagrams are shown in Fig. 100 101 1c (Cai et al., 2018). It mainly includes a micro temperature sensor, data measurement and conversion module, analog input port, digital input port, receiving power amplifier, host, and 102 103 other components. The analog input port is mainly connected to the analog signal of the two-way temperature sensor, which is converted into a digital signal through the conditioning 104 circuit and A/D (analog-to-digital conversion), so as to obtain the temperature structure 105 constant  $C_T^2$ . The digital input port is connected to the digital signals of GPS and temperature, 106 humidity and pressure modules to obtain radiosonde position information, the profile data of 107 3





wind speed, wind direction, air temperature, relative humidity and pressure, respectively. The 108 109 data measurement and conversion module performs unified coding of data format and baud rate, and transmits the signal through the antenna after secondary modulation of 32.8 kHz and 110 400 MHz. Received through the antenna, the signal enters the receiving system; then, after 111 filtering and amplifying, the signal is converted in the receiver to obtain a 32.8 kHz signal, 112 before then being amplified and demodulated by the serial port and finally sent to the 113 computer for processing and storage. The response range of the micro temperature sensor is 114 115 0.1-30 Hz, so the minimum temperature fluctuation standard deviation of the corresponding measurement is  $\leq 0.002$  °C. 116

### 117 2.2 Methods

118 For fully developed turbulence, it is assumed that Kolmogorov's locally uniform isotropic 119 turbulence theory is satisfied(Kolmogorov, 1968). The relationship between the temperature 120 structure constant  $C_T^2$  and the temperature difference between two points in space (distance *r*) 121 is as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\rm T}^2 = \langle [T(x) - T(x+r)]^2 \rangle r^{-2/3},\tag{1}$$

where  $l_0 \ll r \ll L_0$ , in which  $l_0$  and  $L_0$  are the inner and outer scales of the turbulence, 122 respectively; T is the atmospheric temperature (°C), and then T(x) and T(x+r) are the 123 124 temperature of two points in space (distance r), respectively; and  $\langle \rangle$  represents the ensemble 125 average. The value of r is 1 m, which is the spatial distance between the two micro temperature sensors in this study. The core of the micro temperature sensor is a platinum wire 126 with a diameter of about 20  $\mu$ m and a resistance of about 10  $\Omega$ . The change of air temperature 127 128 at two points in space sensed by the micro temperature sensor is  $\Delta T$ , which is converted to electrical resistance change  $\Delta V$ .  $\Delta V$  is related to  $\Delta T$  as follows: 129

$$\Delta V = A \cdot \Delta T,\tag{2}$$

130 where A is the calibration coefficient.  $C_T^2$  can be obtained by substituting equation 2 into 131 equation 1. In the visible and near-infrared wavelengths, the fluctuation of refractive index is 132 mainly caused by temperature fluctuation, and the influence of relative humidity can be 133 ignored. Therefore, the refractive index structure constant  $C_n^2$  can be calculated as

$$C_n^2 = \left(7.9 \times 10^{-5} \frac{P}{T^2}\right)^2 C_{\rm T}^2.$$
(3)

134 According to the locally uniform isotropic theory, Tatarski obtained the relationship 135 between measured meteorological parameters and the estimated  $C_n^2$  as (Tatarski model) 136 (Tatarski, 1961)

$$\mathcal{L}_n^2 = \alpha \mathcal{L}_0^{4/3} \left( -\frac{^{79\times10^{-6}P}}{^{T^2}} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial h} \right)^2, \tag{4}$$

137 where  $\alpha$  is a constant and the value is 2.8,  $L_0$  is the outer scale of turbulence,  $\theta$  is potential temperature (K), and his height above ground (m). The conversion relationship between 138 potential temperature  $\theta$  and air temperature T is  $\theta = T \left(\frac{1000}{P}\right)^{0.286}$ . It can be found from 139 equation 4 that the estimated value of  $C_n^2$  can be obtained by substituting the measured 140 meteorological parameters and the estimated L<sub>0</sub>. Many researchers have proposed different 141  $C_n^2$  profile models through long-term measurement and statistical analysis of different 142 experimental sites. The widely used models for  $C_n^2$  profile estimation are the AFGL (Air 143 144 Fore Geophysics Laboratory) and Hufnagel-Vally models (Good et al., 1988; Hufnagel and





Stanley, 1964; Rothman et al., 1983). The establishment of these types of models only relies on the average calculation and fitting to obtain the  $C_n^2$  profiles. For example, the formula of the Hufnagel–Vally model (hereinafter referred to as the H-V model) is as follows (Cheng et al., 2013):

 $C_n^2(h) = 8.2 \times 10^{-1} \ W^2(h/10)^{10} \exp(-h) + 2.7 \times 10^{-1} \ \exp(-h/1.5) + A \exp(-h/0.1),$  $W^2 = \frac{1}{15} \int_5^{20} V^2(h) dh$ (5)

where W is the root-mean-square wind speed at a height 5-20 km (m/s), V(h) is the wind 149 150 speed at a certain height (m/s), and A is a parameter describing the intensity of atmospheric 151 near-surface optical turbulence. The adjustable parameters W and A can be selected by fixing the isotropic angle and the coherence length. For example, when the observation wavelength 152 is selected to be 500 nm, the isotropic angle is 7 µrad, the coherence length is 5 cm, and the 153 corresponding A and W are  $1.7 \times 10^{-14} \,\mathrm{m}^{-2/3}$  and 21 m/s, respectively. This type of  $C_n^2$  profile 154 model is a function of height and cannot show detailed changes in turbulence. Dewan et al. 155 (1993), meanwhile, introduced wind shear into the outer-scale estimation (Dewan model), and 156 Ruggiero et al. (2004) further introduced temperature gradients into their model, which is 157 called HMNSP99. The empirical formula separately expresses the outer-scale L<sub>0</sub> according to 158 the troposphere and stratosphere as 159

$$S = \left[ \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial h} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial h} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2},\tag{6}$$

$$L_0^{4/3} = \begin{cases} 0.1^{4/3} \times 10^{0.362+16.7285-192.347\frac{dT}{dh}}, & \text{Troposphere} \\ 0.1^{4/3} \times 10^{0.757+1} \cdot \frac{.8195-}{.784\frac{dT}{dh}}, & \text{Stratosphere} \end{cases}$$
(7)

160 where S is wind shear; u and v are radial wind speed and lateral wind speed, respectively; and 161 dT/dh is the vertical temperature gradient.

Comparison of  $C_n^2$  profiles estimated by different outer models shows that high-altitude 162 wind shear and temperature gradients may be the main factors that induce optical turbulence 163 (Cai et al., 2018). Therefore, it is more realistic to associate outer-scale  $L_0$  with high-altitude 164 wind shear and temperature gradients. Based on the HMNSP99 model and combined with the 165 observation results at the three sites, 56 radiosonde data with good signal reception and at 166 least 28 km or more were selected for analysis. We refitted and obtained an outer-scale model 167 that was well matched with the climate and environment of the three sites, which is referred to 168 169 here as the improved model (equation 8). Inserting the improved model into equation (4), we 170 obtain the estimated  $C_n^2$  value as follows:

$$L_{lmproved-mo}^{4/3} = \begin{cases} 0.1^{4/3} \times 10^{0.397+17.7235-179.226\frac{dT}{dh}}, & \text{Troposphere} \\ 0.1^{4/3} \times 10^{0.612+1} \cdot .6755- \cdot .287\frac{dT}{dh}, & \text{Stratosphere} \end{cases},$$
(8)

# 171 **3.** Optical turbulence measurement and model analysis

### 172 **3.1 Measured results at three sites**

For quantitative description, pseudo-color images of each profile are presented (Fig. 2), and the height of the observation data is 0–25 km. In this study, air pressure, temperature, wind direction, wind speed, relative humidity, and  $C_n^2$  were statistically averaged every 30 m, and the corresponding profile's average value and standard deviation were obtained. In addition, unless otherwise stated, all altitudes refer to the altitude above ground level relative to the observation site, and the time is Beijing time.







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179Figure 2. Meteorological parameters measured by balloons at three different sites. Atmospheric180pressure: (a) Golmud; (b) Dunhuang, (c) Zhangye. Temperature: (d) Golmud; (e) Dunhuang; (f)181Zhangye. Wind direction: (g) Golmud; (h) Dunhuang; (i) Zhangye. Wind speed: (j) Golmud; (k)182Dunhuang; (l) Zhangye. Relative humidity: (m) Golmud; (n) Dunhuang; (o) Zhangye.  $C_n^2$ : (p) Golmud;183(q) Dunhuang; (r)Zhangye. The red single profile represents the average value of each parameter, and184the blue line segment is the standard deviation.

In particular, it is noticeable that although Dunhuang and Zhangye are 513 km apart, the 185 observational results of the two sites above 5 km were very similar (Figs. 2b-c, 2e-f, 2h-i, 186 187 2k-l, 2n-o, 2q-r). This indicates that there was a high consistency in the variability of the high-altitude meteorological parameters above 5 km at the two sites during the observation 188 period (the time difference between the two sites to release the balloon was no more than 15 189 190 minutes). The difference below 5 km was caused by the different underlying surface and local 191 climate conditions. It can be seen that the atmospheric pressure was gradually decreasing 192 (Figs. 2a-c). During the observation period, the pressure was stable without obvious diurnal changes. In addition, the near-surface pressure of Dunhuang and Zhangye in winter was 193 significantly higher than that of Golmud in summer. This might be closely related to the 194 seasonal climate and terrain height. 195

Figs. 2d-f show that the tropopause of Golmud appeared at about 15 km, while the 196 197 average temperature profiles of Dunhuang and Zhangye were similar, and there seemed to be 198 more than one tropopause. After accurate calculation, it was found that, due to the averaging 199 effect, multiple tropopauses (hereinafter referred to as MTs) were not obvious. During the 200 observation period, the phenomenon of MTs occurred many times in Dunhuang and Zhangye. 201 Two cases were selected from the observation data (Fig. 3): (a) the radiosonde data of Dunhuang from 19:17 to 20:49 on Nov. 27, 2020 showed that the positions of the first 202 203 tropopause and the second tropopause were around 10 km and 16 km respectively, and the 204 thickness of the tropopause was 6 km; and (b) the radiosonde data of Zhangye from 7:15 to 8:49 on Nov. 29, 2020 showed that the positions of the first tropopause and the second 205 206 tropopause were around 10 km and 19.4 km respectively, and the thickness of the tropopause 207 was 9.4 km.



Figure 3. Multiple tropopause events: (a) Dunhuang, 2020-11-27, 19:17–20:49; (b) Zhangye,
 2020-11-29, 7:15–8:49.





210 Figs. 2g-i and Figs. 2j-l show that: (1) During the summer observation period, 211 southwesterly and westerly winds prevailed in the near-surface layer (0-5km) of Golmud, with an average wind speed below 20 m/s; westerly and northwesterly winds prevailed in the 212 troposphere (5–15 km), at which level the wind speed was the highest, with a peak value of 213 40 m/s; and easterly and southeasterly winds prevailed in the stratosphere, where the average 214 wind speed at a height of 17 km was at least 7 m/s, and then gradually increased. (2) During 215 the winter observation period, the wind direction near the ground (0-3 km) in Dunhuang and 216 Zhangye was changeable, most likely because of the influence of local topography (high 217 218 mountains, Gobi deserts, etc.); the average wind speed was also small, below 10 m/s; westerly 219 and northwesterly winds prevailed at altitudes above 3 km; and the maximum wind speed occurred at a height of 10 km, with a peak value of 75 m/s. This was a typical subtropical jet, 220 221 and the abovementioned MTs usually formed under its influence.

222 Previous studies have shown that strongly developed deep convective systems influenced 223 by the subtropical jet can penetrate the tropopause-that is, 'penetrating convection' (tropospheric air invading the stratosphere) (Fueglistaler et al., 2009; Randel and Jensen, 224 225 2013). The penetrating convection can not only transport air from the planetary boundary layer to the top of the troposphere, but also transport trace substances such as water vapor 226 from the troposphere to the stratosphere via the tropopause, which in turn affects radiation 227 228 and its budget in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (Emmanuel et al., 2021; 229 Randel and Jensen, 2013; Sherwood and Dessler, 2000; Tegtmeier et al., 2020). Based on the 230 observational results (Figs. 2u-o), the relative humidity of the stratosphere in Dunhuang and 231 Zhangye reached more than 30% many times during the winter observation period, which provides practical evidence to verify the previous theory. In addition, the relative humidity 232 233 was relatively high below 5 km (about 45%), which might be closely related to the special terrain of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau and the semi-arid and semi-humid climate of the Qilian 234 alpine zone. 235

The intensity of the high-altitude optical turbulence in the northwest was basically 236 distributed at  $10^{-19}$ - $10^{-13}$  m<sup>-2/3</sup>. The turbulence profiles ( $C_n^2$ ) show that the strong turbulence 237 of Golmud in summer appeared in the near-surface (0-5 km) and tropospheric (10-15 km) 238 239 levels, the profiles above 10 km during the observation period were relatively uniform, and 240 there were no big changes in magnitude (Figures 2p-r). The activities of various scales of 241 turbulence could cause unstable stratification in the troposphere. In the stratosphere, the scale 242 of turbulence was smaller and the stratification was more stable. In winter, the changes of 243 turbulence in Dunhuang and Zhangye were abundant, and the temperature gradients near the 244 ground (0-5 km) and in the upper troposphere (15-20 km) changed dramatically, which should correspond to the strong turbulence layer in Fig. 2. Due to the existence of penetrating 245 convection, various scales of tropospheric turbulence can directly enter the stratosphere, 246 247 resulting in big differences in the magnitude of turbulence when the profiles are averaged.

248 **3.2** Comparative analysis of the H-V model and measurements

A total of 56  $C_n^2$  profile data from the three sites (including 19 data in Golmud, 22 data in Dunhuang, and 15 data in Zhangye) with good signal reception and a detection height of 28 km or more were selected. The data were averaged and smoothed, and retained to a height of 28.5 km. The measured values are shown in Fig. 4, and the intensity of turbulence is distributed in  $10^{-17}$ – $10^{-13}$  m<sup>-2/3</sup>. At the same time,  $C_n^2$  empirical models of the three sites were





- refitted based on the H-V model (the empirical models for Golmud, Dunhuang and Zhangye are  $C_n^2 - G$ ,  $C_n^2 - D$  and  $C_n^2 - Z$ , respectively):
  - $C_n^2 G = 2.88 \times 10^{-26} h^{19.45} \exp(-h/0.54) + 8.06 \times 10^{-15} \exp(-h/6.25) + 8.11 \times 10^{-15} \exp(-h/5.56),$ (9)  $C_n^2 - D = 2.98 \times 10^{-18} h^{14.88} \exp(-h/0.31) + 4.16 \times 10^{-15} \exp(-h/4.34) + 4.52 \times 10^{-1} \exp(-h/4.17).$ (10)

$$C_n^2 - Z = 7.45 \times 10^{-1} \ h^{-0.48} \exp(-h/1.47) + 2.67 \times 10^{-16} \exp(-h/11.11) + 2.51 \times 10^{-16} \exp(-h/11.11), \tag{11}$$

where h is the height (km). These statistical models can reflect the general law of turbulence intensity changes at these three sites in northwestern China. The expressions of the models contain three terms: the first term represents the strong turbulence that often occurs in the tropopause; the second term represents the turbulence in the boundary layer; and the third term represents the turbulence in the free atmosphere.

261 It can be seen from Fig. 4 that the strong turbulence of Golmud in summer appeared in the near-surface (0-5 km) level and below 15 km in the troposphere, which was consistent 262 with the previous measured results. The empirical models of Dunhuang and Zhangye reflect 263 the change trend of the selected measured values. Through careful observation, we can find 264 the difference with the overall data; especially, the strong turbulence information below 15 265 266 km in the troposphere in Zhangye was not reflected. This is because there were relatively few 267 profiles that could represent the strong tropospheric turbulence information in the selected 268 profile data.





270 (b) Dunhuang; (c) Zhangye.

# 271 **3.3** Comparative analysis of the improved model and measured values

The overall trend of turbulence can be presented by the H-V model, but the detailed information of turbulence cannot be reflected. The measured meteorological parameters of observations were introduced into the improved model to obtain estimated values of  $C_n^2$ . From the above 56 profile data, two data of each site were randomly selected and recorded as





$\frac{2}{6}$ #1–6 balloon. The records of radiosonde balloons are shown in Table
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#### 277

Table 2.	Records of	balloons	at the	three	sites	used	in this	study.

Balloon nur	nber	Launch date	Launch	Termination	Termination altitude (km)
			time	time	
Golmud	#1	Aug. 8, 2020	19:56	21:24	29.370
	#2	Aug. 13, 2020	7:35	8:55	30.330
Dunhuang	#3	Dec. 6, 2020	7:32	8:55	29.160
	#4	Dec. 7, 2020	19:33	20:57	30.840
Zhangye	#5	Dec. 3, 2020	19:15	20:36	28.950
	#6	Dec. 21, 2020	07:15	08:39	29.070

278 As shown in Fig. 5, the  $C_n^2$  profiles estimated by the improved model were compared with the measured values for balloon #1-6. The results of balloon #1-2 (Figs. 5a-b) show that 279 the turbulence above 15 km decreased gradually; the strong turbulence layer appeared below 280 15 km, and a peak value occurred at 10 km–15 km, reaching  $10^{-13}$  m<sup>-2/3</sup> or more. This shows 281 282 that below 15 km, the convection was strong, and the corresponding wind shear and temperature gradient changed drastically, which is consistent with the performance of 283 Golmud's  $C_n^2 - G$  model. The results of balloon #3-6 (Figs. 5c-f) show that the strong 284 turbulence layer appeared below 15 km, with a peak value of more than 10<sup>-13</sup> m<sup>-2/3</sup>, and the 285 magnitude of turbulence above 20 km was still 10<sup>-17</sup> m<sup>-2/3</sup> or more; in particular, the 286 287 turbulence of balloon #3 and #4 had increased above 20 km, which indicates that the occurrence of penetrating convection, and the drastic change of the wind shear and 288 temperature gradients could be transported directly from the troposphere to stratosphere. This 289 affected and changed the heat radiation and its budget in the lower stratosphere, and further 290 changed the formation mechanism of turbulence. The improved model can better reflect the 291 varied characteristics and formation mechanism of turbulence than the above-mentioned 292 empirical models  $(C_n^2 - D \text{ and } C_n^2 - Z)$ . In general, the  $C_n^2$  profile estimated by the 293 improved model is more consistent with the measured  $C_n^2$  profile both in magnitude and 294 295 overall trend, and the improved model can also capture details of turbulence at high altitude.

Fig. 6 shows the correlation between the  $C_n^2$  values estimated by the improved model 296 and the measured values for balloon #1-6. The coefficients of determination are 0.85, 0.84, 297 0.91, 0.85, 0.82 and 0.89 respectively, which shows that the improved model has a high 298 299 degree of correlation with the measured values. Fig. 5 shows that the source of the differences are mainly concentrated in the lower stratosphere (20-25 km, Figs. 5b-e) and the troposphere 300 below 10 km (Figs. 5a-e), which indicates that the meteorological parameters of the 301 observation sites are significantly different in summer and winter: there was obvious 302 horizontal wind shear near the height of 15 km at Golmud in summer, while the horizontal 303 304 wind shear of Dunhuang and Zhangye in winter (Figs. 2g-h) only occurred frequently below 5 km. The temperature gradients at the three sites changed drastically below 10 km, while the 305 306 difference was that the lower stratosphere of Dunhuang and Zhangye in winter changed 307 drastically above 20 km, which was due to the occurrence of penetrating convection.







**Figure 5.** The refractive index structure parameter  $(C_n^2)$  from the improved model and measured values for balloon (a) #1, (b) #2, (c) #3, (d) #4, (e) #5, and (f) #6.

![](_page_10_Figure_5.jpeg)

Figure 6. Scatter plots of the improved model and measured values for balloon (a) #1, (b) #2, (c) #3, (d)
#4, (e) #5, and (f) #6. Blue, yellow and red colors indicate the dot density from low to high,
respectively.

313 4. Conclusion

A self-developed radiosonde balloon system was used to conduct high-altitude optical turbulence observations at three sites in northwestern China. The intensity of the high-altitude optical turbulence in the northwest was basically distributed at  $10^{-19}$ – $10^{-13}$  m<sup>-2/3</sup>. There were obvious differences in the high-altitude distribution characteristics of turbulence in summer and winter: the strong turbulence of Golmud in summer mainly appeared in the near-surface

![](_page_11_Picture_1.jpeg)

![](_page_11_Picture_2.jpeg)

level and at a height below 15 km. In winter, there were large changes of optical turbulence at Dunhuang and Zhangye in terms of the magnitude of different levels; the subtropical jet caused the MTs of Dunhuang and Zhangye to appear at 10–20 km, and the resulting penetrating convection also changed the heat transfer and its budget at high altitude; the turbulence below the troposphere and planetary boundary layer was transported to the stratosphere; and the stratospheric wind shear and temperature gradients changed drastically, which made the turbulence in the stratosphere increase instead of decrease.

326 Based on the H-V model and HMNSP99 model, the empirical models (H-V empirical 327 models) and the improved model were established separately by using the radiosonde data of 328 the three sites. These models are consistent with the climate characteristics and turbulence variation law of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau and Hexi Corridor in northwestern China. The 329 330 empirical models and the improved model were compared with the measured values. It was 331 found that the H-V empirical model can represent the general law and trend of turbulence 332 development, while the detailed changes of each height layer will be ignored when using the H-V empirical model. In contrast, the improved model can reflect the detailed information of 333 each level, and the correlation between the improved model and the measured values can be 334 as high as 0.91 and as low as 0.82. This proves the correctness of introducing wind shear and 335 temperature gradients to study changes in high-altitude turbulence. The improved model can 336 337 be used for turbulence estimation and forecasting in northwestern China.

338 The H-V empirical models and the improved model in this study are mainly based on 339 experiments and limited sounding data. Long-term accumulation of experience and 340 continuous correction of a large amount of measured data are required to obtain a more 341 universal turbulence parameter estimation model. Although the improved model can obtain detailed changes in high-altitude turbulence, there is still a slight deviation in the fine 342 structure. According to the specific terrain and climate change characteristics, the introduction 343 of more reasonable models of other factors, and the use of higher-precision acquisition 344 sensors, will help us improve the accuracy of estimation. 345

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