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Comparison between non orographic gravity wave parameterizations used in QBOi models and Strateole 2 constant level balloons

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Gravity Wave (GW) parameterizations from 12 General Circulation Models (GCMs) participating in the Quasi-Biennial Oscillation initiative (QBOi) are compared to Strateole-2 balloon observations made in the tropical lower stratosphere from November 2019 to February 2020 (phase 1) and from October 2021 to January 2022 (phase 2). The parameterizations employ the 3 standard techniques used in GCMs to represent subgrid scale non-orographic GWs, namely the two globally spectral techniques developed by Warner and McIntyre (1999) and Hines (1997), as well as the "multi-waves" approaches following Lindzen (1981). The input meteorological fields necessary to run the parameterizations offline are extracted from the ERA5 reanalysis and corre-

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spond to the meteorological conditions found underneath the balloons. In general, there is fair agreement between amplitudes derived from measurements for the waves with periods less than 1 hr and the parameterizations. The correlation between the daily observations and the corresponding results of the parameterization can be around 0.4, which is 99% significant since 1200 days of observations are used. Given that the parameterizations have only been tuned to produce a QBO in the models, the 0.4 correlation coefficient of the GW momentum fluxes is surprisingly good. These correlations nevertheless vary between schemes and depend little on their formulation (globally spectral versus multiwaves for instance). We therefore attribute these correlations to dynamical filtering, which all schemes take into account, whereas only a few relate the gravity waves to their sources. Statistically significant correlations are mostly found for eastward propagating waves, which may be due to the fact that during both Strateole 2 phases the QBO is easterly at the altitude of the balloon flights. We also found that the probability density functions (pdfs) of the momentum fluxes are better represented in spectral schemes with constant sources than in schemes ("spectral" or "multiwaves") that relate GWs only to their convective sources.

KEYWORDS
Gravity Waves, Balloon Observations, Quasi-Biennial Oscillation, Global Climate Models

1 | INTRODUCTION

It is well known that the large scale circulation in the middle atmosphere is in large part driven by gravity waves (GWs) that propagate upward in the stratosphere and mesosphere (Andrews et al., 1987). These waves carry horizontal momentum vertically and interact with the large scale flow when they break. Since the horizontal scale of these waves can be quite short, much shorter than the 1° to 2° horizontal resolution of the atmospheric General Circulation Models (GCMs) used in most Earth System Models they need to be parameterized (Alexander and Dunkerton, 1999). In the tropics, the GWs generated by convection are believed to largely dominate (Fovell et al., 1992; Alexander et al., 2000; Lane and Moncrieff, 2008). These waves also contribute significantly to the forcing of the Quasi-Biennial Oscillation

(QBO), a near 28-month oscillation of the zonal mean zonal winds that occurs in the lower part of the equatorial stratosphere (Baldwin et al., 2001). For these reasons, convectively generated GWs need to be parameterized in order to simulate a QBO in most GCMs.

Although gravity wave parameterizations are now used in many models with success including in the tropics (Scinocca, 2003; Song and Chun, 2005; Beres et al., 2005; Orr et al., 2010; Lott and Guez, 2013; Bushell et al., 2015; Anstey et al., 2016; Christiansen et al., 2016; Serva et al., 2018), their validation using direct in situ observations remains a challenge. Large horizontal-scale GWs can be obtained from global satellite observations of temperature (Geller et al., 2013) and the corresponding momentum flux computed using polarization relations (Alexander et al., 2010; Ern et al., 2014). However, in order to observe the shorter horizontal scales that also contribute to the QBO forcing and to have a direct measurement of the corresponding momentum flux, in situ observations are required. The most precise measurements are provided by constant-level long-duration balloons, like those made in the Antarctic region during Strateole-Vorcore (Hertzog, 2007) and Concordiasi (Rabier et al., 2010), or in the deep tropics during PreConcordiasi (Jewtoukoff et al., 2013) and Strateole 2 (Haase et al., 2018). Among many important results, these balloon observations have shown that the momentum flux entering the stratosphere is extremely intermittent (Hertzog et al., 2012). This intermittency implies that the mean momentum flux is mostly transported by few large-amplitude GWs that potentially break at lower altitudes rather than by many uniformly distributed GWs. This intermittent character, when reproduced by a parameterization (de la Cámara et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2021), can help reduce systematic errors in the midlatitudes, such as the timing of the final warming in the Southern Hemisphere polar stratosphere (de la Cámara et al., 2016), or on the simulation of the QBO (Lott et al., 2012a). Balloon observations have also been used to characterize the dynamical filtering by the large scale winds (Plougonven et al., 2017), and to validate the average statistical properties of the GW momentum flux simulated offline using reanalysis data (Kang et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2021). For completeness note that here, "dynamical filtering" is the process by which waves with smaller amplitude intrinsic phase speed break for smaller amplitude MF than the waves with larger amplitude intrisic phase speed (see Eq. (3) and the associated discussion in Lott et al. (2023)).

However, previous evaluations of parameterizations using balloon observations compared more global statistical behaviours (Jewtoukoff et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2021) rather than ability to reproduce instantaneous values of momentum fluxes. One good reason to consider global statistical properties of momentum flux, rather than daily values, is that parameterizations are based on simplified quasi-linear wave theory, assume spectral distributions that are loosely constrained, and ignore lateral propagation almost entirely (some attempt to include it can be found in Amemiya and Sato (2016); Kim et al. (2024), see also the underlying theory in Achatz et al. (2023)). Nevertheless, some factors could mitigate these weaknesses. One factor is that in all parameterizations the wave amplitude is systematically limited by a breaking criterion that encapsulates nonlinear effects. Another is that some parameterizations explicitly relate launched waves to sources, and there is a continuing effort to improve the realism of the convective sources (Liu et al., 2022). Finally, observations systematically suggest that dynamical filtering by the large scale wind is extremely important for upward propagating GWs (Plougonven et al., 2017), and this central property is represented in all GW parameterizations. For all these reasons, it may well be that GW parameterizations using the large scale flow found at a given place and time produce momentum fluxes that can be directly compared to those measured by a balloon at the same place.

Based on the relative success of previous offline calculations using reanalysis data (Jewtoukoff et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2021), Lott et al. (2023) have shown that such a direct comparison gives results of interest. The first is that the state-of-the-art convective gravity wave drag scheme of Lott and Guez (2013) predicts momentum fluxes in the lower equatorial stratosphere whose amplitudes can be directly compared with those measured during phase 1 of the Strateole-2 balloon campaign. This gives a direct in-situ observational confirmation that the theories

and modelling of the QBOs developed over the last 50 years are largely correct about the importance of GWs for driving the QBO. Moreover, the comparison showed a good level of correlation between the day to day variability in momentum fluxes between measured and parameterized values, a correlation that is much higher for waves carrying momentum fluxes in the eastward direction than in the westward direction. Such a good correlation is consistent with the fact that the Lott and Guez (2013) scheme relates the gravity waves to their convective sources (not all schemes do) and that the GWs experience strong dynamical filtering in the middle troposphere and lower stratosphere. However, Lott et al. (2023) also show that a scheme that relates gravity waves to only convection failed to predict the right statistical behaviour of the momentum fluxes. More precisely, the probability density function of the predicted momentum flux amplitudes have long tails for low values which are more pronounced than in observations. This suggests that the parameterization misses processes like lateral propagation or the presence of a background of waves whose source and nature need to be understood.

The purpose of this paper is to extend the direct comparison used in Lott et al. (2023) by including more recent Strateole 2 observations and different gravity wave parameterizations. Here we use nearly all the parameterizations used by the modelling groups participating in the Quasi-Biennial Oscillation initiative (QBOi, Butchart et al. (2018)). We then follow Lott et al. (2023) and use the 8 balloons of the first phase of the Strateole 2 campaign that flew in the lower tropical stratosphere between November 2019 and February 2020 and add the 15 balloons that flew more than one day during the second phase of the Strateole 2 campaign, between October 2021 and January 2022. In those flights and at each time in those flights, we have identified the horizontal grid point in the ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2020) that is nearest to the balloon location. At those times and places we extract from ERA5 the vertical profiles of wind and temperature, as well as the surface value of precipitation to calculate the parameterized GW momentum fluxes. As some parameterizations need them, we also extract from ERA5 analysis and 3hr-forecasts the diabatic heating rates and the cloud base and cloud top altitudes.

The outline of the paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the data and the parameterization schemes used. Section 3 compares the MF values calculated with the parameterizations and compare them to the observed values by evaluating daily correlations, averages over each balloons flight, averages over all the Strateole 2 flights, and distributions (pdfs). Section 4 summarizes the results. As we shall see the performances of each parameterization can be contrasted regarding that we use one type of result rather than other, but our purpose is not to promote one scheme in front of the others. Adapting other groups parameterization to a testbed that have been intensively used for LMDz (see Lott et al. (2023)), can give an unfair advantage to the corresponding scheme, which is absolutely not the objective of the present work. We return to this point in Section 4.

2 | DATA AND METHOD

2.1 | Parameterizations of non orographic gravity wave schemes

The parameterization schemes used in GCMs to calculate non-orographic gravity waves belong to two distinct families, dating back to the 1980's when it became evident that a simulation of the middle atmosphere by global atmospheric models could not be done without including subgrid scale GWs.

The first family is based on the formulation of Lindzen (1981), where the gravity wave field is represented by waves that are monochromatic in the horizontal and time. Lindzen's scheme was first extended to treat a large ensemble of waves by Alexander and Dunkerton (1999) making the assumption that the breaking of each wave could be made independent from the others. An advantage of such schemes is that they are based on linear theories where sources like convection and/or fronts can be introduced using closed form solutions (Beres et al., 2005; Song and

	p_I	F_{LT}	$2\pi/m_*$	$C_{\min}$
CMAM	100hPa	1.3mPa	1km	0.25 m/s
IFS	450hPa	5mPa	3km	0.5 m/s
ECEarth	450hPa	3.75mPa	2km	0.25 m/s
UMGA7gws	1000hPa	$\sqrt{\text{Precip}}$	4.3km	not used

TABLE 1 WMI Parameters changing between CMAM, IFS, ECEarth, and UMGA7gws. Note that CMAM, IFS, and ECEarth parameterizations are very near each other and described in Scinocca (2003) whereas UMGA7gws follows Warner and McIntyre (1999).

Chun, 2005; Richter et al., 2010a; Lott and Guez, 2013; de la Cámara and Lott, 2015; Lott et al., 2012b). In the following we will refer to such schemes as "multiwave". These schemes are expensive because they request a large number of harmonics to well represent a realistic wave field, but this limit can easily be circumvented by using stochastic approaches (Eckermann, 2011; Lott et al., 2012a).

As an alternative, but also to better represent the effect of wave breaking, globally spectral schemes have been developed and used with success. These schemes use the observational fact that GWs produce kinetic energy spectra which have a quite universal shape when expressed as a function of vertical wavenumber. In the early 1990's Hines (1991) developed a theory where GW breaking is represented by imposing an upper limit to the range of vertical wavenumbers, the limit being calculated according to the large-scale wind and including a Doppler spreading by the other gravity waves (see also Hines, 1997). The scheme has been implemented in various GCMs (see for instance Manzini et al., 1997), and will be referred to as "HDS" for "Hines Doppler Spread". As an alternative, the theory in Warner and McIntyre (1996) imposes gravity wave saturation according to an empirical spectrum but treat vertical changes in the spectrum following the propagation invariant characters of GWs. The theory has been simplified and/or optimized to permit implementation, for instance in the UKMO model (Warner and McIntyre, 1999; Scaife et al., 2002) and in the CMAM model (Scinocca, 2003), and will be referred henceforth as "WMI" for "Warner and McIntyre". To a certain extent, the spectral schemes can also take into account the relation with sources. For instance the HDS scheme has been related to fronts in Charron and Manzini (2002), and the UKMO version of the WMI scheme to precipitation in Bushell et al. (2015).

In the present paper, we compare the GW schemes used in 12 of the models that participate in QBOi, these models having horizontal grid resolutions between 50km and 300km, i.e. much too short to resolve explicitely the shortest period gravity waves. In these models, the GWs parameterizations all belong to one of the three types of schemes described above (WMI, HDS, and Multiwave). Since all the multiwave schemes analysed relate GWs to their convective sources and since only one of the spectral scheme does so (i.e., the UMGA7gws WMI scheme in Bushell et al. (2015)), the results from spectral scheme in Bushell et al. (2015) will often be presented together with the results from the source-related multiwave schemes.

Among the 12 models, three (CMAM, IFS and ECEarth) use the Scinocca (2003) version of WMI. The specific versions of these schemes used for QBOi are further detailed in Anstey et al. (2016), Orr et al. (2010), and Davini et al. (2017) respectively. These schemes essentially differ by four parameters: the launch level pressure p_I, the launched momentum flux F_{LT}, the characteristic vertical wavenumber m_* and a minimum intrinsic phase speed in the launched spectra, the values of each being given here in Table 1. Note that for EC-Earth the exact value of the parameters in Table 1 are from J. García-Serrano (private communication).

Five of the 12 models, uses the HDS parameterization discussed in Manzini et al. (1997): ECham5, MIROC, MPIM,

	p_l	σ_s	$2\pi/K^*$	$2\pi/m_{\min}$	C_{smo}	N_{smo}
ECham5	600hPa	1. ± 0.2 m/s	125km	0	2	5
MIROC	650hPa	0.95 m/s	250 km	94 km	2	2
MPIM	650hPa	1.2 m/s	125 km	0	2	2
MRI-ESM	700hPa	1.9 m/s	1250 km	190 km	4	2
EMAC	650hPa	1. m/s	125 km	0	2	2

TABLE 2 HDS Parameters changing between ECHam5, MIROC, MPIM, MRI-ESM, and EMAC.

	p_l	Phase Speed	Δz	Source
LMDz	500hPa	Intrinsic=Gauss(0m/s, 30m/s)	1km	Precip^2
HadGEM2	850hPa-100hPa	-100m/s<Absolute<100m/s	1km-15km	(Convective Heating)^2
WACCM	1000hPa-100hPa	-100m/s<Absolute<100m/s	1km-4km	(Convective Heating)^2

TABLE 3 Some parameters changing between LMDz, HadGEM2 and WACCM, for information only the schemes being extremely distinct one from the other.

MRI-ESM, and EMAC. Their version for QBOi are described in Serva et al. (2018), Watanabe et al. (2011), Pohlmann et al. (2013), Naoe and Yoshida (2019), and Jöckel et al. (2010) (see also Roeckner et al. (2006)). They mainly differ by three different parameters: the launching level p_l, the root mean square of the horizontal wind variability due to GWs at launch level σ, and the effective horizontal wavenumber K^* (see Table 2). There are also more numerical parameters of secondary importance that differ between models: a minimum value for the cutoff vertical wavenumber $m_{\min}$, and two parameters that control smoothing in the vertical of the GWs root mean square variance, the coefficient C_{smo} and the number of time the smoothing is applied N_{smo}. It is important to note that in ECham5 the variability parameter σ is chosen randomly, with a normal distribution centered at 1m/s with standard deviation 0.2m/s. The usefulness of such a stochastic ingredient was initially proposed by Piani et al. (2004) who found that it can help stabilizing the QBO variability in large scale models and over decades.

Finally the last 4 schemes we consider all link GWs to sources (convection or precipitation). Three are multiwaves schemes that have been developed independently from each other: LMDz, HadGEM2, and WACCM. Their versions used in QBOi are described in Lott and Guez (2013), Song and Chun (2005), and Richter et al. (2010b). One of these schemes uses the ultra simple version of the WMI scheme presented in Bushell et al. (2015) rather than the Scinocca (2003)'s version. Note that for both HadGEM2 and WACCM, we do not use the exact version used in the QBOi models but rather the offline versions developed by Kang et al. (2017) and Alexander et al. (2021), and which were adapted by these authors to interpret observations. Since the differences between the 3 multiwave schemes are too numerous, the reader is referred to the above mentionned papers. However, important differences can be outlined in the source term, the launching levels and the intrinsic phase speed of the launched waves (for the multiwave schemes see also table (3)). More specifically, in LMDz the choice is to relate the launched momentum flux to square precipitation P_r^2 consistent with linear theory before breaking (Lott and Guez, 2013) whereas in (Bushell et al., 2015) it is related to $\sqrt{P_r}$ (see Table 1). Furthermore in LMDz the waves are launched in the mid troposphere whereas in the UMGA7gws they are launched in the lower troposphere near the surface. In the HadGEM2 scheme (Song and Chun, 2005; Choi

and Chun, 2011), the launched momentum flux is directly related to convective heating distributed in the vertical between the cloud bottom and cloud top, the launch altitude being at the cloud top. In this case the launch level can vary between $2km$ and 15km typically and the depth of the heating between 1km and 15km. We will take the same inputs used for the HadGEM2 scheme to run the WACCM scheme, using the version in Alexander et al. (2021). Note that in WACCM, the heating depth is one quarter of the cloud depth, and ranges between 1km and 4km typically. Final important differences are that in LMDz the intrinsic phase speeds are chosen randomly according to a Gaussian distribution with 0 mean value and 30m/s standard deviation, whereas in both UMGA7gws and WACCM absolute phase speed is used, with values uniformly distributed in the range $-100\text{m/s} < C_{abs} < 100\text{m/s}$.

2.2 | Offline parameterization runs

To run the schemes in offline mode we use ERA-5 hourly data of precipitation and 3-hourly winds, surface pressure, temperature, cloud liquid and ice water content on a $1^o \times 1^o$ horizontal grid to mimic a large-scale climate model of fairly high horizontal resolution. Winds, surface pressure, temperature, and water contents are then linearly interpolated on 1hr interval so that they are synchronised with the precipitation. In the vertical we use data at 67 model levels taking every second ERA5 level, again to mimic a typical model's vertical resolution but also to speed up calculations. To estimate the vertical profiles of convective heating rates, we follow Fueglistaler et al. (2009) and evaluate diabatic heating using ERA5 hourly data from the short range forecasts, computing it as the residual between the parameterized temperature tendency and the radiative heating rates (longwave plus shortwave). When needed, we also evaluate the cloud bottom and cloud top altitudes using the cloud water content (liquid+ice) given in ERA5.

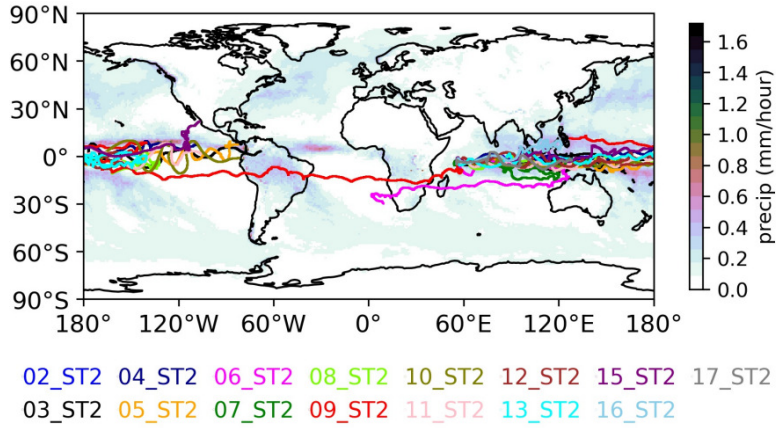

FIGURE 1 Strateole 2, Phase 2 balloon trajectories taking place between October 2021 and January 2022. Shading presents the precipitation field from ERA5 averaged over the period.

2.3 | Strateole 2 balloon observations

The in situ observations we use are from the 8 balloons of the first phase of the Strateole 2 campaign that flew in the tropical lower stratosphere between November 2019 and February 2020 and from the 15 balloons that flew for more

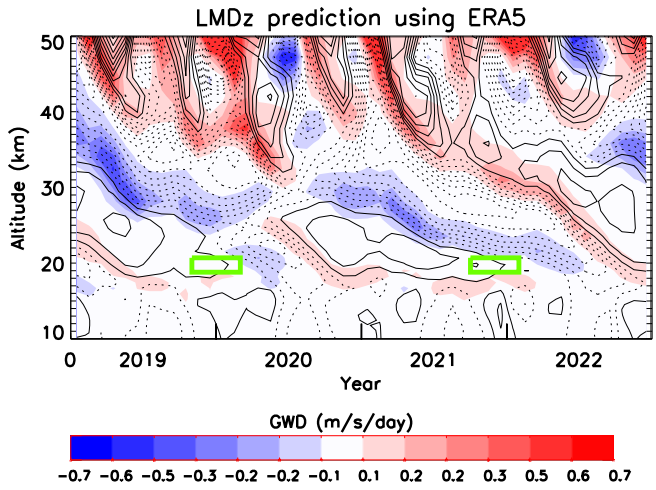

FIGURE 2 Time vertical sections of the zonal mean zonal wind (CI=10m/s black contours with negative values dashed) and of the non-orographic gravity wave tendency (color shading). All zonal mean fields are averaged over the Equatorial band ($-6^oS - +6^oN$). Input data are from ERA5 reanalysis and GWs prediction from the LMDz scheme. The 2 green boxes indicate schematically the altitude and time ranges of the Strateole 2 phase 1 and 2 flights considered in this study.

than one day during the second phase of the Strateole 2 campaign, between October 2021 and January 2022. The trajectories during phase 2 are shown in Figure 1, superimposed upon which is the averaged precipitation (the same Figure but for phase 1 is in Lott et al. (2023)). For the momentum fluxes (MFs) calculated from observations, Corcos et al. (2021) distinguish the eastward travelling waves with positive MFs in the zonal direction from the westward travelling waves with negative MFs. They also distinguish the waves with short periods (1hr-15mn) from those with periods up to one day (1d-15mn). In the following we will follow Lott et al. (2023) and keep the shortest periods, because for these periods the momentum flux measured compare well with the GWs momentum fluxes needed in a GCM to produce a QBO. This leaves open the issue that waves with longer periods are certainly in the "grey" zone of the models and not realistically represented either.

To characterize the phase of the QBO during the balloon flights, Fig. 2 shows a time versus altitude cross section of the equatorial zonal mean zonal winds and GWD computed in offline mode using the LMDz scheme for 2018-2023 and averaged over the tropics. The gravity wave drag is negative (positive) where the vertical wind shear is negative (positive) consistent with the fact that it contributes to the QBO descent. We also note that the amplitudes vary between ±0.5m/s/day, a range characteristic of the parameterized GW drag tendency used in GCMs that produce a QBO-like oscillation (Butchart et al., 2018). The figure also indicates with green rectangles the regions and periods during which the balloons operated, typically during the end of easterly QBO phase for both phases 1 and 2. As we shall see this yields quite comparable results during the two phases, despite the fact that during phase 1 and above the altitude the 2nd documented QBO disruption started (Anstey et al., 2021).

Our analysis compares the momentum fluxes derived from the balloon data for waves with intrinsic periods below 1hr and consider the ERA5 data at the points that are the nearest to the balloon. The calculation is then made every hour and averaged over the day, partly because it is the time scale needed for some of the schemes to realistically sample a GW field, and also because it takes about one day for a balloon flight to cover a model gridscale. Note that

some of the sensitivities to these choices are discussed in Lott et al. (2023)'s conclusion.

3 | RESULTS

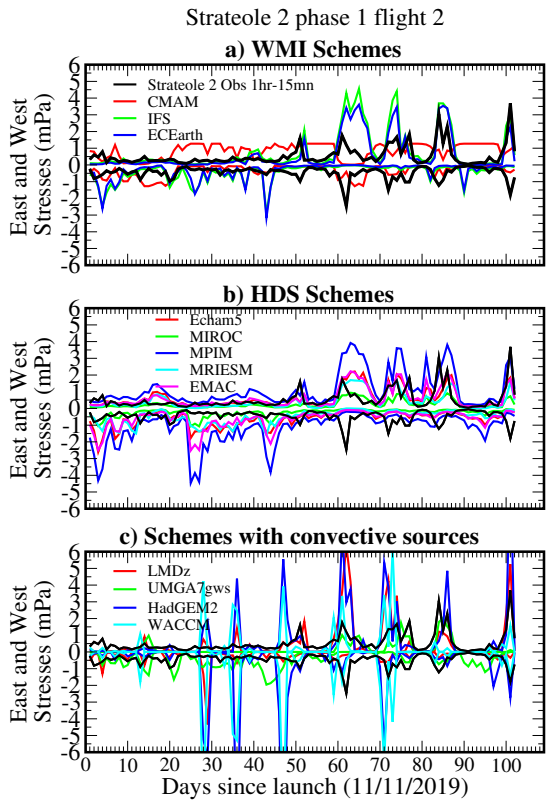

FIGURE 3 Comparison between daily averaged values of the eastward and westward MFs measured by the balloons during Strateole 2 phase 1 Flight 2 and estimated by the GW schemes at the balloon location and altitude. Colored curves are for the GW schemes using ERA5, black curves are for the observed MFs due to the 15mn-1hr GWs. a) WMI schemes; b) HDS Schemes; c) Schemes relating launched MFs with convective sources or precipitations: all multiwaves except UMGA7gws.

Figure 3 shows time series of daily values of momentum fluxes calculated by the parameterizations and measured during balloon flight 2 from strateole 2 phase 1. This is also the flight shown in Fig. 3 in Lott et al. (2023), in which was shown the time series of daily precipitation and zonal wind at flight altitude. The top panel is for the WMI based schemes, the middle panel for the HDS schemes and the bottom panels for the schemes relating the GW fluxes to their sources (3 multiwave, 1 WMI). In all panels the black curves are for the daily observations. For clarity we present results for the eastward and westward MFs only. Overall one sees that the parameterized MFs somewhat agree with the observed ones, at least in term of amplitude. There are nevertheless significant differences in behaviour. For instance, the IFS schemes exhibit substantial peaks in eastward flux during the second half of the flight. This is a period

during which the zonal wind at flight altitude becomes westward potentially favoring eastward waves consistent with dynamical filtering. Note that in Lott et al. (2023) it was shown that the 3 peaks in measured fluxes around days 60, 75, and 83 also correspond to dates when there was precipitation near the balloon's horizontal location. These correspondences made us believe that the relation with convective sources is essential. However, we see here that dynamical filtering alone may well be the main cause. Although having smaller amplitudes, the Fig. 3 also shows that in EC-Earth, the momentum fluxes behave almost as in IFS. However, the results for CMAM are quite different. In this model it was chosen to place the launch altitude near the tropopause. As a consequence the daily time series fluctuate less and exhibit long lasting "plateaus". Clearly in this model, the distance between the launch level (100hPa see Table 1) and the balloon altitude is too small for dynamical filtering to be efficient. The second panel of Fig. 3 for the HDS schemes is not fundamentally different from what was discussed above. The amplitude and fluctuations are comparable to observed, some schemes predicting values which look either larger or smaller but staying within the range of observations. The behaviour of the source related schemes in the third panel of Fig. 3 (multiwave for LMDz an HadGEM2, WMI for UMGA7gws) are more contrasted. As expected, there are long periods during which the schemes produce small and null momentum fluxes, which are interrupted by short lasting strong peaks. These peaks sometime exceed ± 5mPa, which are values never reached by any of the spectral schemes in panels 3a) and 3b). In contrast to LMDz and HadGEM2, the UMGA7gws scheme exhibits smaller amplitude MFs and broader peaks. We attribute this to the fact that the UMGA7gws scheme relates the launch flux to $\sqrt{P_r}$ rather than P_r^2 as is done in LMDz, or to the square of heating as is done in both HadGEM2 and WACCM.

The MF time series for a flight during the second phase of strateole 2 is shown in Fig. 4. Beyond the fact that the flight is shorter than in Fig. 3, a difference in duration that characterizes most of the flights during phase 2 compared to phase 1, the overall behaviour stays about the same: the spectral schemes exhibit fluctuations with broader peaks, except maybe CMAM, as a result of the higher launch-altitude which results in dynamical filtering not yet being efficient at balloon flight altitude. The last panel in Fig. 4 also shows that UMGA7gws exhibits long periods with almost no fluxes. For this scheme, the launch height is low in the troposphere (see Table 1) which results in much more critical level filtering during the propagation through the troposphere. Finally, in the version of WACCM used here, there is one extreme outlier at day 33, with values below -10mPa. We only found few of them over the entire campaign, and because WACCM has been intentionaly tuned to produce from time to time such extreme values in MFs.

The fact that the different schemes estimate momentum fluxes of about the right amplitude is summarized in Fig. 5 where the average of the fluxes over the 18 flights that last more than a month (8 during phase 1, 10 during phase 2) are shown. In this figure we see that the predicted values align quite well with the observed ones, though some schemes have a tendency to slightly underestimate the fluxes (MIROC, LMDz), and others to overestimate them (CMAM, HadGEM2). The WACCM scheme has a quite distinct behaviour, most balloons measure quite lower fluxes than parameterized on average, and few much larger ones. On average over all flights these large values average out with smaller ones. However, we have to keep in mind that this behaviour is intentional: the version of the WACCM scheme we use has been tuned to produce a very intermittent behaviour and sometimes very strong fluxes (Alexander et al., 2021). The numbers in each panel are the correlation coefficient between the 18 observed and parameterized values of MFs averaged over each flight. They show that the correlations are quite strong in some models, at least in the eastward direction. Interestingly some models also have significant medium to high correlations in the westward direction (CMAM, LMDz, HadGEM2). This means that parameterizations can capture quite well the low frequency variability of the MFs (the changes with period larger than a month). Thus, it is tempting to say that it is good enough for the simulation of the QBO.

Figure 6 compares the observed and parameterized eastward and westward fluxes averaged over all the balloon

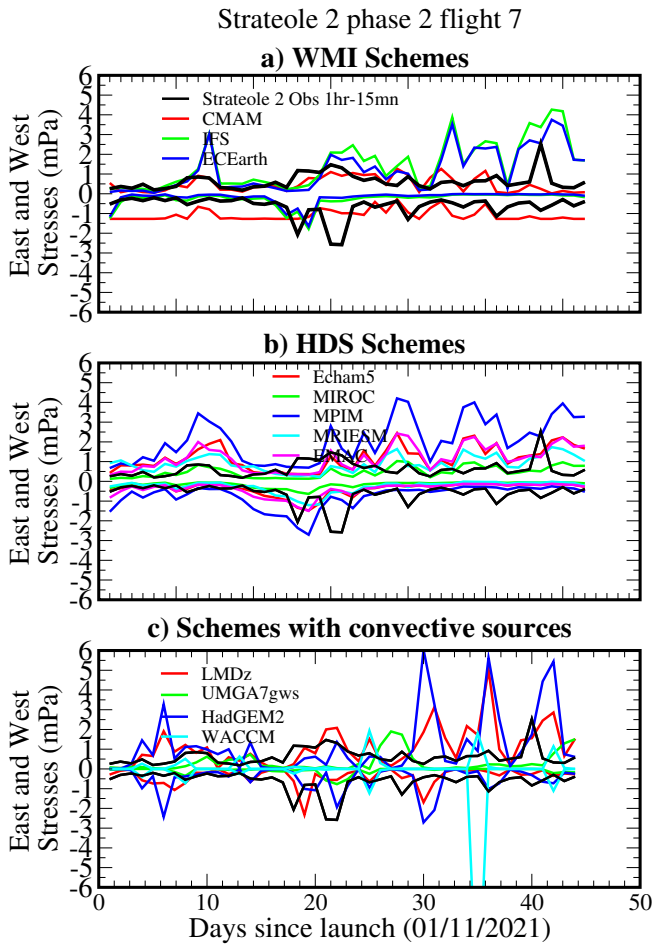

FIGURE 4 Same as Fig 3 but for Strateole 2 Phase 2 Flight 7.

flights, confirming again that the parameterizations fall around the observed values. Although there are differences between the models, there is no systematic tendency for them to overestimate or underestimate the observed MF flux amplitude. This is elucidated by the green curve which represents the average over all models and over all balloon flights. As can be seen the average amplitude of the eastward flux is very near that of the observed (10% overestimate: 0.45mPa for the parameterizations compared to 0.40mPa for the observed), whereas the westward flux is overestimated by the models by less than 20% (−0.65mPa for the parameterizations compare to −0.55mPa observed). The near 50% error seen in the cumulated flux result from the fact that this flux is the sum of a large positive flux and a large amplitude negative flux, the two almost equilibrating each other.

The daily time series in Figs 3 and 4 also suggest that observations and offline estimations sometimes evolve similarly day after day. A possible reason for this could be that both observed and parameterized MFs are sensitive to dynamical filtering, noting that some schemes also take into account convective sources. In the two examples shown in Figs. 3 and 4, the correspondence between the observed and parameterized fluxes is quite apparent, particularly

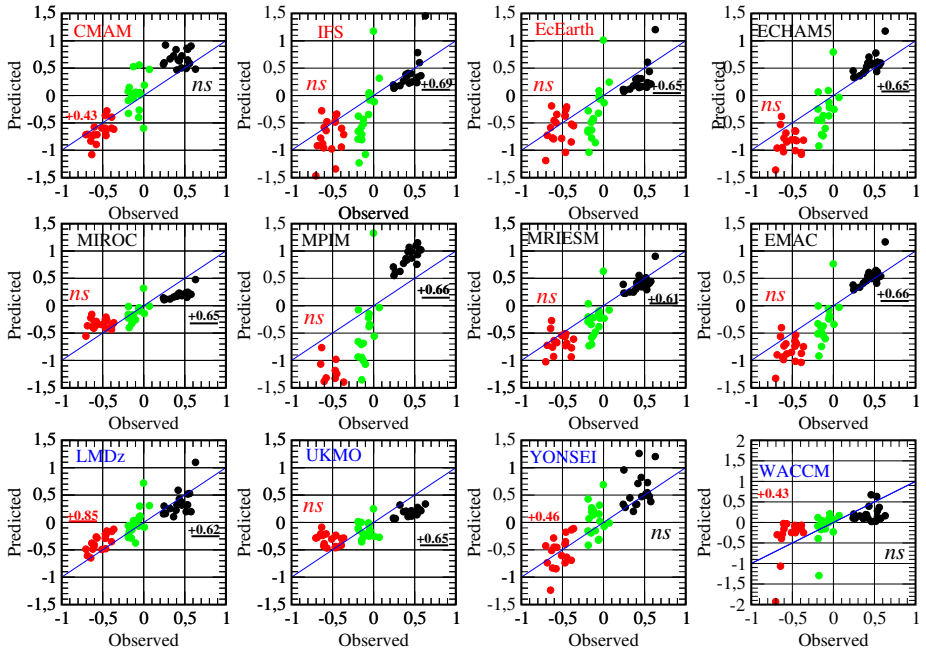

FIGURE 5 Scatter plot of the momentum fluxes measured by the balloon versus parameterized using different models. Only considered here the 18 balloon flights that last more than a month (East: black; West: red; Cumulated (East+West): green). Also shown are the correlations between observations and predictions, 99% significant levels are bold underlined, 95% are bold. Non significant values indicated by *"ns"*. The number of DoF for Pearson test is 23, which is simply the number of balloon flights and which is therefore very conservative, many balloons lasting more than few weeks, whereas the decorrelation time scale of the daily series being well below a week. Color of the names of the WMI, HDS, and convection-related GWs schemes are in red, black and blue respectively. Note the the change of vertical axis in lower left panel.

in the first (Figure 3) in regards to the peaks in the eastward direction discussed earlier. Correspondences are less apparent in the second case (Figure 4) where the observed MFs present less variations than the parameterized MFs. In Lott et al. (2023) where these daily variations were analysed flight by flight, in some of the flights the time-series correlated well whereas in others they did not. This resulted in correlation coefficients C that are significant but "medium" in the eastward direction $C \approx 0.5$ and "low" to "medium" in the westward direction $C \approx 0.3$. Here and in the following, we refer to "medium" correlations when $0.3 < C < 0.5$ and "small" when $0.1 < C < 0.3$. As the latter values occured for the LMDz parameterization during Strateole 2 phase 1, the coefficients are given again in the 9th column of Table 4. In this table are also given the coefficients for phase 2 and for the phase 1 and 2 combined. Consistent with the results found for phase 1, we found during phase 2 medium correlation for the Eastward MF ($C = 0.4$) and for the westward MF ($C = 0.40$), the values evaluated over the two phases being medium ($C = 0.46$ and $C = 0.34$, respectively). Here and for completeness, we follow the procedure used in Lott et al. (2023) to test the significance. We measure the number of Degrees of Freedom (DoF) for each dataset, and calculate the decorrelation time scale, which we take as the lag in day beyond which the lag-autocorrelation of the time-series falls below 0.2. As this time-lag varies from one time-series to the other, we give explicitly the DoF in column 2, which is the duration of the flight

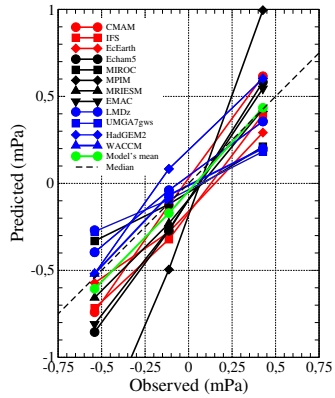

FIGURE 6 East, West and cumulated zonal momentum fluxes averaged over the Strateole 2 phase 1 and 2 period and according to participating models.

divided by the decorrelation time scale. Note that for the decorrelation time, we use for simplicity the daily averaged observations, but found that it is not much different from that evaluated with the offline estimates (not shown).

When we calculate the daily correlations for the other parameterization schemes, there is also strong variability between the flights and the global correlations shown in Table 4 summarize well the averaged behaviour. First, and as for LMDz, the correlations evaluated using Phase 2 data stay robust when compared to correlations evaluated using phase 1, and whatever is the level of correlation ("medium", "low", or "non significant"). Second, is that many schemes managed to have "medium" correlations ($0.3 < C < 0.5$) in the eastward direction. The schemes having no or small correlations in the eastward direction (CMAM, HadGEM2, and WACCM) are characterized by the fact that in them the launch level is quite high. For instance in CMAM it is near the tropopause which strongly mitigates dynamical filtering between the launching level and the balloon altitude. Also interesting, the HadGEM2 and WACCM have low or no correlations, in those two models and in the case of deep convection waves are launched from quite high levels in the troposphere (not shown) suggesting that in those models as well and for waves with strong eastward flux, there is not enough distance between launch levels and balloons altitude for dynamical filtering to be efficient. The results in the westward direction are more intriguing. Here the correlations are always small except for one scheme (LMDz) and some "low" correlations are found for the two schemes that often launch waves from quite near the tropopause (CMAM and HadGEM2). We have difficulties in interpreting this last result. It may means that launching some waves from near the tropopause can improve the westward correlations (as CMAM and HadGEM2 here do), and that always launching waves from the same altitude well in the troposphere fails in most cases. But if this is the true, the fact that LMDz westward MFs correlate better with observation than any other schemes is in contradiction. Maybe the skill of LMDz comes from elsewhere. For instance from the fact that LMDz is a "multiwaves" scheme that explicitly launches waves according to their intrinsic frequency, a choice that directly affects dynamical filtering, whereas in the globally spectral schemes the dynamical filtering is more indirect and in the other 2 multiwave schemes (HadGEM2 and WACCM) the waves are launched according to their absolute frequency. These are more speculations given here to emphasize the differences that are dynamically significant in our opinion, what is maybe more interesting to notice is that there is room to improve GWs parameterizations to obtain better fits between predicted and measured fluxes in both directions of propagation, as illustrates the case of LMDz.

For this latter model, with moderate intrinsic phase speed range (see Table 3) and therefore strong explicit dynam-

East	Days	CM	IFS	ECE	Ech	MI	MPI	MRI	EM	LMD	UMG	HadG	WAC
	-DoF	AM		ARTH	am5	ROC	M	ESM	AC	z	A7gws	EM2	CM
Phase 1	670-216	ns	**0.53**	**0.52**	**0.43**	**0.48**	**0.49**	**0.44**	**0.48**	**0.49**	**0.34**	**0.31**	ns
Phase 2	621-322	**-0.19**	**0.41**	**0.38**	**0.29**	**0.33**	**0.34**	**0.30**	**0.33**	**0.40**	**0.34**	**0.20**	**0.26**
1+2	1291-538	-0.11	**0.49**	**0.47**	**0.35**	**0.41**	**0.41**	**0.36**	**0.40**	**0.46**	**0.34**	**0.26**	ns
West	Days	CM	IFS	ECE	Ech	MI	MPI	MRI	EM	LMD	UMG	HadG	WAC
	-DoF	AM		ARTH	am5	ROC	M	ESM	AC	z	A7gws	EM2	CM
Phase 1	670-216	0.14	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**0.30**	ns	ns	ns
Phase 2	621-322	**0.21**	**0.18**	**0.16**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**0.40**	ns	0.14	ns
1+2	1291-538	**0.17**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**0.34**	ns	0.11	ns

TABLE 4 Correlation between observed and measured fluxes, strateole phases 1 and 2. 1% significant values according to 2-sided Pearson test are in bold, 5% are in italic, 'ns' stands for non-significant. To evaluate the number of degree of freedom, we proceed as in Lott et al. (2023) and evaluate for each flight the time lag for which the auto correlations of the daily averaged fluxes fall below 0.1 and divide the number of days by that lag.

ical filtering, the fact that the westward correlations are significant but lower than the eastward correlations could follow that the two phase of the campaign are during comparable eastward phase of the QBO, i.e. when eastward waves are larger in amplitude and more easy to detect (here we assume that waves near saturation have larger amplitude than unsaturated waves and are therefore more easy to detect). It would be instructive to document whether if westward correlations could be larger when the QBO is westward at the balloon level.

As stated in the introduction, more than predicting the right fluxes at the right time, it is often believed that parameterizations should better be validated against their statistical behaviour. A example is that observed gravity waves MFs are strongly intermittent, a statistical character that deeply impacts the effect of the waves on the climate in the middle atmosphere (de la Cámara et al., 2016). In a recent paper, Green et al. (2023) showed that this intermittent behaviour is well captured when the GWs momentum fluxes have pdfs following a log-normal distribution. These authors even concluded that in all directions of propagation, momentum flux characteristics could be summarized in terms of the mean and variance of log normal distributions. As seen in Fig. 7, such lognormal distributions accurately describe the daily average of the MFs due to the waves with periods between 15mn-1hr deduced from Strateole-2 data. On this figure one sees that the pdfs of the observed fluxes and the log-normal fits are shown in green and blue, respectively. The fluxes are seen to range in amplitude from 0.1mPa to 10mPa. Furthermore, the pdfs of the westward fluxes are seen to be shifted toward higher values compared to those for the eastward fluxes, with little change to the shapes of the curves. The figure also shows that the shifts in the pdfs between eastward and westward fluxes are also well described by shifts in means and variances of log-normal distributions. For completeness, note nevertheless that because we use daily averages and also because our dataset is quite short, we miss departures from log-normality that occurs for the lower values of the MFs documented in Ern et al. (2022) .

To analyse the QBOi schemes in this framework , Figure 8 presents pdfs of the distributions of the parameterized daily values of the momentum fluxes. We see that for the WMI schemes (model names in red) the pdfs are much broader than the observed pdfs (green curves), and often far from log-normal. CMAM and EC-earth for instance exhibit peaks in the pdfs not located in the middle of the distribution. Quite remarkably, the HDS schemes (model names in black) are more realistic: the pdfs are narrower and much closer to log normal distributions. It is important to note that in all the globally spectral schemes without convective sources (WMI and HDS) the shift of the westward pdfs toward higher values compared to the eastward pdfs is reproduced (except for CMAM). Finally, the schemes

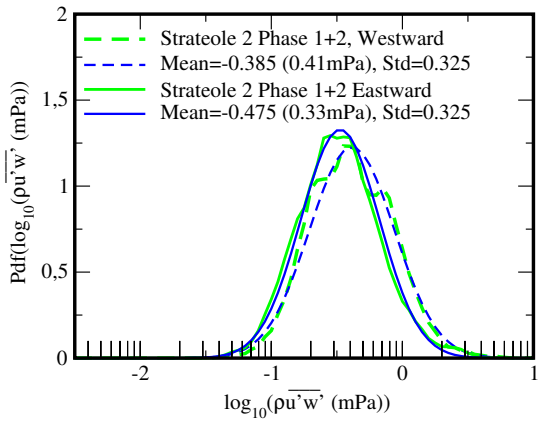

FIGURE 7 Pdfs of daily values of Momentum flux distribution evaluated from Strateole Phases 1 and 2. The pdfs are calculated from histograms of 1291 MFs daily value within intervals of $\Delta\left(\log_{10}\rho\overline{u'w'}(\text{mPa})\right) = 0.05$, thereafter smoothed by a 5 point non-recursive filter with weight $(0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.2, 0.1)$. Measured values are in green, log normal fits are in blue. Solid lines are for Eastward, dashed lines are for Westward. Here the log normal probability density function is defined as $P(X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(X-M)^2/(2S^2)}$, where $X = \log_{10}\rho|\overline{u'w'}|$, and M and S the mean and standard deviations given in caption.

that relate GWs to convection (names in blue) all have much broader pdfs, with long tails toward small values of the MFs. These tails are not realistic which suggests that these parameterizations miss a background of wave activity that exists even in the absence of convection nearby. In addition the shift of the westward pdfs toward higher values than the eastward pdfs is not apparent. Instead larger westward fluxes eventually occur as a result of changes in pdf rather than through translations (see for instance UMGA7gws and HadGEM2). If we now return to the conclusions of Green et al. (2023) that differences in GW momentum fluxes between directions of propagation could essentially be summarized by log-normal pdfs shifted by differences in mean values, one sees that including sources in single column parameterizations is not necessarily skilful to achieve this objective. Finally note that the WACCM scheme has a larger tail toward higher values (10mPa) than the other schemes, this tail is consistent with the fact that some balloons have very large fluxes on average (see Fig. 6).

4 | CONCLUSION

The main result of this paper is that state-of-the-art parameterizations of GWs reproduce reasonably well the eastward and westward values of the momentum fluxes due to the high-frequency waves (periods between 15mn and 1hr) deduced from in situ measurements made onboard constant-level balloons. In terms of day-to-day variations our results are more mitigated: in the eastward direction and without prior tuning many schemes (multiwave HDS or WMI) present "medium" correlations with observations; in the westward direction only two schemes produce significant ("low" and "medium") correlations. As these results were obtained without any tuning, they suggest that reaching a medium level of correlation with daily observations is a possible objective, even in the westward direction. We can also found that for our dataset it is easier to find significant correlations for eastward waves than for westward waves, this is probably related to the phase of the QBO at the balloons altitudes. It would therefore be important to plan

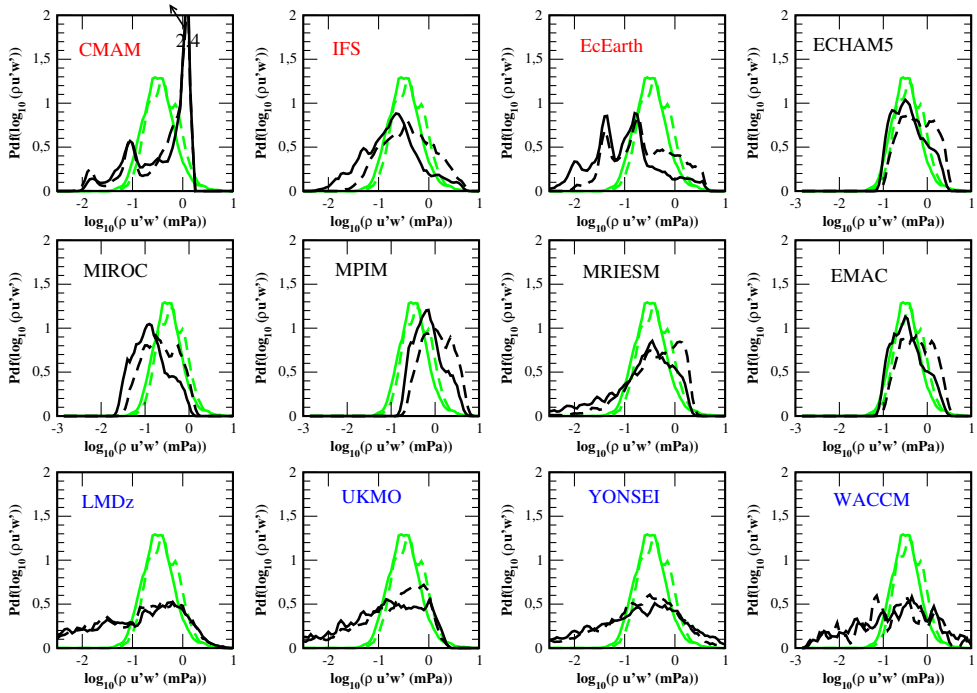

FIGURE 8 Pdfs of daily values of Momentum flux distribution, same method as in Fig. 7. Measured values are in green, estimations using ERA5 data and the parameterizations are in black. Solid lines are for Eastward, dashed lines are for Westward.

another campaign in the opposite phase of the QBO.

Due to the low to medium level of the day-to-day correlations we found, we could ask ourselves if it is mandatory to improve GW schemes according to such criteria. After all, when the momentum fluxes are averaged over periods near a month (here we rather consider averages over balloon flights), the correlations become "medium" to "strong" in the eastward direction (see Fig. 5) and sometime medium in the westward direction. Such a level of correlation is probably enough in the context of the QBO forcing, since the QBO is evolving over time scales much longer than a month.

Substantial differences are also found when we compare the pdfs of the parameterized momentum fluxes to the pdfs of the measured fluxes. The spectral schemes following the Hines Doppler Spread parameterization (HDS) behave the most realistically in this respect. The pdfs for the HDS schemes exhibit one isolated maximum and extend broadly along a log normal curve of about the right width. The HDS schemes also reproduce the shift of the pdfs toward larger values for the westward MFs, something that the Warner and McIntyre schemes (WMI) also do. The fact that both the HDS and WMI spectral schemes reproduce these characteristics is an interesting result. In them the source amplitude is constant and they are supposed to represent a broad ensemble of waves, two factors that could make them much less intermittent than the multiwave schemes including sources explicitly. It happens that for these schemes the dynamical filtering is efficient enough to reproduce a log normal pdf shifted according to the wave directions. This is important since log-normal behaviours are significant to the model climate, they capture in good

part the intermittency (Green et al., 2023) needed in some models to represent well the final warmings in the southern hemisphere (de la Cámara et al., 2014) or the fluctuations of the QBO periodicity (Lott and Guez, 2013). As dynamical filtering is also important to produce log-normal pdfs (Hertzog et al., 2012), it is also not surprising that CMAM fails in reproducing such a distribution: it launches waves from too near the balloon height for them to be influenced by the vertical variations in wind during their propagation.

The schemes that relate the GWs to convection also have broad momentum flux pdfs, much broader than the spectral schemes. So in this sense they can be viewed as being even more intermittent than the spectral schemes. Furthermore they are also characterized by long tails toward small values which seem unrealistic. For these schemes it therefore seems important to add a background of wave activity even in the absence of convection. This problem could also be in part corrected out by introducing lateral propagation (Amemiya and Sato, 2016; Kim et al., 2024), a process that is important in the balloon observations used here (Corcos et al., 2021), but this will not be sufficient over quite large and dry regions.

We did not try to fit the parameters of the schemes we use in order to improve daily correlations or pdfs or both, but we plan to do it in the near future. We do not have much data though, but could use the Loon data post-processed in a comparable way as Strateole 2 by Green et al. (2023), which would permit coverage of much wider regions. We could also complement these observations with the convection permitting global models which outcomes look promising (Stephan et al., 2016; Köhler et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2023). We should also test if improving the schemes parameters to improve the fit with observations improves or does not degrade the models climate. It may well be that parameterizations compensate for potentially resolved equatorial waves for instance, the latter showing a lot of variability between CMIP5 and QBOi models (Lott et al., 2014; Holt et al., 2022). Also, we could hope that a better fit with observed values would help reduce persistent systematic errors in the QBO simulations, one of them being that models underestimate the QBO amplitude in the low stratosphere (Bushell et al., 2022). Unfortunately, our results are not too promising in this regard: a common believe is that such an error could well be reduced by launching waves from near the tropopause, but the parameterizations which do so here are not very realistic when it comes to predict observed MFs variabilities (over days or months).

We have also tried to identify if some characteristics or deficiencies in the quasi biennial oscillations simulated in the QBOi models and reported in the QBOi papers could be related to one or the other characteristics of the schemes we have analysed. We did not find any, either in terms of periodicities, amplitude, asymmetry as documented in Bushell et al. (2022), teleconnections with the midlatitudes (Anstey et al., 2022), response to climate change Richter et al. (2022), equatorial waves amplitude (Holt et al., 2022), and semi annual oscillation (Smith et al., 2022). Of course in these simulations potential signatures of the parameterizations characteristics can be hidden by the many other model differences. More thorough test would consist in comparing the different parameterizations online within the same model. The challenge in this case would be to compare differences once a common target is achieved (for instance the QBO period and variability at 70hPa).

Data availability statement

All data and routines needed to run the parameterizations in offline mode and to compare the results with the strateole 2 flights are available on a dedicated web site, see details here:

`https://web.lmd.jussieu.fr/~flott/DATA/Documentation.pdf`

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