

1 **Seasonal dependence of northern high latitude upper**
2 **thermospheric winds: A quiet-time climatological study based**
3 **on ground-based and space-based measurements**

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15 **Key Points:**

- 16 • First ever investigation of the large scale seasonal dependence of northern high latitude
17 upper thermospheric winds in magnetic coordinates.
18 • Results show progressive intensification of wind circulation from winter to equinox to
19 summer.
20 • The vorticity increases from winter to summer. In all the seasons, the strongest diver-
21 gences occur primarily in and above auroral latitudes.

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Abstract

This paper investigates the large scale seasonal dependence of geomagnetically quiet-time, northern high latitude F-region thermospheric winds by combining extensive observations from eight ground-based (optical remote sensing) and three space-based (optical remote sensing and in situ) instruments. To provide a comprehensive picture of the wind morphology, data is assimilated into a seasonal empirical vector wind model as a function of season, latitude, and local time in magnetic coordinates. The model accurately represents the behavior of the constituent datasets. There is good general agreement among the various datasets, but there are some major offsets between GOCE and the other datasets, especially on the duskside. The assimilated wind patterns exhibit a strong and large duskside anticyclonic circulation cell, sharp latitudinal gradients in the duskside auroral zone, strong antisunward winds in the polar cap, and a weaker tendency toward a dawnside cyclonic circulation cell. The high latitude wind system shows a progressive intensification of wind patterns from winter to equinox to summer. The latitudinal extent of the duskside circulation cell does not depend strongly on season. Zonal winds show a mainly diurnal variation (2 extrema) around polar and middle latitudes, and semidiurnal variation (4 extrema) at auroral latitudes; meridional winds are primarily diurnal at all high latitudes. The strength of zonal winds channeling through the auroral zone on the duskside is strongest in the summer season. The vorticity of the wind pattern increases from winter to summer, whereas divergence is maximum in equinox. In all three seasons, divergence is weaker than vorticity.

1 Introduction

Thermospheric neutral wind circulation at high latitudes is a key component of global space weather research, primarily because neutral winds are strongly coupled to the ionospheric convecting plasma via momentum exchange between ions and neutrals [e.g., *Meriwether et al.*, 1973; *Roble et al.*, 1982; *Mikkelsen and Larsen*, 1983; *Killeen and Roble*, 1988; *Thayer and Killeen*, 1993; *Richmond et al.*, 2003; *Kwak and Richmond*, 2007]. Neutral winds at high latitudes are predominantly controlled by heating-induced pressure gradients (caused by absorption of solar ultraviolet irradiance, Joule heating, particle precipitation, and other heating sources), momentum transfer between ion and neutrals, inertial forces (Coriolis and centrifugal), tidal forcing from below, and internal small-scale instabilities. The time varying interplay among these drivers results in the formation of a highly complex thermospheric wind circulation with a prominent anticyclonic cell on the duskside of the magnetic pole, strong antisunward winds over the pole, and a weaker cyclonic tendency on the dawnside. Given the controlling factors, previous systematic studies have shown that the high latitude neutral wind circulation responds strongly to changes in season, solar activity, interplanetary magnetic field (IMF), and geomagnetic activity [e.g., *Hernandez and Roble*, 1976; *Babcock and Evans*, 1979; *McCormac and Smith*, 1984; *McCormac et al.*, 1985, 1987; *Killeen*, 1987; *Rees and Fuller-Rowell*, 1989; *Sica et al.*, 1989; *Aruliah et al.*, 1991a,b; *McCormac et al.*, 1991; *Aruliah et al.*, 1996; *Niciejewski et al.*, 1992; *Killeen et al.*, 1995; *Fuller-Rowell et al.*, 1996; *Emmert et al.*, 2006a, 2008; *Förster et al.*, 2008; *Wu et al.*, 2008; *Witasse et al.*, 1998]. As a consequence of the high latitude energy and momentum inputs, the thermosphere's most dynamic weather exists at high latitudes and variability is always present in thermospheric winds even during quiet geomagnetic conditions (herein called "quiet-time").

High latitude thermospheric winds have been intensively studied over the past several decades, but their large scale response to the change in seasons is still not well understood. This is due in part to historically sparse neutral wind observations, especially at high latitudes: Most previous seasonal studies based on observational data are focused on either nighttime climatology or data from individual instruments with limited spatial coverage [e.g., *Hernandez and Roble*, 1976; *Babcock and Evans*, 1979; *Aruliah et al.*, 1991a, 1996; *Emmert et al.*, 2006b]. No single observational dataset provides comprehensive space-time coverage of the high latitude wind system. Over the past two decades, geospace empirical observational databases have grown significantly. For the first time, this permits statistical analysis of daytime as well as

74 nighttime high latitude horizontal winds as a function of season, latitude, and local time. Utilizing
 75 extensive observations from ground and space-based instruments, this paper examines
 76 for the first time, the large scale seasonal response of quiet-time (defined by planetary K_p index
 77 < 3) northern high latitude (magnetic latitudes, or MLAT, above 45N) upper thermo-
 78 spheric neutral wind circulation under low to moderate solar extreme ultraviolet (EUV) irradi-
 79 ance conditions (defined by daily 10.7 cm solar radio flux ($F_{10.7}$) between 80 and 150).

80 To obtain a comprehensive seasonal understanding of the northern high latitude geospace
 81 neutral wind system, we amalgamated daytime and nighttime extensive measurements recorded
 82 by 11 ground-based (optical remote sensing) and space-based (optical remote sensing and in
 83 situ) instruments at various northern high latitudes. These instruments, their locations, data cov-
 84 erage, and citations are shown in Table 1. Out of these 11 instruments, six are ground-based
 85 narrow field Fabry-Perot interferometers (FPIs), two are ground-based wide field Scanning Doppler
 86 imaging Fabry-Perot interferometers (SDIs), and three are space-based instruments: The WIND
 87 Imaging Interferometer (WINDII) on the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS), the
 88 Gravity Field and Steady-State Ocean Circulation Explorer (GOCE) accelerometer, and the Wind
 89 and Temperature Spectrometer (WATS) on Dynamic Explorer 2 (DE2). Construction of the
 90 empirical model provides an additional opportunity to inter-compare these data sets. These in-
 91 struments operated independently of each other, and have different technical implementations,
 92 modes of operations, and data processing algorithms. As a result, these diverse datasets present
 93 different geometries, different spatial and solar coverage, and possible mutual biases. Fusion
 94 of these diverse data into an empirical climatology is thus a formidable challenge.

95 The present empirical Horizontal Wind Model (HWM) [Drob *et al.*, 2008, 2015] formu-
 96 lation based on the early works of Hedin *et al.* [1996] has some limitations at high latitudes.
 97 For example, it describes global wind patterns in geographic coordinates. Because ionospheric
 98 plasma motions are naturally organized by the geomagnetic field and ion drag is one of the
 99 primary drivers of neutral winds at high latitudes, this leads to better organization of high lat-
 100 itude neutral winds in magnetic coordinates than in geographic coordinates [Hays *et al.*, 1984;
 101 Richmond, 1995; Emmert *et al.*, 2008, 2010]. Therefore, in this study, we assimilate wind data
 102 in geomagnetic latitude and geomagnetic local time. To our knowledge, the study presented
 103 here, is the first attempt to combine multiple wind datasets to determine the quiet-time sea-
 104 sonal dependence of high latitude upper thermospheric wind patterns in geomagnetic coordi-
 105 nates. In past, Richmond *et al.* [2003] utilized magnetic coordinates to analyze the IMF depen-
 106 dence of neutral winds measured by the Wind Imaging Interferometer (WINDII) at south-
 107 ern high latitudes. Förster *et al.* [2008, 2011] studied the IMF dependence of thermospheric
 108 winds using CHAMP data in magnetic coordinates. Recently, Xiong *et al.* [2015] used mag-
 109 netic coordinates to study the seasonal dependence of global disturbance zonal winds derived
 110 from CHAMP data.

111 To obtain a complete diagnosis of the climatological high latitude wind patterns, we ex-
 112 amine the seasonal behavior of the associated large scale vorticity (vertical component) and
 113 divergence patterns of the horizontal wind components. To our knowledge, this study is also
 114 the first ever to address the seasonal dependence of high latitude thermospheric vorticity and
 115 divergence. Vorticity is the measure of shears or any curvature present in the horizontal wind
 116 flows. At high latitudes, vorticity is primarily driven by ion drag, and divergence is primar-
 117 ily associated with vertical motions induced by heating or cooling of thermospheric air [Mayr
 118 and Harris, 1978; Volland, 1979; Hays *et al.*, 1984; Thayer and Killeen, 1991, 1993; Förster
 119 *et al.*, 2011; Kwak and Richmond, 2014]. The strengths of vorticity and divergence induced
 120 by various momentum and energy sources are thus commonly used to gain insight into the strength
 121 of their key drivers. In vorticity field, vorticity is zero when either the wind field is uniform
 122 or shears reverse their direction, thus this transition region in vorticity field can be exploited
 123 to determine the spatial extent of neutral circulation. In addition, any systematic trend in di-
 124 vergence of the horizontal wind can highlight the high latitude regions where most of the heat-
 125 ing/cooling is occurring in the thermosphere.

126 In this work, for a comprehensive seasonal comparison, we have divided high latitudes
 127 into three regions: the polar latitudes (80–90N MLAT), auroral latitudes (60–80N MLAT), and
 128 middle latitudes (45–60N MLAT). This study is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the
 129 measurements from various ground and space stations and applied data quality control. Sec-
 130 tion 3 describes the methodology implemented for data assimilation in magnetic coordinates.
 131 The results of the study are presented in section 4. Sections 4.1 and 4.2 discuss the valida-
 132 tion and statistical performance of derived quiet-time climatological zonal and meridional wind
 133 fits against the observational data. Biases or discrepancies among the various datasets are also
 134 also discussed in these sections. Section 5.1 highlights the seasonal variation in quiet-time zonal
 135 and meridional winds fields. The vorticity and divergence of the wind fields, and their sea-
 136 sonal dependences, are addressed in section 5.2. Finally, conclusions are presented in section
 137 6.

138 2 Observational Data

139 The analysis considers long-term thermospheric F-region wind observations from three
 140 satellite instruments and eight ground-based optical spectrometers spanning the years 1981 to
 141 2015 during geomagnetically quiet conditions (3-hour K_p index less than 3), northern mag-
 142 netic latitudes above 45N (although global satellite data are included in our empirical model
 143 to stabilize the fits), and altitudes between 210 km and 320 km. Basic theoretical consider-
 144 ations indicate that altitudinal variations in this region will be strongly damped by the large
 145 effective viscosity [e.g., *Kohl and King*, 1967]. Observational studies by *Killeen et al.* [1982]
 146 and *Wharton et al.* [1984] using DE2 F-region neutral wind observations averaged over mul-
 147 tiple orbits show small variation in horizontal winds with increasing altitude. Further, *Emmert*
 148 *et al.* [2002] found that, in a statistical sense, there is no significant altitude variation in F-region
 149 climatological disturbance winds derived from UARS WINDII profiles. Thus, this climatolog-
 150 ical study, while technically representing height-averaged winds, should provide an accurate
 151 representation of winds anywhere between 210 and 320 km altitude.

152 Because most of the measurements were made after the strong solar maxima of cycles
 153 21 and 22, the data primarily represent low to moderate solar flux conditions [*Drob et al.*, 2008].
 154 The solar flux dependence of the high latitude winds is not well understood, but to avoid the
 155 possibility of very high or very low solar flux conditions skewing our climatological results,
 156 we included only wind observations for which the daily 10.7 cm solar radio flux ($F_{10.7}$) was
 157 between 80 and 150 solar flux units (1 sfu = 10^{-22} W m⁻² Hz⁻¹). Subsequent analysis of
 158 $F_{10.7}$ effects are left for future work. For analysis, we sorted the quiet-time data into three sea-
 159 sonal bins, with each bin covering four months of wind data: December solstice (Nov–Feb),
 160 equinox (Mar, Apr, Sep, Oct), and June solstice (May–Aug). The average $F_{10.7}$ for data in De-
 161 cember solstice, equinox, and June solstice bins are ~ 114 sfu, 115 sfu, and 106 sfu; the small
 162 differences among these averages indicate that any $F_{10.7}$ dependence in the winds will not sig-
 163 nificantly alias into the estimated seasonal dependence.

164 Table 1 and Figure 1 summarize the sampling characteristics and spatial coverage, in geo-
 165 magnetic coordinates, of the data used in our analysis. A brief description is given below.

166 2.1 Ground-based Observations

167 In recent decades, the ground-based optical remote sensing of the thermosphere using
 168 Fabry-Perot spectrometers (FPSs) for winds and temperatures have become a popular tool; sev-
 169 eral variants of FPS are currently in use (e.g., narrow field FPIs and wide field SDIs). They
 170 derive winds from Doppler shifts in the nighttime naturally occurring red line optical emis-
 171 sions (630 nm wavelength), which are generated from the dissociative recombination of O_2^+ .
 172 Typically, FPIs take measurements in 4 to 8 directions with a narrow field of view of ~ 1 de-
 173 gree, which maps to a spatial extent of 4–5 km at station zenith when projected at an altitude
 174 of 240–250 km (assumed peak volume emission altitude). On the other hand, SDIs use all-
 175 sky fore-optics coupled to a separation scanned etalon to collect optical emission profiles si-

176 multaneously from many tens of locations (typically 115) across the sky; the typical full field
 177 of view is 140 degrees. Although both SDIs and FPIs use Doppler spectroscopy of naturally
 178 occurring optical emissions from the thermosphere, there are significant differences in their
 179 operation. A detailed comparison between these two measuring techniques is provided in *Dhadly*
 180 *et al.* [2015]. The major limitation of current ground-based FPIs and SDIs is that they oper-
 181 ate only during nighttime. Thus, at high latitudes their local time coverage is much better in
 182 winter than summer.

183 We used data from the following FPIs; detailed descriptions of the instruments used in
 184 this study, including their observation mode and data reduction technique, may be found in
 185 in the cited references: Thule FPI (herein labeled TH FPI) [*Meriwether et al.*, 1988; *Killeen*
 186 *et al.*, 1995], Resolute Bay FPI (RB FPI) [*Wu et al.*, 2004, 2008], Søndre Strømfjord FPI (SS
 187 FPI) [*Meriwether et al.*, 1984; *Meriwether and Shih*, 1987; *Niciejewski et al.*, 1989; *Killeen et al.*,
 188 1995], Millstone Hill FPI (MH FPI) [*Sipler et al.*, 1991; *Buonsanto et al.*, 1992; *Fejer et al.*,
 189 2002; *Emmert et al.*, 2003], Peach Mountain FPI (PM FPI) [*Makela et al.*, 2011, 2012], and
 190 Urbana Atmospheric Observatory (UR FPI, also called the MiniME Doppler Imaging FPI) [*Makela*
 191 *et al.*, 2011, 2012]. For SDIs located at Poker Flat Research Range (PF SDI) and Toolik Lake
 192 Research Station (TL SDI), the details are presented in *Conde and Smith* [1995, 1998]; *An-*
 193 *derson et al.* [2012]; *Dhadly et al.* [2015]; *Dhadly and Conde* [2016]. Additional details for all
 194 instruments, observation modes, and wind estimation procedures used by the FPIs and SDIs
 195 are available from the CEDAR Madrigal database (<http://cedar.openmadrigal.org/>).

196 A cloud cover index (on scale 0–10, where 0 is clear and 10 is overcast) was regularly
 197 monitored by several FPI observatories; we excluded periods of substantial cloud cover (cloud
 198 cover index > 5) in our analysis. The Urbana and Peach Mountain FPIs used a different cloud
 199 cover monitoring system. These observatories use a sensor that returns the local cloud con-
 200 ditions in terms of a difference between the temperature of the sky and the ambient ground
 201 level temperature; any sensor temperature reading below -20°C indicates good viewing con-
 202 ditions. For these two observatories, we excluded any data when the cloud sensor tempera-
 203 ture was above -20°C . The details of the cloud index for each FPI can be found in the de-
 204 scription files on the CEDAR database. For SDIs, we eliminated periods of substantial cloud
 205 cover by assessing all-sky wind summary plots, all-sky temperature, and emission intensity
 206 data, as described by *Dhadly and Conde* [2016].

207 The SDI instruments located at Poker and Toolik measure upper thermospheric winds
 208 at high temporal and spatial resolution covering 60–74N MLAT. As a result, there is a dense
 209 swath of wind measurements at these latitudes. These SDIs are configured to start taking wind
 210 measurements when the Sun goes 8 degrees below horizon; therefore, there is always a pos-
 211 sibility of twilight contaminating the Doppler spectra of the first few exposures in the begin-
 212 ning of an observation cycle. For both stations, to avoid any twilight contamination in this anal-
 213 ysis, we excluded the first four exposures of each observation cycle.

214 All of the ground-based stations listed in Table 1 measure the thermospheric wind at mul-
 215 tiple locations (latitude and longitude) within their field of view. The table lists the locations
 216 of the instruments, not the locations of their observations in the thermosphere. The observa-
 217 tion locations in the thermosphere are dependent on the viewing geometry and the effective
 218 altitude of the emission layer. The peak volume emission altitude is typically assumed near
 219 240–250 km, but it changes with solar zenith angle and solar cycle. FPI and SDI techniques
 220 of thermospheric wind measurements commonly assume that the 630 nm peak volume emis-
 221 sion altitude is centered around 240–250 km and that there are no significant altitude varia-
 222 tion in horizontal wind. However, at high latitudes, the 630 nm emission layer can peak lower
 223 in altitude in the presence of auroral precipitation, whereas it can peak much higher in the pres-
 224 ence of soft or no auroral precipitation [*Sica et al.*, 1986]. So, the 630 nm emissions recorded
 225 by FPIs and SDIs comes from a broad range of F-region altitudes and in this climatology we
 226 are averaging over all those altitudes.

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2.2 Space-based Observations

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For a complete seasonal climatology of the high latitude winds, nighttime as well as daytime wind measurements are needed. For daytime coverage, we included in our analysis data from three space-based instruments: DE2 WATS, UARS WINDII, and GOCE. The magnetic latitude coverage of these data is given in Table 1 in Quasi-Dipole coordinates [Richmond, 1995; Emmert *et al.*, 2010].

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Doornbos et al. [2013, 2014] derived in situ crosswinds (i.e., the horizontal wind component perpendicular to the direction of orbital motion with respect to the atmosphere) at 10 s cadence from GOCE accelerometer observations of satellite non-gravitational forces. These forces include aerodynamic drag and lift as well as radiation pressure. Due to the fact that the GOCE mission was not designed for aeronomy purposes, the maturity level of the crosswind data is perhaps lower than the other data types described here, and in any case the data is of a different nature. The processing, detailed in *Doornbos* [2011] is based on comparing the observed drag and lift accelerations with those from a satellite aerodynamic model, and determining the wind motion that reconciles the aerodynamic model with the observed acceleration.

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The GOCE crosswind observations cover altitudes 220–280 km and years 2009–2013. The satellite was in a near-circular polar and sun-synchronous orbit with ascending equator crossings drifting between 1800 and 1936 local solar time over its lifetime. Because of its 96.7 degree inclination, GOCE’s orbit reached maximum northern geographic latitudes of up to 83.3 degrees on the sunward side of the pole. It therefore produced a dataset with limited magnetic local time coverage (mostly in the dawn and dusk sectors), as shown in Figure 1.

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UARS WINDII was a Michelson interferometer that observed airglow emissions at the Earth’s limb [Shepherd *et al.*, 1993, 2012; Emmert *et al.*, 2004]; we used version 5.11 level 2 data in this study. Most of the daytime WINDII upper thermospheric wind data was obtained at 557.7 nm (green line) wavelength; relatively fewer WINDII nighttime observations were obtained at 630.0 nm (red line), as illustrated in Figure 1. The WINDII data consist of height profiles; we averaged each profile over the altitude range 210–320 km prior to analysis. Validation of the data is described by *Gault et al.* [1996].

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WATS on DE2 was a spectrometer that measured in situ zonal neutral winds along the spacecraft track in the polar orbit [Spencer *et al.*, 1981, 1982; Killeen and Roble, 1988; Killeen *et al.*, 1988]. WATS wind measurements cover altitudes from 200 to 880 km. Because this study is focused on neutral wind dynamics at F-region altitudes, we selected data between 210 and 320 km. Most of the WATS measurements were taken during the solar maximum period and above 300 km altitude, so that a significant fraction of the WATS data was excluded by our solar flux and altitude selection criteria.

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2.3 Spatio-temporal Coverage

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Some of the instruments listed in Table 1 (the SDIs and GOCE) produced spatially and temporally dense datasets. Over multiple trails, we found that the SDI and GOCE data regions are so oversampled that they completely dominate the statistical wind fits over the other stations. To prevent those datasets from dominating our statistical wind model, we de-weighted them by taking a random subset of those datasets. For the Poker Flat and Toolik Lake SDIs, we settled on randomly selected only 2.5% of these data for the December solstice and equinox fits. During June solstice, Poker Flat provided the only ground-based observations at or above 60N magnetic latitude; for this season, we settled on selecting 10% of the data in the fit. As with the SDI data, we de-weighted spatially and temporally dense GOCE dataset by taking a random 3.3% subset in the December solstice and equinox seasonal bins, and 10% in June solstice. Even though the amount of GOCE data was significantly reduced, a sufficiently large number of data points (as shown in Figure 1 and Table 1) was still present to allow a meaningful statistical analysis of winds in the dawn and dusk sectors. Importantly, different sam-

277 ple populations and different sample population sizes were determined to not result in statis-
278 tically different scientific results.

279 In the present study, we included wind data from ground-based stations that are above
280 45N MLAT. To stabilize the model fits, we included global wind data from all the three satel-
281 lites included in this study. The entries in the “data points” column of Table 1 reflect the to-
282 tal number of data points used in this study. Figure 1 shows the spatial distribution of the se-
283 lected data, as a function of magnetic latitude and local time and for each seasonal bin; it sug-
284 gests that in winter and equinox, all magnetic latitudes and local times are sufficiently cover-
285 ed. On the other hand, in the summer season, the daytime sector has full data coverage, but
286 there are substantial gaps in the nighttime sector. Daytime winds are primarily represented by
287 the satellite observations and nighttime winds by ground-based FPIs, SDIs, and WINDII red
288 line measurements.

289 3 Methodology for Model Development

290 Vector spherical harmonics (VSH) are appropriate basis functions [e.g., *Morse and Fes-*
291 *hbach, 1953; Swarztrauber, 1993; Drob et al., 2008; Emmert et al., 2008*] to empirically model
292 average quiet-time wind patterns for each seasonal bin. A VSH basis permits the continuous
293 representation of a vector field on the surface of a sphere; the interpretation of the azimuthal
294 degeneracy at the poles is discussed in *Emmert et al. [2008]*. VSH functions also facilitate the
295 assimilation of single-component wind data (i.e., the projection of the wind vector along only
296 one direction) such as from GOCE and DE2 WATS [e.g., *Emmert et al., 2010; Drob et al., 2008,*
297 *2015*]. Although this study is focused on the seasonal climatology of upper thermospheric winds
298 only for magnetic latitudes above 45N, in our analysis, we have included global GOCE, DE2
299 WATS, and WINDII data to stabilize the global VSH fits.

300 The thermosphere is commingled with a weakly ionized plasma with an embedded mag-
301 netic field. The geomagnetic field naturally organizes ionospheric plasma motions, and ion drag
302 is one of the primary drivers of neutral winds at high latitudes. As a result, high-latitude neu-
303 tral winds are better organized in magnetic latitude and magnetic local time (MLT) than in ge-
304 ographic latitude and local time [*Richmond et al., 2003; Emmert et al., 2008, 2010*]. Accord-
305 ingly, we constructed our model in Quasi-Dipole latitude and magnetic local time [*Richmond,*
306 *1995; Emmert et al., 2010*]. This choice of coordinates alleviates the need for longitude or uni-
307 versal time (UT) terms in the model. Any UT dependence in the wind data is averaged out
308 in our model, but the UT dependence of high-latitude winds is much smaller in magnetic co-
309 ordinates than in geographic coordinates [*Emmert et al., 2010*].

310 Based on physics-based model results and interpretation of individual datasets [e.g., *Meri-*
311 *wether, 1983; Killeen et al., 1986; Niciejewski et al., 1996; Conde and Smith, 1998; Emmert*
312 *et al., 2006b*], the characteristic features of the high latitude neutral wind circulation include
313 sharp wind reversals at the equatorward edge of a thermospheric circulation cell on the dusk-
314 side, strong antisunward winds over the polar cap, and a weaker tendency toward a dawnside
315 circulation cell. The sharp wind reversals are associated with the interplay between ion drag
316 and dayside solar heating pressure gradient forces on the fluid [*McCormac et al., 1987*]; this
317 produces strong latitudinal gradients in the zonal winds at the outer boundary of the auroral
318 oval centered between 65N and 75N MLAT during quiet geomagnetic conditions. These strong
319 gradients are a persistent feature of the neutral wind circulation at high latitude and are known
320 for generating the thermosphere’s most dynamic weather. The available data have sufficient
321 high latitude data coverage in magnetic latitude and magnetic local time to accurately model
322 these features with a VSH expansion at order 17 in magnetic latitude ($=N$) and wavenumber
323 5 in magnetic local time ($=M$). In terms of global gridpoint models, order 17 corresponds to
324 a spatial resolution of ~ 7 degrees in latitude [*Laprise, 1992*] and zonal wavenumber 5 cor-
325 responds to a temporal resolution of ~ 2.4 hours in magnetic local time.

326 For each seasonal bin, we estimated the VSH coefficients via ordinary least squares. For
 327 quality control, any data point more than 3 standard deviations away from the initial fit was
 328 excluded from a subsequent and final fit. The models for each season were then evaluated as
 329 a function of magnetic latitude and local time on a regular grid and at the locations of the ob-
 330 servations. Further, the VSH coefficients were used to calculate the divergence and vorticity
 331 in the winds (discussed in section 5.2).

332 4 Model Validation and Discussion

333 The model output and binned averages of the wind data used in its estimation are com-
 334 pared in this section to validate the modeled average variations in the winds. Two main cri-
 335 teria for model validation are 1) whether it adequately represents the salient features of the
 336 available data (following the criteria of *Emmert et al.* [2006a, section 3.1]) without overfitting
 337 or underfitting them, and 2) the model robustness in regions of limited data availability. In ad-
 338 dition, because the datasets were collected from diverse instruments, we investigated for any
 339 biases that may exist among them. These validation results as a function of magnetic local time
 340 and magnetic latitude are detailed in sections 4.1 and 4.2. After assuring the satisfactory be-
 341 havior of the modeled wind climatology within the limits of its resolution, the main scientific
 342 results of this study are discussed in sections 5.

343 4.1 Magnetic Local Time Dependence

344 To investigate the seasonal behavior of neutral winds as a function of magnetic local time,
 345 in the first step we sorted the quiet-time climatological output and observational data into the
 346 three seasonal bins (December Solstice, Equinox, and June Solstice), 5 degree MLAT and 1
 347 hour MLT bins, and computed averages for each bin. Any data point more than 3 standard de-
 348 viations away from the mean and any bin containing less than 5 data points were discarded.
 349 The bin-averaged winds are plotted as a function of MLT in Figures 2 and 3. The quiet-time
 350 climatological model was evaluated at the locations of observations, and then binned and av-
 351 eraged in the same way as the data (blue curve). Figures 2 and 3 also show model cuts along
 352 MLT at a specific MLAT.

353 Figures 2 and 3 show the binned-average winds from WINDII, WATS, FPIs (except Ur-
 354 bana and Peach Mountain), and SDIs. For the FPI data, wind components along the geographic
 355 cardinal directions are measured at different times. For these data, we first averaged the ob-
 356 served geographic wind components and then projected the average wind vectors along mag-
 357 netic directions. For the Urbana (UR) and Peach Mountain (PM) FPI data, line-of-sight (LOS)
 358 winds along the geographic cardinal directions are measured; derived vector winds are not re-
 359 ported in the data. So for UR FPI and PM FPI, we used a different approach discussed later
 360 in this section.

361 There is a consistent progression of average winds from one bin to the next. The quiet-
 362 time winds from ground-based instruments and WINDII are in agreement with each other with
 363 few systematic discrepancies (discussed below). This suggests that overall there are no ma-
 364 jor biases among these datasets; they can be reasonably combined without correction. A few
 365 of the datasets, however, exhibit some regional differences with the fits and other data sets.
 366 In addition, the figures illustrate that the morphology of the binned-average high-latitude zonal
 367 and meridional winds is generally matched by the model (thus no underfitting).

368 WATS data is one exception here. For the datasets shown in Figures 2 and 3, both wind
 369 components (zonal and meridional) are available in geographic coordinates at common times,
 370 permitting computation of the wind components in magnetic coordinates. On the other hand,
 371 WATS only measured geographic zonal winds. Therefore, it is not possible to transform WATS
 372 winds to geomagnetic coordinates for bin-averaging purposes, although the data were assim-
 373 ilated into the model by projecting the vector basis functions along the geographic zonal di-
 374 rection [*Emmert et al.*, 2008]. The WATS data depicted in Figure 2 are longitudinally aver-

aged geographic zonal winds binned in the same way as the other instruments. Thus, the comparison of WATS with the other data is not ideal. Although WATS zonal winds are in good agreement with all other datasets at the middle and lower auroral latitudes ($< 65\text{N MLAT}$), above 65N MLAT marked differences are present between them. The discrepancies between WATS and other datasets increase with increasing latitude; this suggests that these apparent discrepancies may be associated with the use of geographic coordinates for WATS zonal winds, given that the difference between geographic and geomagnetic zonal directions also increases with increasing latitude. Altitude and solar activity may also be contributing to the differences: Most of the WATS data included in our data assimilation lie near the upper limit (150 sfu) of the $F_{10.7}$ range (the average $F_{10.7}$ for WATS data is 135.6 sfu , as shown in Table 1), and near the upper limit of the altitude range.

Discrepancies between WINDII green line binned averages and modeled climatology occur above 75N MLAT on the dayside, where the model winds are significantly more eastward ($\sim 80\text{ ms}^{-1}$) and northward ($\sim 80\text{ ms}^{-1}$ in the $75\text{--}80\text{ MLAT}$ bin and higher) than WINDII between 1200 and 1800 MLT . In this region (MLAT–MLT sector), a large quantity of GOCE cross-track wind data is present. Recently, Conde [2015] and Kärräng [2015] found that the GOCE cross-track wind observations are 1.2 to 2 times larger than ground-based measurements in both northern and southern high latitudes. Thus, this discrepancy may be skewing the fit away from the WINDII data. A detailed comparison between GOCE, WINDII, FPI, and SDI measurements is discussed in the next section. A discrepancy also exists between Søndrestrom FPI (SS FPI) and the Alaskan SDIs (Poker Flat and Toolik Lake) zonal winds during the winter and equinox seasons: The Søndrestrom winds are up to 100 ms^{-1} more westward than the Alaskan SDI winds. Although, the reasons for this apparent discrepancy are not immediately clear, the possible reason can be the strength of magnetic field, the tilt of the magnetic field line, or widely separated magnetic longitudes of these stations.

In the $60\text{--}65\text{N MLAT}$ bin, the Poker Flat SDI meridional winds tend to be slightly more equatorward than the Toolik Lake SDI winds (Figure 3). Furthermore, in the $55\text{--}60\text{N MLAT}$ bin, the Millstone Hill (MH) FPI winds tend to be more equatorward than PF SDI. Finally, the WINDII red line meridional winds tend to be more equatorward than other datasets in December solstice. The reasons for these differences are not immediately clear; the average $F_{10.7}$ for all these datasets is similar (see Table 1), so different solar cycle sampling is not a likely cause.

The Millstone Hill, Urbana (UR), and Peach Mountain (PM) FPIs are at similar latitudes in a region of strong latitudinal gradients of the meridional winds [Emmert *et al.*, 2003]. To investigate the latitudinal gradients in more detail, we averaged north-looking and south-looking meridional winds (in the geographic direction) from these three stations, obtaining a total of six MLT profiles around middle latitudes. The results are shown in Figure 4, which indicates that, overall the modeled climatology is in a good agreement with the binned averages from these three middle latitude stations. The MLT dependencies of the geographic meridional wind are very similar: weaker and poleward in the dusk and dawn sectors, strongest and equatorward just after magnetic midnight. Strong latitudinal gradients are evident around 56N MLAT , but weaken with decreasing latitude. These features are consistent among the three seasonal bins, but the gradients appear to increase in strength from winter to summer. For MH FPI at northward observation location, the model climatology underestimated peak latitudinal gradient by $\sim 20\text{ ms}^{-1}$ in winter and $\sim 30\text{ ms}^{-1}$ in equinox. Figure 4 also shows geographic zonal winds from the three stations (east-looking and west-looking measurements are averaged together). The zonal winds are eastward on the duskside and westward on the dawnside, with the eastward-to-westward reversal occurring after magnetic midnight in winter and equinox, and around magnetic midnight in the summer season.

As can be seen in Figure 2, zonal winds exhibit a mainly semi-diurnal variation (4 extrema) at auroral latitudes, and a mainly diurnal variation (2 extrema) at lower latitudes. Near the pole, the wind components take on a diurnal character as a result of the azimuthal degeneracy. This diurnal behavior of zonal and meridional winds near the pole (as shown in Fig-

ures 2 and 3) is in agreement with *Wu et al.* [2008]. Zonal winds are stronger at polar latitudes than at the lower latitudes considered in this study. The semi-diurnal behavior of zonal winds at auroral latitudes is likely a consequence of the balance between ion drag and heating-driven winds. The meridional winds (Figure 3) exhibit a diurnal character at all latitudes (middle to polar).

Overall, at all the latitudes considered in this study, meridional winds are predominantly equatorward at nighttime (1800–0600MLT) and poleward during daytime (0600–1800 MLT). Their peak amplitude decreases with decreasing magnetic latitude. The strongest meridional winds occur in the polar cap (this is in agreement with *Killeen et al.* [1991]) and near midnight and noon, as expected from strong antisunward flows over the polar cap region, where ion drag and solar heating induced pressure gradients work in the same direction [*Killeen and Roble*, 1984; *Aruliah et al.*, 1996; *Deng and Ridley*, 2006]. They are strongest in the summer season with an average speed of $\sim 320 \text{ ms}^{-1}$.

4.2 Magnetic Latitude Dependence

Figures 5 and 6 show binned averages as a function of magnetic latitude (2 degree bins), for successive 2 hour magnetic local time bins. Averages and estimated uncertainties were computed as described in section 4.1, as were the superimposed model results. The morphology of the binned average high-latitude zonal and meridional winds is generally well matched by the model (exceptions are discussed below); this indicates that the model resolution is sufficient to capture the salient features in the data.

An interesting feature in the high latitude zonal winds is the presence of sharp latitudinal gradients on the duskside, peaking near 65N and 80N MLAT, with the westward extremum occurring in between. The modeled climatology is underestimating these strong auroral zone westward winds in the equinox and summer season that exist (based on WINDII green line data) for example in the 1400–2000 MLT bins (the reason for this discrepancy discussed in the following paragraph). The meridional wind averages indicate good agreement in latitude dependence among the ground-based FPIs and SDIs. In contrast, the WINDII red line meridional winds in winter, 1600–2400 MLT, 50–65N MLAT tend to be more southward than the ground-based data. A similar meridional wind discrepancy between the WINDII red line and other datasets is present in the December solstice 0400–0800 MLT sector at middle and auroral latitudes. The behavior of TL SDI meridional winds in the 1400–1600 MLT equinox bin is not consistent with WINDII green line and modeled winds; the TL SDI meridional winds in this case may be adversely affected by twilight conditions.

The discrepancies between the WATS zonal winds above 70N MLAT and other data, and between the WINDII red line data and ground-based FPI data, were discussed in section 4.1. Although the WINDII green line data follow the model closely at lower latitudes, above 75N MLAT there are deviations from the model on the dayside apparent in Figures 5 and 6, especially during the equinox and summer seasons. On the dayside (between 0800 and 1600 MLT) above 75N MLAT, the only other contributing dataset is GOCE. WINDII green line data overlap with dense GOCE measurements as shown in Figure 1. The GOCE accelerometer (GOCE ACC) measured only cross-track winds, so it was not possible to include GOCE data in Figures 1–6. To investigate whether the GOCE data are the source of this discrepancy between WINDII green line and modeled wind, for each season we binned the data from each instrument in 2 degree MLAT bins and successive 1 hour MLT bins. The average vector winds from each bin were used to compute the average wind component for each instrument along the average GOCE cross-track direction. The corresponding modeled cross-track winds were also computed and superimposed. The results are shown in Figure 7. The average GOCE cross-track unit vector, oriented with magnetic north at the top of the page, is shown in the rightmost column of Figure 7. Similarly, Figure 8 shows the calculated cross-track winds for all the instruments and model as a function of magnetic local time (hourly) for successive 5 degree MLAT bins above 60N MLAT. The GOCE cross-track wind data have limited local time

479 coverage (mostly covering the dusk and dawn sector as shown in Figure 1), so only bins with
 480 GOCE data are shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8. In these figures (7 and 8), we restricted the
 481 GOCE data to only below 88N MLAT and between 0600 and 1900 MLT to avoid confusion
 482 among unit vector components near the pole.

483 Due to the near sun-synchronous dusk-dawn orbit, positive GOCE cross-track winds are
 484 generally in the anti-sunward direction, shifted slightly (up to 1.5 hours) in the post-midnight
 485 direction. In terms of zonal and meridional components, cross-track winds approximately rep-
 486 resent eastward winds on the duskside, westward winds on the dawnside, and poleward winds
 487 near noon MLT. The average GOCE unit vector direction illustrates that the GOCE cross-track
 488 winds in the dusk and dawn sectors are virtually zonal and slowly turns into meridional around
 489 noon.

490 As shown in Figures 7 and 8, WINDII, SDI, and FPI measurements are generally con-
 491 sistent with each other (except WINDII red line between 0600 and 1200 MLT in winter). The
 492 largest discrepancies between GOCE and other datasets exist on the duskside; they increase
 493 with increasing latitude. On the other hand, the agreement between GOCE and other data sets
 494 is much better on the dawnside. Overall, GOCE cross-track winds on the duskside are more
 495 positive than the winds measured by other stations (Figure 7). GOCE cross-track winds on the
 496 duskside (16–19 MLT region) are 89 ms^{-1} , 73 ms^{-1} , and 87 ms^{-1} stronger (positive) on the
 497 average than WINDII green line cross-track winds in winter, equinox, and summer, respec-
 498 tively. Despite this offset, the GOCE data clearly shows the signature of the wind reversal in
 499 the duskside circulation cell at around 75N MLAT in Figure 7.

500 The modeled cross-track winds are in better agreement with ground-based (FPI and SDI)
 501 and WINDII data in December solstice and equinox, whereas they are in good agreement with
 502 the GOCE data in June solstice. This is the result of including a larger GOCE data fraction
 503 in the model fits for June solstice (10%) compared to December solstice (3.3%) and equinox
 504 (3.3%), combined with the scarcity of ground-based high-latitude data in summer. Figure 8
 505 shows that in the 1600–2000 MLT sector, the GOCE data are skewing the fit away from the
 506 WINDII data (especially in the summer). The fitted cross-track winds are more positive (east-
 507 ward) than WINDII green line data and this result reflects in Figures 2 and 5. In the 75–85
 508 MLAT and 1200–1600 MLT region in equinox and summer, the model is fitting GOCE data
 509 better than the WINDII green line data (Figure 8) and as a result the modeled cross-track winds
 510 are more positive than WINDII. Because the GOCE winds are virtually close to meridional
 511 at these latitudes and local times, (as shown by the average direction of the unit vector), they
 512 contribute strongly towards the poleward component of the modeled wind at these latitudes
 513 and local times, which explains the observed discrepancy between the WINDII green line and
 514 modeled meridional winds (shown in Figures 3 and 6) at 75–85 MLAT and 1200–1600 MLT
 515 in equinox and summer. Figures 7 and 8 illustrate significant differences in the polar cap sta-
 516 tions (TH FPI and RB FPI) and GOCE cross-track winds.

517 *Liu et al.* [2016] studied the seasonal variation of quiet time thermospheric winds below
 518 50N magnetic latitude using GOCE data and found that HWM14 underestimates the eastward
 519 winds around dusk by $\sim 20 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ compared to GOCE. In the current study, as discussed above,
 520 we found discrepancies between GOCE and other datasets. On the duskside, GOCE winds are
 521 more eastward (apparently around middle latitudes) compared to all other datasets as shown
 522 in Figures 7 and 8. This suggests that such GOCE discrepancies may be present at lower lat-
 523 itudes as well and may explain the low-latitude differences between GOCE and HWM14 noted
 524 by *Liu et al.* [2016].

525 Possible causes of error in the GOCE wind data are 1) calibration errors in the accelerom-
 526 eter data, 2) errors in the radiation pressure model, used to reduce the accelerometer measure-
 527 ments to aerodynamic drag and lift accelerations, and 3) errors in the GOCE aerodynamic model
 528 parameters that influence the lift over drag ratio. None of these error sources would likely re-
 529 sult in crosswind errors on the duskside only. The relative contributions of the first two error
 530 sources are reduced when the aerodynamic acceleration signal increases, with lower altitude

531 or higher drag. Yet, no significant systematic changes to the wind observations are observed
 532 over the lifetime of the mission, which started at higher altitudes and low solar activity, and
 533 ended at lower altitudes and higher solar activity. So the most likely error source is the aero-
 534 dynamic modelling of GOCE, which might include influences due to geometry modelling er-
 535 rors and uncertainties in the gas-surface interaction parameters. This is currently undergoing
 536 detailed investigation.

537 Finally, the discrepancy between GOCE and the other data might be a result of the dif-
 538 ferent nature of the observations. The GOCE observations are instantaneous and well-localized
 539 “in-situ” measurements, while the FPI, SDI and UARS WINDII observations represent wind
 540 conditions over a certain height range of emissions and during an observation time interval
 541 of several minutes (line-of-sight integrated measurement). Another reason for GOCE discrep-
 542 ancy might be associated with the intense ionospheric variations that results in a very dynamic
 543 drag environment [Ince and Pagiatakis, 2016]. In general, such variations should disappear in
 544 the binning and averaging process, but perhaps there is a poorly understood aspect of the wind
 545 distribution at play here.

546 **5 Results and Discussion**

547 This section investigates the large scale seasonal behavior of the modeled average winds
 548 as a function of magnetic latitude and local time. The seasonal variation in calculated vortic-
 549 ity and divergence of the modeled horizontal wind field is also discussed here.

550 **5.1 Seasonal Dependence**

551 Figure 9 shows the average F-region assimilated neutral vector winds for the winter, sum-
 552 mer, and equinox seasons (as seen by a space-based observer located some distance above the
 553 geomagnetic north pole). Background colors represent the strength of horizontal neutral winds.
 554 Visual inspection of Figure 9 illustrates the well-known characteristic features of high latitude
 555 thermospheric wind circulation; for example, a strong and large duskside circulation cell, a
 556 weaker tendency towards a dawnside circulation cell, sharp latitudinal gradients due to the wind
 557 reversals that exist in the duskside auroral zone, and strong antisunward winds in the polar cap.
 558 In all the seasons, the mean horizontal neutral wind field is dominated by rotational flow. The
 559 most visible effect of season on the neutral wind circulation shown in Figure 9 is a progres-
 560 sive intensification of wind patterns from December solstice to equinox to June solstice.

561 During the summer season, the polar geospace environment (geomagnetic polar cap and
 562 auroral latitudes) receives continuous solar illumination, which results in generally higher iono-
 563 spheric plasma density in summer than in winter, except at certain UTs [Sojka *et al.*, 1982].
 564 In the summer season, the ionospheric plasma is dominated by locally generated plasma. Au-
 565 roral energetic particle precipitation also enhances the local plasma density and ionospheric
 566 conductivity [Kwak and Richmond, 2007]. Liou *et al.* [2001] investigated the seasonal depen-
 567 dence of auroral precipitation and showed that nighttime auroral precipitation is stronger in
 568 the winter, and daytime auroral precipitation is stronger in the summer; Lee and Shepherd [2007]
 569 found the precipitating energy flux to increase with increasing solar zenith angle from 40 to
 570 160 degree. Ridley [2007] suggested that at auroral latitudes, the conductance associated with
 571 auroral energetic particle precipitation (auroral conductance) dominates on the nightside over
 572 the conductance associated with ionization caused by solar radiation (solar driven conductance).
 573 Also, due to the nature of plasma convection trajectories, the plasma produced by solar ion-
 574 ization on the dayside is transported to the nightside [Fuller-Rowell *et al.*, 1988]. This means
 575 there is always enough plasma, at least around auroral latitudes, to drive nightside thermospheric
 576 circulation via ion-neutral coupling (see Figure 1 of Kwak and Richmond [2007]). This is likely
 577 the reason for the visible ion drag effect at auroral latitudes on the nightside in the winter
 578 season despite the low solar produced plasma. In addition, the seasonal interplay between the au-
 579 roral conductance, solar driven conductance, and plasma transported from the dayside to night-
 580 side is possibly the cause of differences in the wind circulation patterns shown in Figure 9.

581 A summary of direct seasonal comparisons between the winter solstice, equinox, and sum-
 582 mer solstice winds as a function of magnetic local time at various latitudes is presented in Fig-
 583 ure 10. Figure 11 illustrates seasonal maps of high latitude zonal and meridional winds as a
 584 function of magnetic latitude and magnetic local time. Together, they (Figures 9–11) completely
 585 illustrate the seasonal changes in high latitude thermospheric wind behavior. On average, winds
 586 are strongest in summer and weakest in winter. Antisunward winds in the polar cap show strong
 587 seasonal dependence; their magnitude increases from winter to summer. In the polar cap, al-
 588 though both ion drag and solar heating induced pressure gradients produced by dayside heat-
 589 ing work in the same direction (antisunward), antisunward winds are driven primarily by the
 590 solar pressure gradients; the ion drag forcing on the neutral winds maximizes in the sunward
 591 ion drag on the duskside and dawnside [Killeen and Roble, 1984]. The neutral wind thermal
 592 forcing associated with solar heating changes with the change in seasons due to the movement
 593 of the solar terminator with seasons. The seasonal dependence of the thermal forcing may there-
 594 fore be responsible for the seasonal behavior of polar cap antisunward winds, but it not pos-
 595 sible to tell from the wind observations alone the relative contributions of ion drag and ther-
 596 mal forcing.

597 As shown in Figures 9–11, at all latitudes, zonal winds are generally strongest between
 598 0000 and 1500 MLT in the summer and weakest in the winter. A similar trend is present in
 599 zonal winds between 2000 and 2400 MLT at and above auroral latitudes (MLAT > 60N). In
 600 contrast, between 1800 and 2400 MLT below auroral latitudes, winter zonal winds are strongest
 601 and summer zonal winds are weakest. Even though there are some offsets among the mod-
 602 eled winds and constituent datasets, the individual datasets support the seasonal dependences
 603 discussed above. These results also agree with the climatological study by Emmert *et al.* [2006b].

604 On the duskside at the equatorward boundary of the auroral oval, the momentum trans-
 605 ferred to neutrals by ions via ion drag is largely balanced by the dayside solar heating induced
 606 pressure gradient forces [Killeen and Roble, 1986]. Ion drag on the duskside works in the same
 607 sense as the Coriolis force, which combines with ion drag to counteract the pressure gradi-
 608 ents. The interplay between the ion drag driven westward flows and heating induced pressure
 609 gradient driven antisunward flows result in a shear boundary in the auroral zonal winds on the
 610 duskside [McCormac *et al.*, 1987; Dhadly *et al.*, 2015], as shown in Figures 9–11. The shear
 611 boundary moves to lower latitudes with increasing magnetic local solar time in all three sea-
 612 sons. It appears at earlier MLTs in summer and equinox compared to winter, whereas it dis-
 613 appears later in winter than summer (as shown in Figure 9). The strength of zonal winds chan-
 614 neling through the auroral zone around 70 MLAT between 1800 and 2400 MLT is strongest
 615 in the summer season. This wind channel formation at auroral latitudes is primarily the con-
 616 sequence of auroral precipitation that usually enhances the local plasma density at auroral lat-
 617 itudes, strengthening the momentum transfer between ions and neutrals [Killeen *et al.*, 1991;
 618 Deng and Ridley, 2006]. Although there are some discrepancies between the WINDII green
 619 line and modeled winds in this region due to the influence of GOCE cross-track data as dis-
 620 cussed in the previous section, WINDII green line data support this seasonal trend. In the June
 621 solstice and equinox cases, the WINDII data indicate stronger sunward flows than modeled
 622 on the equatorward side of the dusk cell (Figure 5).

623 On the dawnside, the cross-flow deflection of the Coriolis force is opposite to the sense
 624 of curvature of the dawn-side ion-drag cell; this limits the ability of neutrals to become en-
 625 trained in the dawn circulation cell [Fuller-Rowell, 1984; Killeen and Roble, 1984; Deng and
 626 Ridley, 2006] as shown in Figure 9. The appearance of a small eastward component in auro-
 627 ral (and even lower latitude) zonal winds after magnetic midnight between 0000 and 0500 MLT
 628 (as shown in Figures 9–11) is likely due to the influence (via ion drag) of the dawnside plasma
 629 circulation cell; this slight cyclonic tendency in neutral winds diminishes from winter to sum-
 630 mer. This suggests that the combination of Coriolis force and pressure gradients in the sum-
 631 mer may be dominating ion drag on the dawnside.

632 Figure 10 illustrates that the sign of the zonal and meridional winds as a function of MLT
 633 has a seasonal variation. On the nightside, in general, zonal winds turn westward progressively

634 earlier from summer to winter. In contrast, there is no such clear trend in the time of west-
 635 to-east reversals on the day side. At auroral latitudes (above 65N MLAT), summer zonal winds
 636 remain westward at all local times. Similar directional changes are present in the meridional
 637 winds at polar and middle latitudes: Meridional winds turn equatorward progressively earlier
 638 from summer to winter on the duskside, but there is no clear seasonal dependence of the equatorward-
 639 to-poleward reversal time on the dawnside. Figure 4 and Figure 10 illustrate that the zonal winds
 640 at auroral and middle latitudes become more westward from winter to summer at all local times.
 641 Similarly, the meridional winds at middle latitudes become more equatorward from winter to
 642 summer at all local times.

643 5.2 Vorticity and Divergence

644 A horizontal wind field may be decomposed into the vertical component of vorticity and
 645 the horizontal divergence (divergence of the horizontal wind components). Vertical vorticity
 646 is the measure of shears or any curvature present in the horizontal wind flows, whereas diver-
 647 gence of the horizontal wind is usually associated with vertical motions induced by heating
 648 or cooling of thermospheric air. For simplicity, here vertical vorticity is referred to as vortic-
 649 ity and horizontal divergence as divergence. At high latitudes, thermospheric vorticity is pri-
 650 marily driven by ion drag and divergence by heating induced pressure gradients [e.g., *Mayr*
 651 *and Harris*, 1978; *Volland*, 1979; *Hays et al.*, 1984; *Thayer and Killeen*, 1991, 1993; *Förster*
 652 *et al.*, 2011; *Kwak and Richmond*, 2014]. An advantage of using VSH representation is that
 653 the vorticity and divergence of the average wind field can be computed from the coefficients
 654 of the empirical quiet-time model [e.g., *Swarztrauber*, 1993]. Figure 12 and Figure 13 illus-
 655 trate the resulting seasonal dependence of vorticity and divergence patterns. Positive vortic-
 656 ity represents cyclonic rotation (anticlockwise in the Northern Hemisphere) and negative vortic-
 657 ity represents anticyclonic rotation (clockwise in the Northern Hemisphere). Positive diver-
 658 gence represents divergence and negative values represent convergence. Calculated minimum
 659 and maximum values of divergence and vorticity for each season are printed at the bottom of
 660 each season panel.

661 Figure 12 clearly illustrates the formation of the well-known high latitude thermospheric
 662 duskside anticyclonic and dawnside cyclonic vorticity cells and their seasonal dependence. In
 663 the winter and equinox seasons, the high latitude thermospheric circulation splits into two vor-
 664 tices: anticyclonic in the duskside and cyclonic in the dawnside. In comparison, in summer
 665 the dawnside vortex is less well defined. Unfortunately, in the summer season, there are vir-
 666 tually no data from any data station in 0100–0500 MLT sector above 56N MLAT to define
 667 the vorticity. The general behavior of these vorticity maps is in agreement with the patterns
 668 deduced from DE2 discussed in *Thayer and Killeen* [1991]. In the winter and equinox season,
 669 dusk and dawnside vorticity patterns are virtually aligned with the noon-midnight meridian.
 670 In each season, the maximum anticyclonic vorticity occurs in the dusk sector, whereas the max-
 671 imum cyclonic vorticity occurs in the dawn sector. Vorticity is zero when either the wind field
 672 is uniform or shears reverse their direction. Thus, the strong latitudinal vorticity gradients on
 673 the duskside at auroral latitudes coincide with the wind shears seen in Figure 9. The contour
 674 of zero vorticity in the dusk sector stays above 60N MLAT and indicates only a slight change
 675 in location with the change in season; this suggests that the latitudinal extent of the duskside
 676 circulation cell does not depend strongly on season. However, vorticity in the dusk sector in-
 677 creases dramatically from winter to summer, with peak anticyclonic magnitude of 218×10^{-6}
 678 s^{-1} in winter and $647 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$ in summer. The dawnside vorticity vortex changes shape
 679 with the change in season; its latitudinal extent increases slightly from winter to equinox. There
 680 is no dramatic variation in the peak cyclonic vorticity with the change in season; it varies only
 681 between $136 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$ (equinox) and $168 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$ (winter). The averages of absolute
 682 vorticity over the entire region shown in Figure 12 in winter, equinox, and summer season are
 683 $54 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$, $58 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$, and $108 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$ respectively. This indicates overall in-
 684 crease in vorticity from winter to summer.

685 Ion-neutral momentum coupling is the key source for driving high latitude thermospheric
 686 vorticity [Kwak and Richmond, 2014]. The increase in vorticity from winter to summer sug-
 687 gests an increase in momentum exchange between ions and neutrals and hence increasing ionosphere-
 688 thermosphere coupling from winter to summer, most likely associated with higher summer plasma
 689 densities that result from increased photoionization.

690 Figure 13 illustrates the changes in divergence with the change in season and formation
 691 of multiple small islands. Divergence fields in all the three seasons are more complex than their
 692 corresponding vorticity fields. The seasonal divergence comparison indicates that the strongest
 693 divergences occur primarily in and above auroral latitudes (MLAT > 65N), in regions which
 694 are most likely associated with the high latitude local heating sources such as Joule heating
 695 and heating due to particle precipitation. The average of absolute divergences over the entire
 696 region shown in Figure 13 in winter, equinox, and summer season are $37 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $60 \times$
 697 10^{-6} s^{-1} , and $52 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ respectively. Divergence is thus largest in equinox and small-
 698 est in winter.

699 There is a consistent region of strong divergence just after magnetic local noon (1200–
 700 1400 MLT) between 70 and 80N MLAT. This divergence feature is present in all three sea-
 701 sons and is strongest in equinox. The location of this divergence region is in the vicinity of
 702 magnetospheric cusp region and matches closely with the locations of the quiet-time thermo-
 703 spheric neutral mass density enhancement in the polar region observed by CHAMP ($\sim 400 \text{ km}$)
 704 [Liu *et al.*, 2005]. Thermospheric density enhancement in the geomagnetic cusp is a persis-
 705 tent feature of the thermospheric neutral density field and was observed virtually during all
 706 the CHAMP cusp passes [Lühr *et al.*, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2005]. Local divergence near the mass
 707 density anomaly is probably required to produce the anomaly. This divergence feature thus may
 708 be a signature of localized cusp heating.

709 In each season discussed here, divergence is weaker than vorticity. This result is also
 710 consistent with other large scale climatological studies [e.g., Thayer and Killeen, 1991; Kwak
 711 and Richmond, 2014] and local climatologies at auroral latitudes [Dhadly and Conde, 2016].
 712 The thermosphere is convectively stable because of its positive temperature gradient and hence
 713 opposes vertical mass transport [Dhadly and Conde, 2016] that would lead to horizontal di-
 714 vergence. Gravity waves can generate substantial but localized and short lived divergences that
 715 are possibly larger than the vorticity. Because they are localized, short lived, traveling, and do
 716 not appear repeatedly at any predictable location, so they would average out in large-scale cli-
 717 matological studies like this.

718 6 Conclusions

719 This study provided the first empirical determination of the large scale seasonal response
 720 of quiet-time ($K_p < 3$ and $80 \leq F_{10.7} \leq 150$) high latitude F-region thermospheric hori-
 721 zontal neutral winds in magnetic coordinates. Extensive daytime and nighttime observations
 722 of upper thermospheric winds recorded by 11 ground-based (optical remote sensing) and space-
 723 based (optical remote sensing and in situ) instruments at a variety of northern high latitudes
 724 were combined. They provided enough seasonal, latitudinal, and local time coverage at all the
 725 northern high latitudes to accurately develop a new empirical description of climatological quiet-
 726 time winds as a function of season, latitude, and local time in magnetic coordinates.

727 The comparison among the various datasets in this effort indicated that WINDII, SDI,
 728 and FPI observations are generally consistent with each other. Some minor systematic offsets
 729 exist among these datasets, mainly in the meridional direction; however, the magnetic local
 730 time and latitude dependences are in very good agreement. Larger discrepancies exist between
 731 GOCE winds and the other datasets; these discrepancies are strongest on the duskside, where
 732 the GOCE cross-track winds are $\sim 70\text{--}90 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ more positive (left to right relative to the GOCE
 733 direction of motion) than the other datasets. The discrepancies between the modeled wind and
 734 WINDII green line are stronger at the locations where GOCE data is present. In general, the

735 empirical model represents the average of the datasets, but is slightly skewed toward GOCE
736 when there are few other data available.

737 Even though some discrepancies exist between various datasets, the overall morphology
738 of the high-latitude winds is consistent among the datasets and the empirical model of the data
739 (in geomagnetic coordinates). The assimilated winds verify several well-known characteris-
740 tic features of high latitude thermospheric circulation: a strong and large duskside anticyclonic
741 circulation cell, sharp latitudinal gradients (shears) due to the wind reversals that exist in the
742 auroral zone, strong antisunward winds in the polar cap, and a weaker tendency toward a dawn-
743 side cyclonic circulation cell.

744 The large scale seasonal dependence of high-latitude wind patterns, which until now has
745 received little attention, is quite pronounced. The mean neutral wind circulation is strongest
746 in the summer season and weakest in the winter season. The magnetic local time dependence
747 of the zonal wind component shows a mainly semi-diurnal character (4 extrema) at auroral lat-
748 itudes, and a mainly diurnal variation (2 extrema) at lower latitudes. In contrast, the merid-
749 ional winds predominantly exhibit a diurnal character at all latitudes considered in this study.
750 Near the pole, both wind components take on a purely diurnal character as a result of the az-
751 imuthal degeneracy in the region of uniform antisunward flow. At auroral latitudes, zonal winds
752 form a channel of strong westward flows on the duskside. The strength of zonal winds chan-
753 neling through the auroral zone on the duskside is strongest in the summer season. This wind
754 channel formation at auroral latitudes is primarily the consequence of auroral precipitation that
755 usually enhances the local plasma density and strengthens the momentum transfer between ions
756 and neutrals. The occurrence of eastward winds in auroral (and lower) latitude zonal winds
757 between 0200 and 0500 MLT is likely due to the influence (via ion drag) of the dawnside plasma
758 circulation cell. This slight cyclonic tendency in the winds that appears between 0200 and 0500
759 MLT diminishes from winter to summer.

760 Local time evolution of the duskside shears shows that, in all the seasons, the shear bound-
761 ary moves to lower latitudes with increasing magnetic local solar time. The shear boundary
762 appears at earlier local times in summer and equinox compared to winter, whereas it disap-
763 pears later in winter than summer. Also, the direction of zonal winds as a function of MLT
764 shows seasonal variation. On the night side, in general, zonal winds turn westward progres-
765 sively earlier from summer to winter. In contrast, there is no such clear trend in the time of
766 west-to-east reversals on the day side. At auroral latitudes (above 65N MLAT), summer time
767 zonal winds remain westward at all local times. Zonal winds at auroral and middle latitudes
768 become more westward from winter to summer at all local times. Overall, the westward zonal
769 winds at auroral and middle latitude are strongest in summer and weakest in winter.

770 Furthermore, meridional winds are predominantly equatorward at nighttime (1800–0600
771 MLT) and poleward during daytime (0600–1800 MLT). Their peak amplitude decreases with
772 decreasing magnetic latitude. Meridional winds turn equatorward earlier in summer than win-
773 ter on the duskside, but there is no clear seasonal dependence of the equatorward-to-poleward
774 reversal time on the dawnside. The meridional winds at middle latitudes become more equa-
775 torward from winter to summer at all local times. At middle latitude sites, the nighttime merid-
776 ional wind latitudinal gradient increases from winter to summer.

777 Vorticity and divergence present in the northern high latitude thermospheric winds also
778 show seasonal dependences. Overall, the vorticity and divergence increase from winter to sum-
779 mer, suggesting an increase in ionosphere-thermosphere coupling from winter to summer. The
780 peak anticyclonic vorticity (duskside cell) increases more dramatically from winter to sum-
781 mer than the peak cyclonic vorticity (dawnside cell). The latitudinal extent of the duskside cir-
782 culation cell does not depend strongly on season.

783 In all the seasons, the strongest divergences occur primarily in and above auroral lati-
784 tudes (MLAT > 65N), in regions which are most likely associated with the high latitude lo-
785 cal heating sources such as Joule heating and heating due to particle precipitation. There is

786 a consistent region of strong divergence just after magnetic local noon (1200–1400 MLT) be-
 787 tween 70 and 80N MLAT, which is near the magnetic cusp; this feature is strongest during
 788 equinox. The location of this divergence region is close to observed neutral mass density en-
 789 hancements at ~ 400 km altitude, suggesting that it may be related to localized cusp heating.
 790 In all the seasons, divergence is weaker than vorticity.

791 In a future paper, we will examine the dependence of the extensive high-latitude wind
 792 measurements on the configuration of the interplanetary magnetic field. HWM has rudimen-
 793 tary low order representation of these effects. This work will be folded into future versions
 794 of HWM to improve its performance at high latitudes.

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 799 are available at NASA OMNIWeb data explorer (<http://omniweb.gsfc.nasa.gov/form/dx1.html>).
 800 Poker Flat and Toolik Lake SDI data are available at http://sdi_server.gi.alaska.edu/sdiweb/index.asp.
 801 WINDII Level 2 data are available from Gordon Shepherd (gordon@yorku.ca). GOCE data
 802 can be obtained from <https://earth.esa.int/web/guest/missions/esa-operational-missions/goce> /goce-
 803 %20thermospheric-data. DE2 WATS data are available at <ftp://spdf.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/data/de/de2>
 804 /combined_plasma_neutrals_ua/ua_atmoweb/. All other data sets can be obtained from the Madri-
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814 **Figure 2.** Average quiet-time magnetic zonal winds computed from ground-based FPIs (MH=Millstone
 815 Hill, SS=Sondrestom, RB=Resolute Bay, TH=Thule), SDIs (PF=Poker Flat, TL=Toolik Lake), WINDII, and
 816 DE2 WATS data as a function of season and magnetic local time (MLT, hourly), for successive 5 degree mag-
 817 netic latitude (MLAT) bins. The blue curve shows average model winds from climatological data assimilation
 818 at the locations of observations. The black curve shows model winds at the middle of each magnetic latitude
 819 bin. Observed and model winds are hourly averaged. Each column and row represents seasonally and latitudi-
 820 nally binned average winds, respectively. Error bars denote the estimated 1σ uncertainty of the mean. The
 821 estimated uncertainty of the mean for each bin was calculated by dividing standard deviation by the square
 822 root of the number of days in the sample [Emmert et al., 2002, 2006a]. The wind components are in magnetic
 823 directions, except for WATS zonal winds, which are longitudinally averaged geographic zonal winds. Data
 824 from various stations are labeled in colors and symbols (presented at the top of the figure).

825 **Figure 3.** Same as Figure 2, but in this case showing meridional winds.

826 **Figure 4.** Average quiet-time geographic northward (top) and eastward (bottom) winds from Millstone Hill
 827 (MH), Peach Mountain (PM), and Urbana (UR) FPIs compared with modeled wind for December solstice
 828 (left), equinox (middle), and June solstice (right). The northward wind data are sorted into measurements
 829 north and south of the observing station. The average magnetic latitude of the observations are annotated on
 830 the right. Error bars indicate the estimated 1σ uncertainty of the mean. Data from various stations are labeled
 831 in colors and symbols shown at the top of the figure.

832 **Figure 5.** Average quiet-time magnetic zonal winds computed from FPIs, SDIs, WINDII, and DE2 WATS
 833 data as a function of season and magnetic latitude (MLAT, 2 degree bin), for successive 2 hour magnetic local
 834 time (MLT) bins. The blue curve shows average model winds from climatological data assimilation at the
 835 locations of observations. The black curve shows model winds at the middle of each local time bin. Each
 836 column and row represents seasonally and local time binned averaged winds, respectively. Error bars denote
 837 the estimated uncertainty of the mean (spread of 1σ around the mean). The wind components are in magnetic
 838 directions, except for WATS zonal winds, which are longitudinally averaged geographic zonal winds. Data
 839 from various stations are labeled in colors and symbols (presented at the top of the figure).

840 **Figure 6.** Same as Figure 5, but in this case showing meridional winds.

841 **Figure 7.** Average quiet-time cross-track wind observed by GOCE and computed from FPIs, SDIs, and
 842 WINDII data as a function of season and magnetic latitude (MLAT, 2 degree bin), for successive 1 hour mag-
 843 netic local time (MLT) bins around the dusk and dawn time sectors. Black circular symbols show modeled
 844 average cross-track wind along the GOCE orbit. The rightmost column shows the direction of the average
 845 GOCE cross-track unit vector as function of magnetic latitude. Magnetic north (east) is at the top (right) of
 846 the page.

847 **Figure 8.** Average quiet-time cross-track wind observed by GOCE and computed from FPIs, SDIs, and
 848 WINDII data as a function of season and magnetic local time (MLT, hourly), for successive 5 degree magnetic
 849 latitude (MLAT) bins above 60N MLAT. Black circular symbols show modeled average cross-track wind
 850 along the GOCE orbit. The rightmost column shows the direction of the GOCE cross-track unit vector as a
 851 function of MLT. Magnetic north (east) is at the top (right) of the page.

852 **Figure 9.** Quiet-time average F-region assimilated neutral vector winds as a function of magnetic latitude
853 and local time at northern high latitudes (looking down on the geomagnetic north pole). Results are shown for
854 December solstice, equinox, and June solstice. The background color represents the magnitude of wind speed.
855 The same wind vector scaling (vector scale shown on the top) was used for each vector wind field.

856 **Figure 10.** Interseasonal comparison of quiet-time modeled average neutral zonal (left) and meridional
857 (right) winds as a function of magnetic local solar time at various northern high latitudes (annotated on the
858 right).

859 **Figure 11.** Quiet-time variation in assimilated zonal (top row) and meridional wind fields (bottom row), as
860 a function of magnetic local time and magnetic latitude. Results are shown for December solstice, equinox,
861 and June solstice. Wind contours are separated by 30 ms^{-1} .

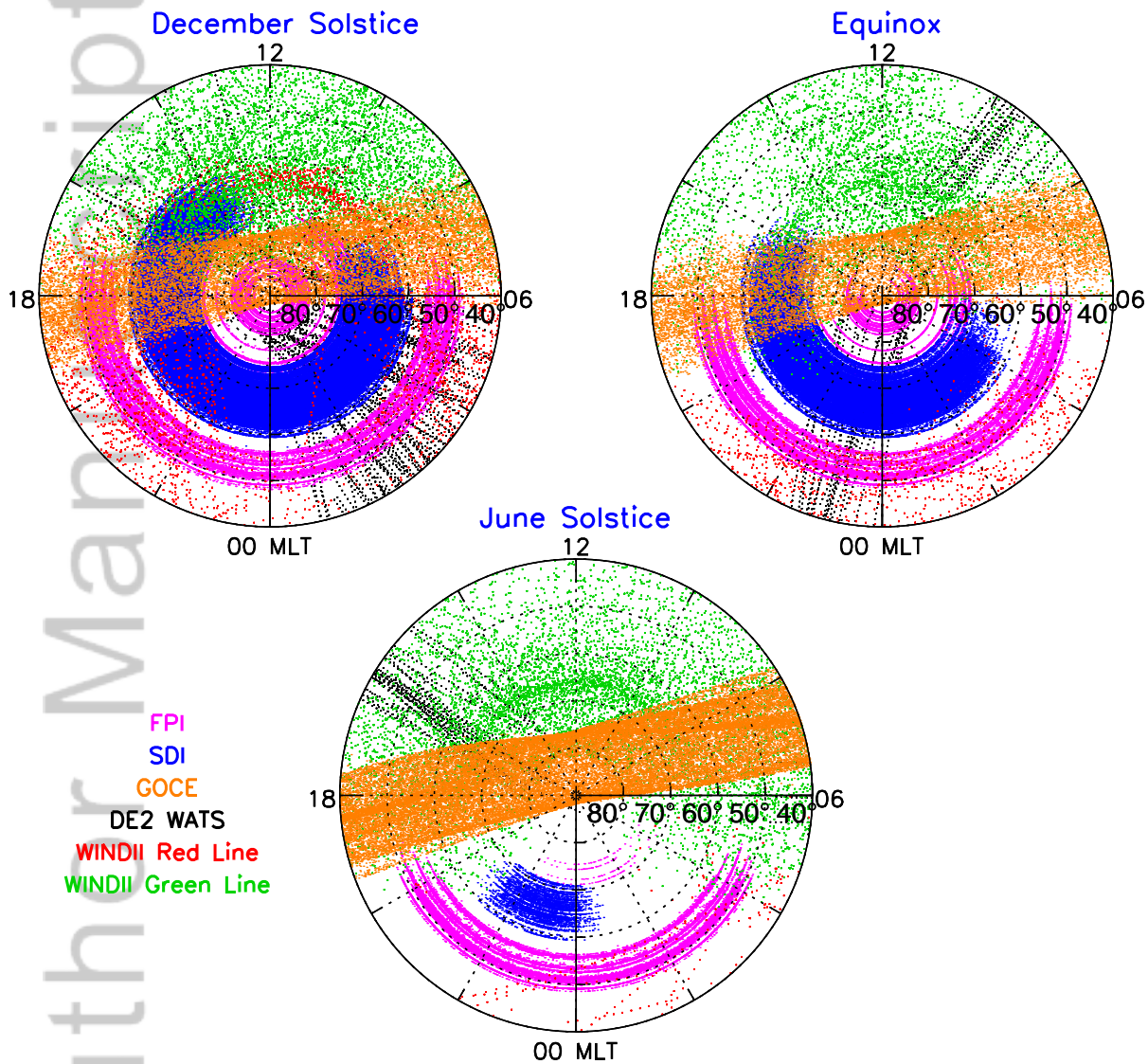
862 **Figure 12.** Vorticity of the empirically modeled quiet-time high latitude vector wind fields as a function of
863 magnetic latitude and magnetic local solar time.

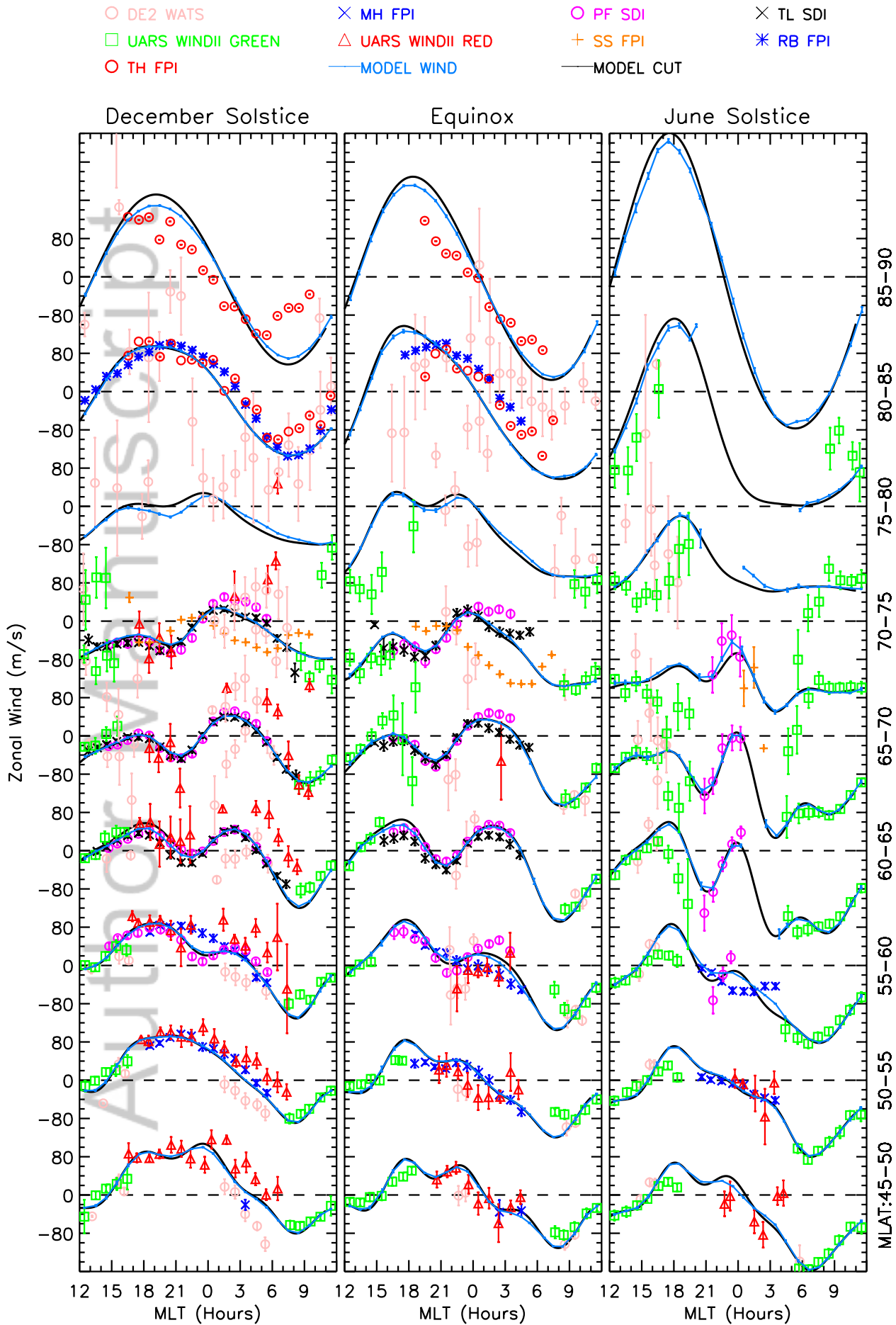
864 **Figure 13.** Same as Figure 12, but in this case showing divergence fields.

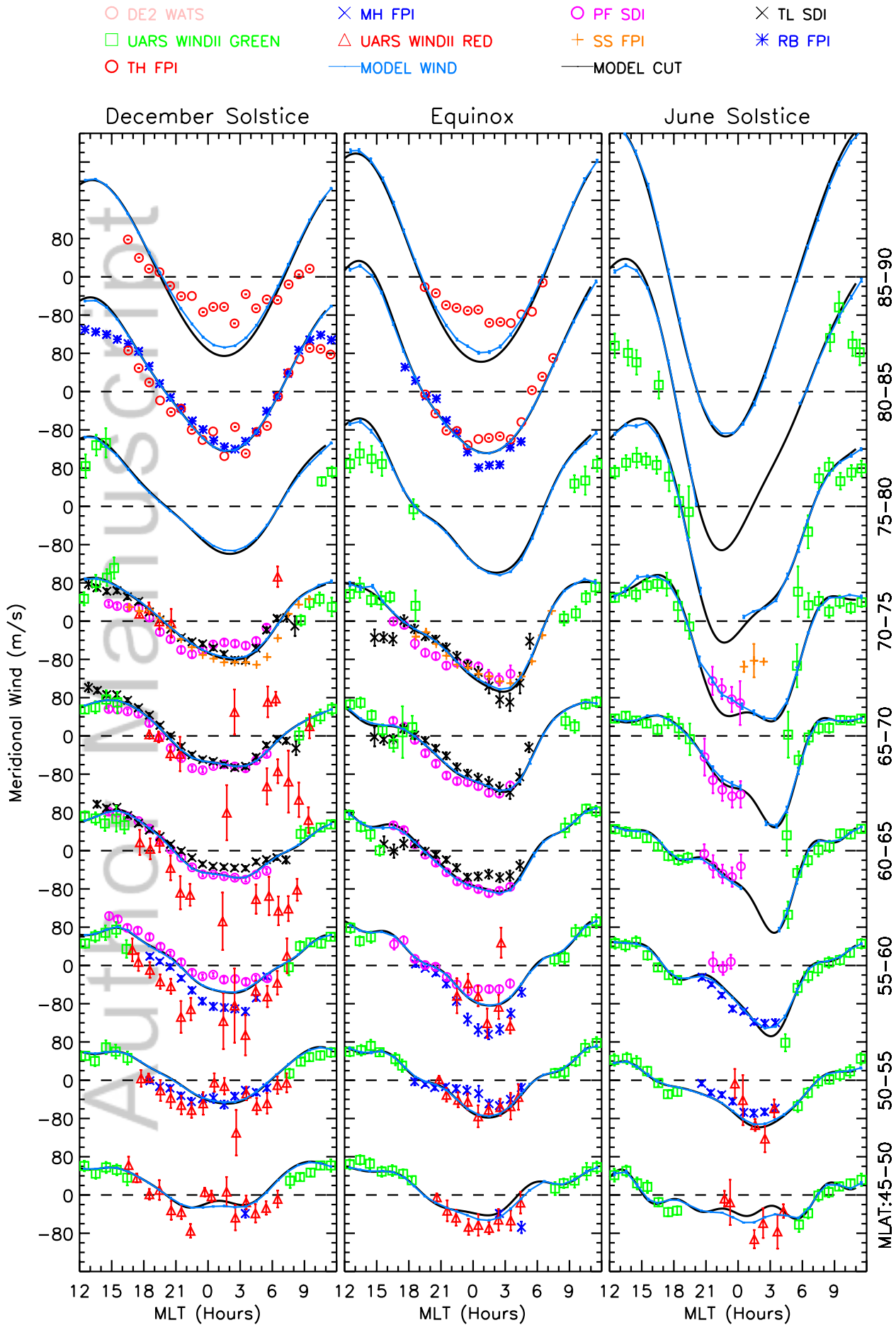
Table 1. Quiet time observational wind data sets used. Data only above 45N magnetic latitude are shown.

Station	Magnetic Latitude	Years of Data	Height (km)	Local Time	Days	Data Points	$\langle F_{10.7} \rangle$ (sfu)	References
Fabry-Perot Interferometers (ground-based)								
Thule	84.6N	1987	250	night	57	4949	99.50	Killeen et al. [1995]
Resolute Bay	83.4N	2004-2007	250	night	216	8176	98.70	Wu et al. [2004]
Søndre Strømfjord	73.3N	1983-1984, 1987-1995, 2002-2004	250	night	566	26708	109.3	Killeen et al. [1995]
Millstone Hill	53.1N	1990-2002	250	night	533	13267	116.3	Sipler et al. [1991]
Peach Mountain	52.1N	2012-2015	250	night	507	32968	120.2	Makela et al. [2011]
Urbana	52.1N	2007-2008, 2012-2015	250	night	648	53621	119.5	Makela et al. [2011]
Scanning Doppler Imaging Fabry-Perot Interferometers (ground-based)								
Toolik Lake	68.3N	2012-2014	250	night	198	123801	120.3	Conde and Smith [1995]
Poker Flat	65.2N	2010-2012	250	night	303	114933	114.9	Conde and Smith [1995]
Space-based Instruments								
DE2 WATS	89.5N- 89.8S	1981-1983	210-320	both	55	4781	135.6	Spencer et al. [1981]
WINDII 557.7 nm	81.6N- 88.0S	1991-1997	210-320	day	198	16582	112.2	Shepherd et al. [1993]
WINDII 630.0 nm	80.1N- 86.0S	1991-1997	210-320	night	77	3402	103.0	Shepherd et al. [1993]
GOCE	90.0N- 89.8S	2009-2012	253-295	twilight	571	51203	104.3	Doornbos et al. [2014]

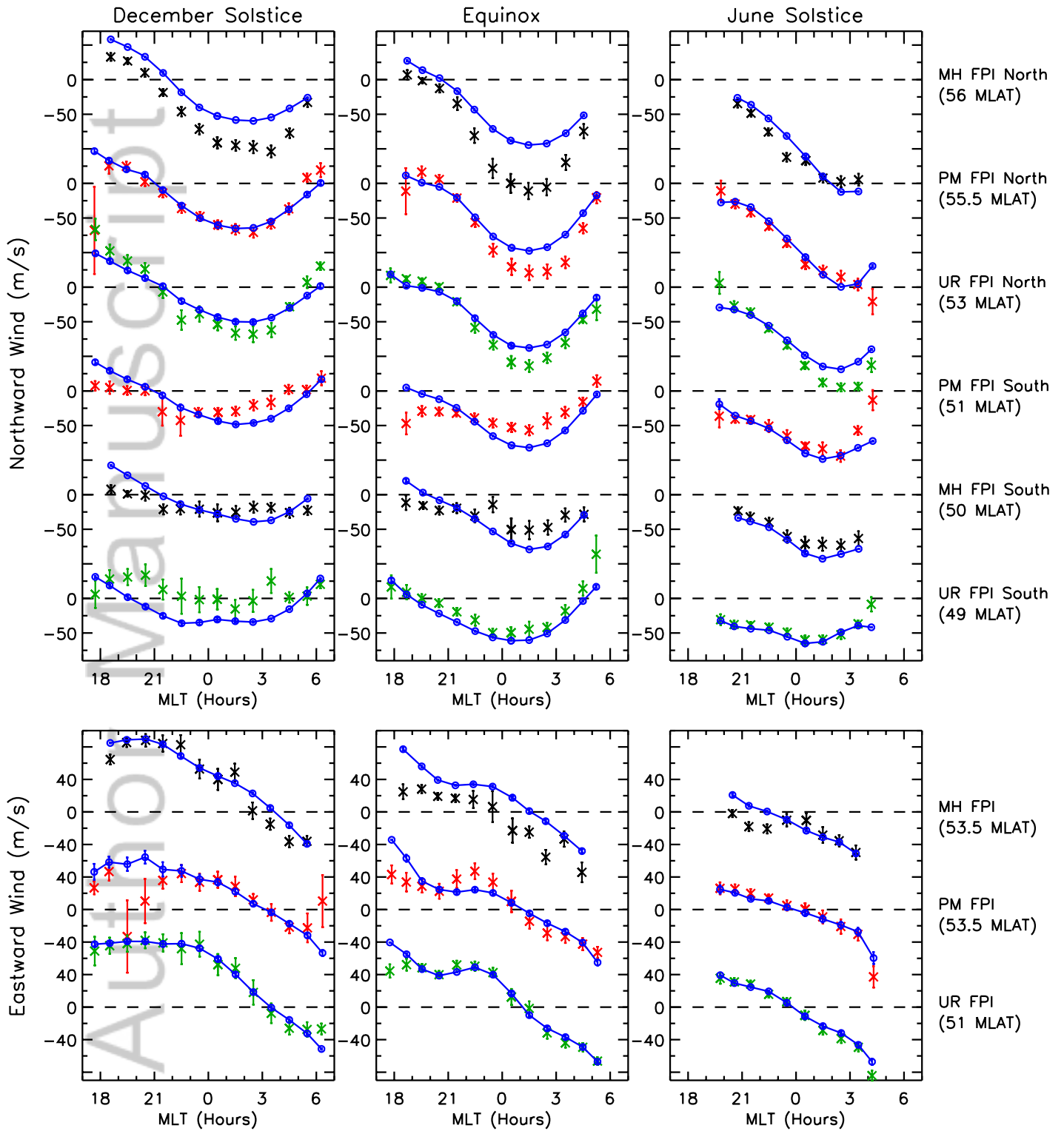
Seasonal Data Distribution In Magnetic Coordinates

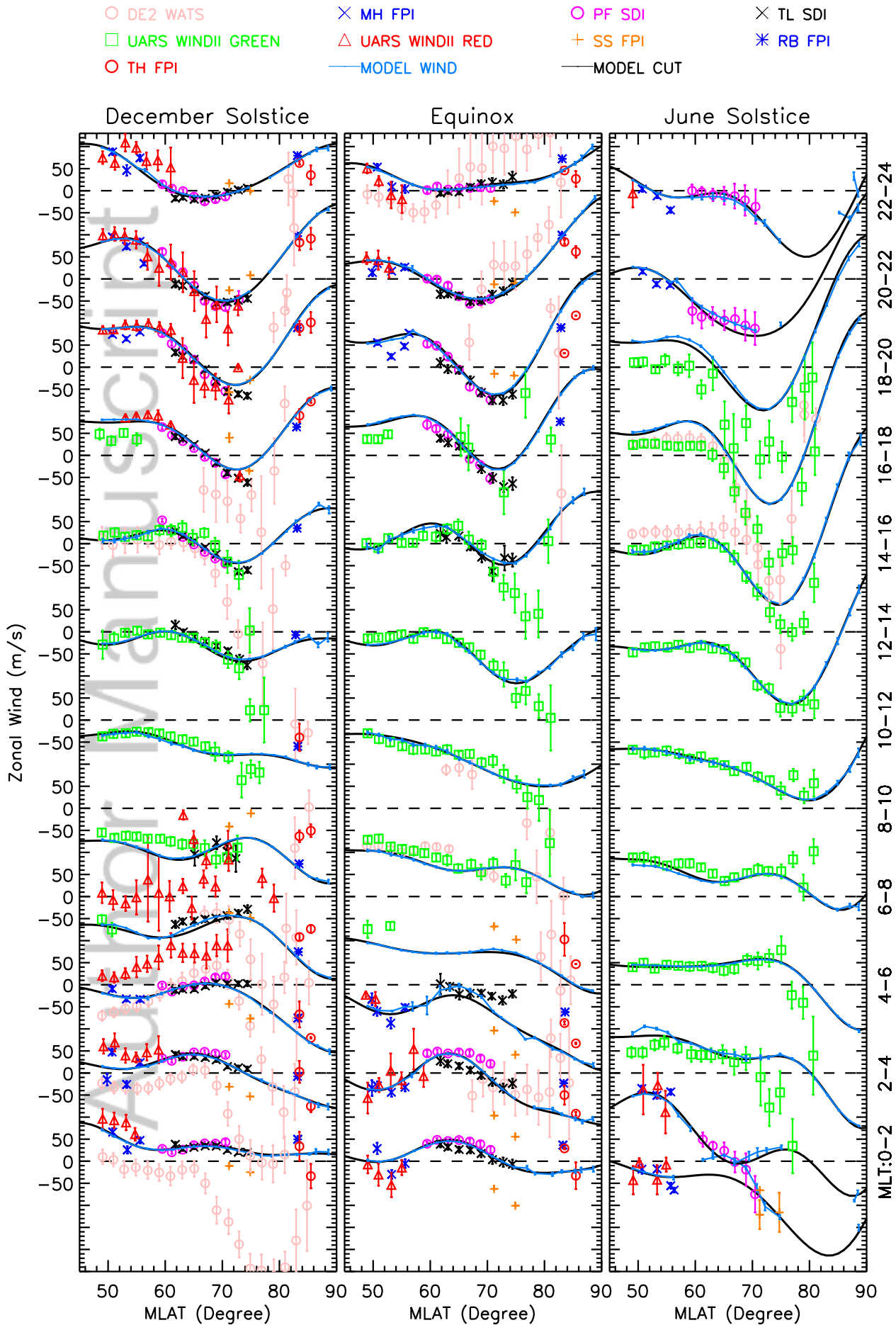


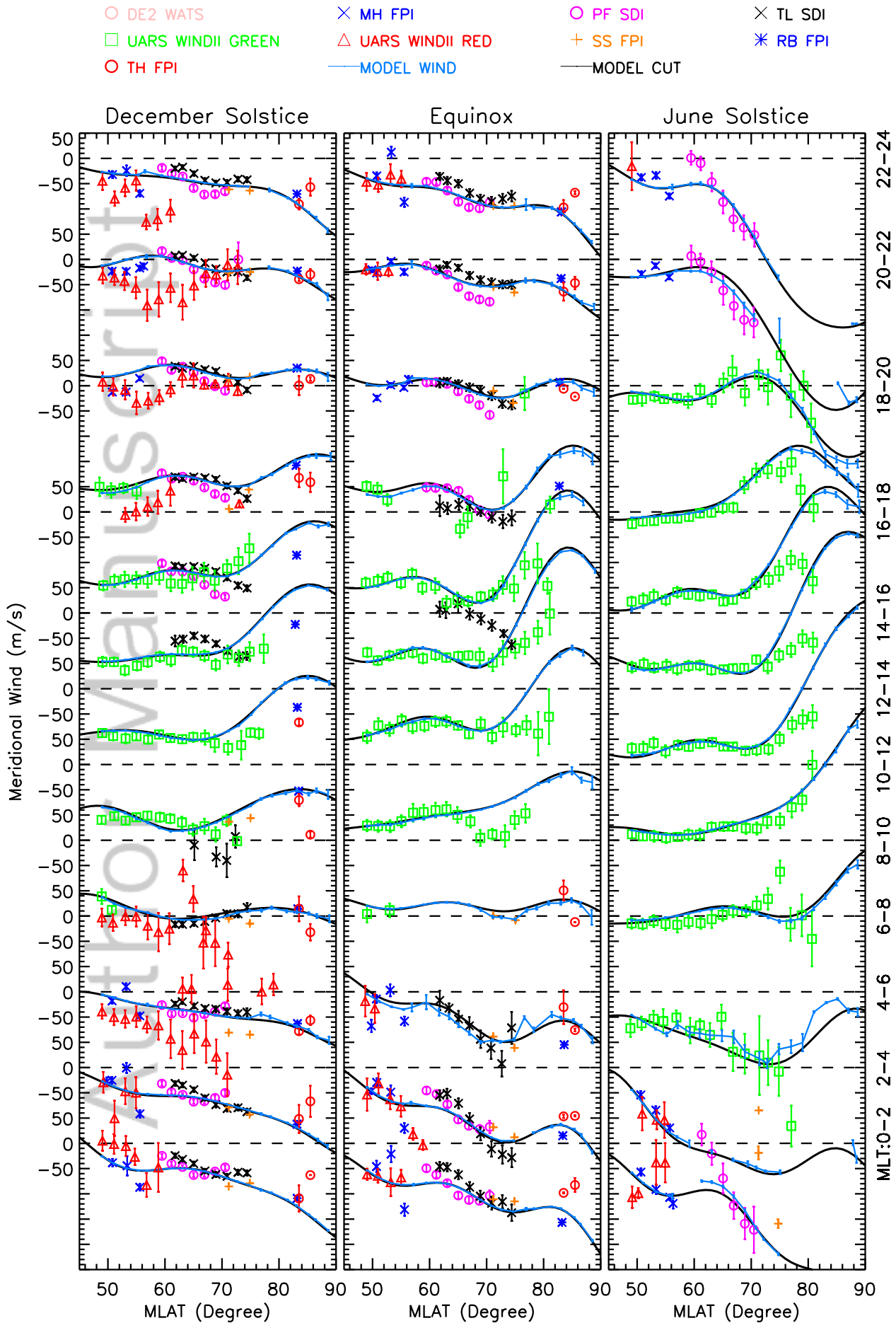


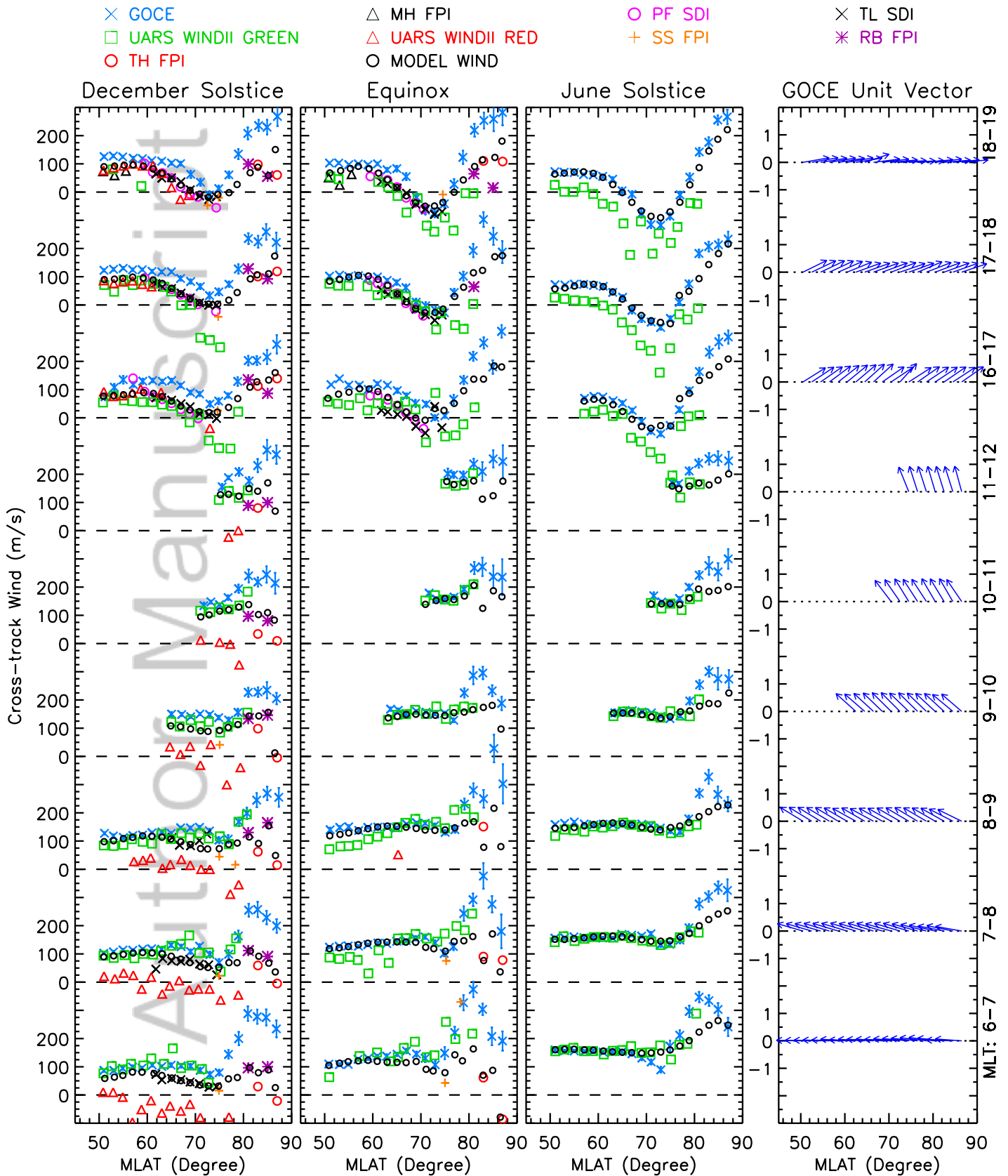


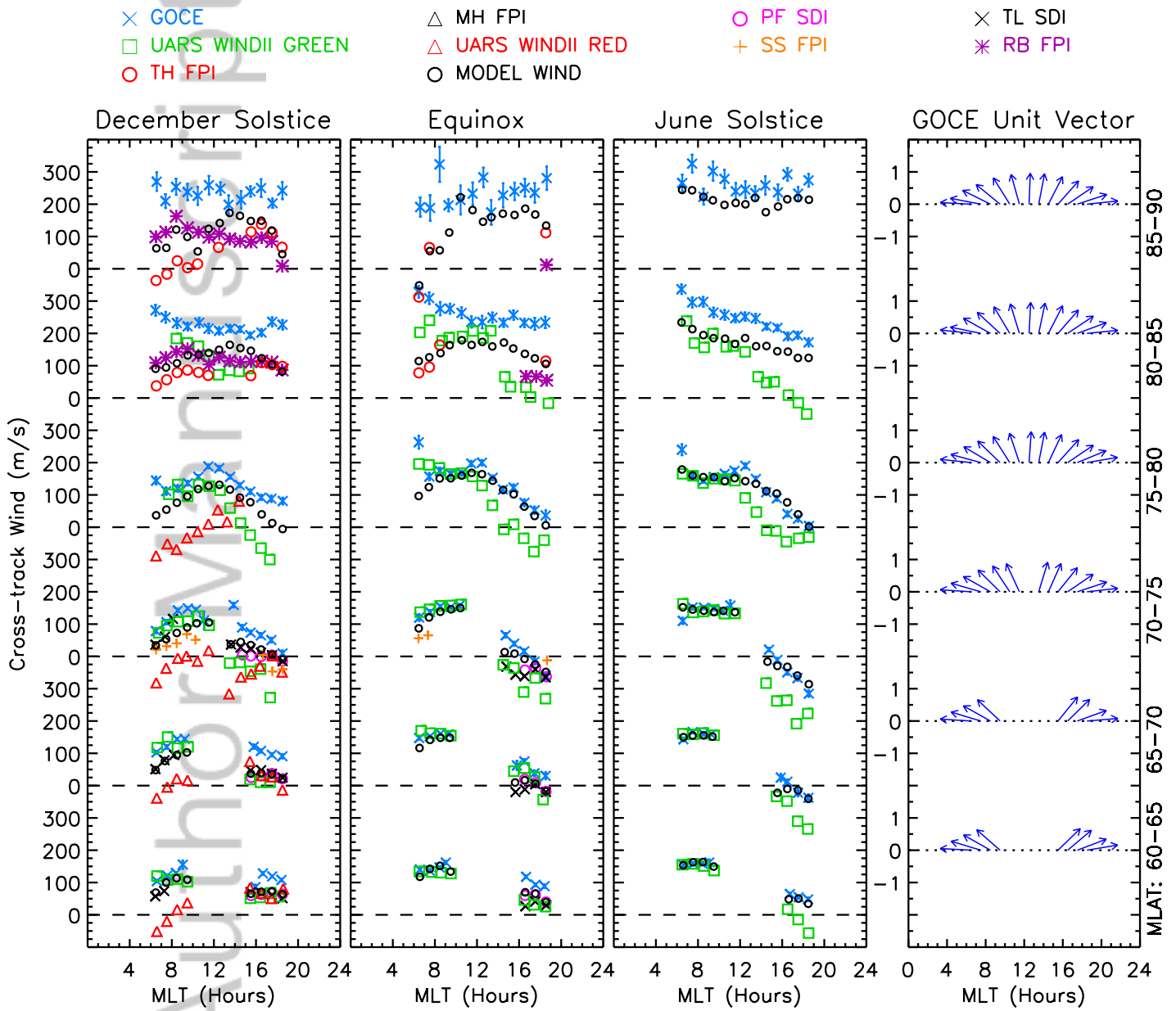
-x-MH FPI Data -x-PM FPI Data -x-UR FPI Data -o-Modeled Wind



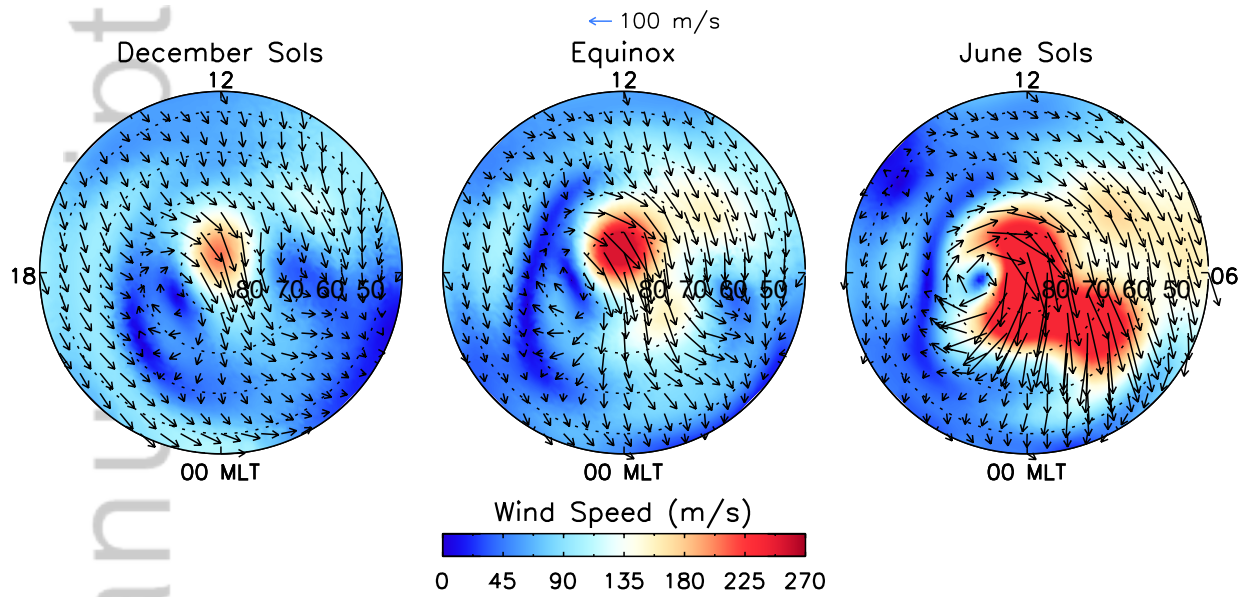








Quiet-time Modeled Neutral Winds In Magnetic Coordinates



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