

FP18 / FP38 Atmospheric Trace Gases



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Introduction

Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) is a widely used technique for the detection of atmospheric trace gases in the atmosphere. It is based on the wavelength dependent absorption of light by atmospheric constituents. Various trace gases can be identified simultaneously by their spectral signatures which act as an individual 'fingerprint'. The DOAS technique has been implemented on several platforms: from ground, on aircrafts, balloons and satellites, and by using either artificial light sources, scattered sunlight or direct sun- or moonlight.

Ground-based DOAS observations of scattered sunlight is very suitable both for long term measurements of atmospheric constituents, and for measurements in the field using small portable instruments. The latter can be used, for example, to study emissions from volcanic plumes or the emission of reactive trace gases from remote salt lakes. Since those instruments are easy to maintain, they are ideally suited for the operation in remote regions with restricted technical infrastructure.

This experiment offers the opportunity to gain insight into spectroscopic remote sensing techniques, which are widely used to study the composition of the Earth's atmosphere. Differential optical absorption spectroscopy has been developed by U. Platt and D. Perner at the Institute of Environmental Physics of the University of Heidelberg. A relatively new application of this measurement technique is Multi-Axis DOAS (MAX-DOAS), which has an enhanced sensitivity for trace gases near the surface and allows to gain information on their vertical distribution.

The topics covered by this experiment are:

- To gain insight in the chemistry of the troposphere and stratosphere, in particular regarding ozone and NO₂
- To become familiar with spectroscopy and spectroscopic analysis techniques
- To gain insight into the radiative transfer in the Earth's atmosphere
- To learn how to determine a trace gas concentration with DOAS

Instrumentation:

- Passive DOAS instrument with spectrograph/detector unit
- Quartz fiber
- Temperature regulator
- Halogen lamp
- Mercury vapor lamp
- Computer with measurement and analysis software
- Glass cell filled with NO₂

Study guide

Before starting the experiment, please take the time to review these materials. While you do not need to know the exact step by step procedure of the experiment, you should be able to answer the following questions:

- How are ozone and nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) distributed in the atmosphere? What are typical concentrations of these species? How do the concentrations vary with the time of day?
- What is the importance of ozone in the stratosphere? What is the *ozone hole*? How is it formed?
- What is the importance of ozone and NO_2 in the troposphere?
- What is the Beer-Lambert law of absorption? What does it describe?
- What does the word *differential* mean in Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS). Why is absolute absorption spectroscopy difficult to apply in the atmosphere?
- What components contribute to a measured spectrum?
- What equipment is necessary to record an atmospheric spectrum and why?
- What is a slant column density (SCD)? What is a vertical column density (VCD)?
- What knowledge is required in order to calculate trace gas concentrations from SCDs?
- What is a Langley Plot? What is it used for?
- What is Multi-Axis DOAS (MAX-DOAS)? How can information about the vertical profile of a trace gas species be obtained with this technique?

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Chapter 1

Background Information

1.1 The atmosphere

An *atmosphere*¹ is a gas cover surrounding a star or a planet due to its gravitation. In the following, we will only discuss the earth's atmosphere. The atmosphere can be divided into layers. The most common classification is linked to the temperature. According to this scheme, the atmosphere is divided into the troposphere, the stratosphere, the mesosphere, the thermosphere and the exosphere. The regions dividing two layers are called 'pause', as in tropopause. In the *troposphere*, the energy flow is dominated by incoming solar radiation heating up the surface (Fig. 1.1). Sensible² and latent³ heat are then transported from the ground up into the troposphere, and thermal energy is converted into potential energy. The updraft of an airparcel from the ground can be approximated by adiabatic cooling, which explains the temperature decline of 6-10 K per km. This transport of latent heat drives the weather in the troposphere and explains its turbulent behaviour. On the other hand, the energy balance in the stratosphere is dominated by radiative heating due to absorption of incoming radiation by trace gases, for example ozone. This leads to an increase of temperature with altitude and thus a stratification of the airmasses, hence the term 'stratosphere'.

1.2 Measurements and dimensions

The *concentration* of a trace gas is the number of molecules in a volumetric unit. Its dimension is typically [Molecules/cm³] or [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$].

The *mixing ratio* is the relative amount of a trace gas as compared to the amount of air. The units [ppm], [ppb] and [ppt] are common. Usually, the quantity is related to the volume ratio, so the units are sometimes written as [ppmv], [ppbv], or [pptv].

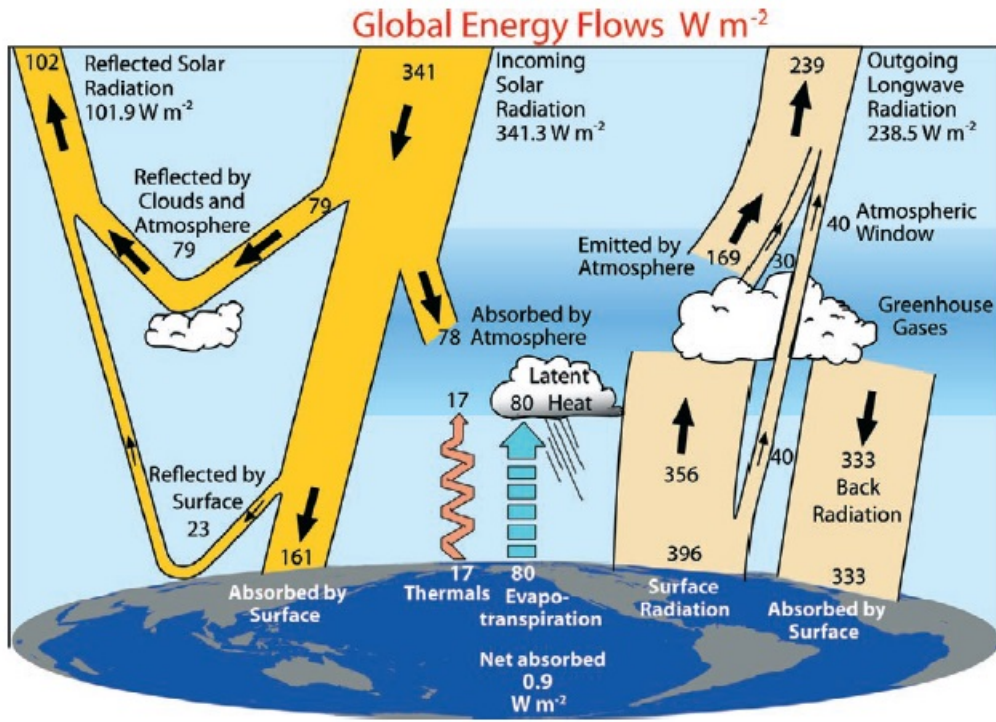
For DOAS measurements, the *column density* plays an important role. This is the concentration of a species integrated along a light path $\int \rho(s)ds$, and is typically given in molecules/cm². The vertical column density gives the amount of molecules of a certain substance in the entire atmosphere over a square centimeter on the ground. For ozone, the Dobson Unit [DU]⁴ has become popular. 100 DU correspond to a vertical ozone column of 1 mm at 0°C and 1013.25 hPa. Typical vertical ozone columns in the atmosphere are between 300 and 400 DU. Therefore,

¹Greek *atmos* = haze

²thermal energy that can be measured with a thermometer

³Energy originating from evaporation on the ground or in the ocean.

⁴1DU = $2,6 \cdot 10^{16}$ Molecules/cm²

Figure 1.1: *Global annual mean energy budget.* [30]

the total ozone in the atmosphere corresponds to a layer with 3-4 mm thickness when brought to normal conditions.

1.3 Composition of the air

The main constituents of the air are oxygen, nitrogen and argon (see table 1.1). Water vapor can have concentrations of between 0.02 % and 2.5 % in the troposphere. In the stratosphere, the mixing ratio of water vapor is only about 3 - 4 ppm. All other gases together make up only 0.04 %, and are therefore called *trace gases*.

O_4

The O_4 molecule is the dimer of the oxygen molecule O_2 . It can be formed when two oxygen molecules collide. Therefore, its concentration is proportional to the square of the oxygen concentration in the atmosphere. For this reason, its column is given in $\text{molecules}^2/\text{cm}^5$. Its vertical profile is an exponential decrease with altitude with a scale height of approximately 4 km. Because the vertical profile of O_4 concentration is well known, the measured column densities can be used to gain insight into photon paths in the atmosphere, i.e. light path enhancement due to aerosols and clouds [33].

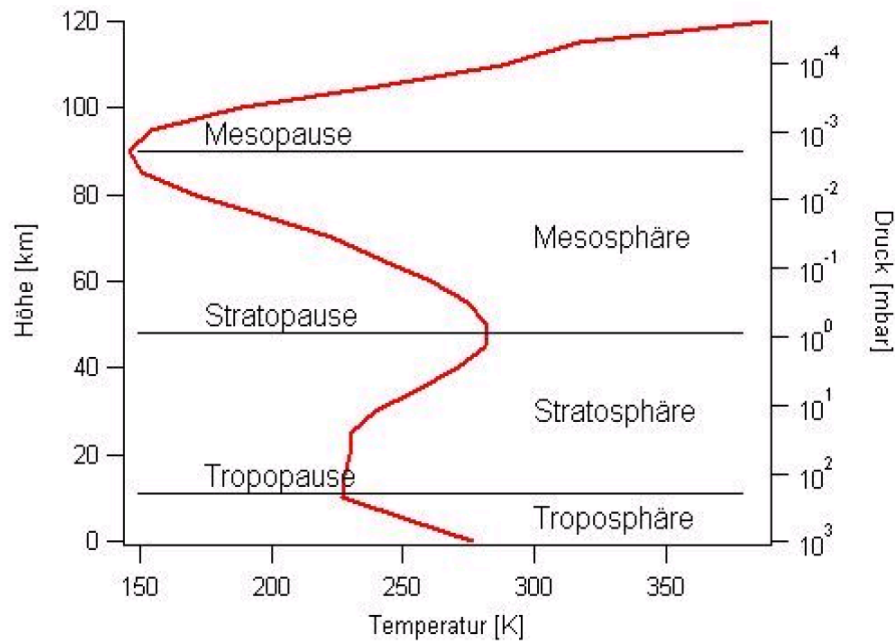


Figure 1.2: *Atmospheric temperature profile and layering.*

Gas	Symbol	Volume Fraction
Nitrogen	N ₂	78,08%
Oxygen	O ₂	20,95%
Argon	Ar	0,93%
Water vapor	H ₂ O	ca. 1%
Carbon Dioxide	CO ₂	358 ppmv
Neon	Ne	18,2 ppmv
Methane	CH ₄	1,75 ppmv
Krypton	Kr	1,14 ppmv
Hydrogen	H ₂	0,55ppmv
Nitrous Oxide	N ₂ O	0,31 ppmv
Carbon Monoxide	CO	0,11 ppmv
Ozone	O ₃	0,04 ppmv
Chloroflouorocarbons (CFCs)		(2,8 - 4,8)·10 ⁻⁴ ppmv

Table 1.1: *Chemical composition of the atmosphere at sea level.*

Chapter 2

Atmospheric chemistry I: Stratospheric ozone

2.1 The importance of ozone in the stratosphere

The ozone molecule is composed of three oxygen atoms: O_3 . In its gas phase, it is light blue. At $-111.9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, it condensates to an explosive, dark blue, magnetic liquid. At $-192.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, it crystalizes to a dark violet mass. The dissociation at room temperature is slow, while it occurs explosively if heated.

The average lifetime of an ozone molecule at 25 km altitude is about 1 hour. This lifetime is determined by the photolysis frequency of ozone. However, the ozone concentration of a given airmass changes slowly with time, as most oxygen atoms originating from ozone photolysis quickly react back to ozone (see section 2.2). Therefore, it usually takes months or years to significantly change the ozone concentration in a given airmass. This stands in contrast to the quick reduction seen in the ozone hole formation discussed in section 2.2.4.

Ozone is a highly efficient absorber of UV radiation. Even though it is present only in such small concentrations, it blocks a large part (95-99%) of the harmful ($\lambda < 320\text{ nm}$) UV radiation at an altitude of 20 to 50 km. Therefore, the ozone layer is of great importance for life on earth. The largest absorption of ozone occurs between 240 nm and 310 nm, as can be seen in figure 2.1.

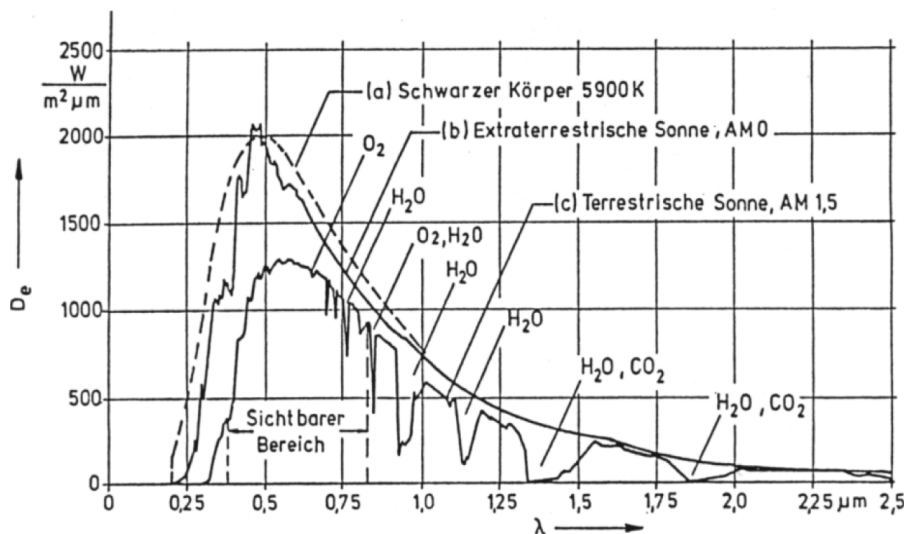


Figure 2.1: *Spectrum of incident solar radiation at the top of the atmosphere and at sea level.*

2.1.1 Vertical profile of ozone concentration

About 90% of the total ozone column is found in the stratosphere, the rest in the troposphere. In mid latitudes, the ozone concentration at the ground is about $1 \cdot 10^{12}$ molec/cm³, while typical concentrations in the stratosphere are $1 \cdot 10^{13}$ to $2 \cdot 10^{13}$ molec/cm³ (see figure 2.2, left panel). The vertical profile of ozone is determined by the number of UV photons and the decreasing number of oxygen molecules in the upper atmosphere. At high altitudes, the air is so thin that the UV photons barely ever hit oxygen molecules and no atomic oxygen is formed. As the density of the air increases with lower altitudes, the probability for O₂ photolysis increases, and the O₃ mixing ratio follows this trend. The lower end of the ozone layer is reached, when no more UV photons necessary for the formation of O₃ are available, as they have all been absorbed in higher layers.

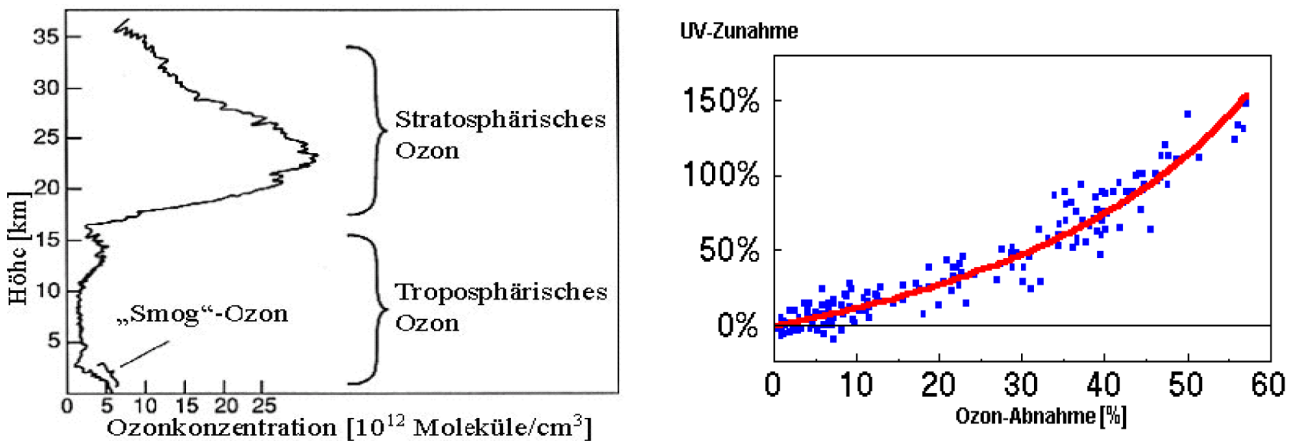


Figure 2.2: Left: Ozone concentration vertical profile. Right: The enhancement of harmful UV radiation is exponential with decreasing ozone columns, as described by the Beer-Lambert law of absorption. This plot shows data measured in Antarctica between February 1991 and December 1992.

2.1.2 The effects of harmful UV radiation

The energy of shortwave UV radiation with wavelengths below 320 nm is enough to destroy molecules, proteins and amino acids, which are the main constituents of organic matter. Enhanced UV radiation directly increases the risk of skin cancer and biological mutation, and has even been shown to directly influence marine biology and agriculture (see e.g. [12, 28, 29, 35]). A decreasing ozone column in the stratosphere enables more UV radiation to reach the earth. This relationship is not linear, as shown in figure 2.2, right panel.

2.2 Photochemistry of ozone in the stratosphere

2.2.1 Chapman cycle

Sidney Chapman [3] published the first simple theory about ozone in the stratosphere in 1930. He postulated the ozone to be the result of a chemical equilibrium of 4 photochemical reactions. At altitudes between 20 and 25 km, atomic oxygen is formed from the photolytical splitting of oxygen molecules by shortwave UV radiation ($\lambda < 242$ nm).



Ozone is then formed by the recombination of the atomic oxygen with molecular oxygen.



M is a chemically neutral molecule (e.g. N_2 or O_2) needed for conservation of momentum. To reach an equilibrium ozone concentration, ozone destruction reactions are also necessary. Chapman held the photolytic dissociation ($\lambda < 1100\text{nm}$) of ozone responsible:



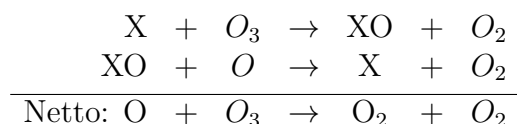
The formed oxygen atoms then either react according to equation 2.2 and form ozone again, or they destroy an additional ozone molecule:



These four reactions comprise the *Chapman cycle*. Chapman's theory was correct, but the measured ozone columns were always higher than his predicted ones, usually by about 40%. Also, the height of the ozone maximum was incorrect.

2.2.2 Catalytic ozone destruction

Today we know that *catalytic reactions*¹ involving radicals of the groups HO_x (H, OH, HO_2), NO_x (NO, NO_2) ClO_x (Cl, ClO) and BrO_x (Br, BrO) play a very important role in the destruction of ozone. The catalysts X greatly accelerate the ozone destruction previously mentioned in equation 2.4.



As catalysts are not removed from the cycle, they are available for further ozone destruction. HO_x and NO_x can cycle through this reaction scheme 1000 to 10000 times before they are removed from the atmosphere by chemical reaction or sedimentation. Because these reactions are much faster than the reaction of O_3 with O, the catalysts have a very strong influence on stratospheric ozone chemistry, lowering the ozone concentrations when compared to the values predicted by Chapman. By taking these catalytic reactions into account it was for the first time possible to match predicted and measured vertical ozone profiles (see figure 2.3, left panel).

2.2.3 Anthropogenic influence on the total ozone column

Since the mid 80s, the average global total ozone columns have been decreasing. The total ozone decrease after considering natural variations is about 5% per decade. This decrease can be seen in mid latitudes, and is not restricted to the regions over Antarctica victimized by the ozone hole (see section 2.2.4). The right panel of figure 2.3 shows the decrease in ozone after removing all known natural variations from the trend. Ozone destruction by CFCs was detectable as early as 1974. These gases are industrially produced compounds containing carbon (C), fluorine (F) and chlorine (Cl). They found widespread use as cooling agents and gas propellant in spray cans by the 1950s. CFC molecules are chemically inert in the lower troposphere, however upon reaching the upper area of the ozone layer in about 30km altitude, CFCs are photolyzed by

¹Catalytic reactions are reactions that are controlled by a certain substance, the so-called catalyst. The catalyst itself is not changed by the reaction.

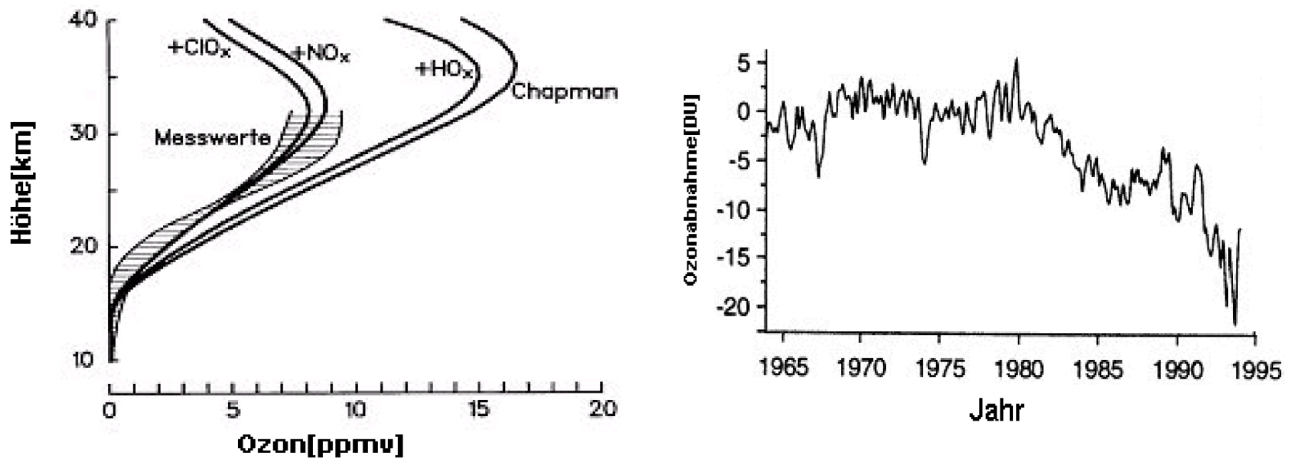


Figure 2.3: *Left: The Chapman cycle alone predicts ozone mixing ratios approximately twice as high as the measured values. Only by taking the catalytic ozone destruction into account the measurements could be understood. Right: Decrease in global ozone after removing all known natural variations.*

shortwave UV radiation. The chlorine concentration of the atmosphere was increased by a factor of 6 within a few decades by this process.

By the mid-1980s, scientists realised the influence of CFCs on ozone destruction. In 1987, the industrialized nations signed the Montreal Protocol to reduce CFC emissions, followed by several additional treaties thereafter. Figure 2.4 shows the global CFC production between 1986 and 1996.

Because of the long lifetimes of CFCs in the atmosphere (up to 100 years for some species), they continue to act as catalysts in ozone destruction even though emissions have been drastically reduced. In very recent years, the measured ozone hole has seemed to decrease in size and intensity. However, it will still take several decades for the ozone layer to recover.²

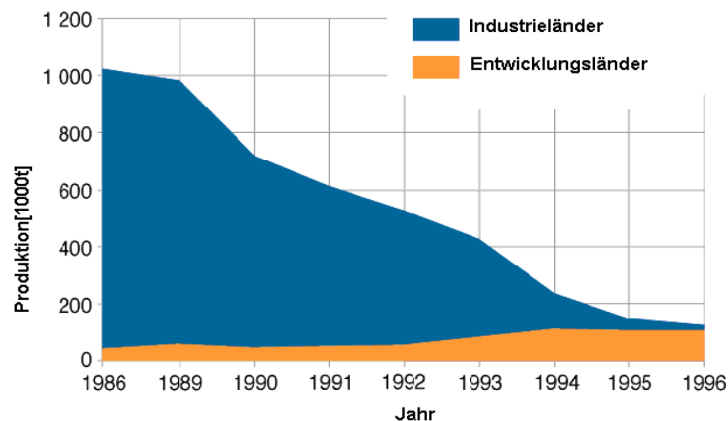


Figure 2.4: *Global CFC production by year for industrialized and developing nations.*

2.2.4 The Ozone hole

In the middle of the 1980s, a maximum ozone loss of approximately 10% was predicted by scientists due to destruction by CFCs. In October 1984, however, more than 40% of the ozone in the ozone layer above Antarctica was destroyed. At the end of August, the ozone column

²for details: *Scientific Assessment of Ozone Depletion, WMO, 2010* at www.wmo.int

over Antarctica decreases rapidly and reaches a minimum in September. In November, the values increase back to normal levels. Ozone is destroyed only in the altitude range between 12 and 30 km, as shown in figure 2.5. However, this is also where the ozone layer is normally located. These findings could not be explained by dynamic processes alone. Instead, a complex chemical mechanism was found to be responsible.

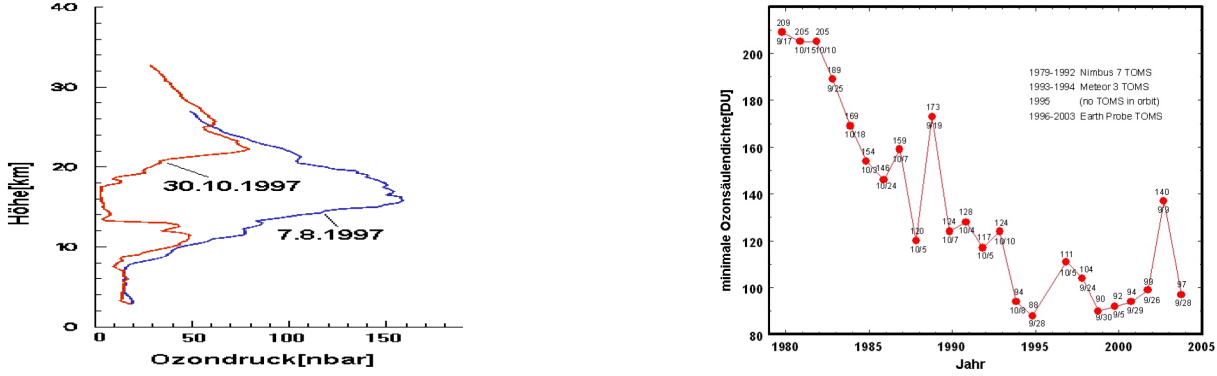
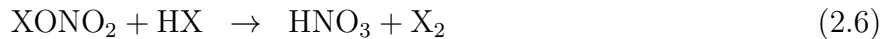


Figure 2.5: Left: Altitude profile of the ozone concentration measured over Antarctica in August 1997 and October 1997. Right: Time series of the annual minimum of the measured ozone column density.

Chlorine and bromine reach the polar stratosphere in the form of *transport-gases* such as CFCs. Here, they react to so-called *reservoir gases*. Chlorine and bromine are bound in these gases and are removed from ozone destroying reactions. During the polar night, two processes then combine to release the halogens. For one, a *polar vortex* forms in the stratosphere. Tropical air masses are transported towards the poles and are deflected by the coriolis force. The large temperature gradient present in the Antarctic winter from July to October causes the air to swirl around the south pole in a stable stratospheric vortex, effectively shielding the south pole from other adjacent air masses. In the absence of sunlight, the air in the Antarctic stratosphere then cools to temperatures around $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. At these very low temperatures, a second phenomenon takes place. So-called *Polar Stratospheric Clouds* (PSC) are formed from ice, nitric acid and some sulfuric acid. The extreme conditions necessary to form such clouds are only present during the Antarctic winter in the absence of sunlight in altitudes between 15 and 25 km. Once formed, the PSCs very effectively activate halogens through the following heterogeneous reactions taking place on the ice surfaces.



X = Cl, Br.

Without the PSC-surfaces, these reactions would be very slow and therefore irrelevant. When the sun now goes up in the Antarctic spring, the activated halogens act very effectively as catalysts for ozone destruction. In the Arctic, the distribution of land masses prevents forming a very strong polar vortex, therefore Arctic ozone hole is much less pronounced than the Antarctic version. If all conditions remain the same, the ozone layer should recuperate by the middle of the coming century. However, some aspects are still poorly understood. For example, when ozone absorbs UV radiation, it heats the stratosphere. Ozone depletion therefore leads to a cooling trend in the stratosphere, which could lead to an increased abundance of PSCs and therefore even stronger ozone destruction. These and other questions are still being explored to date.

Chapter 3

Atmospheric chemistry II: Nitrogen oxides

The Nitrogen oxides NO (nitric oxide) and NO₂ (nitrogen dioxide) are together referred to as NO_x. They are one of the most problematic pollutants in urban areas not only in developing, but also in industrialised countries. They are key species in the control of tropospheric ozone production and by this play an important role in the formation of the so called "Los Angeles Smog" (see section 3.4). Moreover, the concentration of NO_x has a strong influence on the atmospheric level of hydroxyl radicals (OH), which initiates the degradation of most oxidizable trace gases [7].

3.1 Health aspects of NO₂ air pollution

Nitrogen dioxide is a brown, toxic gas: Mixing ratios over 20 ppm cause strong irritations of the respiratory system including tickling of the throat, headaches, dizziness and eventually nausea. At higher mixing ratios, it can lead to death (700 ppm after 30 minutes will be lethal). Inhaled gas together with the humid mucosae creates nitric acid, which causes strong degradation of the lungs capillaries (Air Liquide EG-safety data sheet). In addition to being a health hazard in itself, NO₂ is a precursor of a number of harmful secondary pollutants, including the formation of inorganic particulate matter via HNO₃, and photo oxidants (e.g. ozone and PANs¹). These relationships are shown in figure 3.1.

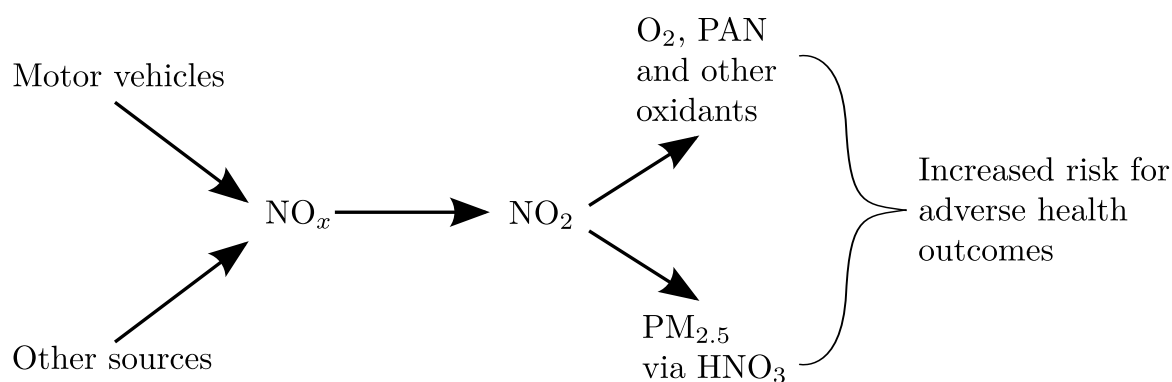


Figure 3.1: *Simplified relationship of NO_x emission with formation of NO₂ and other harmful reaction products including O₃ and particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) [36].*

¹peroxyacyl nitrates

3.2 Sources and sinks of tropospheric NO_x

The global emissions of NO_x are caused by both human activities and natural processes. Table 3.1 shows the sources of NO_x and their contribution to the global emissions. New highly resolved

Table 3.1: *Summary of the main anthropogenic and natural sources for global tropospheric NO_x. Taken from e.g. [15].*

Source	Emission (10 ¹² g/a)	Range of uncertainty (10 ¹² g/a)
Fossil fuel combustion	22	13-31
Biomass burning	7.9	3-15
Soil microbial production	7.0	4-12
Lightning	5.0	2-20
Aircraft	0.8	0.59-0.95
Stratospheric	0.64	0.4-1
Total	44	23-81

satellite measurements allow to determine the global distribution of these NO_x sources. Figure 3.2 depicts the 18 month mean of a satellite measurement of NO₂, which was recorded by the SCIAMACHY instrument aboard the ESA satellite ENVISAT. Areas with high vertical column densities correlate with urban areas and therefore anthropogenic sources. In fact more than half of the global NO_x emissions are man made. The major source of anthropogenic NO_x is the combustion of fossil fuels in industrial processes, power plants and traffic. The most important mechanism for natural and anthropogenic production of NO_x is the Zel'dovic cycle [38] which describes the formation of *thermal* NO. The term *thermal* is chosen due to the high activation energy necessary for reaction 3.2 of 318 kJ/mol. Therefore, NO is emitted from combustion processes, e.g. in combustion engines (traffic) and from thermal power plants or other industrial combustion processes.



Afterwards, NO₂ can be produced via reaction 3.7. NO_x is removed from the atmosphere mainly by further oxidation. During the day hydroxyl radicals oxidize NO₂ to nitric acid, which is then removed from the atmosphere by wet (acid rain) and dry deposition:



Another sink of NO_x is the reaction of NO₂ with ozone. Although the rate coefficient for this reaction is relatively small, it cannot be neglected in areas with high ozone concentrations in the absence of sunlight. During daytime this reaction plays no role because NO₃ is rapidly photolyzed. During the night, NO₃ reacts with NO₂ to form the anhydride of nitric acid N₂O₅. The major sink of tropospheric N₂O₅ is the hydrolysis and subsequent wet or dry deposition [19].

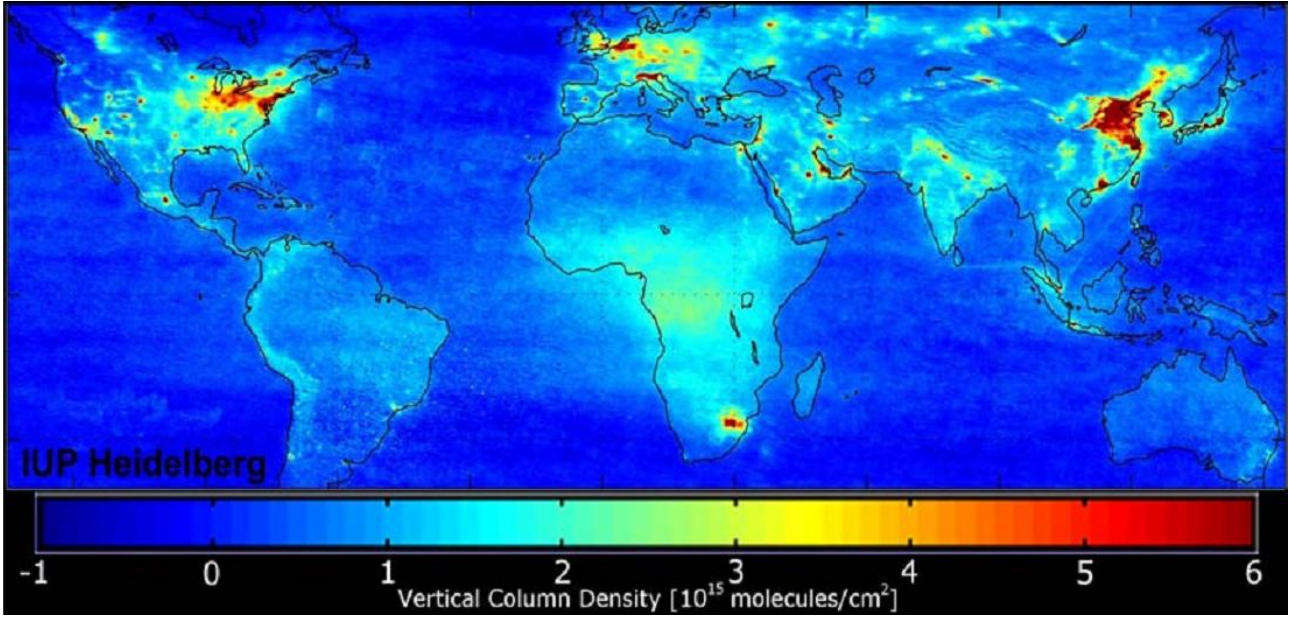
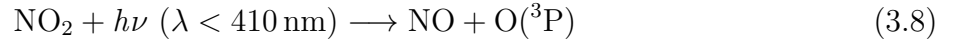


Figure 3.2: *Satellite measurement of the NO_2 vertical column density averaged over the time period from January 2003 to June 2004. The measurements have been performed with the SCIAMACHY instrument aboard the ESA satellite ENVISAT. [1].*

3.3 Photostationary state with ozone

Nitrogen dioxide is mainly a secondary pollutant. The oxidation to NO_2 is explained by [16].



Photolysis in reaction 3.7 does only occur at wavelengths below 410nm. The third reaction partner in 3.6 is required due to momentum conservation. The steady state concentrations of O_3 , NO and NO_2 are linked by the Leighton ratio:

$$\frac{[\text{NO}]}{[\text{NO}_2]} = \frac{j_{\text{NO}_2}}{k_{\text{O}_3+\text{NO}} \cdot [\text{O}_3]} \quad (3.9)$$

$k_{\text{O}_3+\text{NO}}$ is the reaction constant for eqn. 3.7. Since the photolysis rate changes with solar zenith angle the Leighton ratio also changes during the course of the day. On a clear day, at noontime, when the photolysis rate has its maximum of about $j_{\text{NO}_2} \approx 8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ the Leighton ratio has its minimum and the lifetime of NO_2 is about 2 min. At typical O_3 mixing ratios of 30 ppb, $\frac{[\text{NO}]}{[\text{NO}_2]}$ is on the order of 1.

3.3.1 NO_2 Diurnal Cycle

In an atmosphere that is free of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), NO_2 , NO and O_3 are in a self contained diurnal cycle, which is strongly dependent on the sun's UV light. In the morning, the intensity of solar light increases. This leads to photodissociation of NO_2 . But during the day, NO and NO_2 are in a photostationary balance (see reactions 3.6-3.8).

For the stratosphere, the mixing ratio of NO_2 increases during the day, due to the dissociation of N_2O_5 to NO_2 .



NO_3 splits up rapidly to NO_2 or NO . This only happens during the daytime.



In the evening, the photolysis decreases and reaction 3.8 no longer creates NO . The result is an increase of NO_2 . At night NO_2 forms N_2O_5 again.



3.4 Photochemical smog / deviation from the photostationary state

Since the first reports of photochemical smog in Los Angeles in the late 1940's, extremely high ozone levels have been measured in urban areas throughout the whole world. In Mexico City ozone levels over 400 ppb have been reported. Photochemical smog is worst when high levels of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and NO_x are emitted into a thermal inversion layer, trapping them closely to the ground, and irradiated by sunlight during transport to downwind regions. This section discusses the mechanisms responsible for the creation of photochemical smog.

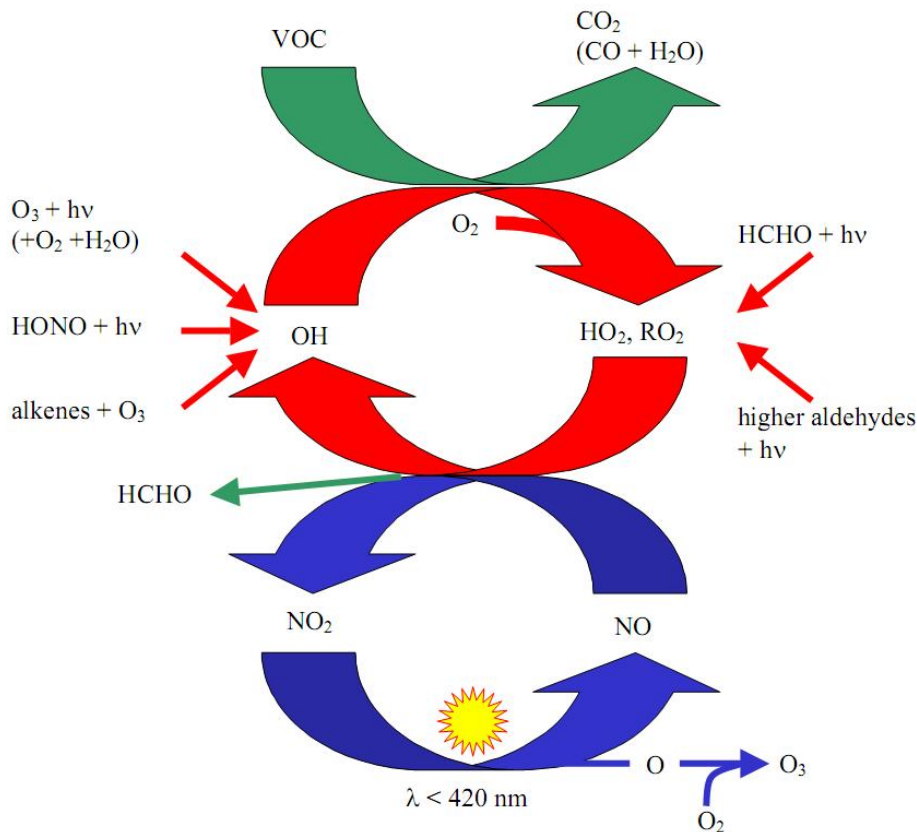
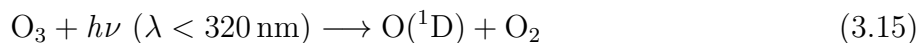


Figure 3.3: Reaction cycles of tropospheric NO_x and ozone in a polluted atmosphere. The photostationary state of NO_x is illustrated by the blue cycle. It is disrupted by the presence of VOCs, which results in a net production of ozone. [31].

The Leighton relation is only valid if reactions 3.6-3.8 describe the major sources and sinks of NO_2 and O_3 . In the presence of VOCs, another reaction path for the conversion of NO to NO_2

exists, without the destruction of O_3 . The OH radical which usually initiates the reaction chain is mainly formed by means of ozone photolysis:



The reaction chain is started by the oxidation of a hydrocarbon (RH) which may be described as



The peroxy radicals (RO_2) and (HO_2) react with NO and produce NO_2 without destroying ozone (see e.g. [2, 4, 20])



This scheme can be applied multiple times until the initial VOC is converted to CO_2 or CO and H_2O . Together with the reactions from 3.6-3.8 this can be written as an effective equation for the ozone production:



The reaction system is illustrated in figure 3.3 together with the most important sources of OH, hydroxyl and peroxy radicals.

Chapter 4

DOAS

Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy is a widely used technique in atmospheric research for the detection of numerous trace gases, such as ozone, NO₂, formaldehyde, halogen radicals (BrO, IO), water vapour, and many others [21, 22].

4.1 The Lambert-Beer Law

When electromagnetic radiation passes through matter, its intensity is reduced by absorption and scattering. This process, called *extinction*, is described by the law of *August Beer*.

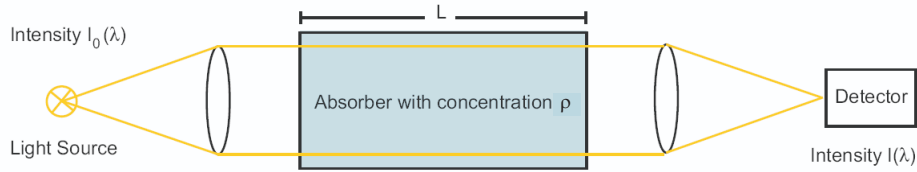


Figure 4.1: Light with the initial intensity $I_0(\lambda)$ is emitted by a light source. After passing through a volume of air containing an absorber with concentration ρ , the detector measures the reduced intensity $I(\lambda)$.

Let $I_0(\lambda)$ be the intensity of a light beam at wavelength λ before entering the absorber, and $I(\lambda, L)$ the intensity after passing a layer of length L . Then the relationship between incident and transmitted intensity is

$$I(\lambda, L) = I_0(\lambda) \cdot \exp(-\sigma(\lambda) \cdot \rho \cdot L) \quad (4.1)$$

with σ being the *absorption cross section* and ρ the concentration of the trace gas. In general, σ depends on pressure and temperature along the light path. Furthermore, the concentration along the light path can vary. The *Lambert-Beer* law describes the absorption for n different absorbers i :

$$I(\lambda, L) = I_0(\lambda) \cdot \exp\left(-\int_0^L \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(\lambda) \cdot \rho_i(s) ds\right) \quad (4.2)$$

4.2 The DOAS method

To determine the concentration of a particular trace gas in the atmosphere, it would, in principle, be necessary to quantify all factors influencing the intensity $I(\lambda)$ of a spectrum of light.

In the laboratory, this can be achieved by removing the absorber from the light path. In the atmosphere, however, where this is impossible, the multiple factors influencing the intensity pose a dilemma. DOAS overcomes this challenge by using the fact that many processes in radiative transfer show broad or even smooth spectral characteristics, while certain trace gases exhibit narrowband absorption structures. The basic principle of DOAS is thus the separation of spectral structures in narrowband (varying strongly with wavelength) and broadband components (varying slowly with wavelength) in *differential* spectra, so that changes in narrowband absorptions can be detected (illustrated in figure 4.4). To use equation 4.2 in DOAS measurements, it therefore has to be modified according to properties of radiative transfer in the atmosphere and the measurement principles of DOAS instruments.

4.2.1 Narrowband components

Fraunhofer reference spectrum

The sun's spectrum is highly structured (see figures 2.1 and 4.3, top). These structures must be taken into account in a DOAS retrieval when using a passive instrument, i.e. when using the sun as a light source. This is usually achieved by using a so-called *Fraunhofer reference spectrum* I_0 , which is a solar spectrum recorded under conditions in which the trace gases to be investigated show little or no absorption.

Trace gas absorption

The primary quantity measured by DOAS instruments is the *slant column density* (SCD or S), defined as the integrated concentration ρ of a trace gas i along the light path of length L :

$$\text{SCD} = S_i(\lambda) = \int_0^{L(\lambda)} \rho_i(s) ds \quad (4.3)$$

Each trace gas has its individual absorption cross section σ_i which serves as a spectral fingerprint. Several absorbers can be measured simultaneously even if their absorption features are superimposed (see figure 4.2). By fitting these cross sections to recorded differential spectra, SCDs are retrieved. If the Fraunhofer reference spectrum already contains absorption of a trace gas, the SCD is often called *differential* Slant Column Density (ΔSCD or ΔS).

The Ring Effect

In 1961, *J. Grainger* and *J. Ring* [11] discovered that the depth of the Fraunhofer lines was smaller when examining scattered sunlight than when direct sunlight is observed. This was attributed to inelastic *rotational Raman scattering* [32], which slightly changes the wavelength of the scattered photon when the scattering occurs. This causes a "filling in" of strong absorption lines, as wavelengths on either side of the line are shifted into it. The magnitude of the so-called *Ring effect* depends on the atmospheric path lengths of the photons entering the spectrometer. The longer the path in the lower atmosphere where the air density is higher, the more likely a Raman scattering event becomes. Therefore, the Ring effect is dependent e.g. on the solar zenith angle, the cloud cover and the aerosol concentration in the atmosphere. To correct for the Ring effect, a so-called *Ring spectrum* $R(\lambda)$ is calculated (e.g. by DOASIS, figure 4.3).

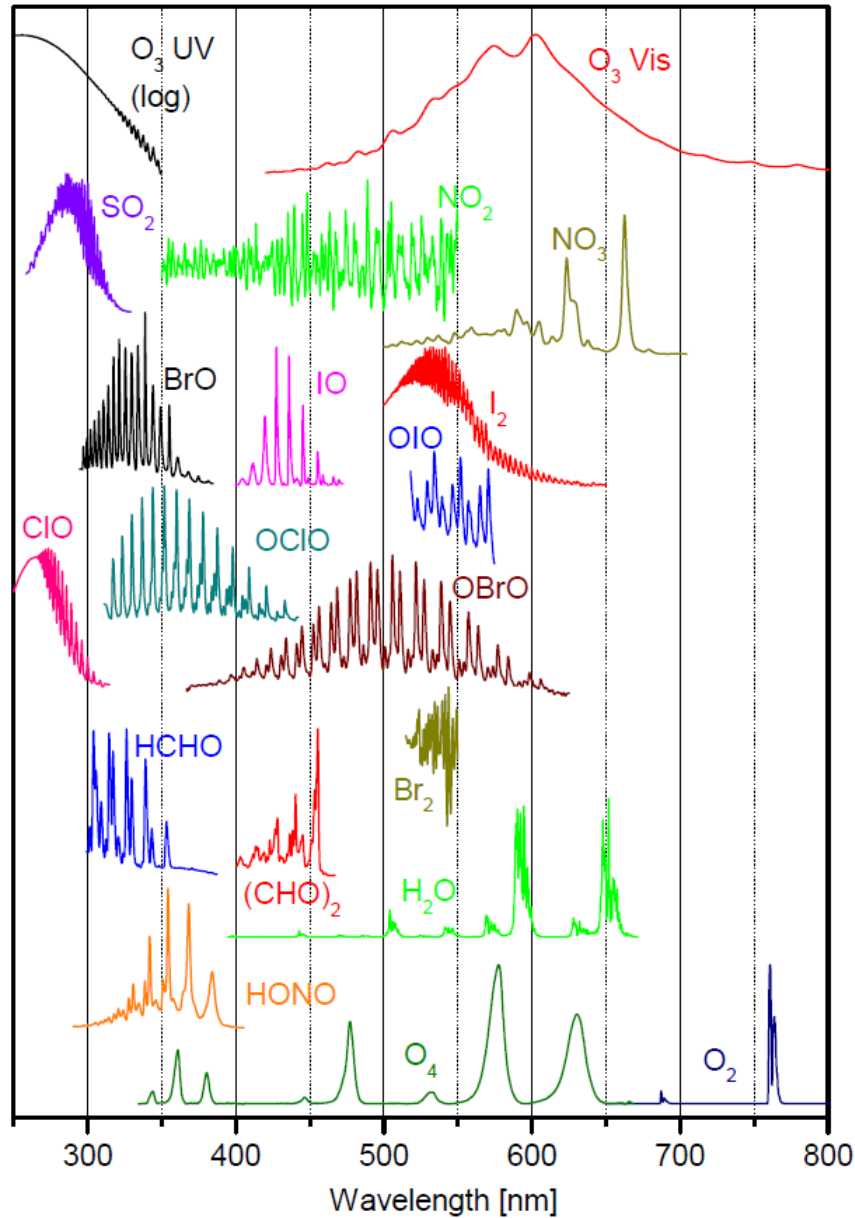


Figure 4.2: UV/Vis absorption cross sections of atmospheric trace gases detectable by DOAS.

4.2.2 Broadband components

The light is affected by scattering and absorption on aerosol particles and cloud droplets (*Mie scattering*) and by scattering on air molecules (*Rayleigh scattering*)¹. The sum of both effects, scattering and absorption, is referred to as *extinction*, ε_M and ε_R respectively. Both processes ε_M and ε_R are elastic, i.e. the wavelength of the scattered photons remains constant during the process. The Rayleigh scattering probability is proportional to λ^{-4} , so shorter wavelengths are more likely to be scattered than long wavelengths. This is the reason why the sky appears blue. Mie scattering is much less dependent on wavelength, so clouds and fog appear white, as all wavelengths are equally scattered.

For the sake of integrity it should be noted that some trace gas cross sections also have broadband parts $\sigma_{i0}(\lambda)$ in addition to the narrowband parts mentioned above.

¹More precisely, we mean the Cabannes line of Rayleigh scattering. In a strict nomenclature, Rayleigh scattering also includes rotational Raman lines (mentioned above), but these are treated separately in the DOAS approach because of their effect on narrowband spectral structures. For clarity, see [37].

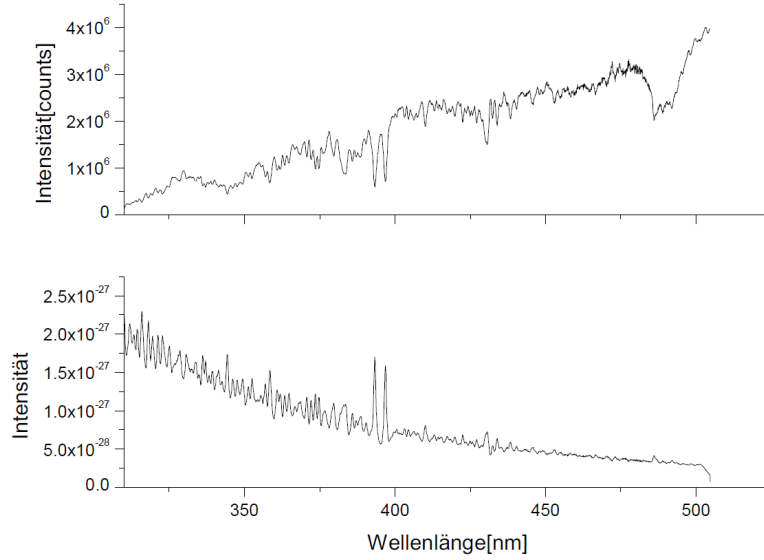


Figure 4.3: An example of a Fraunhofer spectrum (top) and the Ring spectrum calculated from it (bottom).

4.2.3 Modified Lambert-Beer Law

Considering sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, we expand equation 4.2:

$$I(\lambda, L) = I_0(\lambda) \cdot \exp \left(-R(\lambda) - \sum_i \sigma_i(\lambda) \cdot S_i(\lambda) \right) \cdot \exp \left[-L \cdot \left(\sum_i (\sigma_{i0}(\lambda) \cdot \rho_i) + \varepsilon_R(\lambda) + \varepsilon_M(\lambda) \right) \right] \quad (4.4)$$

Here, the first exponent contains all narrowband components and the second exponent contains all broadband components. The separation of narrow and broadband absorption is illustrated in figure 4.4 and the optical density is defined in the following section.

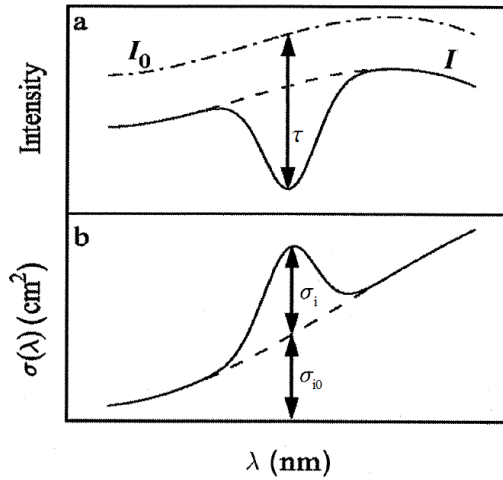


Figure 4.4: The principle of DOAS: The optical density τ is the result of narrow σ_i and broadband parts σ_{i0} of an absorption cross section. Adapted from [22].

4.2.4 The DOAS fit

Solving equation 4.4 for $\ln(I/I_0)$ yields the *optical density* τ :

$$\begin{aligned}\tau &= \ln \left(\frac{I(\lambda)}{I_0(\lambda)} \right) \\ &= -R(\lambda) - \sum_i \sigma_i(\lambda) \cdot S_i(\lambda) - \sum_k b_k \lambda^k\end{aligned}\tag{4.5}$$

Here, $\sum b_k \lambda^k$ is a polynomial to account for the second exponent of equation 4.4, which includes all broad band features, as mentioned in section 4.2.2. $R(\lambda)$ is the Ring spectrum and $\sigma_i(\lambda)$ and $S_i(\lambda)$ are the cross section and the slant column density of trace gas i , respectively. Apart from atmospheric effects, the instrument itself also modulates the signal: The signal from light reflected from elements in the spectrometer or the 0th or 2nd order of scattering from the grating are called *spectrometer stray light*. If stray light intensity varies over the spectrum, absorption bands at different wavelengths will be changed differently, i.e. the optical density will be reduced more for some parts of the spectrum than for others. In order to account for this, a so-called 'Offset' polynomial $I_{Ofs}(\lambda)$ can be added in the fitting procedure (see equation 4.6).

The idea of the DOAS fit is fairly simple. A model is used to construct an optical density by taking into account all the physical effects the light entering the instrument undergoes. This modelled optical density is then compared to the measured optical density. By varying the physical parameters of the model (which include the trace gas column densities S_i), the difference between model and measurement are minimized. When the minimum is reached, the physical parameters of the model are assumed to represent those of the measurement.

Due to noise in the measurement (see section 4.4.3), the modelled optical density can never perfectly match the measured optical density. Therefore, the DOAS fit searches for the minimum quadratic deviation (dependencies omitted for readability):

$$\chi^2 = \left[\ln \left(\frac{I_0 + I_{Ofs}}{I} \right) - R - \sum_i \sigma_i \cdot S_i - \sum_k b_k \lambda^k \right]^2\tag{4.6}$$

The unexplained remainder of the spectrum after minimisation (by varying the parameters S_i and b_k) is called the fit residual. The smaller the residual, the better the fit has succeeded in modelling the trace gas absorption. Ideally, the residual is only composed of noise. In order to detect a trace gas, its optical density needs to be larger than the residual. This criteria can be used to estimate the detection limit for a particular species. Once the minimum was found, the fit parameters S_i represent the column densities of the individual trace gases.

4.3 Calculating trace gas concentrations

Depending on the measurement geometry, the column densities obtained with the evaluation described above need to be interpreted in different ways. One way is the assumption of simplified geometrical approaches (like in this experiment as described in the following sections), but in more complex cases, extensive radiative transfer simulations have to be carried out (section 4.3.4). The observation geometry can be described by the *solar zenith angle* (*SZA*) θ (angle between the zenith and the sun) and the *telescope elevation angle* α (angle between the horizon and the viewing direction). The light path also depends on the *solar relative azimuth angle* (*SRAA*), which is neglected here.

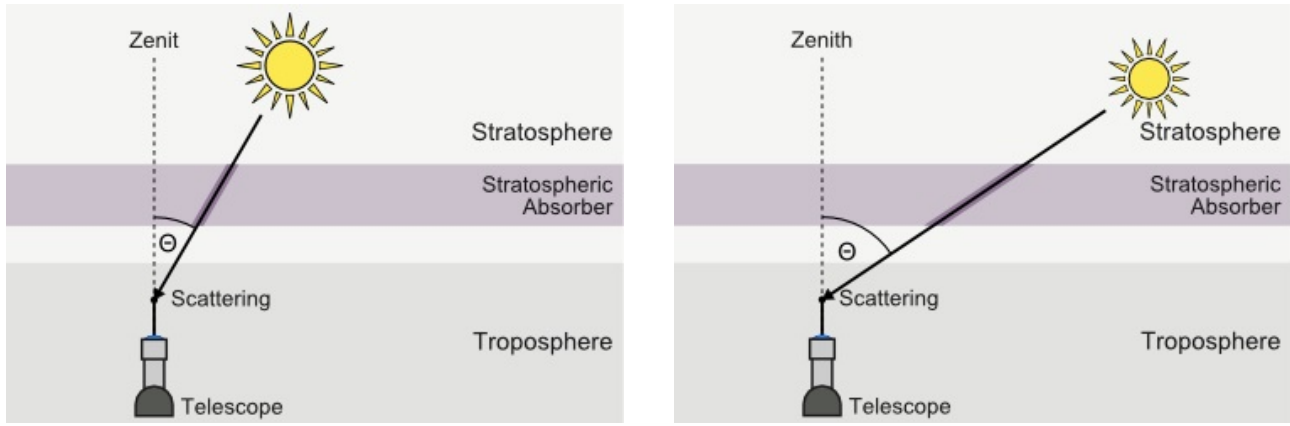


Figure 4.5: Light path through the atmosphere in the case of small (left) and large (right) solar zenith angle. With larger SZA, the light path through a stratospheric absorber is enhanced.

4.3.1 Active measurements

Active measurements are measurements with an active or artificial light source. In modern applications, often LEDs are used because of their well defined spectra. For active measurements, the interpretation of the retrieved column densities is the simplest, because the light path is clearly defined. It runs from the light source to the DOAS instrument. Dividing the column density by the length of the light path directly yields the average trace gas concentration along the light path. There are some similar applications, where the instrument points directly at the sun or the moon (*direct light measurements*).

4.3.2 Zenith sky measurements

Zenith sky measurements are performed by looking straight up with a passive instrument. In this geometry, the exact light path is unclear, but radiative transfer models can be used to make a statistical prediction about the average path. In order to compare different SCDs (which depend on the light paths), one can calculate the *Vertical Column Density* (VCD or V) from the SCDs with the help of the so-called *Air Mass Factor* (AMF or A):

$$\text{AMF} = A(\theta) := \frac{S(\theta)}{V} \approx \frac{1}{\cos(\theta)} \quad (4.7)$$

This approximation for the case of zenith sky measurements (valid for $\theta < 75^\circ$) is illustrated in figure 4.5. The Fraunhofer reference is typically taken at the minimal solar zenith angle around noon. Therefore, the retrieved column densities are all relative to this value. The total SCD is the sum of the ΔS and the column density already present in the Fraunhofer spectrum S_F .

$$S = \Delta S + S_F \quad (4.8)$$

S_F can be extracted with the help of a *Langley Plot*.

Langley plot

In a so-called *Langley Plot*, the measured ΔSCD is plotted as a function of the air mass factor AMF. If the concentration of a measured trace gas is constant during the course of the day the correlation between the ΔSCD and the AMF will be linear:

$$V = \frac{S(\theta)}{A(\theta)} \quad (4.9)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta S(\theta) + S_F}{A(\theta)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S(A(\theta)) = V \cdot A(\theta) - S_F \quad (4.10)$$

Here, θ is the solar zenith angle. If a constant concentration is assumed, the resulting plot can be extrapolated to $A = 0$. Here, $\Delta S = -S_F$, and the column density in the Fraunhofer reference spectrum can be retrieved (see figure 4.6). Note that the assumption of a constant concentration is only valid for a few atmospheric absorbers, e.g. stratospheric ozone.

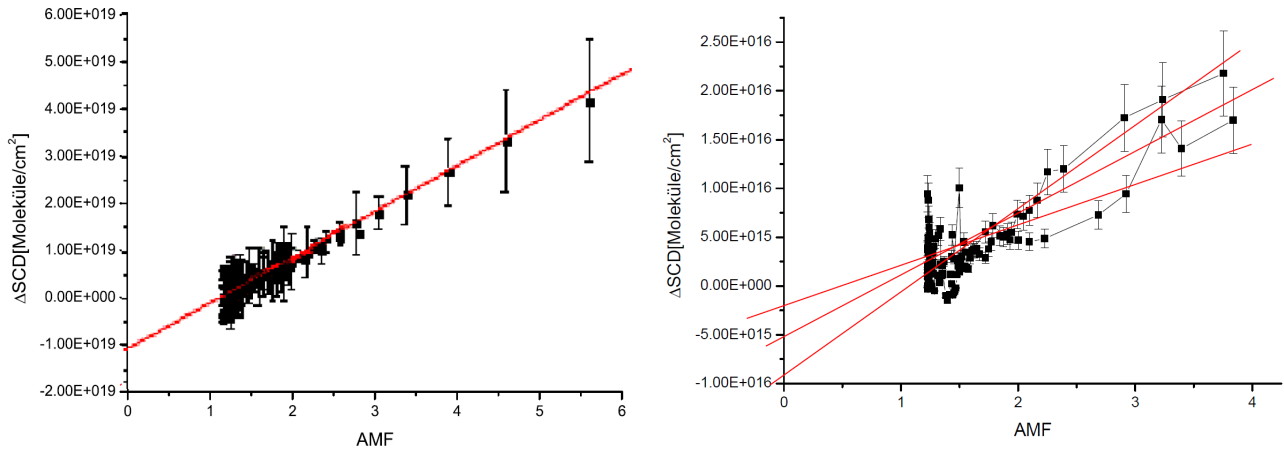


Figure 4.6: *Two examples of Langley Plots. The left panel depicts the Langley Plot of an ozone measurement. Extrapolation yields a Fraunhofer SCD of approximately 10^{19} molec/cm². The panel on the right is a Langley Plot of a nitrogen dioxide measurement. Here, the concentration is not constant during the course of the day, and the extrapolation does not yield a definite value.*

4.3.3 Multi-Axis-DOAS

The method of *multi-axis* DOAS (MAX-DOAS) strongly enhances the sensitivity for trace gases located in the troposphere (for details, see [13]). When observing light with small elevation angles α (angle between the horizon and the viewing direction of the instrument), the light paths through the lowermost atmospheric layers (and the SCDs of trace gases present there) are strongly enhanced, as shown in figure 4.7. However, the light path through the stratosphere does not change with elevation angle α . This offers the opportunity to distinguish between stratospheric and tropospheric trace gases. This usually means recording the Fraunhofer reference spectrum in the zenith direction to minimize the light path through the lower layers of the atmosphere. The air mass factor of a trace gas near the surface measured at an elevation angle α can be approximated by:

$$A(\alpha) \approx \frac{1}{\sin(\alpha)} \quad (4.11)$$

However, light paths can become very complicated. For very small elevation angles, parts of the observed light are scattered within the trace gas layer. Multiple scattering can occur for high aerosol loads and under cloudy conditions. The geometric approximation (equation 4.11) is not valid anymore under these conditions. An example of MAX-DOAS measurements is shown in figure 4.8.

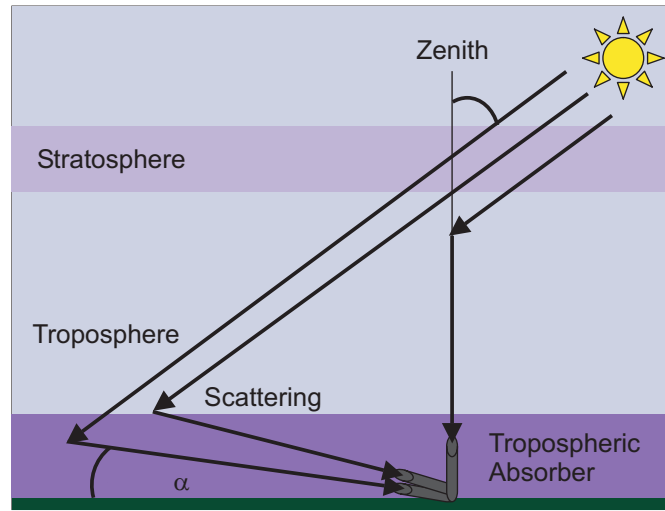


Figure 4.7: Observation geometry of MAX-DOAS measurements.

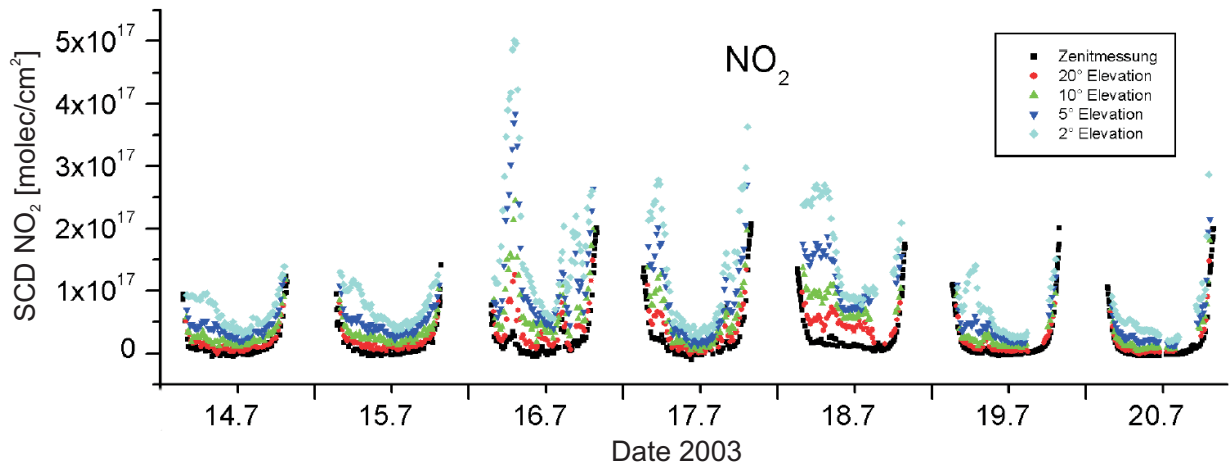


Figure 4.8: NO_2 SCDs measured with a MAX-DOAS instrument in Heidelberg. Different colours indicate different telescope elevation angles. The SCD increases with decreasing elevation angle, indicating the presence of NO_2 near the surface. The U-shape of the diurnal profile is caused by stratospheric NO_2 .

4.3.4 Complex scenarios

In case of heavy aerosol loads, clouds and more complex measurement geometries, such as from satellites, aircraft and ships, the approximations described above are no longer useful, because the light path distributions can become very complex. For example, figure 4.9 illustrates two basic cases for cloud influence on light paths. Light path distributions can be simulated by radiative transfer models (figure 4.10). A Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm [17, 18, 24, 25] then searches for minima in a χ^2 landscape to retrieve radiative transfer model parameters (e.g. aerosol load and trace gas concentrations) that best represent measured slant columns on the one hand and knowledge about the atmosphere on the other hand. Examples of this approach can be found in e.g. [8, 9, 14, 23, 33].

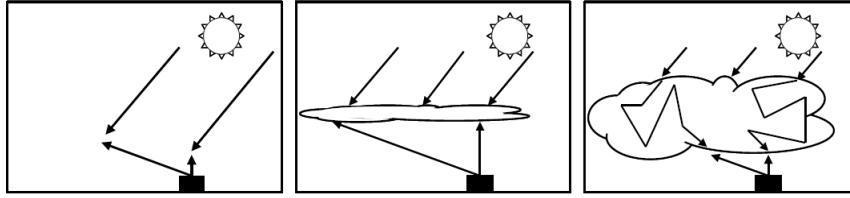


Figure 4.9: *Left: for clear sky, sun light is scattered by air molecules and aerosol particles towards the instrument. Center: diffusing screen effect: in the presence of thin clouds, a substantial fraction of the observed photons is scattered by the cloud; especially for the smaller elevation angles, this effect leads to an increase of the absorption path. Right: for optically thick and vertically extended clouds, multiple scattering can lead to a very large increase of the photon paths inside the clouds.* [34]

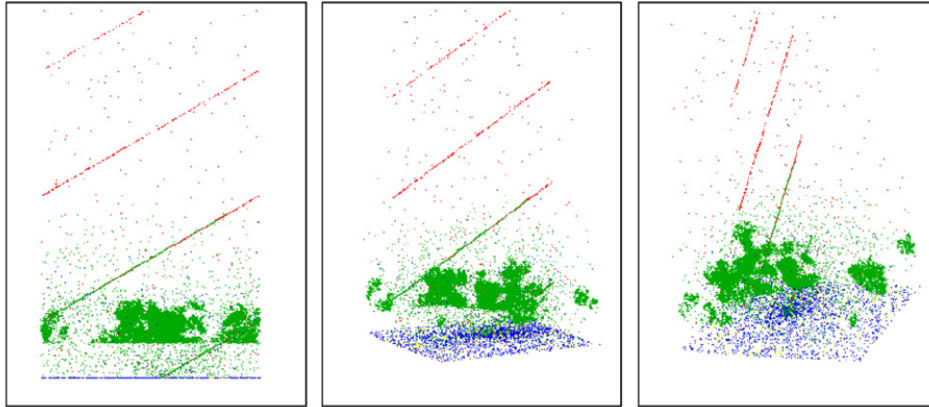


Figure 4.10: *Three different perspectives of events simulated by McArtim, a 3D backward trajectory monte-carlo radiative transfer model, when observing a cumulus cloud at 670 nm. Green points represent cloud and aerosol particle scatter events, blue points depict absorption events. Ground scattering is shown in yellow and red dots symbolize Rayleigh scattering by air molecules and hint to the lines of sight of the instrument.* [6]

4.4 Background and noise

The spectra are collected by grating spectrometers with CCD detectors. The properties especially of the detectors have to be taken into account in order to correctly record and process the spectra.

4.4.1 Electronic offset

The offset is an electronic signal (e.g. an analogue voltage or current) which is added to the photon induced signal of each pixel for every exposure, because the AD-converter can not convert a negative input. The offset can therefore best be measured by recording an exposure at a very low exposure time with no light entering the spectrometer, as the measured signal will then consist almost exclusively of the offset signal. To minimize the noise, however, it is best to record many such scans in succession. For the Ocean Optics USB2000, e.g., typically 10000 scans at 3 ms (minimum exposure time of this spectrometer) exposure time are recorded (figure 4.11, left panel). As the offset is added to each scan, the resulting spectrum must first be scaled to the measurement spectrum by the number of scans before it is subtracted:

$$I_{OS}(n) = I(n) - \frac{N_{Meas}}{N_{OS}} \cdot O(n) \quad (4.12)$$

Here, $I(n)$ is the intensity measured at each pixel n , $O(n)$ is the electronic offset, and N is the number of scans with which the respective spectra were recorded.

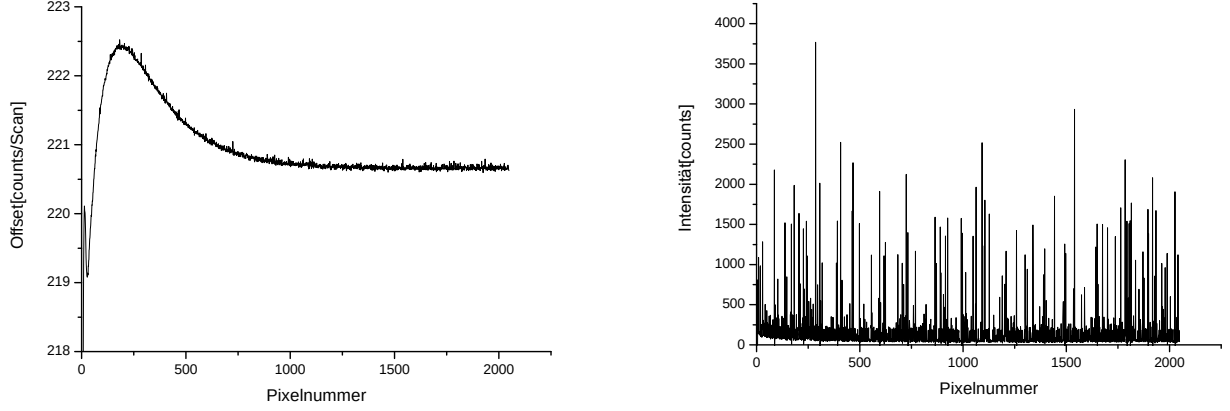


Figure 4.11: *Left: Offset spectrum recorded with an Ocean Optics USB2000 spectrometer. Most pixels have an average offset of about 221 counts/scan. For a typical measurement with saturation 75%, this is approximately 7% of the measured signal. Right: Dark current spectrum recorded at an exposure time of 60 seconds with a USB2000 spectrometer. Most pixels register a dark current of less than 4 counts per second, but a few so-called hot pixels register much more.*

4.4.2 Dark current

The dark current is caused by thermally excited electrons which pass the semiconductor band gap due to Boltzmann statistics. Therefore, it strongly depends on the temperature of the detector. In many spectrometers, the detectors are cooled to keep the dark current low. This is especially important for modern UV-sensitive back-thinned detectors, as the dark current is very high otherwise.

For a constant temperature, the dark current signal is proportional to the exposure time. To measure the dark current it is therefore best to use a long exposure time and only one exposure, so the offset is only added once. Of course no light should enter the spectrometer during the measurement. For the USB2000, the maximum exposure time is 60 seconds (figure 4.11, right panel). After the measurement is recorded, the offset must be corrected and the remaining signal is the dark current. When correcting for the dark current of a measurement spectrum, the measured dark current must be scaled to the measurement exposure time before it is subtracted:

$$I_{DC}(n) = I(n) - \frac{t_{Meas}}{t_{DC}} \cdot D_{OS} \quad (4.13)$$

Here, $I(n)$ is the intensity measured at each pixel n and D_{OS} is the measured dark current after correcting for the electronic offset. Before subtracting it, it is multiplied by the ratio of the measurement exposure time and the dark current exposure time.

4.4.3 Noise

Two spectra will never be perfectly identical, even if they are recorded under identical conditions. The reason for this is statistic noise in the photon signal and the detector background signal and additionally systematic noise. The statistic noise can be quantified. A measurement spectrum $I = I_B + I_P$ is always composed of the background I_B and the signal induced by the incident photons I_P . If multiple spectra are recorded under identical conditions, both contributions will fluctuate around a mean value. Gaussian error propagation yields the following equation for the total noise σ :

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \sigma_P^2} \quad (4.14)$$

The background noise σ_B is a property of the instrument and is therefore often referred to as instrument noise. It is composed of fluctuations in the electronic offset and the dark current. The photon noise σ_P is a fundamental physical phenomenon. For a given light intensity, the number of photons in a certain time interval fluctuates. The number of registered photons is then distributed according to the Poisson distribution: If M photons are registered on average for a given time interval, the root mean square (RMS) of the obtained distribution will be $\sqrt{M}$. Spectroscopy instruments are designed so that the photon noise, not the instrument noise limits the instrument precision (see figures 4.12 and 4.13).

To measure both the instrument and the photon noise, two spectra I_1 and I_2 are recorded in quick succession, so the magnitude of the noise contributions in the two spectra can be assumed to be equal. If the two spectra are then subtracted from each other, the noise of the difference σ_D calculates to:

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{\sigma_{I_1}^2 + \sigma_{I_2}^2} \quad (4.15)$$

$$= \sqrt{2\sigma_I^2} \quad (4.16)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_{I_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sigma_D \quad (4.17)$$

Note that this is the *average* noise over all pixels. The instrument noise can vary 20-30 % from pixel to pixel in modern CCDs [27]. In order to be entirely precise one would therefore have to characterise the instrument noise of each pixel separately, but since under reasonable measurement conditions photon noise largely dominates the overall noise in a spectrum, it is not necessary to deal with this 'noise of the instrument noise'. When collecting more and more light, at a certain point all statistical noise is so small that only systematic noise remains in the residual.

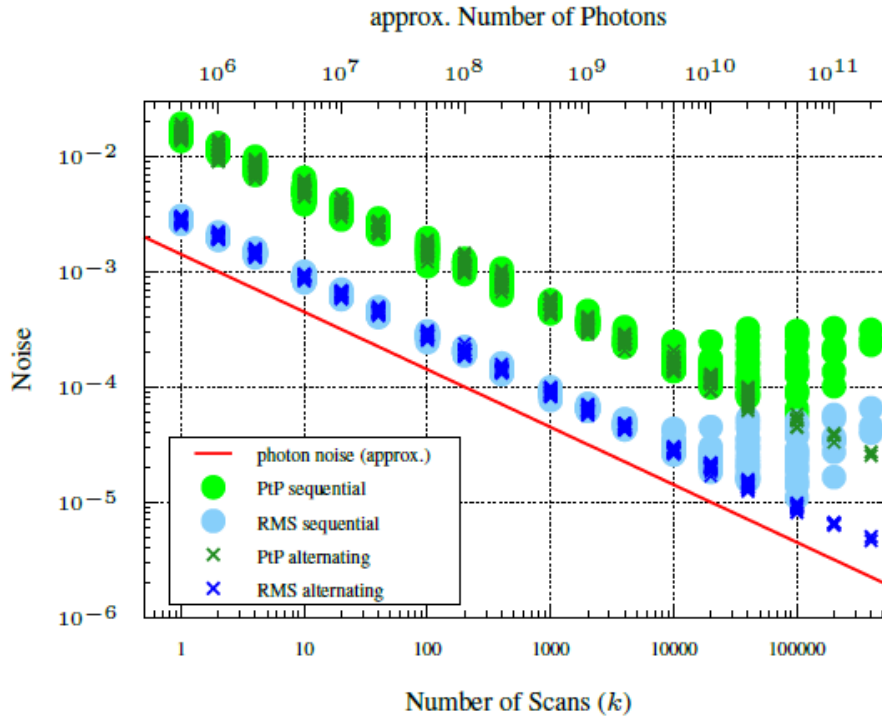


Figure 4.12: *Noise measurements of a modern DOAS spectrometer. All statistical noise can theoretically be reduced indefinitely by adding up more photons (scans), but at a certain point systematic noise remains.* [10]

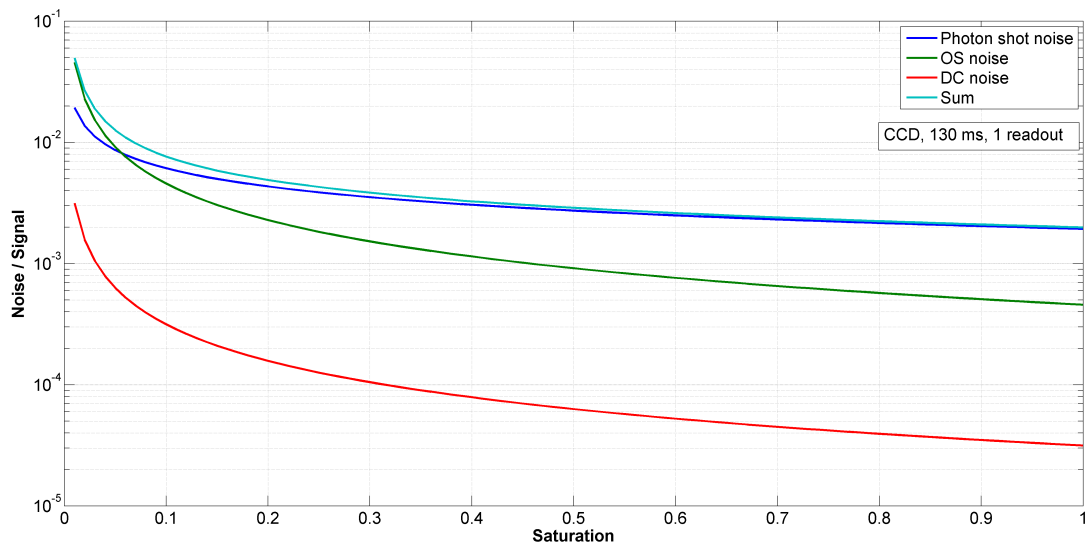


Figure 4.13: *Calculation of the statistical noise contributions in a single readout of a modern CCD for different saturations. Photon noise is the largest statistical noise source for saturations > 5 %.* [27]

4.5 Summary

Each measured spectrum is composed of several superimposed signals:

1. *Background.* The background signal is the measured signal when no light enters the spectrometer (section 4.4):
 - *Electronic offset:* Proportional to the number of scans recorded.
 - *Dark current:* Proportional to the exposure time.
2. *Narrowband effects* (section 4.2.1)
 - *Fraunhofer spectrum:* The Fraunhofer spectrum is the spectrum of the sun as it arrives at the top of the earth's atmosphere. It already contains many very strong absorption structures. These are caused by light absorption by species in the sun's outer layers (photosphere).
 - *Trace gas absorption:* Trace gases in the atmosphere create characteristic absorption structures in the measured spectra. The goal of the DOAS retrieval is to identify and isolate these structures, which typically feature optical densities between 10^{-3} and 10^{-1} .
 - *Raman scattering:* Inelastic scattering filling in Fraunhofer lines.
3. *Broadband effects* (section 4.2.2)
 - *Broadband absorption cross sections*
 - *Rayleigh & Mie scattering:* Elastic scattering either by air molecules (Cabannes line of Rayleigh scattering) or by small water droplets or particles called *aerosols* (Mie scattering).
 - *Spectrometer stray light* (section 4.2.4)
4. *Noise* (section 4.4.3)
 - *Instrument noise:* Proportional to offset and dark current.
 - *Photon noise:* The noise of the number of photons at a given light intensity. Follows Poisson statistics.
 - *Systematic noise:* Sources for systematic noise can be unexplained physical changes in the instrument or in the atmosphere. *Can you think of some sources of systematic noise in this experiment?*

The optical density τ calculated from two spectra I and I_0 is then fitted with the least squares method according to equation 4.6. The resulting slant columns S can be converted to vertical columns and concentrations with knowledge about the light path, see section 4.3.

Chapter 5

Experimental setup

This experiment is conducted at the Institut für Umweltphysik (INF 229), Room 238. During the course of the measurements, the spectra of scattered sunlight as well as those of some artificial light sources will be examined. In both cases, a telescope is used to collect the light. For the atmospheric measurements, a telescope mounted on the roof of the building is used (see figure 5.1). For the laboratory studies, another telescope mounted on an optical bench is employed (figure 5.2).

5.1 General setup

The respective telescope is connected to the spectrometer with a $400\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter quartz fibre bundle with a numerical aperture of 0.22 and protected by a metal tube. The quartz fibre is easily damaged, so please handle it with care. The fibres of the spectrometers can either be connected to the roof telescope fibres or to the lab telescope by couplings.

The spectrometers are located in a metal housing. This housing contains thermoelectric cooling units which are used to stabilize the spectrometer temperature. The data recorded by the spectrometer is sent to a PC via the USB interface. Figure 5.2 gives an impression of the instrumentation.

5.2 The spectrometer

The commercial miniature spectrograph-detector unit Ocean Optics USB2000 represents the heart of the DOAS instrument. It is built in the *Czerny-Turner* design (see Figure 5.3). The light entering the spectrometer through a slit is collimated by a spherical mirror and projected on a grating as a parallel light beam. The grating disperses the light into its spectral components. A second spherical mirror focuses the light on a detector, which consists of a one-dimensional CCD array with 2048 pixels.

The most important features of the detector are:

Number of pixels:	2048
Pixel size:	$14\mu\text{m} \times 200\mu\text{m}$
Full Well Capacity per pixel:	100 000 electrons
A/D - Converter:	12 Bit (i.e., 4096 Counts/Pixel)
Integration time:	3 ms - 65 s



Figure 5.1: Telescopes to collect scattered sky light.

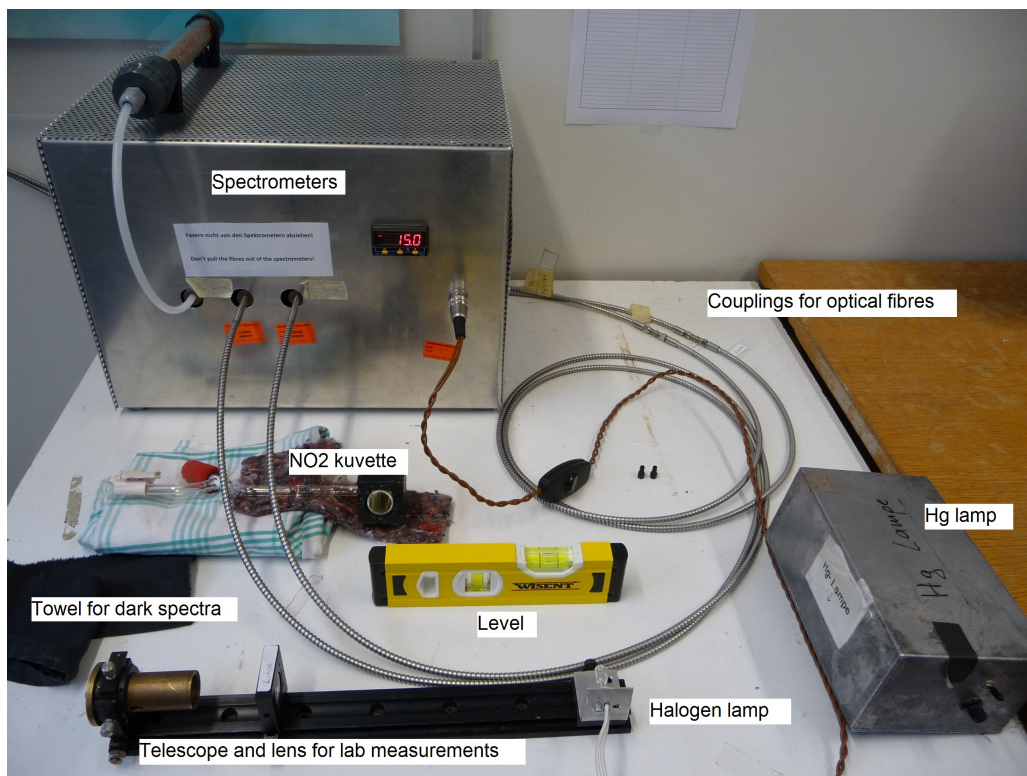


Figure 5.2: Laboratory instrumentation.

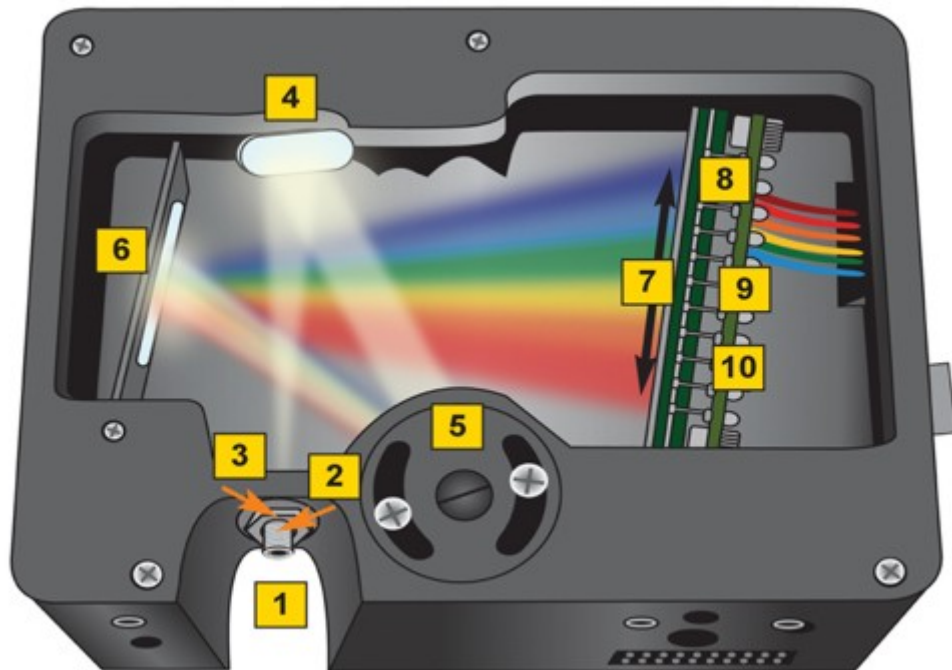


Figure 5.3: *The USB2000 spectrograph with detector. 1: fibre connector; 2: entrance slit; 3: optical filter; 4: collimating mirror; 5: grating; 6: focusing mirror; 7: collection lens; 8: CCD detector.*

Chapter 6

Software

6.1 DOASIS

In this experiment, all data acquisition and evaluation is performed with the program DOASIS (DOAS Intelligent System), which was developed at the Institut für Umweltphysik in the scope of a PhD thesis.

DOASIS can be used to acquire data from the spectrometer and display it in a graphic user interface for evaluation. The program is written for Microsoft Windows, uses a typical Windows interface, and should therefore be easy to learn. When conducting measurements and performing data evaluations 'by hand', all functions are accessed via the menus at the top of the window. However, all functions can also be called from jscript programs. These scripts allow the automation of data acquisition and evaluations.

The DOASIS user interface is split into 4 areas, as shown in figure 6.2.

- *Spectrum Sheet*: This area is used for viewing the spectra. You can switch between all open spectra by clicking on the tabs at the top of the spectrum sheet. The y axis is automatically scaled to fit the displayed spectra. You can zoom in to any part of the spectra by holding the left mouse button down and dragging the mouse.
- *SpecBar*: You can use the Specbar to switch between open spectra. Alternatively, this window can be used to control the spectrometer by clicking on the *PDA* tab.
- *Information window*: This area gives you information on the current spectrum. You can switch between *Statistics* such as maximum, minimum, average and standard deviation (called *Deviation*) and *Properties* such as exposure time and number of exposures.
- *Console*: The console can display different things, depending on which tab you select:
 1. *Output* gives you information about called functions or running scripts.
 2. *Script* is used to start, stop and edit scripts.
 3. *Mini Scripts* can be used to quickly implement small scripts.
 4. *Quicksript* allows the user to define shortcuts to certain scripts.
 5. *Fitting* is used to run DOAS retrievals.

First steps

1. Record a scattered light spectrum.

To do so, change from the *Specbar* register to *PDA*. Set the *Device* to *Ocean Optics USB 2000*, if this has not been done yet. Below, you can set the spectrometer's exposure time

in milliseconds and the amount of exposures to record (*NumScans*), see figure 6.1. Start the measurement by clicking on the *Scan* button.

2. Check the information DOASIS gives you.

In the *Information window* under the register *Statistics* you will be given statistical information about the current spectrum such as the average number of counts (*Average*), the standard deviation from this value (*Deviation*) and the maximum number of counts (*Max*). Also take a look at the *Properties* register.

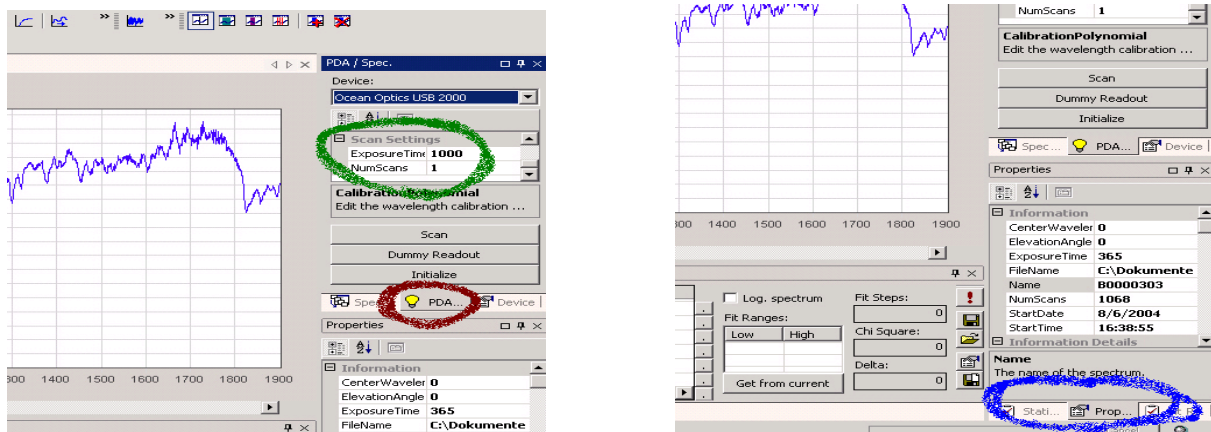


Figure 6.1: *Left side: In the PDA Register you can set the exposure time and number of exposures. Right side: The Properties register contains useful information about the current spectrum.*

3. Record further spectra.

In order not to overwrite your first spectrum, use the menu command *File* → *New...* to open a new *Spectrum Sheet*. Play around with the exposure time and the number of exposures. Record an oversaturated spectrum. (Each pixel has a single exposure full well capacity of $2^{12} - 1 = 4095$ Counts).

4. Compare two spectra with each other.

Use the menu command *View* → *Add Overlay...* to view two spectra on top of each other. If you use the option *Fit all overlays*, the y axis of the overlay spectrum will be adapted so that both spectra are fully visible on the screen.

5. Zoom in to an area of the spectrum.

Hold the left mouse button down while drawing a rectangle around the area of interest. The program will then zoom in to this area. Notice that the *Statistics* in the lower right corner of the screen also change. They now give information about the zoomed in region of the spectrum. Click the right mouse button on the *Spectrum Sheet* to zoom back out.

6. Save your spectrum.

First, create your own folder in the directory

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and save all your files into this folder (except for special cases, which are noted in this script). **If you save your files somewhere else, they will be deleted.**

Open the save dialog using *File* → *Save As...*. DOASIS supports a number of file formats.

The standard format is *.sp2. In this format, all spectrum properties are saved, and this is the format you should use during the experiment. However, if you wish to plot a spectrum using Origin, you will need to save it as a text file. Try this now and use the *.txt format to save your current spectrum.

6.2 Origin

Origin is a plotting and data analysis software similar to Microsoft Excel but with some added capabilities useful for scientific data preparation. The most important functions are:

- Import Data: *File* → *Import* → *Single ASCII...*
- Create a plot:
 1. Select the X-axis: Select a column with the mouse, click the right mouse button on it and select *Set As* → *X*.
 2. Repeat the above step for the Y-axis. The Y-axis column must be to the right of the X-axis column.
 3. Select the columns to be plotted by holding the CTRL key and selecting the multiple columns.
 4. Now click the right mouse button on them and select *Plot* → ...
- Change the axis labels: Right click the labels and select *Properties...*
- Export a plot to a jpeg or other format: *File* → *Export Page...*
- Add a new column: *Column* → *Add New Columns...*
- Fill a column with values calculated from another column: Right click on an empty column, select *Set Column Values....* The letter 'i' can be used to represent the respective row number.

First steps

1. Import your spectrum.
Use the menu entry *File* → *Import* → *Single ASCII...*. If the imported data has the wrong order of magnitude, use the *Import Assistant* instead and change the decimal marker.
2. Create a plot.
Select the two columns you wish to plot and click the right mouse button on them. Use the menu entry *Plot* → *Line*
3. Label the axis.
Click the right mouse button on *X Axis Title* and choose *Properties*.
4. Export the plot.
Use *File* → *Export Page...* to export the plot in a format you can later use in your report. Save your files in your own directory in

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If you save your files somewhere else, they will be deleted.

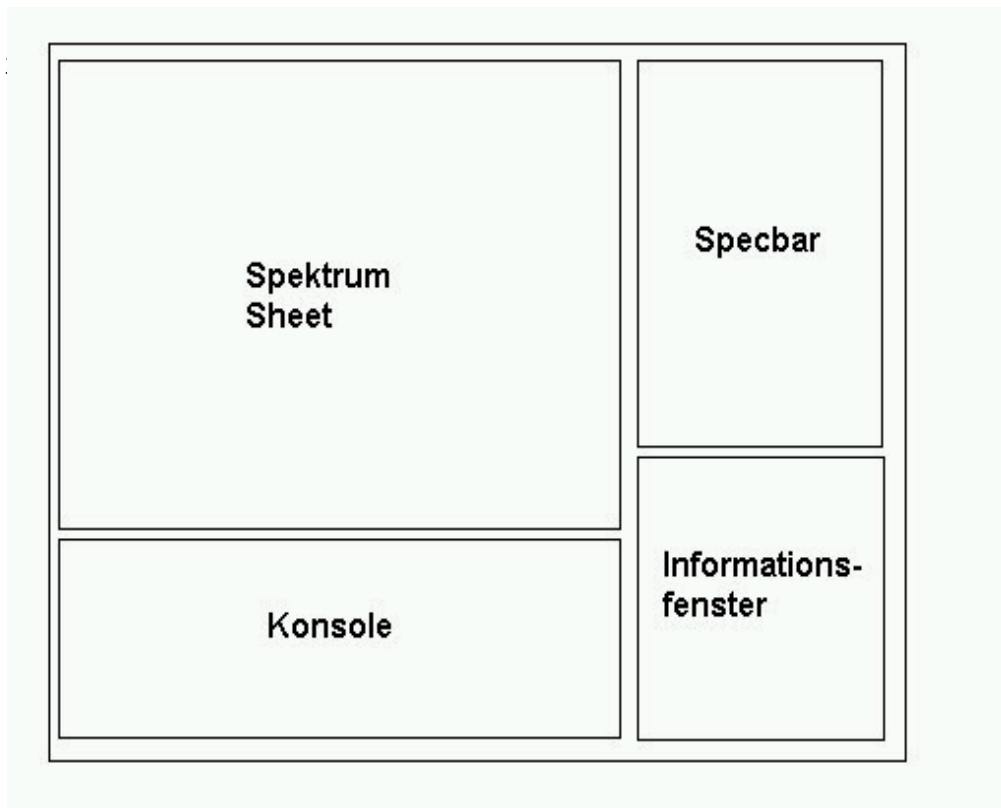
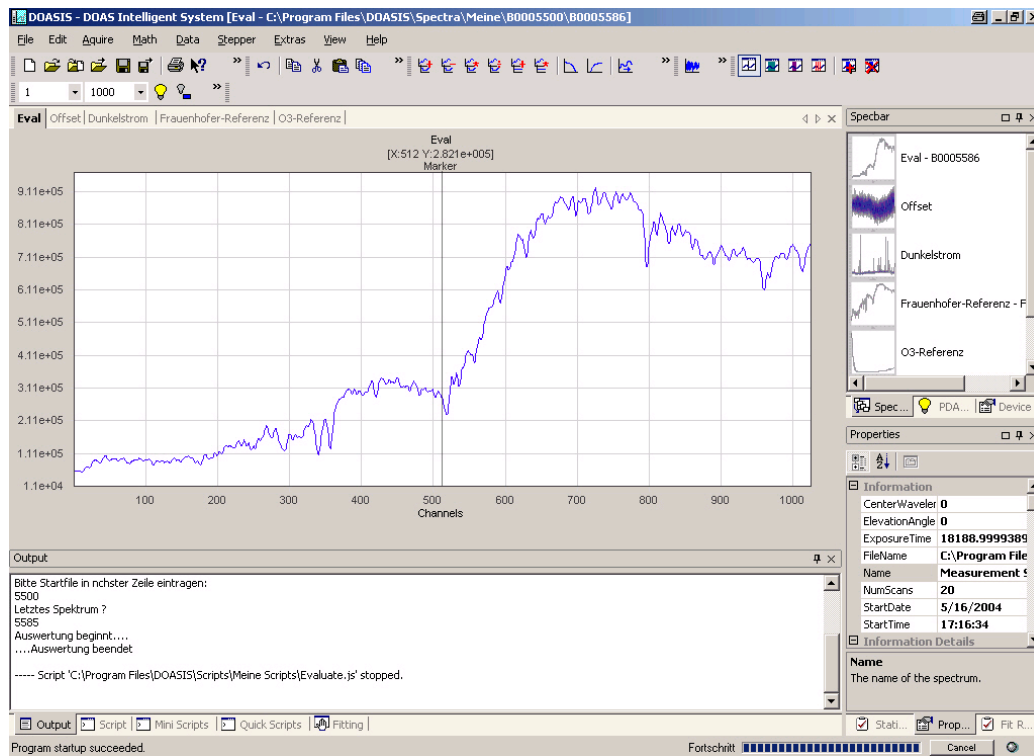


Figure 6.2: The graphic user interface of DOASIS is split into 4 areas.

Chapter 7

Course Instructions

Please do NOT change the computer's time!

The quartz fibre is very sensitive! Do not forcefully bend it or it will break!

The computer should be switched on and automatically record spectra. Stop the automated measurements by clicking on the *Script* register on the bottom left corner of the screen, then click on the *Stop* button. The program will finish the current measurement, which may take a few minutes. If the window *Terminate Script* pops up, click *No*.

When you have familiarized yourself with the experimental setup and evaluation software, you can begin the experimental part of the course. The first measurements will take place in the lab room. Therefore, **CAREFULLY** unlock the fibre coupling. Do not touch the end of the fibre (because of fat and liquid on your skin). In order to record dark spectra, use a tissue, towel or something similar instead.

7.1 Characterizing the instrumentation

When recording a spectrum, two parameters must be taken into account: the *exposure time* and the number of exposures, also called scans. The exposure time is usually given in milliseconds and represents the time the detector is exposed to incoming light. The number of scans (called *NumScans* in DOASIS) tells the spectrometer how many exposures to add for each measurement.

It is important to use the dynamic range of the instrument's detector (see figure 4.13). If the exposure time is chosen too short, the recorded spectrum will consist almost exclusively of electronic offset and the noise pattern will be large. On the other hand, if the exposure time is too long, the detector will be oversaturated and the top of the spectrum will be cut off. *Why should either situation be avoided?*

The *saturation* T of a detector pixel P is defined as:

$$T(P) = \frac{C(P)}{N \cdot C_{max}} \cdot 100 \quad (7.1)$$

Here, $C(P)$ is the number of counts registered in the pixel, N is the number of scans. $C_{max} = 4096$ is the maximum number of counts the pixel can register. At saturations above 80%, the sensitivity of the CCD detector begins to drop off. Therefore, the measured signal is no longer proportional to the incoming photons. To avoid this, a saturation of about 70% is typically used for atmospheric measurements.

In this section you will learn about the composition of a measured spectrum and how to optimize your measurements. The spectrometer's detector is of special importance in this respect.

7.1.1 Offset

1. Record an offset spectrum.

Cover the fibre so no light enters the spectrometer and record an offset spectrum. You should use at least 10,000 exposures at the minimal exposure time. Save the spectrum in the *.sp2 format.

Determine the mean offset value per pixel per scan. Use the Statistics tab and if necessary the menu entry Math → Scalar Operations → ...

7.1.2 Dark current

1. Record a dark current spectrum.

Use the maximum exposure time of 60 seconds. One exposure is enough here. Save the spectrum.

Do you need to correct for the offset here? If so, use the menu entry Math → Correct Offset¹ and then save the spectrum again. Determine the average number of counts per pixel per second caused by dark current and compare this value to the offset.

Discuss the relevance of the dark current correction.

2. Record at least 5 further dark current spectra at smaller exposure times.

Is the dark current constant? Plot the average dark current signal against the exposure time.

When correcting your measurements for offset and dark current, the *Correct Offset* and *Correct Dark Current* functions in DOASIS will automatically deal with the calculations from chapter 4.4.1 and 4.4.2, which means you do not need to worry about the relative number of scans or exposure time of your offset/dark current spectrum and the measurement you want to correct.

7.1.3 Determining the instrument noise and total noise

Instrument noise

1. Take 2 offset spectra (10,000 exposures) back to back and calculate the difference.

Math → Spectrum Operations → Subtract Spectrum. Determine the standard deviation (see *Statistics, Deviation*)

How can the instrument noise of a single spectrum now be calculated?

2. Determine the noise for smaller exposure numbers.

Use at least 5 sets of 2 spectra that were recorded under identical conditions, and do the above calculation.

How should the instrument noise depend on the number of exposures? Plot the instrument noise against the number of exposures.



¹ The commands 'Correct Offset' and 'Correct Dark Current' automatically correct for different exposure times and number of exposures, so you do not need to do this by hand. However, it is important that the *Properties NumScans* and *ExposureTime* of the offset and dark current spectra are correct when these are saved.

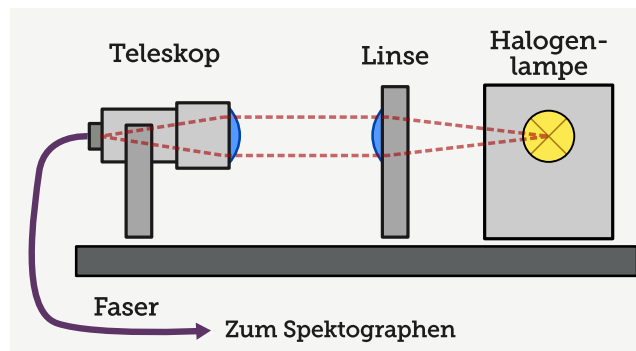


Figure 7.1: *Instrument setup for recording halogen lamp spectra.*

Total noise

1. Connect the fibre to the small optical bench for measuring light from the halogen lamp. Maximize the light throughput into the fibre by adjusting the lenses on the bench until you reach a saturation of about 60% for a small exposure time (< 100 ms).
2. Like with the offset spectra, record 5 sets of 2 lamp spectra each to determine how the total noise depends on the number of exposures. Correct both spectra for offset and dark current (*Math $\rightarrow$ Correct Offset ... and Correct Dark Current ...*).
3. Take the difference of each set of halogen lamp spectra. Determine the standard deviation. This gives you the absolute total noise.

Compare the total noise and the instrument noise.

4. Now divide the two spectra by each other and take the logarithm. This will give you the optical density of the relative total noise.

What do you expect the average value to be? Describe the dependence of the relative total noise on the saturation level and on the number of exposures. What is the physical explanation of the dependencies? Discuss the influence of the noise on the quality of atmospheric measurements.

7.1.4 Calibrating the spectrometer

1. Place the mercury vapour lamp on the optical bench for stability. Record a spectrum of the lamp at a good level of saturation (do not oversaturate the peaks!).
2. Correct for offset and dark current.

You can use a script to save some time. Click on the script tab (see figure 7.2) and select the script *Offset&DunkelstromKorr.js*. Open it in the editor and check the paths in the script. They should be set to *FPDaten: \\FP \\Aktuell \\Korrekturspektren \\Offset.sp2* and *FPDaten: \\FP \\Aktuell \\Korrekturspektren \\Dunkelstrom.sp2*. Please do not change the script. Instead, save the offset and dark current spectra you measured over the old ones at this location. Use the *Quick Scripts* tab next to the *Script* tab to link the script *Offset&DunkelstromKorr.js* to the hotkey position F2. Whenever you want to correct offset and dark current, you can now do so by simply pressing F2. This will start the script.

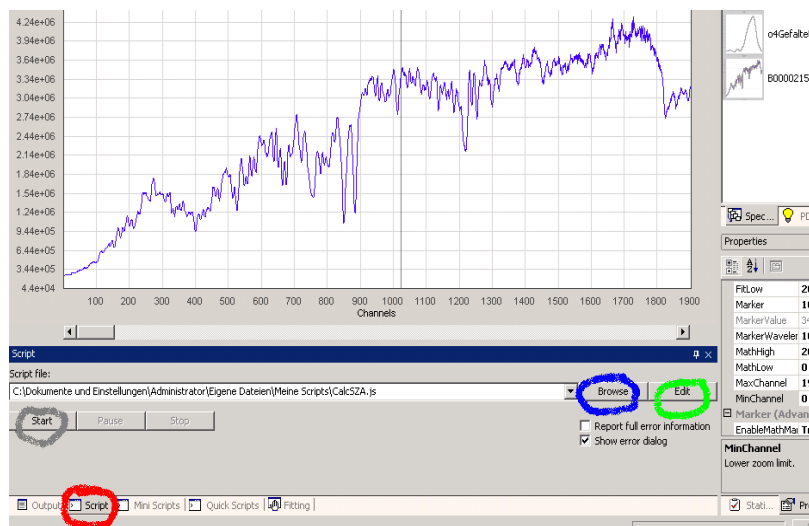


Figure 7.2: The Script tab. Press the button Browse to open a script. The Edit button opens the script in a text editor. Press Start to start the script.

From now on, all measured spectra must be corrected for offset and dark current!

3. Determine the Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) of the 4 largest mercury peaks by hand. The FWHM gives the optical resolution of the spectrometer.

What is the optical resolution of the spectrometer? Is it constant for all wavelengths?

4. Determine the wavelength calibration.

Zoom in to a mercury peak and place the marker on the center of it (View → Markers → show Marker). You may also derive the center with a gauss fit on the line. The Properties window now gives you the channel number of the marker. Use figure 7.3 and the Data Calibration Assistant (Data → Calibration Assistant) to perform the calibration. Use a 2nd order polynomial. *Why shouldn't you use the peak at 313nm for the calibration?* Write down the polynomial coefficients as they appear in the Output window. Now open the script *Kalibrieren.js* for editing and replace the old calibration coefficients with your new ones. Save the script and link it to the F3 key. You can now add the wavelength information to any measured spectrum by pressing F3.

Note: The wavelength information displayed above the spectrum is not always accurate. To get the accurate wavelength of a certain pixel, double-click in the spectrum to move the Marker there and then click and hold the Marker. The accurate wavelength will be displayed at the upper end of the Marker, if you move the Marker around.

Determine the optical resolution of the spectrometer in nanometers.

7.2 Laboratory Measurements

In this part of the course, you will prepare a reference cross section of NO_2 and measure the concentration of NO_2 in a gas cell. You will learn how to run a DOAS fit.

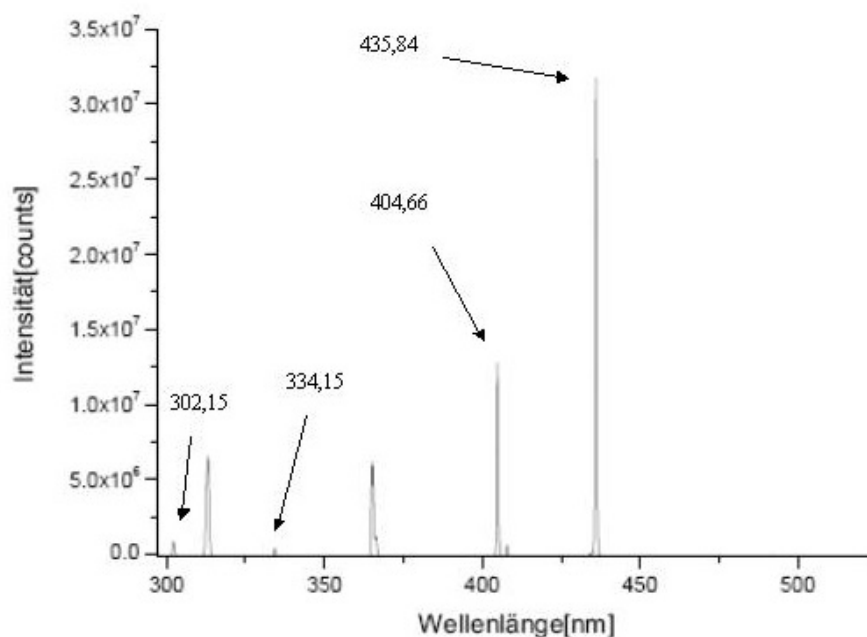


Figure 7.3: Spectrum of the mercury vapour lamp recorded with the USB2000 spectrometer.

7.2.1 Convolution of reference cross sections

The reference cross sections of the trace gases can be measured in the laboratory under controlled conditions, and many research groups are specialized on such experiments.² However, because these reference measurements are typically measured at a much higher wavelength resolution than used in the DOAS measurements, the references must first be adapted to the resolution of the spectrometer used in this experiment. This is done by convolving the high resolution reference cross-section with the DOAS instrument slit function. The slit function is the signal measured by the spectrometer when a monochromatic light source is observed and is a measure for the optical wavelength resolution of the instrument. The convolution smooths the reference and removes high resolution structures that the DOAS instrument cannot detect with its limited resolution.

The literature cross section is in units of [cm²], and represents the absorption of NO₂ as a function of the wavelength. It was recorded at a much higher resolution than our spectrometer has. In order to use this high resolution cross section in a DOAS evaluation of our spectra, it first needs to be smoothed to the resolution of our spectrometer. This is done by *convolving* it with the instrument point spread function. This function gives the optical resolution: it represents the spectral line shape of monochromatic light when measured by a particular spectrometer. In order to conduct this convolution, however, we first need to know the pixel - wavelength calibration of the spectrometer.

What is the convolution doing mathematically?

1. Zoom in to the highest single mercury vapour line. Place the green *Math Marker* (View → Markers) over the line. To move the *Math Marker*, move the mouse to the lower rim of the spectrum. An arrow will appear, which allows you to move the marker. Moving the mouse to the sides of the green area will allow you to resize it. Mark the mercury line so it is completely covered by the green area.

²A comprehensive database of relevant atmospheric species can be found at <http://www.uv-vis-spectral-atlas-mainz.org/>

2. Place the *Marker* in the center of the mercury line, so that the area under the emission line on both sides of the vertical black marker is the same.
3. Create a new *Spectrum Sheet* (*File* → *New...*) with 2048 channels. This sheet will contain the result of the convolution. **It needs the spectrometer's wavelength calibration (F3)!**
4. Open an NO_2 literature cross section spectrum.
You will find literature cross sections in the folder *Referenzspektren*.
5. With NO_2 opened in the spectrum sheet, select *Math* → *Convolute...*. The *Convolution Kernel* is your mercury line. The *Target* is the new spectrum you just created which has your wavelength calibration. Don't use *Auto search peak in kernel*, but do use *Normalize convolution kernel*.
6. At this point, call your experiment adviser to check that all settings are done correctly. This may save you a lot of time.
7. Run the convolution. *Compare the high resolution reference cross section with the convoluted cross section. How do they differ?*
8. Repeat the above steps to convolute references for ozone, O_4 and H_2O . You will need these references for the evaluation of the atmospheric measurements.
What is the effect of the convolution on these references?

7.2.2 Recording a spectrum of the NO_2 gas cell

We will now hold a gas cell of length L into the light path between the halogen lamp and the fiber. The Lambert-Beer equation 4.2 can then be written in a simplified form:

$$I(\lambda, L) = I_0(\lambda) \cdot \exp(-\sigma_{\text{NO}_2}(\lambda) \cdot \rho_{\text{NO}_2} \cdot L) \quad (7.2)$$

$I(\lambda)$ and $I_0(\lambda)$ can be measured directly in this experiment.

1. Record and save a well saturated spectrum of the halogen lamp without any gas cells between the lamp and the fiber. How many exposures are required? Remember that you want to evaluate for NO_2 , so make sure the saturation level of the spectrum is good in the wavelength range you later want to do the evaluation in. Some parts of the spectrum may be oversaturated ...
2. Repeat the measurement, but this time place the gas cell between the lamp and the fiber. Save your spectrum.

Using the 2 spectra you just recorded, you now can calculate the concentration of NO_2 in the gas cell. To do this, you will need the convoluted reference cross section of NO_2 you prepared in the previous section.

7.2.3 Determining the NO_2 concentration in the gas cell

By directly applying the Beer - Lambert law of absorption, you can now calculate the NO_2 concentration.

1. Correct your measured spectra for offset and dark current.
2. Divide the spectra by each other (*Math* → *Spectrum Operations* → ...).

3. Take the logarithm (*Math* → *Logarithm*).

By performing the above steps, you have calculated the optical density τ from equation 4.5:

$$\tau = \ln \left(\frac{I_0(\lambda)}{I(\lambda)} \right) = \sigma_{NO_2}(\lambda) \cdot \rho_{NO_2} \cdot L \quad (7.3)$$

Why is it unproblematic if the saturation or the number of scans of the two spectra is different?

σ_{NO_2} is the cross section of NO_2 , which you have prepared for this spectrometer. In order to calculate the concentration ρ_{NO_2} , we will now perform a least-squares fit. This fit varies the SCD such that χ^2 in the following term is minimized (compare equation 4.6):

$$\chi^2 = \left[\ln \left(\frac{I_0(\lambda)}{I(\lambda)} \right) - S_{NO_2} \cdot \sigma_{NO_2}(\lambda) - \sum_k b_k \lambda^k \right]^2 \quad (7.4)$$

This step is done by the fit routine in DOASIS.

1. Select a reference cross section which you want to fit to the measured signal. Click on the *Fitting* tab on the bottom of the screen (see figure 7.4). Double click on a line *Reference Name* column to add a reference. The reference cross section spectrum must be open in DOASIS.
2. Select an appropriate fit range. To do this, place the red *Fit Marker* (*View* → *Markers*) over the area of the spectrum that you want to fit. The *Fit Marker* can be moved and resized in the same way as the *Math Marker*.

When selecting a wavelength range for your fit, try to keep the following aspects in mind:

- As a general rule, the width of the fitting range should be < 50 nm.
- *How is the saturation of your spectrum?* Don't include areas of the spectrum in which the saturation is low.
- *Where are the largest differential absorption structures of the trace gas you want to evaluate?*
- *What other trace gases must be taken into account in this wavelength range?* (In this case, the gas cell only contains NO_2 , but in the atmosphere there will be several trace gases which absorb simultaneously.)

To study these aspects, it can be helpful to compare your measurement with the reference cross section. First, save your measurement. Then, run a high pass filter over it (*Math* → *Filter* → *High Pass Binomial...*) to remove broadband structures. Do the same for the NO_2 reference, and overlay the two spectra on top of each other. You should now be able to clearly see the NO_2 absorption in your gas cell. Find an appropriate fit range, then use the *Undo* function to undo the filtering (alternatively you can reload your saved spectra).

Once you have found an appropriate fit range, you can enter this directly into the *Properties* window (*Marker* → *FitHigh*, *FitLow*) or use the red *Fit Marker* (*View* → *Markers* → *Show Fit Marker*) to select a range and then click on *Get* in the *Fitting* tab to automatically input the edges of the fit range into the fit scenario.

3. Select a DOAS-polynomial of 3rd to 5th order, in order to account for broad structures like the intensity variation of the lamp. (You can also add an Offset polynomial to correct for spectrometer stray light.)

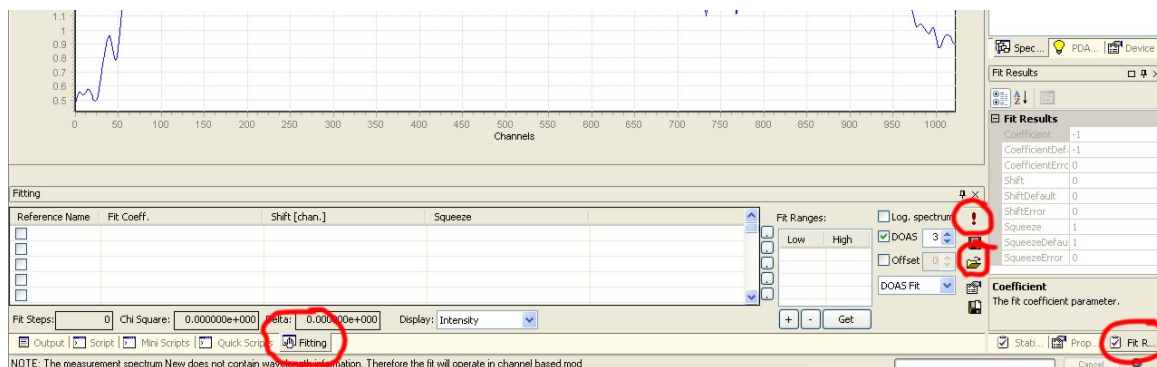


Figure 7.4: *The Fitting tab. The references are selected in the column Reference Name. Press Get to input the current edges of the Fit Marker into the fit settings. The exclamation point starts the fit. The disk button below it can be used to save the fit settings in a Fit Scenario. Log. spectrum takes the logarithm of the spectrum before doing the fit. It should be **deactivated** here as you already have taken the logarithm!*

4. Start the fit by clicking on the red exclamation button.

After performing the fit, the fit coefficient for which the minimal χ^2 was found is given in the *Fit Coeff.* column of the *Fitting* register. Since the spectra were prepared according to the above equations, the fit coefficient represents the column density $\rho_{\text{NO}_2} \cdot L$ and the unit is molec/cm². The *Shift* value is the amount of pixels the spectrum was shifted to obtain an optimum fit, the *Squeeze* value is the factor by which it was squeezed or stretched. These values should be close to 0 and 1, respectively.

Now take a look at the *Fit Residual* spectrum and the obtained χ^2 value.

What should Fit Residual look like in the case of an ideal fit?

Try varying the fit range. You can save the *Fit Result* page by using *Print* and selecting *Microsoft XPS Document Writer* as *Printer*. (Deactivate the *Print spectrum information* button, since it takes up too much space on your plot.) This is very useful if you want to show and compare the quality of your fits in your protocol or report.

When you have found the ideal fit range for this NO₂ measurement, take two new spectra of the halogen lamp and the gas cell, but this time optimize the saturation level (to about 80%) in this wavelength range. Rerun the fit.

Calculate the NO₂ concentration and the mixing ratio (amount NO₂ molecules per air molecule) in the gas cell assuming normal pressure and temperature.³

If you leave the lab now, remember to **CAREFULLY** reattach the fibre coupling to the fibres of the telescope on the roof. Check if the telescope points to the zenith and start the script *DatenSammeln.js*.

7.3 Atmospheric Measurements

In this section you will use the techniques you have learned to evaluate atmospheric measurement spectra recorded with this experimental setup. The instruments typically run in a zenith viewing direction, and it will be your task to evaluate the spectra from past measurements.

³Avogadro's constant = $6.022 \cdot 10^{23} \text{ Mol}^{-1}$, Molar volume = $22,4 \frac{\text{l}}{\text{Mol}}$

First, you will evaluate ozone, then NO₂. For each species, you will calculate slant column densities as well as vertical columns. The approach will be to first evaluate a single measurement by means of which you will optimize the fit settings. These settings will then be saved in a *Fit Scenario* and will then be used to automatically evaluate the other spectra of that day. The final product of the evaluations will be a time series of the vertical and slant column densities for the entire day.

7.3.1 Configuring the fit with a single measurement

1. Pick a day to evaluate. The Webcam pictures in the directory *FPDaten:\FP\Daten\Webcam* show the sky conditions. If possible, choose a sunny day. Days with rain or heavy clouds tend to be difficult to evaluate. The spectra from the automated measurements are saved in *FPDaten:\FP\Daten*. The file *SpektrenInfos.dat* also saved in this directory contains useful information on the saved spectra. Find a midday and evening spectrum from the day you wish to evaluate. To do this, open *SpektrenInfos.dat* to find the *Fraunhofer reference*. This is the spectrum recorded at the smallest solar zenith angle. Write down the spectrum number of this spectrum. Also find a spectrum recorded in the evening at a solar zenith angle close to 80° and write down the spectrum number. Open these two spectra, correct them for offset and dark current, and save them in your directory.

Why is it advantageous to use a spectrum with a high solar zenith angle to optimize the settings for your fit?

2. Calculate the Ring Spectrum.
Open the *Fraunhofer reference* and add your wavelength calibration. Then use the menu entry *Math → Ring Spectrum* to calculate a Ring spectrum. Save the obtained spectrum. It will be used in the fit procedure to correct for the Ring effect.
3. *Tip:* Go back to the scattered light spectra. Divide the evening spectrum by the *Fraunhofer reference* and calculate the optical density by taking the logarithm. You should now be able to see the structured absorption lines of ozone in the lower wavelength range, and NO₂ in the higher wavelength range. This should give you a good idea of the wavelength ranges where you can do the fit (see item 5 below). Save your optical density spectrum.
4. For the automated retrieval however, go back to your *Fraunhofer reference* and take the logarithm. Save this spectrum. Instead of dividing by the *Fraunhofer reference*, we will now include the logarithm of this spectrum as a reference cross section in the fit. It needs to be input as the **first fit reference** in the fit scenario.⁴
5. Include your *Ring spectrum* in the fit scenario and link shift and squeeze of the Ring spectrum to the reference. Then open all convolved trace gas cross sections and include them in the fit scenario. It is advisable to link the shift and squeeze of all trace gases together (for example, link the shift and squeeze of NO₂ and O₄ to O₃).

⁴Mathematically, fitting the logarithm of the *Fraunhofer reference* is the same as dividing by it as can be shown in the Beer-Lambert law (equation 4.4), except for one small difference: The fit now allows the spectrum to be slightly shifted against the measurement spectrum. This can be useful if the spectrometer's wavelength calibration is not perfectly stable during the course of the day. Strictly speaking, the fit coefficient of the logarithm of the *Fraunhofer reference* can be fixed to 1 (or -1, depending on the setup of the fit scenario). The automated retrieval script monitors the fit coefficient of the first reference spectrum, and gives a warning if it is not close to 1.

Why is this helpful to get realistic results?

- Find appropriate wavelength ranges for ozone and for NO₂.

What are the criteria for finding these fit ranges?

Use the overlay function of DOASIS to compare your optical density spectrum to the individual reference cross sections of ozone, NO₂, H₂O and O₄. Try to avoid wavelength regions in which the H₂O absorption is prominent, as removing these structures can be tricky.

- Once you have found appropriate fit settings, select the evening spectrum in the spectrum sheet and start the fit. Remember to include the reference cross sections of any species absorbing in your fit range as well as the Ring spectrum. *Compare your fit scenario with equation 4.6 and identify all terms, including the polynomials.*
- Review the fit results. Ask yourself the following questions to assess the quality of the fit:
 - What does the fit residual look like?
 - Were the traces gases included in the fit identified?
 - What is the χ^2 value?
- Play around with the fit settings until you are content that the configuration is correct and the fit quality is good.
- Save your final fit settings in a *Fit Scenario* by clicking on the disk button below the exclamation point. Use the path *FPDaten:\FP\aktuell*.

7.3.2 Automated evaluation of an entire day

Now you will evaluate the spectra from the entire day using the settings you found for the evening spectrum. The script *AutomatischeAuswertung.js* in the directory *FPDaten:\FP\Daten\Scripts* will help you. It uses your offset and dark current spectra to correct each individual measurement spectrum, then uses your *Fit Scenario* to subsequently run the fit for each spectrum. The fit results are stored in a text file.

The ozone evaluation is somewhat easier than the NO₂ retrieval. Therefore, it is best to start with ozone. Also, plot the fit results for ozone and make sure they are reasonable before starting the NO₂ evaluation.

- Before you begin the automated retrieval, make sure your offset and dark current spectra are saved as *Offset.sp2* and *Dunkelstrom.sp2* in the directory *FPDaten:\FP\aktuell\Korrekturspektren*. Also, your *Fit Scenario* needs to be in the directory *FPDaten:\FP\aktuell*.
- Now open *Streulicht\SpektrenInfos.dat* and write down the file numbers of the first and last spectrum of the day you wish to evaluate.
- Start *AutomatischeAuswertung.js*. The script will ask you for the following input: ⁵

⁵WARNING: This script closes all open spectra in DOASIS, so be sure to save your data first. Also, the input window unfortunately does not accept the BACKSPACE or DEL keys. If you make a typing mistake you will need to start the script again from the beginning.

- First, the script tells you to recheck your offset, dark current and fit scenario files. As you have already done this click the mouse in the next free line in the output window and press ENTER.
- Now the script asks for the name of your *Fit Scenario*. Type in the file name, but do not include the file extension *.fs. Press ENTER.
- The script now asks for the file number of the first spectrum to evaluate. Type in the number and press ENTER.
- Now type in the number of the last spectrum and press ENTER.
- Finally, the script asks for a name for the result text file. Type in any name less than 8 characters and don't include a file extension. Press ENTER.

If all the information was entered correctly, the script now runs the evaluation. The χ^2 values are displayed in the output window along with any warnings that may occur.

4. Once the evaluation has finished, you can import your result file stored in *FPDaten:\FP\aktuell* into Origin. In Origin, create the following plots:

- Time series of the slant column density (SCD) for ozone and NO₂
- Langley Plot for ozone
- Time series of the vertical column density (VCD) for Ozone in Dobson Units⁶

What should the time series of ozone SCDs look like? What about the VCD time series?

What is the main difference between the ozone and NO₂ time series, and what causes this difference?

If you leave the lab now, remember to **CAREFULLY** reattach the fibre coupling to the fibres of the telescope on the roof. Check if the telescope points to the zenith and start the script *DatenSammeln.js*.

7.4 Multi Axis DOAS (MAX-DOAS)

The MAX-DOAS technique is used to gain insight into the vertical distribution of trace gases in the atmosphere. To this extent, scattered light spectra are recorded using different telescope elevation angles.

7.4.1 Recording scattered light spectra at different elevation angles

If possible, you should record 4 sets of MAX-DOAS measurements. Each set consists of three measurements at different telescope elevation angles. These three measurements should be conducted in rapid succession if possible. *Why is this important?* Make sure that the telescope is clean and that there is no water or ice in the tube:

- Measure a spectrum at 7° elevation.
- Measure a spectrum at 12° elevation.
- Measure a zenith spectrum at 90° elevation.

⁶1 DU = $2,6 \cdot 10^{16} \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{cm}^2}$.

Use the metal plate mounted on the telescope to adjust to the different elevation angles. Even though the telescope needs to be readjusted very often, please record the MAX-DOAS measurements in the order mentioned above: 7° , 12° , 90° , 7° , 12° , 90° , 7° , ... Be sure to adjust the exposure time of the spectrometer to obtain an appropriate saturation level for each individual spectrum. The individual spectra do **NOT** need to be recorded at the same exposure time. Take about 1000 exposures per spectrum. Note the weather conditions during the measurements to be able to better interpret your data later.

7.4.2 MAX-DOAS evaluation

1. Use the respective 90° spectra as your *Fraunhofer reference* spectrum for each set. Perform the necessary corrections and calculate a Ring spectrum.
2. Evaluate the individual MAX-DOAS spectra for ozone, NO_2 , and O_4 .
3. Plot your results with Origin. How do the SCDs of the individual species depend on the telescope elevation angle? How do they depend on the reference?

7.5 Before you leave...

- Adjust the telescope to the zenith position
- Start *DatenSammeln.js*
- Remove any files you have added to *FPDaten:\FP\aktuell* and put them in your own folder for later reference.

Chapter 8

Course Report

Be sure to include the following points in your course report:

1. Characterizing the instrumentation

- Offset and dark current (give average values)
- Plot the dark current signal as a function of the exposure time. Is the dark current stable?
- Plot the instrument noise as a function of the number of exposures
- Plot the relative total noise as a function of the spectrum saturation level
- Compare the instrument noise to the total noise
- Determine the wavelength calibration and the optical resolution of the spectrometer

2. Gas cell measurements

- NO₂ concentration in the gas cell
- NO₂ mixing ratio in the gas cell

3. Differential slant column densities for O₃ and NO₂

- Plot ΔSCD for ozone and NO₂ as a function of time of day
- What should these plots look like? Explain why.
- Do these plots match your expectations? Give possible explanations for any discrepancies.

4. Langley Plot for ozone

- Langley Plot: ΔSCD as a function of Air Mass Factor (AMF) for $\text{AMF} < 5$.
- Determine the ozone reference slant column density SCD_{ref} in the Fraunhofer reference by extrapolating the Langley Plot for $\text{AMF} < 3.5$. Also estimate the error of this value by determining a maximum and minimum possible extrapolation in your data.

5. Plot the time series of the ozone vertical column density (VCD) over the course of the day. Include error bars. Compare your VCD to ozone data from satellite measurements. This data can be found at <http://ozoneaq.gsfc.nasa.gov>. Heidelberg is at longitude 8.49 and latitude 49.29.

6. MAX-DOAS

- Plot the ΔSCD as a function of the telescope elevation angle for ozone, NO_2 and O_4 for each set and compare the measurement sets.
- Which of these trace gases were found in the troposphere, which were only seen in the stratosphere?
- Can you see the influence of clouds in your O_4 measurements?

Please include a critical discussion of your results. Include possible explanations for unexpected results.

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