Mapping tropospheric ozone profiles from an airborne ultraviolet–visible spectrometer

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We present a novel technique for retrieving ozone (O₃) profiles and especially tropospheric O₃ from airborne UV/visible spectrometer measurements. This technique utilizes radiance spectra from one down-looking and two up-looking (85° and 75°) directions, taking advantage of the O₃ absorption structure in the Huggins (300–340-nm) and Chappuis (530–650-nm) bands. This technique is especially sensitive to tropospheric O₃ below and ≤8 km above the aircraft with a vertical resolution of 2–6 km and is sensitive to lower and middle stratospheric O₃ with a vertical resolution of 8–15 km. It can measure tropospheric O₃ at spatial resolutions of 2 km × 2 km or higher and is therefore well suited for regional air-quality studies and validation of satellite measurements. © 2005 Optical Society of America

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1. Introduction

Ozone plays a key role in the chemical processes and energy budget of the troposphere.¹,² Because of the sparse distribution of in situ observations and the large spatial and temporal variability of tropospheric ozone (O₃), remote-sensing techniques are crucial for studying its distributions, photochemical sources and sinks, transport, and seasonal behavior.

Current remote-sensing instruments typically provide a total column O₃ abundance. Retrieving the tropospheric column O₃ requires estimating and subtracting the upper portion of the total column. Most current tropospheric O₃ retrievals use this residual-based method,³–¹⁶ but they are subject to significant uncertainties in the assumptions made in estimating the upper portion of column O₃ and to relatively coarse spatial resolution (>1° longitude × 1° latitude) and temporal resolution (i.e., monthly). These different techniques can differ significantly from one another by as much as 20 Dobson Units (DU) (1 DU = 2.687 × 10¹⁶ molecules cm⁻²) in some critical areas (e.g., North Africa near the tropics, a region of intense biomass burning during December–February) and also disagree in important respects with the current model calculations of the tropospheric O₃.¹⁷ Direct retrieval of tropospheric O₃ from space has been demonstrated with Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) spectra but with coarse vertical (10–15 km) and spatial (960 km × 80 km or 320 km × 40 km) resolution.¹⁸–²²

Because satellite-based measurements of tropospheric O₃ usually have a spatial resolution coarser than tens of kilometers (e.g., the highest resolution for tropospheric O₃ is currently from an Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) with a resolution of 13 km × 24 km at nadir), intermediate-scale measurements (between in situ measurements and satellite observations) are lacking. However, the lifetimes of tropospheric O₃ and many of its reactive precursors are long enough that atmospheric transport plays an important role in their atmospheric distribution. It is therefore difficult to relate the in situ observations to larger spatial scales and to validate area satellite measurements against point in situ measurements. Spectroscopic remote sensing from aircraft offers a unique capability to measure gases on intermediate spatial scales, thereby filling the gap between in situ measurements and spaceborne observations.

Since the late 1980s airborne remote sensing has
been used to measure the column abundances of trace gases (e.g., O₃, NO₂, OClO, BrO) from UV/visible zenith-sky absorption spectra with the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) approach.\textsuperscript{23–28} Jiang \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{29} demonstrated the concept of retrieving tropospheric O₃ by using ratios of diffuse radiances (i.e., both zenith and off-axis angle radiances) to direct irradiances from ground-based measurements. The larger multiple-scattering effects in the troposphere compared with those in the stratosphere greatly enhance the optical path length of tropospheric O₃, thus making the ratios of diffuse radiances to direct irradiances sensitive to tropospheric O₃ and insensitive to stratospheric O₃. Recently off-axis measurements with an airborne UV/visible spectrometer have been taken to retrieve trace-gas concentrations. Petritoli \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{30} measured O₃ concentrations near the flight altitude from measured UV spectra at three angles (one near zenith and two near horizontal) in which the zenith-sky spectrum was used as a reference. The Airborne Multi-axis Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (AMAXDOAS) instrument is configured to take UV/visible measurements from as many as 10 viewing zenith angles (0°, 60°, 80°, 85°, and 88° for both up-looking and down-looking directions).\textsuperscript{31} This instrument can separate the tropospheric and stratospheric portions of a significant number of gases (O₃, NO₂, OClO, BrO, SO₂, HCHO).\textsuperscript{31} Bruns \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{32} performed sensitivity studies to show that profile information for NO₂ can be obtained from this instrument. The NO₂ slant column densities are first fitted by using the DOAS approach at these 10 angles with an external solar reference spectrum; then a vertical profile is derived by using the optimal estimation approach by matching the calculated and derived slant-column densities.

In this paper we introduce a novel method for accurately retrieving tropospheric O₃ profiles from airborne UV/visible spectrometer measurements with the optimal estimation approach.\textsuperscript{33} This tropospheric retrieval utilizes O₃ absorption in the Huggins (300–340-nm) and Chappuis (530–650-nm) bands from measurements at three viewing zenith angles (VZAs): any down-looking angle that intercepts the surface and two up-looking directions at VZAs of 85° and 75°. Radiance spectra are normalized to direct irradiances or zenith-sky radiances so that no external solar reference spectra are needed. Ozone profiles can be resolved with moderate vertical resolution (2–6 km) in the troposphere and vertical resolution of 8–15 km in the lower and middle stratospheres. Because only one down-looking angle is needed, the airborne spectrometer can be designed to scan spatially, as some satellite instruments such as GOME and the Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography (SCIAMACHY) do. With the scanning capability of the proposed airborne instrumentation, tropospheric O₃ profiles can be mapped with spatial resolutions of 2 km × 2 km at nadir or even higher.

2. Instrument Design and Configuration

This technique is based on a proposed instrument, the Tropospheric Optical Spectrometer (TROPSPEC). TROPSPEC is a UV/visible array detector-based spectrometer system, consisting of four spectrographs measuring above and below the aircraft with a 0.2-nm FWHM spectral resolution from 300 to 400 nm (the UV channel) and a 0.6-nm resolution from 400 to 700 nm (the visible channel). The spectral sampling is assumed to be 0.05 and 0.15 nm/pixel for these regions, respectively. TROPSPEC scans about the aircraft roll axis: The down-looking UV and visible spectrographs measure across the flight track, and the up-looking UV and visible spectrographs measure at different zenith angles. For the results presented below the integration time is 10 s and the instantaneous field of view is 7.6°. The direct irradiance at flight altitude is also measured with a diffuser plate by applying the rotating shadow-band technique.\textsuperscript{34} This configuration gives a spatial resolution of 2 km × 2 km at nadir for down-looking measurements, assuming a flight altitude of 15 km and a flight speed of 700 km/h. If the instrument scans to an off-axis angle of 79.8°, the swath across the flight direction is ~166.0 km. This high spatial resolution and superior spatial coverage make TROPSPEC well suited for satellite validation and regional air-quality monitoring. The estimated measurement errors are based on current detector technology and radiances modeled with GOME and SCIAMACHY heritage as guidance. The signal-to-noise ratios (S/N) of both up-looking and down-looking measurements at 300, 340, and 600 nm are ~250, 3000, and 2000, respectively, for the above flight configuration, assuming the U.S. standard atmosphere with LOWTRAN background aerosols\textsuperscript{35} (aerosol optical thickness is ~0.14 at 550 nm with background stratospheric aerosols and a visibility of 50 km in the troposphere), a surface albedo of 0.10, and a solar zenith angle (SZA) of 45°. In addition to the O₃ profile retrieval presented below, stratospheric and tropospheric columns of several trace gases can be measured, like AMAXDOAS but with a larger across-track swath. Aerosol properties can be retrieved with Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS)-like\textsuperscript{36} and Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)-like approaches\textsuperscript{37} from the UV and the visible spectra, respectively, and cloud information can also be obtained from spectra inside and outside absorption features of the O₂–O₂ collision complex.\textsuperscript{38} The aerosol and cloud information can be further used to correct gas trace-gas retrieval.\textsuperscript{39}

3. Methodology for Ozone Profile Retrieval

In the remote sensing of O₃ and other species, typically a reference spectrum is necessary to normalize the measured radiance spectra (i.e., taking the ratio of the radiance spectra to the reference spectrum before retrieval or synthesizing the radiance spectrum beginning with the reference spectrum). For our method either the direct irradiance or the zenith-sky radiance can serve this purpose. This normalization
not only serves as relative radiometric and wavelength calibrations but also reduces interference from stratospheric aerosols on retrieval because the effect is common to both reference and target spectra. When a zenith-sky reference is used the normalization minimizes the Ring effect for a similar reason.

We use the wavelength and the temperature-dependent \( O_3 \) absorption structure in the Huggins bands\(^{40} \) (i.e., 300–340 nm) and the weak \( O_3 \)-absorbing Chappuis bands (i.e., 530–650 nm) for \( O_3 \) profile retrieval.

To describe the physical principles of our technique, we introduce the commonly used concept of the air mass factor (AMF), which is defined here as the ratio of the average path length for photons intercepted by the spectrometer in a particular atmospheric layer to the vertical thickness of the layer. The AMF at a certain layer \( i \) can be linked to the radiance change \( (\Delta I = I' - I) \) after the \( O_3 \) absorption optical thickness is perturbed by a small amount \( \Delta \tau_i \) at that layer:

\[
I' = \frac{I_{\text{ref}}}{\exp(-\text{AMF}_i \times \Delta \tau_i)}. \tag{1}
\]

The AMF for that layer can be approximated as

\[
\text{AMF}_i \approx -\frac{\ln I' - \ln I_{\text{ref}}}{\Delta \tau_i} \approx -\frac{\Delta I}{I_{\text{ref}} \Delta \tau_i} = \frac{dI}{d\tau_i} = \frac{dI}{\text{d}x_i \beta_i}, \tag{2}
\]

where \( \beta_i \) is the absorption optical thickness per DU of \( O_3 \), \( x_i \) is the column \( O_3 \) in that layer, and \( d/dx_i \) gives the weighting function of the radiance with respect to ozone in the \( i \)th layer. For the direct irradiance reference the AMF is just the geometric AMF above the aircraft and zero below the aircraft; for the zenith-sky irradiance reference the AMF can be similarly calculated according to Eq. (2). Then the AMF for a normalized irradiance is the AMF difference between the unnormalized radiance and the reference.

We use the linearized discrete ordinate radiative transfer\(^{41} \) (LIDORT) model to calculate radiances, weighting functions, and therefore AMFs. It is also used as the forward model to simulate radiances and weighting functions during the retrieval process. In the version of LIDORT used here the pseudospherical approximation is applied, and the effect of polarization on radiances is not considered.

Figure 1 shows the AMFs for down-looking radiances (VZA, 0°) and up-looking radiances (VZA, 75°, 85°) normalized by both direct irradiances [Figs. 1(a), 1(c), 1(e)] and zenith-sky irradiances [Figs. 1(b), 1(d), 1(f)] at selected wavelengths for a flight altitude of 15 km. For down-looking radiances [Figs. 1(a) and 1(b)] we can see that the AMFs above the aircraft are almost zero; thus the normalization removes most of the information above the aircraft, leaving the information below the aircraft. With the decrease in \( O_3 \) absorption in the Huggins bands at longer wavelengths, measured backscattered photons penetrate deeper into the surface (i.e., increasing AMF near the surface). In the Chappuis bands (e.g., 590 nm) AMFs are almost altitude-independent below the aircraft, indicating that normalized down-looking radiances are sensitive to the total column \( O_3 \) below the aircraft. Because of wavelength-dependent penetration, together with the temperature-dependent \( O_3 \) absorption structure in the Huggins bands\(^{40} \) and the weak \( O_3 \)-absorbing structure in the Chappuis bands, tropospheric \( O_3 \) profiles below the aircraft can be resolved and column \( O_3 \) down to the surface can be measured.

For up-looking radiances [Figs. 1(e)–1(f)] the normalization cancels most of the information at certain altitudes (called canceling altitudes) above the aircraft. Photons measured by the spectrometer have experienced mainly single scattering above those altitudes for different VZAs (including zenith) and therefore have optical path lengths close to those for direct irradiances. Below the canceling altitudes the AMFs increase with decreasing altitudes down to the flight altitude because of enhanced multiple scattering in up-looking radiances.
with relation to zenith-sky radiances or direct irradiiances. The location of the canceling altitude and the magnitude of the normalized AMF are determined by the competition between scattering into the line of sight and extinction (i.e., absorption and scattering out of the line of sight). Because of the strong variation in O₃ absorption and Rayleigh scattering with wavelength, the altitude range of canceling and the degree of cancellation are especially wavelength dependent in the Huggins bands. Therefore, because of the wavelength-dependent O₃ absorption features, the normalized up-looking radiance spectrum contains valuable profile information above the aircraft.

In addition the location of canceling altitudes and the residual sensitivity to information above also depend on the VZA because larger path lengths for larger VZAs further enhance the above competing processes. As we see from Figs. 1(c)–1(f) a larger VZA provides greater sensitivity to information above mainly because of the larger path length along the line of sight. To extract valuable information above the aircraft, radiances measured at large off-axis angles have to be utilized to provide more sensitivity to overhead O₃; thus up-looking angles of 85° and 75° are selected. An up-looking angle of 75° provides more sensitivity to O₃ at higher altitudes compared with an up-looking angle of 85°; for example, the AMFs at ~25 km are larger for 75° than for 85° at those UV wavelengths. We find that additional measurements from other off-axis angles improves the retrieval only minimally.

Note that the AMFs for normalized up-looking radiances at 75° and 85° are still significant, suggesting that the normalized radiances still have significant sensitivity to information below the aircraft due to multiple scattering from below the aircraft; this cannot be canceled by normalization because the direct irradiance (zenith-sky radiance) experiences no (less) multiple scattering.

The direct irradiance is insensitive to information below the aircraft while the zenith-sky radiance is still sensitive to O₃ below the aircraft because of multiple scattering effects, so that using the direct irradiance as a reference gives more sensitivity to information below the aircraft than using the zenith-sky reference. However, this sensitivity below the aircraft leads to interference when up-looking radiances are used to retrieve ozone information above the aircraft. Above the aircraft the AMF for zenith-sky radiance may be smaller or larger than the geometric AMF depending on wavelength and viewing geometry; thus using a zenith-sky reference may provide more or less O₃ sensitivity than using the direct irradiance reference.

O₃ profile retrieval is an ill-conditioned problem; i.e., there are no unique solutions for the measurements. We use Rodgers' optimal estimation for the inversion of normalized radiance spectra at three angles to obtain the best solution. Some basics of the optimal estimation are reviewed as follows, and the reader is referred to Rodgers for more detail. The solution for the nonlinear problem is

\[
X_{k+1} = X_k + (K^T S_a^{-1} K + S_a^{-1})^{-1} K^T S_a^{-1} [Y - F(X_k)] - S_a^{-1} (X_k - X_a),
\]

where \(X_{k+1}\) and \(X_k\) are the current and the previous state vectors, respectively; \(K\) is the weighting function matrix; \(S_a\) is the measurement error matrix (often assumed diagonal, i.e., no correlation in the measured errors between adjacent wavelengths); \(X_a\) is the a priori state vector; and \(S_a\) is the a priori covariance matrix. \(X_k\) and the diagonal of \(S_a\) (i.e., \(O_3\) variance) can be derived from \(O_3\) climatology, and the off-diagonal elements of \(S_a\) can be constructed by using the height correlation:

\[
S_a(i, j) = [S_a(i, i) S_a(j, j)]^{1/2} \exp(-|z_i - z_j|/l),
\]

where \(z_i\) and \(z_j\) are the altitudes for layer \(i\) and \(j\) and \(l\) is the correlation length. The averaging kernel matrix \(A\) is defined as the sensitivity of the retrieved state \(X^*\) to true state \(X\), a useful concept for characterizing the retrieval:

\[
A = dX^*/dX = (K^T S_a^{-1} K + S_a^{-1})^{-1} K^T S_a^{-1} K.
\]

The trace of the averaging kernel matrix is called the degrees of freedom for signal (DFS), which describes the number of pieces of information available from the set of measurements. The diagonal elements of the averaging kernels indicate the DFS at each layer.

4. Results and Discussion

To present the capability of this technique for O₃ profile retrieval, the simulations and retrievals are done on the following standard case: a U.S. Standard Atmosphere with a total \(O_3\) of 345.3 DU (Fig. 2), clear-sky, LOWTRAN background aerosols, a surface albedo of 0.1, a SZA of 45°, with the direct irradiance as a reference, and with the instrumental characteristics presented in Section 2. The atmosphere is mod-
eled, and the O$_3$ profile is retrieved on an Umkehr-type grid with 22 layers from 0 to $\sim$60 km, $\sim$2.5 km for each of the bottom 20 layers, and $\sim$5 km for the top two layers. Because the retrieval grid is different from the very finely spaced atmospheric grid in the AMF calculation shown in Fig. 1, we use a flight altitude of 14.7 km (i.e., top of the sixth layer on the retrieval grid) for the standard case, approximately consistent with the flight altitude of 15.0 km in Fig. 1. We perform sensitivity studies for various different parameters by modifying the standard case.

For all simulations of measured radiances the estimated measurement noise is added before the inversions. Partial O$_3$ columns for the top four layers are not retrieved but are fixed to values used in the simulation, since there is almost no sensitivity to O$_3$ above this altitude, and in practice this information is readily available from satellite observations. The a priori O$_3$ profile is shown in Fig. 2. It is constructed so that it deviates from the standard profile more at altitude regions with strong O$_3$ sensitivity in our method and is closer to the standard O$_3$ profile at higher altitudes. The a priori standard deviations used in the retrievals are taken from the TOMS Version 8 climatology at mid-latitude during winter and are also plotted in Fig. 2 as error bars. A correlation length of 5 km is used to construct the a priori covariance matrix according to Eq. (4). Because the focus of this study is to show the optimal performance of the O$_3$ profile retrieval, the Ring effect, undersampling, and other minor species (e.g., NO$_2$, SO$_2$, H$_2$O) are not considered in the simulations and retrievals, and the atmospheric conditions (e.g., pressure, temperature, aerosols) except the O$_3$ profile are assumed to be known.

Figure 3 shows the averaging kernels at altitudes as high as $\sim$31.5 km for the base case. The averaging kernels for higher altitudes are not shown because available information is negligible and the DFS at those layers are $<0.1$. Table 1 shows the DFS at each layer, the actual peak altitude of the averaging kernels, and the vertical resolutions in terms of FWHM, which are derived from the averaging kernels in Fig. 3. From the surface to $\sim$23 km the vertical resolution is less than $\sim$6 km; the peak altitudes of the averaging kernels usually agree with the actual nominal altitudes. The DFS at each of those layers is greater than 0.5. The retrieval is particularly sensitive to O$_3$ near the flight altitude with a retrieval sensitivity greater than 0.85 and with a vertical resolution in the range of 2–3 km. Below the flight altitude the retrieval sensitivity first decreases with decreasing altitude, then increases toward the surface because of increasing photo path enhancement from interaction between surface reflection and atmospheric scattering in the lowest atmospheric layers. Above the flight altitude the vertical resolution becomes greater with increasing altitude, and the peak altitude shifts to a lower altitude because of reduced O$_3$ sensitivity. For example, the vertical resolution increases from 5.5 km at 23 km to $\sim$14.5 km at $\sim$32 km.

Figure 4(a) shows the retrieved O$_3$ profiles for the base case together with the true and a priori O$_3$ profiles, and Fig. 4(b) shows the column O$_3$ bias in retrieval. Figures 4(c)–4(d) and 4(e)–4(f) show similar comparisons but for two modified cases with low and high amounts of tropospheric O$_3$, respectively. The low tropospheric O$_3$ case has 19.0 DU of O$_3$ below the aircraft and an average O$_3$ mixing ratio of $\sim$10 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) in the near-surface layer; the high tropospheric O$_3$ case has 109.0 DU of O$_3$ below the aircraft and an average O$_3$ mixing ratio of $\sim$125 ppbv on the near-surface layer. The retrieved profiles agree well with the true profiles for all cases. The alternating deviations of the retrievals for the two modified profiles are present mainly because the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>DFS</th>
<th>Peak Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Vertical Resolution (km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td>24.7</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Nominal altitude, which is the middle altitude of a layer.
*Peak altitude.
*Vertical resolution.
a priori profile shape is different from the true profile shapes and the information from the measurements is inadequate for resolving each individual layer. The biases in total O$_3$ and O$_3$ below the aircraft are less than 1.0 and 0.5 DU, respectively, with the sum of random-noise retrieval and smoothing errors less than 6.0 and 0.3 DU for all three cases. In the lower troposphere the retrieved profiles for the two modified cases are outside the standard deviations of a priori values. These retrievals provide evidence of the strong sensitivity of this technique to O$_3$ in the troposphere and its insensitivity to a priori information.

We have investigated the sensitivities of this approach to viewing geometry, surface albedo, reference normalization, aircraft altitude, measurement error, and spectral resolution. Table 2 shows the retrieved biases (i.e., the difference between retrieved and true values) in total O$_3$, O$_3$ above and below the aircraft, and DFS for the whole profile and DFS for below the aircraft for different plans. The column entitled cases lists only the difference between each plan and the base case. An important advantage of this technique is that it does not require a high spectral resolution. Reducing the spectra resolution from 0.2- to 1.0-nm FWHM and reducing the spectral sampling from 0.1 to 0.4 nm/pixel decrease the DFS by only ~0.5 for the whole profile and by 0.2 for the profile below the aircraft. The fact that increasing the spectral resolution only slightly improves the retrievals suggests that the O$_3$ information from this technique mainly originates from broad O$_3$ absorption features instead of those fine structures in the Huggins bands. With the increase in measurement errors, the retrieval performance decreases as expected. For example, when the S/N is reduced by a factor of 5, the DFS is reduced by 1.5 for the whole profile and 0.8 for the profile below the aircraft and retrieval errors increase, but this technique can still accurately measure tropospheric O$_3$ profiles and the column below the aircraft. The performance is slightly worse when

### Table 2. Column O$_3$ Biases with Retrieval Errors due to Measurement Random Noise and Smoothing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Below</th>
<th>Above</th>
<th>DFS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base case</td>
<td>0.4 ± 5.9</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.1 ± 4.3</td>
<td>7.4/3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0-nm FWHM, 0.4-nm/pixel</td>
<td>4.6 ± 6.6</td>
<td>−0.2 ± 0.3</td>
<td>4.8 ± 5.4</td>
<td>6.9/3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zenith reference</td>
<td>0.8 ± 6.2</td>
<td>0.5 ± 0.5</td>
<td>0.3 ± 5.0</td>
<td>7.0/3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2 times S/N</td>
<td>1.2 ± 8.2</td>
<td>0.9 ± 1.0</td>
<td>0.3 ± 7.6</td>
<td>5.9/2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar reference</td>
<td>0.2 ± 4.2</td>
<td>0.2 ± 0.2</td>
<td>−0.0 ± 0.1</td>
<td>8.5/3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Chappuis</td>
<td>0.1 ± 6.0</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.8</td>
<td>−0.2 ± 4.4</td>
<td>7.0/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No up-looking</td>
<td>13.1 ± 15.0</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.3</td>
<td>12.8 ± 17.7</td>
<td>4.7/3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No up-looking 75°</td>
<td>−1.8 ± 6.1</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.3</td>
<td>−1.8 ± 4.8</td>
<td>7.3/3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SZA 0°</td>
<td>−0.7 ± 5.6</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.2</td>
<td>−1.0 ± 4.1</td>
<td>7.7/4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SZA 75°</td>
<td>0.9 ± 5.8</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.3 ± 2.2</td>
<td>7.0/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VZA 75°</td>
<td>0.7 ± 5.8</td>
<td>0.4 ± 0.7</td>
<td>0.6 ± 4.3</td>
<td>7.5/3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface albedo 0.6</td>
<td>−0.0 ± 5.8</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.1</td>
<td>−0.1 ± 4.2</td>
<td>7.7/3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High tropospheric O$_3$</td>
<td>0.0 ± 5.9</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.0 ± 4.3</td>
<td>7.6/3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low tropospheric O$_3$</td>
<td>1.1 ± 5.8</td>
<td>0.4 ± 0.3</td>
<td>0.7 ± 4.3</td>
<td>7.5/3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft at 10.2 km</td>
<td>−2.0 ± 9.5</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.3</td>
<td>−2.5 ± 8.0</td>
<td>7.0/2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft at 5.5 km</td>
<td>2.4 ± 12.6</td>
<td>0.3 ± 0.2</td>
<td>2.1 ± 11.2</td>
<td>6.4/1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Columns 2–4 list biases and retrieval errors for the total O$_3$ column and for O$_3$ below and above the aircraft, respectively. The two numbers in the DFS column are for the atmosphere and below the aircraft, respectively.

aThe description lists the difference compared with the base case.

bDown-looking direction.
the zenith-sky reference is used or on exclusion of the Chappuis bands. The latter reduces only the information content from the lower troposphere and does not affect retrieval above the aircraft. In practice it might be better not to use the Chappuis bands because it is difficult to account for the pressure- and temperature-dependent absorption of highly variable water vapor. In addition there is a lack of high-quality measured \( O_3 \) absorption cross sections in the Chappuis bands. Available cross sections in the visible tend to have slight inconsistencies with \( O_3 \) absorption cross sections in the Huggins bands.\(^{43}\)

For the case in which an external solar spectrum is used as a reference, the biases and errors in the total column and the columns above and below the aircraft are reduced, and the DFS is increased by 1.1 for above the aircraft. If an accurate solar spectrum were available from spaceborne measurements, upper-stratospheric \( O_3 \) abundance could also be accurately measured. The disadvantage of using an external solar spectrum is that its use could induce errors from relative wavelength and radiometric calibration. The absence of up-looking measurements has little effect on retrieval below the aircraft, but there are great biases in the total \( O_3 \) and \( O_3 \) above the aircraft, with a DFS from above of only 1.4, as expected based on Fig. 1. The exclusion of up-looking 75° from the base case has little effect on the retrieval since the DFS decreases by only \( \sim 0.1 \). But when the flight altitude decreases or the SZA increases, the extinction along the path increases because of increasing Rayleigh scattering or the increasing path itself, the sensitivity to \( O_3 \) at higher altitudes decreases more for measurements at a VZA of 85° than at 75°, and combining both angles becomes more important. For example, for a SZA of 75° or a flight altitude of 5.5 km (other conditions remain unchanged) the inclusion of up-looking of 75° increases the DFS by \( \sim 0.4 \). Table 2 also shows that the retrieval slightly improves for a larger surface albedo, smaller SZA, and larger down-looking VZA. With a decreasing flight altitude the altitude range where \( O_3 \) can be accurately measured is reduced accordingly, and the accuracy in total \( O_3 \) is reduced even though the DFS that can be measured above the aircraft increases.

5. Conclusions
A new technique has been demonstrated for retrieving tropospheric \( O_3 \) profiles from airborne UV/visible spectrometer measurements. This technique is particularly sensitive to tropospheric \( O_3 \) below and \( \sim 8 \) km above the aircraft with a vertical resolution of \( \sim 2–6 \) km and is sensitive to lower and middle stratospheric \( O_3 \) with a vertical resolution of \( 8–15 \) km. The profile retrieval uses any single down-looking angle and two up-looking angles at 85° and 75° to provide \( O_3 \) information below and above the aircraft, respectively. The profiling takes advantage of the wavelength-dependent photon path lengths from below and above the aircraft as well as temperature-dependent \( O_3 \) absorption in the Huggins bands and the weakly \( O_3 \)-absorbing Chappuis bands. Measurements are normalized to direct irradiances or zenith-sky irradiances so that this approach does not require the use of an independent solar reference spectrum.

With the scanning capability of the proposed instrument this technique can measure tropospheric \( O_3 \) at a spatial resolution of \( 2 \times 2 \) km or even higher and therefore is well suited for monitoring regional tropospheric \( O_3 \) and validation of satellite measurements of tropospheric \( O_3 \).

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References