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Volcanic ash detection with infrared limb sounding: MIPAS observations and radiative transfer simulations

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Small volcanic ash particles have long residence times in troposphere and stratosphere so that they have impact on the Earth's radiative budget and consequently affect climate. For global long term observations of volcanic aerosol, infrared limb measurements provide excellent coverage, sensitivity to thin aerosol layers, and altitude information. The optical properties of volcanic ash and ice particles, derived from microphysical properties, have opposing spectral gradients between 700 to 960 cm^{-1} for small particle sizes. Radiative transfer simulations that account for single scattering showed that the opposing spectral gradients directly transfer to infrared limb spectra. Indeed, we found the characteristic spectral signature, expected for volcanic ash, in measurements of the Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric Sounding (MIPAS) after the eruption of the Chilean volcano Puyehue-Cordón Caulle in June 2011. From these measurements we derived an ash detection threshold function. The empirical ash detection threshold was confirmed by simulations covering a wide range of atmospheric conditions, particle sizes, and particle concentrations for ice, volcanic ash, and sulfate aerosol. From the simulations we derived the detectable effective radius range of 0.2 to 3.5 μm and the detectable extinction coefficient range of 5×10^{-3} to $1 \times 10^{-1} \text{ km}^{-1}$. We also showed that this method is only sensitive to volcanic ash particles, but not to volcanic sulfate aerosol. This volcanic ash detection method for infrared limb measurements is a fast and reliable method and provides complementary information to existing satellite aerosol products.

1 Introduction

Volcanic ash particles with radii smaller than 2 μm have long residence times up to weeks in the troposphere (Murrow et al., 1980) and years, if injected into the stratosphere (Mossop, 1964). Because they are efficient scatterers of ultraviolet and infrared radiation (Pueschel et al., 1994), they change the aerosol optical thickness in

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the atmosphere, affect the Earth's radiation budget, and hence have effects on climate. Volcanic eruptions can also be regarded as large atmospheric experiments, where a passive tracer, the volcanic ash, is injected from a point source. This volcanic ash can be used to observe atmospheric motion and to verify atmospheric transport models. For these reasons the global long term detection of volcanic particles is of special interest to atmospheric and climate science.

Satellite measurements are best suited to provide global time series of volcanic ash observations. Especially infrared emission measurements can be made during day and nighttime. While infrared nadir measurements have a good horizontal resolution infrared limb measurements give complementary altitude information.

For infrared nadir measurements the “reverse” absorption algorithm (Prata, 1989b) is a well established technique for detecting volcanic ash clouds from infrared band measurements. It is improved and applied in several studies (Barton et al., 1992; Wen and Rose, 1994; Prata and Grant, 2001) and its limitations and challenges are discussed by Simpson et al. (2000) and Prata et al. (2001). For hyper-spectral instruments new methods are reported by Clarisse et al. (2010) and Gangale et al. (2010), which also rely on the characteristic spectral behaviour of volcanic ash and ice that is exploited by Prata (1989b).

Analyses of infrared limb aerosol measurements by the cryogenic limb array etalon spectrometer (CLAES) (Massie et al., 1996; Lambert et al., 1997) and the improved stratospheric and mesospheric sounder (ISAMS) (Grainger et al., 1993; Lambert et al., 1993) aboard the upper atmospheric research satellite (UARS) and the balloon-borne Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric Sounding (MIPAS-B) (Echle et al., 1998) focus on stratospheric volcanic sulfate aerosol detection but do not aim at volcanic ash detection or tropospheric cloud and aerosol classification.

A cloud detection method for hyper-spectral infrared limb measurements was first reported by Spang et al. (2001) for the space-borne Cryogenic Infrared Spectrometers and Telescopes for the Atmosphere (CRISTA) (Offermann et al., 1999; Riese et al., 1999). The cloud index (CI) is defined as the radiance ratio between 792 and 832 cm^{-1}

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and allows to detect clouds in the troposphere and stratosphere. Consecutively, Spang et al. (2004) adapted the CI to the space-borne Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric Sounding (MIPAS) aboard Envisat and Spang et al. (2008) showed that the CI is also suited for the cloud evaluation of the air-borne CRISTA – New Frontiers (CRISTA-NF) measurements. Sembhi et al. (2012) optimised the thresholds to also detect aerosol with MIPAS. Regarding the discrimination between different cloud and aerosol types, Spang and Remedios (2003), Spang et al. (2004, 2005, 2012) and Höpfner et al. (2009) presented methods to distinguish between different types of polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs). However, for infrared limb measurements so far no method is reported that specifically allows for volcanic ash detection.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce a volcanic ash detection method for infrared limb instruments, in particular MIPAS. It starts with a short description of the model used for radiative transfer simulations and the MIPAS instrument in Sect. 2. Then, the volcanic ash detection method is presented in Sect. 3. First, we discuss the optical properties of ice and volcanic ash and present their impact on infrared limb spectra and the characteristic signal. Second, we derive the ash detection threshold from MIPAS measurements. In Sect. 4 follows a detailed scattering simulation study for clear air, ice, volcanic ash, and sulfate aerosol to confirm the ash detection threshold and to identify the detectable particle size and extinction coefficient range. In Sect. 5 the limitations and the further potential of the ash detection method are discussed, the volcanic ash detections are related to the CI, and analogies and differences to the “reverse” absorption algorithm for nadir measurements are discussed. The conclusions follow in Sect. 6.

2 Forward model and instrument description

2.1 JURASSIC

The Juelich Rapid Spectral Simulation Code (JURASSIC) is a fast radiative transfer model for the mid-infrared spectral region (Hoffmann, 2006). It was used in several studies for the infrared limb sounder MIPAS (Hoffmann et al., 2005, 2008), CRISTA-NF (Hoffmann et al., 2009; Weigel et al., 2010), and Gimballled Limb Observer for Radiance Imaging of the Atmosphere (GLORIA) (Ungermann et al., 2010) and the nadir instrument Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) (Hoffmann and Alexander, 2009; Grimsdell et al., 2010).

For fast simulations, it applies pre-calculated look-up tables of spectral emissivities and approximations to radiative transfer calculations, such as the emissivity growth approximation (EGA) (Weinreb and Neuendorffer, 1973; Gordley and Russell, 1981; Marshall et al., 1994) and the Curtis-Godson approximation (CGA) (Curtis, 1952; Godson, 1953). The look-up-tables were calculated with the Reference Forward Model (RFM) (Dudhia et al., 2002; Dudhia, 2004), which is an exact line-by-line model specifically developed for MIPAS. For selected spectral windows, JURASSIC has been compared to the line-by-line models RFM and Karlsruhe Optimized and Precise Radiative transfer Algorithm (KOPRA) (Stiller, 2000; Stiller et al., 2002) and shows good agreement (Griessbach et al., 2013).

JURASSIC contains a scattering module that allows for radiative transfer simulations including single and multiple scattering on aerosol and cloud particles (Griessbach, 2012; Griessbach et al., 2013). The optical properties of the particles, extinction coefficient, scattering coefficient, and phase function, required for the radiative transfer simulations with scattering, can either be calculated with a Mie code assuming spherical particles, or can be taken from databases for non-spherical particles. In this study, all particles are assumed to be spherical and distributed in a homogeneous cloud layer. The particle size distributions are described by mono- and multi-modal log-normal distributions,

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$$\frac{dN(r)}{dr} = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{n_i}{\sqrt{2\pi} \ln \sigma_i r} \exp \left[-\frac{(\ln r - \ln \mu_i)^2}{2(\ln \sigma_i)^2} \right], \quad (1)$$

where $\frac{dN}{dr}$ is the concentration of particles per radius interval $[r, r + dr]$ and the parameters n_i , σ_i , μ_i represent the total number concentration, the dimensionless distribution width and the median radius of the mode with index i . Aside the particle size distribution, the complex refractive indices of the particles and the cloud top and bottom altitudes are required for the radiative transfer simulations including scattering.

2.2 MIPAS

The Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric Sounding (MIPAS) (Fischer et al., 2008) is aboard ESA's Envisat that was launched in 2002 and quit service in April 2012. MIPAS measured high-resolution infrared limb radiance spectra between 685–2410 cm^{-1} (14.6–4.15 μm) in five bands: band A 685–970 cm^{-1} , band AB 1020–1170 cm^{-1} , band B 1215–1500 cm^{-1} , band C 1570–1750 cm^{-1} , band D 1820–2410 cm^{-1} at altitudes ranging from 6 to 172 km (Fischer et al., 2008). For band A, which is used in this study, the noise equivalent radiance is $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W}(\text{m}^2 \text{ srcm}^{-1})^{-1}$ for the full resolution mode (Kleinert et al., 2007a) and $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W}(\text{m}^2 \text{ srcm}^{-1})^{-1} (\sqrt{\frac{20}{8}})^{-1}$ for the reduced resolution mode (Kleinert et al., 2007b).

From 2002 to 2004 the nominal spectral sampling was 0.025 cm^{-1} and the tangent altitudes ranged from 6 to 68 km at all latitudes in vertical steps of 3 km in the standard mode (Fischer et al., 2008). In 2005 the spectral sampling was reduced to 0.0625 cm^{-1} and the measurement geometry was adjusted so that below 20 km altitude the vertical steps are 1.5 km and the measurement grid follows the slope of the tropopause, i.e. the lowest tangent altitude is at about 10 km in the tropics and 6 km in the polar regions (Fischer et al., 2008). The vertical MIPAS field of view is about 3 km. For retrieval of MIPAS measurements, it is often assumed to be trapezoidal with edge lengths of 2.8 and 4 km (Ridolfi et al., 2000; Hurley et al., 2011).

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3 Volcanic ash detection with MIPAS

3.1 From optical properties to infrared limb spectra

Cloud and aerosol detection from infrared limb measurements works best in atmospheric windows, on which atmospheric trace gases have little impact (Spang et al., 2002). Following Spang et al. (2002), Höpfner and Emde (2005), Mendrok et al. (2007), Griessbach (2012), Griessbach et al. (2012), we focus on the 825–830 and 946–951 cm^{-1} windows in MIPAS band A. In these studies, it is shown that, compared to clear air conditions, the radiance increases substantially all over the spectrum, if clouds are present. The increased radiances are due to black-body emissions by the particles themselves plus scattered radiance from all directions into the line of sight of the instrument. If scattering is considered, the radiance enhancement can be significantly larger than for the particles black-body emission alone.

A prerequisite to distinguish volcanic ash particles from ice clouds is that the optical properties of the particles behave differently in the selected windows. The optical properties, extinction coefficient (β_e) and single scattering albedo, depend on complex refractive index, particle size, particle shape, and wave number. The real and imaginary parts of the complex refractive indices of ice (Warren and Brandt, 2008), volcanic ash (Volz, 1973), and sulfate aerosol (Hummel et al., 1988) are shown in Fig. 1a and b for MIPAS band A. The spectral slope between both windows (grey regions) for the real as well as the imaginary part of the ice refractive index is the opposite to the spectral slope of volcanic ash and sulfate aerosol refractive indices.

The particle sizes of ice clouds are highly variable and differ from the particle sizes of volcanic ash and sulfate aerosol. The calculated extinction coefficient spectra and single scattering albedo spectra in Fig. 1c and d are derived from the complex refractive indices presented above and in-situ measured particle size distributions given in Table 1 for volcanic ash, a sub-visible cirrus cloud (SVC), a tropical cirrus cloud, and stratospheric volcanically enhanced sulfate aerosol. The spectral slope of the imaginary part of the refractive indices directly determines the extinction coefficient spectra.

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For volcanic ash and sulfate aerosol there is an increase of the extinction coefficient from 825 to 950 cm^{-1} . In contrast, for small ice particles (SVC) there is a decrease, and for large ice particles (tropical cirrus) the extinction coefficient remains constant. Regarding the single scattering albedo only the spectral slopes for ice and sulfate aerosol are similar to the slopes of the real parts of the refractive indices. The spectral slope of volcanic ash is very similar to large ice particles (tropical cirrus). The nearly constant single scattering albedo of about 55 % means that both, volcanic ash and large ice particles (tropical cirrus), are good scatterers in MIPAS band A range. Hence, the differences in MIPAS spectra caused by ice and volcanic ash are mainly due to opposite spectral slopes of the extinction coefficient. For sulfate aerosol the single scattering albedo is smaller than 10 %. Therefore we expect a weaker radiance increase for sulfate aerosol in the MIPAS spectra than for ice and volcanic ash.

The differences in extinction coefficient and single scattering albedo for small and large ice particles reveal that the optical properties are strongly size dependent. The size dependence of ash particles is shown in Fig. 2. The corresponding particle size distributions have a constant width (σ) of 1.6 and the median radii (μ) are given in Table 2 together with the scattering radii (r_{sca}) that are weighted by the Mie scattering efficiency (Q_{sca}) and the effective radii (r_{eff}) that solely depend on the particle size distribution. With increasing particle size the increase of the extinction coefficient from 825 to 950 cm^{-1} is getting smaller and disappears for an effective radius of 5 μm . The particle size distribution with an effective radius of 1 μm shows the strongest spectral slope and for smaller particle sizes the slope diminishes. Also for smaller particle sizes the single scattering albedo is getting smaller. This means, ash particles with effective radii larger than or equal 5 μm will not be distinguishable from ice clouds for MIPAS band A spectra and hence, we expect only smaller ash particles to be detectable.

Although the measured ash particle size distribution in Table 1 has an effective radius of 0.8 μm , which is due to the strong first mode, it is closer to the dash-dot-dotted line for an effective radius of 3.6 μm in Fig. 2. This is because both size distributions have similar scattering radii (3.6 and 3.7 μm). The spectral gradient of the extinction

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all observations cluster around a narrow line. In the first post-eruption phase a distinct second branch with higher radiances at 950 cm^{-1} shows up. These higher radiances at 950 cm^{-1} disappear in the second post-eruption phase so that it is very similar to the pre-eruption phase. Assuming that the pre-eruption phase and the second post-eruption phase are mainly volcanically undisturbed situations, we fit an ash detection threshold function to the upper edge of the observations and define the ash detection criterion:

$$I(950\text{ cm}^{-1}) \geq 2.5 \times I(825\text{ cm}^{-1})^{1.1} + 2.5 \times 10^{-7} \frac{W}{\text{cm}^2 \text{ srcm}^{-1}}, \quad (2)$$

where I is the average radiance in $\text{W}(\text{m}^2 \text{ srcm}^{-1})^{-1}$ for the respective window. To assure that the measurements with significantly higher radiances at 950 cm^{-1} are not due to polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs), which are present every polar night over Antarctica, we did the same analysis but excluded all measurements south of 60° S (not shown). This did not change the results. This threshold function provides a reliable ash detection method and allows to analyse several years of MIPAS data very quickly.

We applied the ash detection threshold to MIPAS measurements after the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle eruption. In Fig. 7, the volcanic ash plume from the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle detected on 10 June 2011 is shown. The ash plume is located south of Africa and Australia and nearly reaches New Zealand. In this region we expected to find volcanic ash according to NASA Earth Observatory (2013), NASA OMI (2013) and Klüser et al. (2013). The data shown in Figs. 3, 4, and 5 were measured the same day. With this method we also processed the MIPAS data from 2006 to 2012 and detected volcanic ash after all major eruptions, such as Kasatochi, Chaiten, and Sarychev (Griessbach et al., 2012).

4 Scattering simulation study

4.1 Simulation setup

To support and characterise the ash detection threshold function derived from measurement data, we performed radiative transfer simulations with JURASSIC to model the radiances as measured by the MIPAS instrument. To show that the scenarios exceeding the ash detection threshold in Fig. 6b are of volcanic origin, the simulations cover various clear air, ice cloud, volcanic ash, and sulfate aerosol scenarios. Clear air simulations for different atmospheric conditions are performed first, to ascertain that clear air conditions cannot lead to the observed radiances. Since ice clouds are the major cloud type in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS), we simulated ice cloud scenarios next. Ash clouds are simulated to identify the scenarios that exceed the ash detection threshold derived from observations. Sulfate aerosol is also considered to account for the fact that volcanic eruptions generally emit SO_2 , which forms sulfate aerosol or leads to a sulfate coating on volcanic ash particles.

The general simulation setup is as follows: We simulated the radiances in the two windows between 825.6 to 826.3 cm^{-1} and 950.1 to 950.9 cm^{-1} using the same trace gases as in Sect. 3.1. To cover a wide range of atmospheric variability we used four different atmospheric profiles representing a wide range of atmospheric conditions: polar winter, polar summer, mid-latitude night, and equatorial night taken from Remedios et al. (2007). From 2005 to 2012, the nominal MIPAS measurements were made down to 10 km in the tropics and 6 km in the mid-latitude and polar regions. Therefore we simulated the radiances at tangent altitudes ranging from 10–22 km in the tropics and 6–22 km at higher latitudes on a 1 km grid taking into account the MIPAS field of view as described in Sect. 2.2.

Ice clouds and volcanic aerosol can be very variable in their macro-physical and micro-physical properties. Regarding their shape and horizontal and vertical extent we chose a homogeneous cloud layer of 1 km thickness with sharp cloud edges, realised by a transition layer of 10 m, in which the particle number concentration decreases to

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zero. A cloud layer is placed at four different altitudes, 6–7, 9–10, 13–14, and 17–18 km, in each atmosphere, except for the tropical atmosphere, where only clouds above 10 km are considered. For simplicity we assumed the idealised case of one cloud per scenario and neglected layered cloud structures. Of course, real clouds are much more complex. They occur at different altitudes, have a large range of possible vertical extent, have complex 3-D structures, and are inhomogeneous in their micro-physical properties. However, this simulation study is set up to demonstrate that volcanic ash leads to unique signals, which allow to identify volcanic ash in infrared limb measurements.

For the micro-physical properties we restricted the simulations to one refractive index data set per particle type and varied the particle size distribution, because Wen and Rose (1994) found a stronger sensitivity on size distribution than on the refractive index for volcanic ash. As atmospheric particles are not mono-disperse, we assumed log-normal size distributions for the ice, ash, and sulfate aerosol clouds. Log-normal size distributions are well suited for ice (e.g. Tian et al., 2010), volcanic ash (e.g. Farlow et al., 1981), and sulfate aerosol clouds (e.g. Deshler et al., 1992, 1993). Although volcanic aerosol is often best described by multi-modal size distributions (e.g. Pueschel et al., 1994), we restricted the simulations to a single mode with a width of 1.6 for simplicity. The median radius and the number concentration are varied to cover a wide range for each particle type. The ranges are given in each section respectively and the most likely combinations of particle size and concentration according to measurements are highlighted. Altogether we simulated 60 848 spectra for this study.

4.2 Clear air simulations

The simulated radiances for clear air conditions are shown in Fig. 8 in the same type of scatter plot as in Fig. 6 and 5 for the measurements. The ash detection threshold from Eq. (2) is indicated by the black line. For clear air conditions the radiances are below $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ W}(\text{m}^2 \text{ srcm}^{-1})^{-1}$ in the polar winter atmosphere or at higher altitudes. At lower altitudes the radiances increase. All clear air scenarios are well below the

ash detection threshold. From this we conclude that the measurements exceeding the ash detection threshold in Fig. 6 are not clear air conditions, but rather caused by atmospheric particles.

4.3 Ice cloud simulations

For the ice cloud simulations, we used the infrared complex refractive indices by Warren and Brandt (2008). The ice cloud simulation setup requires some restrictions to represent realistic scenarios. The ice cloud at 18 km altitude was simulated only in polar winter and equatorial atmosphere, because in polar summer and at mid-latitudes, ice clouds cannot be expected at this altitude. For the same reason the ice cloud at 14 km altitude was not simulated for the polar summer atmosphere.

The simulations were performed for cloud extinction coefficients ranging from 1×10^{-3} to $5 \times 10^{-1} \text{ km}^{-1}$ in steps of half an order of magnitude. For each extinction coefficient we generated ten particle size distributions with median radii ranging from 0.3 to 96 μm according to in-situ measured particle sizes reported by Krämer et al. (2009) and Tian et al. (2010). In Table 3 the extinction coefficients, median radii, and the corresponding particle concentrations are given. According to the measurements reported by Krämer et al. (2009), not all number concentrations necessary to reach the extinction coefficient are realistic. Hence, the most realistic scenarios with concentrations ranging from about 1×10^{-3} to 100 cm^{-3} are highlighted in Table 3.

The simulation results for the ice clouds are shown in Fig. 9 for the four cloud altitudes. The tangent altitudes are grouped into three groups: above the cloud, in the cloud, and below the cloud. For all simulated scenarios shown in Fig. 9, the ash detection threshold is not exceeded. This leads to the conclusion that the MIPAS observations exceeding the ash detection threshold in Fig. 6b are not caused by ice clouds.

Regarding MIPAS measurements from 2002 to 2004, where the nominal measurements were made down to 6 km also in the tropics, we simulated tangent altitudes down to 6 km and clouds below 10 km also in the equatorial scenario. The atmosphere there is very dense and water vapour concentration is very high. Even the clear air

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simulations were already optically thick and clear air as well as cloud simulations were saturated and reached the same radiances (not shown). In the case of high altitude ice clouds (18, 14, and 10 km), we found that for lower tangent altitudes the radiances were smaller than for the clear air scenario and that the ash detection threshold was exceeded in a few cases for tangent altitudes well below the cloud layers (up to 8 km). In these particular cases, the extinction coefficient ranges from 0.01 to 0.1 km⁻¹ and the median radii are always smaller than or equal 6 μm. These median radii are very small and can only be expected in the tropics for sub-visible cirrus clouds (Iwasaki et al., 2007; Lawson et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Frey et al., 2011). Hence, for the analysis of MIPAS measurements from 2002 to 2004, care must be taken in the tropics. For MIPAS data evaluation since 2005, this finding is irrelevant, because in the tropics tangent altitudes are always above 10 km.

4.4 Volcanic ash simulations

For the ash cloud simulations we used the infrared complex refractive indices by Volz (1973) that are found in the HITRAN Shettle compilation (Rothman et al., 2009) for volcanic dust. In Table 4 the median radii, extinction coefficients, and corresponding number concentrations are given. As described in Sect. 3.1, in the infrared, the spectral gradient of the extinction coefficient vanishes for larger volcanic ash particles. For this reason we restricted the simulations to particle size distributions with median radii up to 5 μm. In-situ measurements of small volcanic ash particles in the middle troposphere and UTLS found particle concentrations ranging from 7 × 10⁻⁴ to 40 cm⁻³ (Mossop, 1964; Farlow et al., 1981; Schumann et al., 2011). This most likely range is highlighted in Table 4.

The results of the ash simulations are shown in Fig. 10 for the four ash layers. The three groups of tangent altitudes, (i) above the ash cloud, (ii) within the ash cloud, and (iii) below the ash cloud, are colour coded. The difference to the ice cloud simulations is clearly visible. A substantial fraction of the simulated scenarios exceeds the ash detection threshold. The strongest effect is observed for the two highest ash clouds.

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for ash detection. Although the profiles show enhanced radiances 1 km above the ash layer, due to the MIPAS field of view, we only find ash detections at ash layer top altitude (and 10 m above). From this we conclude that MIPAS volcanic ash detections are always less than 1 km above the actual ash layer top altitude. In Fig. 12, it also becomes apparent that the ash detection method clearly identifies volcanic ash contaminated profiles, but tends to underestimate the ash layer top altitude, especially for extinction coefficients larger than $5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ km}^{-1}$.

Regarding the ash layer bottom altitude, the shape of the vertical radiance profiles in Fig. 12 indicates that for optically thick clouds ($\beta_e \geq 5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ km}^{-1}$) no bottom altitude can be estimated. For optically thin ash layers there is a local radiance maximum 1 km below the ash layer. This maximum is likely useful to determine the ash layer bottom altitude.

4.5 Sulfate aerosol simulations

A further challenge for volcanic ash detection is that usually volcanic eruptions also emit substantial amounts of sulfur dioxide, which forms sulfate aerosol or leads to a liquid sulfate coating on ash particles typically on a time scale of a few days after the eruption (Farlow et al., 1981). Infrared limb measurements are highly sensitive to atmospheric particles and can be severely affected by enhanced stratospheric sulfate aerosol as happened after the Mt. Pinatubo eruption for measurements of the ISAMS (Lambert et al., 1993) and CLAES (Massie et al., 1996) instruments. Wen and Rose (1994) applied windows similar to ours for volcanic ash retrieval from infrared nadir measurements and found that sulfate aerosol with more than 50 % sulfuric acid is indistinguishable from solid volcanic aerosol. To investigate if sulfate aerosol also affects the volcanic ash detection method for infrared limb measurements we simulated sulfate aerosol scenarios with a 75 % sulfuric acid solution that is most realistic for the UTLS region. The infrared complex refractive indices of sulfate aerosol used for the simulation are from the Hummel et al. (1988) data compiled in the HITRAN Shettle data file (Rothman et al., 2009).

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the complex refractive index of volcanic aerosol. To account for sulfate coating on ash particles in this study, the parameter range of the sulfate aerosol is extended to larger median radii and particle concentrations and extinction coefficients respectively. We consider these simulations for larger sulfate aerosol particles and realistic concentrations as proxies for sulfate coated ash particles.

The simulation results for sulfate aerosol are shown in Fig. 13 in the same style as the results for the ice and ash clouds. The simulations form a narrow line around the ash detection threshold and some scenarios exceed the ash detection threshold. The scenarios that exceed the threshold are marked in Table 5 in bold font. They are not within the range of measured sulfate aerosol particle concentrations and sizes, not even for the strongest volcanic eruption of the last 100 yr of Mt. Pinatubo. However, they might be caused by sulfate coated ash particles.

The volcanic eruption with the largest SO_2 emission during the MIPAS measurement period from 2002 to 2012 was the eruption of the Eritrean Nabro volcano on 13 June 2011. It injected about 1.5 Tg SO_2 (Clarisse et al., 2012) into the atmosphere, which is about one order of magnitude less than the 20 Tg SO_2 from Mt. Pinatubo (Bluth et al., 1992). The SO_2 was oxidated to sulfate aerosol and formed a stratospheric aerosol layer over the Northern Hemisphere (Bourassa et al., 2012; Sawamura et al., 2012). Due to the much smaller amount of SO_2 , for this event it is unlikely that the presented volcanic ash detection method would wrongly identify the sulfate aerosol layer as volcanic ash. The analysis of the MIPAS data confirms this. In the MIPAS profiles we clearly identified stratospheric aerosol a few days after the eruption and an aerosol layer covering the Northern Hemisphere about two month after the eruption for several months. However, the new ash detection method did not classify this enhanced sulfate aerosol layer as volcanic ash. This is also strong evidence that the introduced ash detection method does not accidentally respond to volcanic sulfate aerosol.

Assuming the theoretical case of completely coated ash particles that are masked by the sulfuric acid, and assuming these particles having either an effective size of at least $1.4 \mu\text{m}$ or number concentrations larger than 5cm^{-3} , these particles could

thresholds used in the other studies, the Puyehue ash detections range from clear air to very thick clouds and are on average located in-between the two thresholds. Hence, the Puyehue ash is detectable with the CI. Since the ash detection method underestimates the ash layer top altitude in several cases, the CI can be used to determine the ash cloud top altitude.

5.2 Other particle types

From simulations of extinction coefficient and single scattering albedo spectra for other aerosol types, we found that certain particle sizes of carbonaceous material and mineral dust have a spectral behaviour very similar to volcanic ash. From this, we deduce that the method presented above also is capable of detecting mineral dust or (black) smoke. For the MIPAS measurements, we found that the threshold was also exceeded by some aerosol injected by the Black Saturday bush fire in February 2009 in Australia, some other wild fires, as well as mineral dust outbreaks in central Asia. Therefore, the MIPAS measurements offer the opportunity to study aerosol from other sources as well.

5.3 Volcanic ash detection method for limb measurements in relation to nadir measurements

For infrared nadir measurements, Prata (1989a, b) showed that it is possible to discriminate between volcanic ash/sulfate aerosol/quartz containing material and ice/water clouds by using brightness temperature differences (BTDs) between two windows at 10.8 and 11.9 μm (926 and 840 cm^{-1}). Both windows are located in atmospheric window regions, where the optical properties of ice and volcanic ash are different. Likewise we use similar windows at 950 and 825 cm^{-1} (10.5 and 12.1 μm respectively) for the ash detection method presented here. The similarities between our new method for volcanic ash detection from infrared limb measurements and existing nadir techniques motivated us to briefly compare the capabilities of both methods. We found that the detectable particle size range is the same for infrared nadir and limb measurements. Yet,

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due to the two different viewing geometries, we found that limb measurements with their longer viewing paths through the atmosphere can detect considerably smaller particle concentrations than the nadir measurements.

From theoretical considerations and simulations, Prata (1989b, see Table 2 and Fig. 1) derived that in the infrared particle sizes up to 2–3 μm can be detected. Wen and Rose (1994) found that negative BTDs, required for volcanic ash detection, are possible for particle sizes up to 5 μm and derived a sensitivity range of 0.8 to 4.3 μm for the effective radius of a mono-disperse size distribution. These results are in excellent agreement with our findings that ash particles with effective radii between 0.5 and 3.5 μm (median radii: 0.3 to 2.0 μm) are detectable with infrared limb measurements. The small differences are due to differences in the assumed particle size distributions (mono-disperse, poly-disperse, different distribution widths).

For infrared nadir measurements, Prata (1989b) found that volcanic ash clouds cannot be discriminated from sulfate aerosol clouds or sulfate coated ash clouds utilising the BTD method. Barton et al. (1992) demonstrated a case, in which this method detects a volcanic sulfate aerosol cloud. Wen and Rose (1994) examined if volcanic ash and sulfate aerosol can be distinguished from each other and concluded from their simulations that sulfate aerosol with sulfuric acid concentrations larger than 50 % cannot be distinguished from volcanic ash aerosol. In contrast to Wen and Rose (1994), we could show that for infrared limb measurements volcanic ash can be discriminated from sulfate aerosol consisting of 75 % sulfuric acid solution. However, our method is also sensitive to sulfate coated ash particles, provided that they are larger or more numerous than the sulfate aerosol particles measured so far.

The range of optical depth for the volcanic ash particle size retrieval introduced by Wen and Rose (1994) is from 0.1 to 1.25. More recent volcanic aerosol retrieval range down to optical depths of 0.02 (Clarisse et al., 2010; Gangale et al., 2010). Assuming an aerosol layer with a vertical extent of 1 km, the extinction coefficients given in Table 4 can directly be compared to the optical depths. For an ash layer of 1 km thickness, limb measurements can classify ash layers with lower particle concentrations (optical depth

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of 5×10^{-3}) than nadir measurements due to longer path lengths through the layer. This sensitivity to lower particle concentrations allows to trace ash particles up to 3 months as shown for the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle eruption.

The cloud top height of the volcanic ash layers can be determined for opaque cloud parts by comparing brightness temperatures from infrared nadir measurements with atmospheric temperature profiles (Prata and Grant, 2001). For thin cloud parts and clouds near the tropopause, this method leads to errors (Prata and Grant, 2001). In contrast, our detection method for limb radiance profiles in conjunction with the CI allows to determine the cloud top altitude irrespective of thick or thin ash layers. Additionally, limb measurements may allow to estimate the layer bottom altitude for optically thin ash layers.

6 Summary and conclusions

We have demonstrated that volcanic ash can be detected from MIPAS band A infrared limb measurements and determined the detectable particle size and extinction coefficient range. Starting with the complex refractive indices for volcanic ash and ice particles, we derived the extinction coefficient and single scattering albedo spectra. The spectral gradient of the extinction coefficient spectrum of ice is in opposition to the gradient of the volcanic ash extinction coefficient spectrum. With radiative transfer simulations for clear air, ice clouds, and volcanic ash, we showed that the opposing gradients directly transfer into the infrared limb spectra and create characteristic signals for ice and volcanic ash.

We exploited the high spectral resolution of MIPAS and identified two micro-windows between trace gas lines with very little trace gas contributions at 825.6 to 826.3 cm^{-1} and 950.1 to 950.9 cm^{-1} . These windows allow to capture the differences in the spectral gradient caused by particles. For the gradient between both windows, we derived an ash detection threshold function to distinguish between volcanic ash and ice clouds from MIPAS measurements in the Southern Hemisphere in 2011. The ash detection

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threshold was chosen to identify all measurements between January and May 2011 as of non-volcanic origin. After the eruption of the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle on 4 June 2011 we found several measurements exceeding this threshold until August 2011. Even after August 2011 we found sporadic measurements exceeding this threshold. This method is both, reliable and fast, because it applies the averages of narrow spectral windows and a computationally inexpensive threshold function.

In a comprehensive simulation study, we calculated the radiances in both windows for ice clouds, volcanic ash, and sulfate aerosol. The particle sizes and concentrations were chosen to cover the realistic range observed in in-situ particle measurements. The simulations confirm that the ash detection threshold cannot be exceeded by ice clouds, but can be exceeded by volcanic ash. From the simulations we found that volcanic ash particles with effective radii between 0.2 and 3.5 μm are detectable with infrared limb measurements, which is in agreement with the detectable particle size range for infrared nadir measurements. Larger volcanic ash particles can be detected with infrared limb measurements by applying the CI method, but cannot be discriminated from ice clouds. From the simulations, we derived the detectable extinction coefficient range of 5×10^{-3} to $1 \times 10^{-1} \text{ km}^{-1}$. In case of an ash layer of 1 km vertical extent, the detectable extinction coefficient is about one order of magnitude smaller than for nadir measurements.

Because nadir volcanic ash detection methods are also sensitive to enhanced sulfate aerosol, we investigated the sensitivity of our method towards sulfate aerosol. We found from simulations that background aerosol as well as volcanically enhanced sulfate aerosol, as measured after e.g. the Pinatubo eruption, can explicitly be discriminated from volcanic ash. MIPAS measurements of the sulfate aerosol layer after the Nabro eruption in 2011 also did not lead to ash detections with this method. However, sulfate coated ash particles can be detected, provided they are large and numerous enough. From studies with other refractive indices as well as from MIPAS measurements we found that the ash detection method is also sensitive to mineral dust and carbonaceous material.

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Owing to the fact that the ash detection methods for infrared limb and nadir measurements rely on the same optical properties, the detectable particle sizes are the same. The different measurement geometries, however, lead to a higher sensitivity towards smaller particle concentrations for the limb measurements. Hence, from infrared limb measurements, thinner ash clouds can be detected. Also, the limb measurements inherently provide altitude information in contrast to nadir measurements. Compared to measurements in the ultraviolet and visible spectral range, infrared limb emission measurements allow for measurements at nighttime and hence provide a better global coverage. This volcanic ash detection method allows for fast analyses of infrared limb measurements and provides complementary information to already existing volcanic ash detection methods from other remote sensing instruments.

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Table 1. Log-normal number size distribution parameters used for the calculation of optical properties shown in Fig. 1. The scattering radius is given at 826 cm^{-1} .

Particle Type	Mode	n_i in cm^{-3}	μ_i in μm	σ_i	r_{sca} in μm	r_{eff} in μm	Reference
Volcanic Ash	1	2000.0	0.045	1.5	3.7	0.8	Schumann et al. (2011) (Fig. 7)
	2	10.0	0.225	1.6			
	3	1.4	0.75	2.0			
Sub-visible Cirrus	1	0.032	3.6	1.6	7.0	6.3	Iwasaki et al. (2007)
Tropical Cirrus	1	0.055	81	1.8	190.6	191.2	Tian et al. (2010)
Sulfate Aerosol (post Pinatubo)	1	340.0	0.065	1.75	0.76	0.29	Deshler et al. (1992)
	2	5.0	0.49	1.3			

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Table 2. Median radius for mono-modal log-normal size distributions shown in Fig. 2 and corresponding effective radius and scattering radius at 826 cm^{-1} . The width is set to 1.6.

μ in μm	r_{sca} in μm	r_{eff} in μm
0.3	1.2	0.5
0.6	2.0	1.0
1.15	2.9	2.0
1.75	3.6	3.0
2.9	4.9	5.0

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Table 3. Ice: number concentration n in cm^{-3} for different median radii μ in μm and extinction coefficients β_e in km^{-1} . Realistic number concentrations in the order of magnitude that were reported by Krämer et al. (2009) and Tian et al. (2010) are highlighted.

μ	β_e	1×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	1×10^{-2}	5×10^{-2}	1×10^{-1}	5×10^{-1}	1
0.3	0.5	2.5×10^1	1.3×10^2	2.5×10^2	1.3×10^3	2.5×10^3	1.3×10^4	2.5×10^4
0.6	1.0	3.1	1.5×10^1	3.1×10^1	1.5×10^2	3.1×10^2	1.5×10^3	3.1×10^3
0.8	1.4	1.3	6.4	1.3×10^1	6.4×10^1	1.3×10^2	6.4×10^2	1.3×10^3
1.5	2.6	1.9×10^{-1}	9.4×10^{-1}	1.9	9.4	1.9×10^1	9.4×10^1	1.9×10^2
3	5.2	2.5×10^{-2}	1.2×10^{-1}	2.5×10^{-1}	1.2	2.5	1.2×10^1	2.5×10^1
6	10.4	3.8×10^{-3}	1.9×10^{-2}	3.8×10^{-2}	1.9×10^{-1}	3.8×10^{-1}	1.9	3.8
12	20.9	7.2×10^{-4}	3.6×10^{-3}	7.2×10^{-3}	3.6×10^{-2}	7.2×10^{-2}	3.6×10^{-1}	7.2×10^{-1}
24	41.7	1.7×10^{-4}	8.4×10^{-4}	1.7×10^{-3}	8.4×10^{-3}	1.7×10^{-2}	8.4×10^{-2}	1.7×10^{-1}
48	83.4	4.2×10^{-5}	2.1×10^{-4}	4.2×10^{-4}	2.1×10^{-3}	4.2×10^{-3}	2.1×10^{-2}	4.2×10^{-2}
96	166.7	1.1×10^{-5}	5.4×10^{-5}	1.1×10^{-4}	5.4×10^{-4}	1.1×10^{-3}	5.4×10^{-3}	1.1×10^{-2}

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Table 4. Ash: number concentration n in cm^{-3} for every median radius μ in μm and extinction coefficient β_e in km^{-1} . Most likely combinations of number concentrations and particle sizes according to Mossop (1964), Farlow et al. (1981), and Schumann et al. (2011) are highlighted. The number scenarios that exceed the ash detection threshold are emphasised in bold font.

μ	β_e	1×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	1×10^{-2}	5×10^{-2}	1×10^{-1}	5×10^{-1}
0.1	0.2	5.6×10^2	2.8×10^3	5.6×10^3	2.8×10^4	5.6×10^4	2.8×10^5
0.3	0.5	1.4×10^1	6.8×10^1	1.4×10^2	6.8×10^2	1.4×10^3	6.8×10^3
0.6	1.0	7.7×10^{-1}	3.9	7.7	3.9×10^1	7.7×10^1	3.9×10^2
0.8	1.4	2.5×10^{-1}	1.2	2.5	1.2×10^1	2.5×10^1	1.2×10^2
1.0	1.7	1.1×10^{-1}	5.6×10^{-1}	1.1	5.6	1.1×10^1	5.6×10^1
1.25	2.2	5.6×10^{-2}	2.8×10^{-1}	5.6×10^{-1}	2.8	5.6	2.8×10^1
1.5	2.6	3.4×10^{-2}	1.7×10^{-1}	3.4×10^{-1}	1.7	3.4	1.7×10^1
2.0	3.5	1.7×10^{-2}	8.5×10^{-2}	1.7×10^{-1}	8.5×10^{-1}	1.7	8.5
3.0	5.2	7.7×10^{-3}	3.8×10^{-2}	7.6×10^{-2}	3.8×10^{-1}	7.6×10^{-1}	3.8
5.0	8.7	3.0×10^{-3}	1.5×10^{-2}	3.0×10^{-2}	1.5×10^{-1}	3.0×10^{-1}	1.5

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Table 5. H₂SO₄: number concentration n in cm⁻³ for every median radius μ in μm and extinction coefficient β_e in km⁻¹. The most likely combinations of number concentration and particle size according to measurements are highlighted. The scenarios exceeding the ash detection threshold are emphasised in bold font.

μ	β_e r_{eff}	1×10^{-4}	5×10^{-4}	1×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	1×10^{-2}
0.01	0.02	5.9×10^4	3.0×10^5	5.9×10^5	3.0×10^6	5.9×10^6
0.05	0.09	4.7×10^2	2.4×10^3	4.7×10^3	2.4×10^4	4.7×10^4
0.1	0.2	5.8×10^1	2.9×10^2	5.8×10^2	2.9×10^3	5.8×10^3
0.2	0.4	6.6	3.3×10^1	6.6×10^1	3.3×10^2	6.6×10^2
0.3	0.5	1.6	8.2	1.6×10^1	8.2×10^1	1.6×10^2
0.5	0.9	2.4×10^{-1}	1.2	2.4	1.2×10^1	2.4×10^1
0.6	1.0	1.1×10^{-1}	5.7×10^{-1}	1.1	5.7	1.1×10^1
0.8	1.4	3.7×10^{-2}	1.8×10^{-1}	3.7×10^{-1}	1.8	3.7
1.0	1.7	1.6×10^{-2}	8.1×10^{-2}	1.6×10^{-1}	8.1×10^{-1}	1.6
1.25	2.2	7.6×10^{-3}	3.8×10^{-2}	7.6×10^{-2}	3.8×10^{-1}	7.5×10^{-1}
1.5	2.6	4.3×10^{-3}	2.1×10^{-2}	4.3×10^{-2}	2.1×10^{-1}	4.3×10^{-1}

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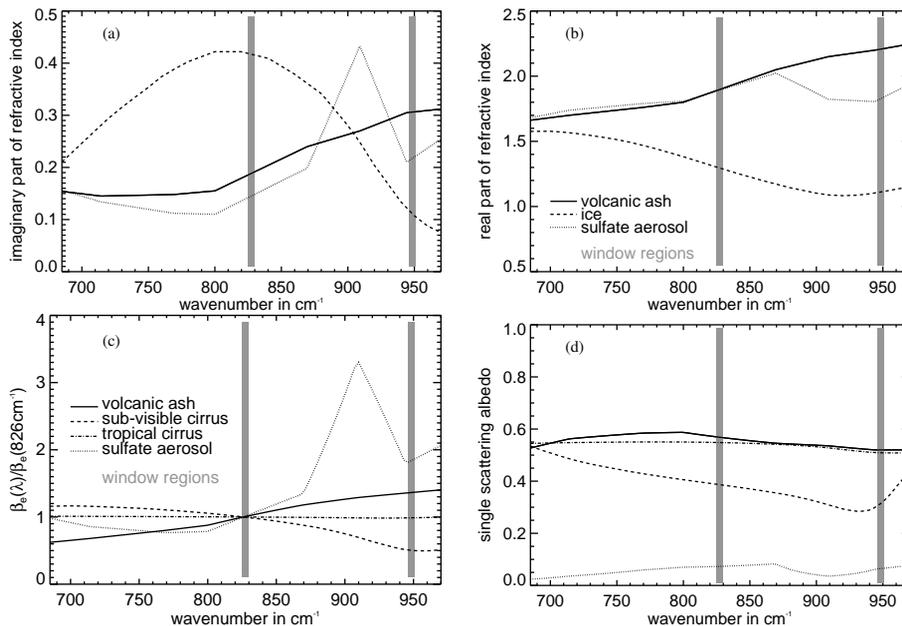


Fig. 1. (a, b) Complex refractive index spectra for volcanic ash, ice, and sulfate aerosol in MIPAS band A. (c) Extinction coefficient and (d) single scattering albedo spectra for volcanic ash, ice, and sulfate aerosol. The corresponding particle size distributions are presented in Table 1. The extinction coefficient is normalised to 1 at 826 cm⁻¹. The grey regions denote atmospheric windows used for volcanic ash detection.

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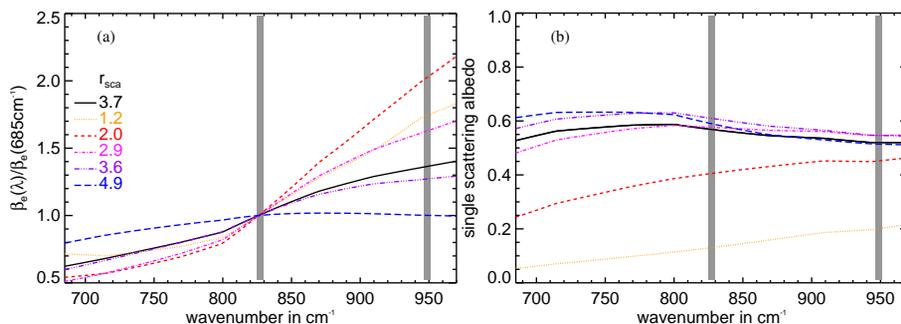


Fig. 2. (a) Extinction coefficient and (b) single scattering albedo spectra for volcanic ash particle size distributions with scattering radii ranging from 1.2 to 4.9 μm . The corresponding median radii and effective radii are given in Table 2. From the extinction coefficient spectra the radiance at 826 cm^{-1} is subtracted. The black solid line is calculated for the volcanic ash measurements reported by Schumann et al. (2011).

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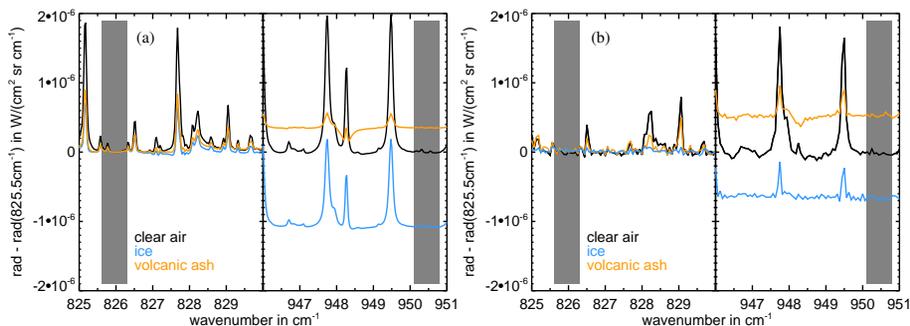


Fig. 3. Simulated spectra and MIPAS measurements. **(a)** Pencil beam simulations for clear air, small ice particles (SVC), and small ash particles ($r_{\text{eff}} = 1 \mu\text{m}$) at 10.0 km tangent altitude in mid-latitude atmospheric conditions. **(b)** MIPAS measurements (orbit 48509, profiles 89, 18, 65) for clear air, ice, and 6 day old volcanic ash from Puyehue-Cordón Caulle eruption at tangent altitudes between 10 to 11 km. The spectra are levelled by subtracting the radiance at 826 cm^{-1} .

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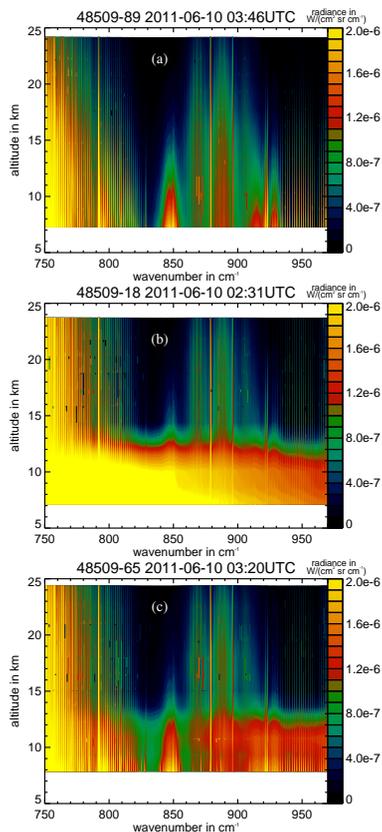


Fig. 4. MIPAS radiances for three profiles of orbit 48509. **(a)** Clear air with low radiances in window regions around 830 and 950 cm⁻¹. **(b)** Ice cloud below 13 km. The radiances at 830 cm⁻¹ are much larger than at 950 cm⁻¹. **(c)** Volcanic ash layer below 13 km. The radiances at 830 cm⁻¹ are lower than at 950 cm⁻¹.

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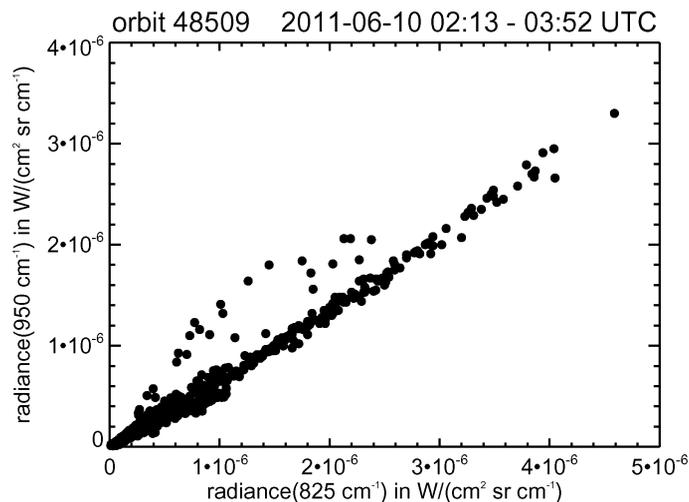


Fig. 5. Mean radiances below 30 km tangent altitude for the 825 cm⁻¹ window vs. the 950 cm⁻¹ window for MIPAS orbit 48509. The measurements form a narrow band with some outliers that are characteristic for volcanic ash. This orbit was measured six days after the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle eruption in Chile.

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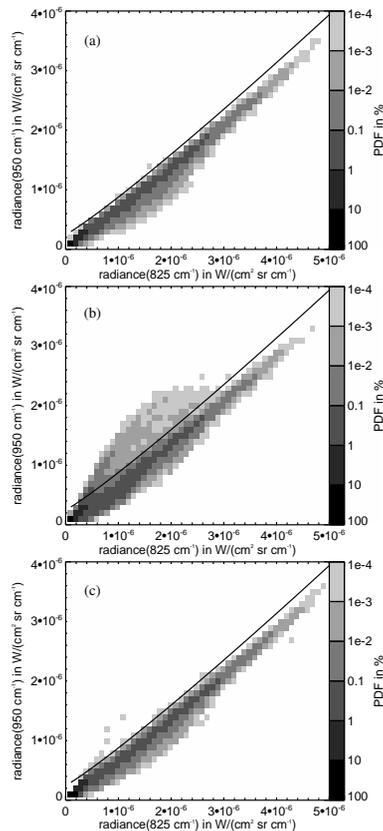


Fig. 6. Frequency density of MIPAS radiances in the Southern Hemisphere below 30 km altitude. **(a)** Pre-eruption phase from January to May 2011. **(b)** Post-eruption phase from June to August 2011. The eruption of the Puyehue-Cordón Caulle started on 4 June 2011. **(c)** Post-eruption phase from September to December 2011. The black line is the ash detection threshold function.

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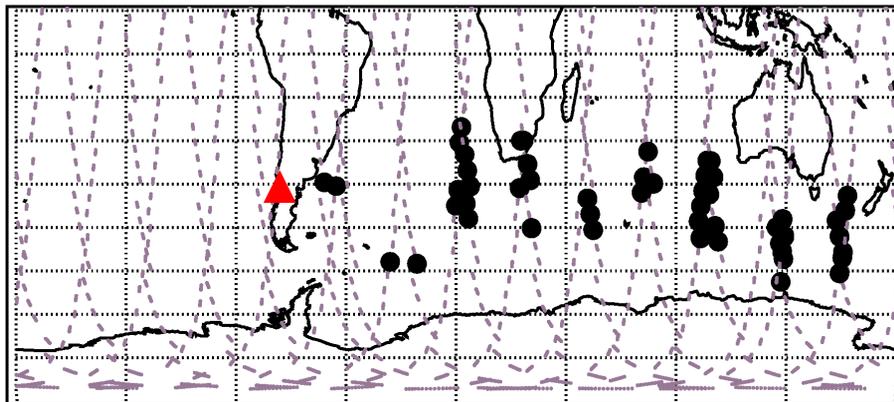


Fig. 7. MIPAS volcanic ash detections on 10 June 2011. The black circles indicate the profiles with volcanic ash detections. The Puyehue-Cordón Caulle is marked by the red triangle and the grey dots denote the tangent points below 30 km of all MIPAS measurements made on that day.

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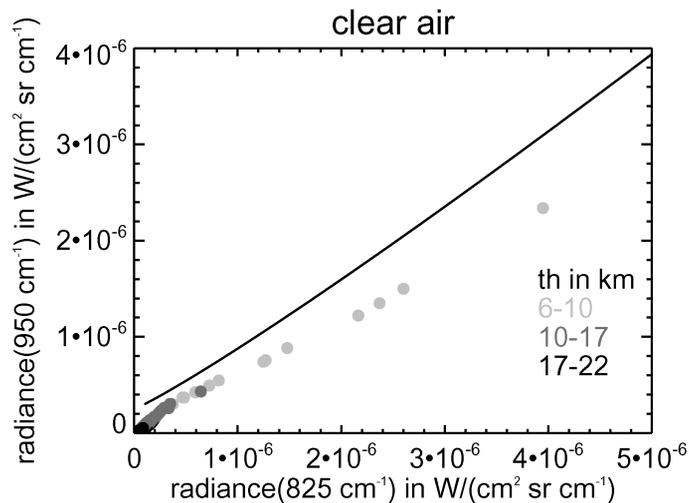


Fig. 8. Simulation results for clear air at tangent altitudes between 6 to 22 km. The black line denotes the ash detection threshold as derived from measurements.

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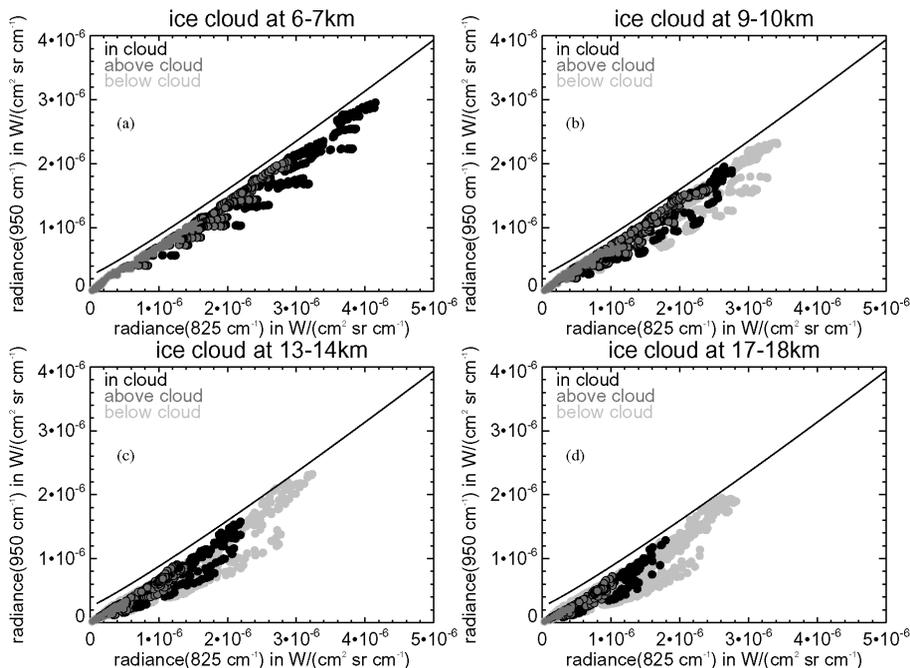


Fig. 9. Simulated radiances for ice clouds. **(a)** Ice cloud at 6–7 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(b)** Ice cloud at 9–10 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(c)** Ice cloud at 13–14 km altitude in polar winter, mid-latitude, and equatorial atmosphere. **(d)** Ice cloud at 17–18 km altitude in polar winter and equatorial atmosphere. The black line is the ash detection threshold. The tangent altitudes below the cloud down to 7 km altitude are coloured in grey, the tangent altitudes within the cloud are coloured in black, and tangent altitudes above the ash layer are coloured in dark grey.

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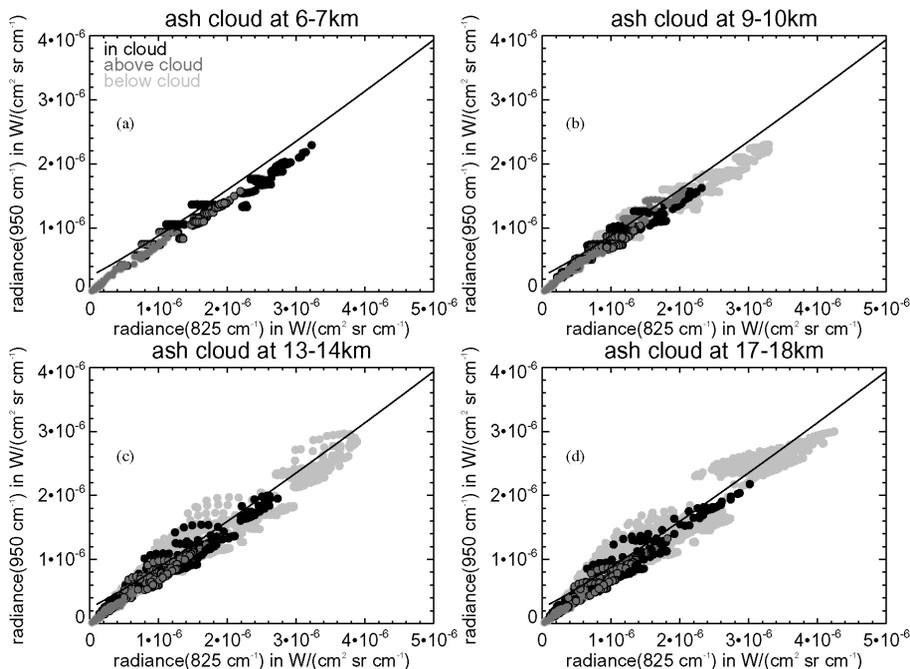


Fig. 10. Simulated radiances for ash clouds. **(a)** Ash layer at 6–7 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(b)** Ash layer at 9–10 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(c)** Ash layer at 13–14 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, mid-latitude, and equatorial atmosphere. **(d)** Ash layer at 17–18 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, mid-latitude, and equatorial atmosphere. The black line is the ash detection threshold. The tangent altitudes below the ash layer down to 7 km altitude are coloured in light grey, the tangent altitudes within the ash layer are coloured in black, and tangent altitudes above the ash layer are coloured in dark grey.

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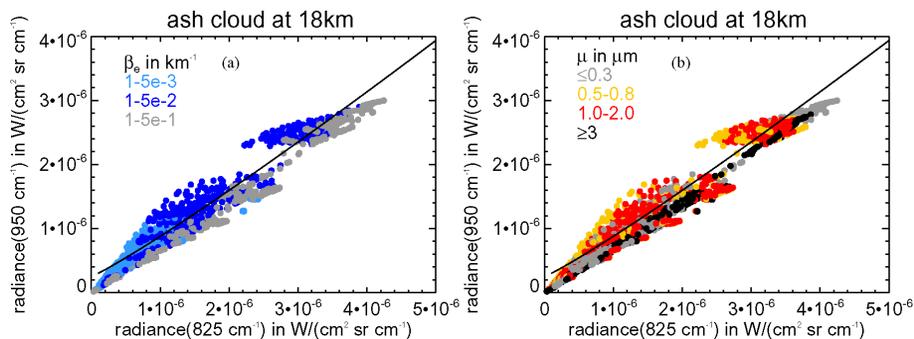


Fig. 11. (a) Extinction coefficient and (b) radius dependencies for volcanic ash clouds at 18 km altitude. The black line is the ash detection threshold.

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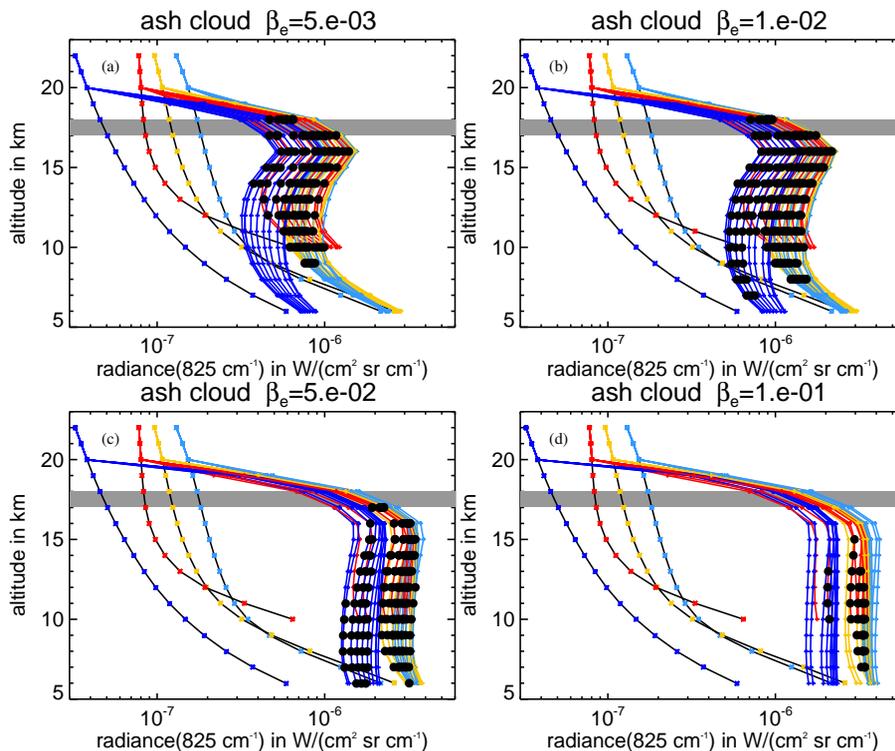


Fig. 12. Simulated radiances for ash layers between 17–18 km with extinction coefficients of 5×10^{-3} , 1×10^{-2} , 5×10^{-2} , and 1×10^{-1} . The black dots mark the tangent altitudes where the ash detection threshold is exceeded. The black profiles are the clear air simulations for polar winter (blue), polar summer (light blue), mid-latitude (yellow), and equatorial (red) atmosphere.

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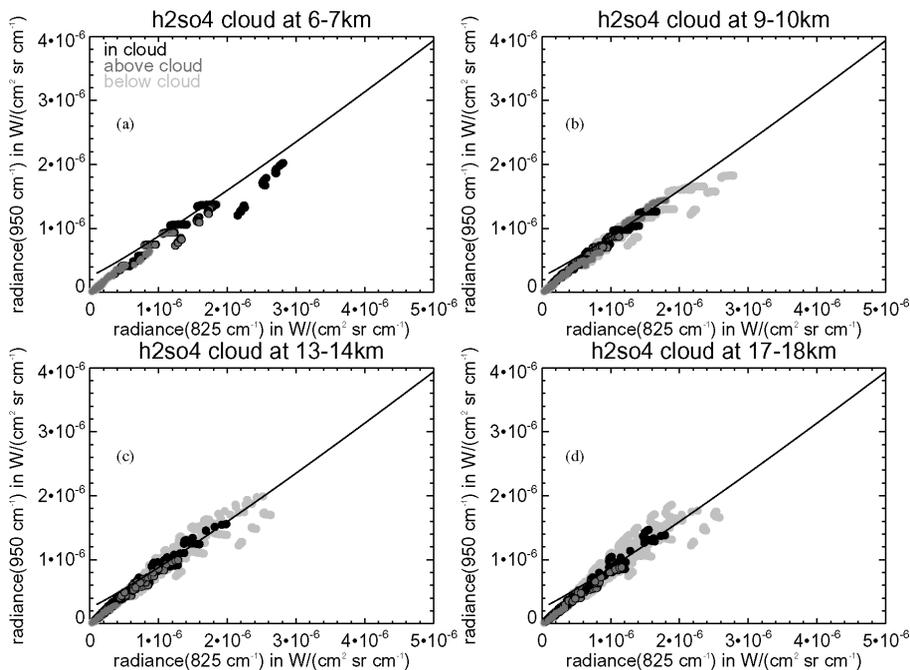


Fig. 13. Simulated radiances for sulfate aerosol layers. **(a)** Sulfate aerosol layer at 6–7 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(b)** Sulfate aerosol layer at 9–10 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, and mid-latitude atmosphere. **(c)** Sulfate aerosol layer at 13–14 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, mid-latitude, and equatorial atmosphere. **(d)** Sulfate aerosol layer at 17–18 km altitude in polar winter, polar summer, mid-latitude, and equatorial atmosphere. The black line is the ash detection threshold. The tangent altitudes below the sulfate layer down to 7 km altitude are coloured in grey, the tangent altitudes within the sulfate layer are coloured in black, and tangent altitudes above the sulfate layer are coloured in dark grey.