Observations of Water Vapor Mixing Ratio and Flux in

2 **Tibetan Plateau**

3 S. Wu¹, G. Dai¹, X. Song¹, B. Liu¹ and L. Liu²

4 [1] {Ocean Remote Sensing Institute, Ocean University of China, Qingdao, China}

5 [2] {Laboratory of Severe Weather, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Science, Beijing,6 China}

- 7 Corresponding author: S. Wu (wush@ouc.edu.cn)
- 8

9 Abstract

The water vapor expedition experimentfield campaign was performed operated in the Tibetan 10 Plateau in summer during July and August of 2014, by utilizing the Water WAter vapor, 11 Cloud and Aerosol Lidarlidar (WACAL). The observation was carried out in Nagqu area 12 13 (31.5 N, 92.05 E), which is 4508 meters above the mean sea level. During the observation, the water vapor mixing ratio profiles at high elevation werewas obtained. In this paper, the 14 methodology of the WACAL and the retrieval method are presented in particular. The 15 16 validation of water vapor mixing ratio measured during the field campaigns is completed performed by comparing the Lidarlidar measurements to the radiosonde (RS) data. WACAL 17 observations from July to August illustrate the diurnal variation of water vapor mixing ratio in 18 the planetary boundary layer in this high elevation area. The mean water vapor mixing ratio in 19 Nagqu in July and August is about 9.4 $g \cdot kg^{-1}$ and the values vary from 6.0 to 11.7 $g \cdot kg^{-1}$ near 20 ground. The SNRs and relative errors of the data are analysed and discussed as well in this 21 paper. Finally, by combin_concurrent measurements ingof the vertical wind speed profiles 22 measured by the coherent wind lidarlidar (CDL), the vertical flux of water vapor is calculated 23 and theand illustrates the water vapor transport through upwelling updraft and 24 downdraftdeposition of the water vapor are monitored. It is the first application, to our 25 knowledge, to operate continuously atmospheric observation by utilizing multi-disciplinary 26

<u>lidarlidars</u> at altitude higher than 4,000 meters-meters, which is significant for research on the
 <u>hydrologic cycle in the atmospheric boundary layer and lower troposphere dynamics and</u>
 meteorology of the Tibetan Plateau.

4

5 1. Introduction

Although the content of water vapor in the atmosphere is very rare and occupies about 6 7 0.1%-3% of the content of the atmosphere, water vapor has a significant impact on the determination of weather and climate due to the fundamental role in the radiative energy 8 9 transfer, hydrological cycle, and atmospheric chemistry processes. It influences the radiative budget of the planet both directly and through coupling with clouds. (Dinoev et al, 10 2013)Through coupling with clouds, water vapor influences the radiative budget of earth both 11 directly and indirectly. Moreover, because of its strong absorption and emission bands, 12 especially in the infrared, water vapor is one of the most significant greenhouse gas. Slight 13 change in the water vapor profile might bring pronounced eaffect on the global warming 14 process. It also influences atmospheric circulation and temperature structure by condensation 15 and evaporation processes (Dinoev, 2009). Aiming at the detection of water vapor, the most 16 commonly used method is radiosonde. The humidity sensors in radiosonde, which detect 17 changes in resistance or dielectric constant resulting from absorption or adsorption of water 18 (Wang et al., 2003), are installed. Several inter-comparison studies (Ferrare et al., 1995; 19 Turner and Goldsmith, 1999; Behrendt et al., 2007a, b and Bhawar et al., 2011) have been 20 operated to test the stability of these sensors. As a result, strong systematic differences 21 between different sensors are present for all ranges of humidity and temperature. 22 Consequently, requirement for the new techniques seem to be very significant. 23 Lidarlidar Lidar, as an active remote sensing technique, has the advantage of high temporal 24 and spatial resolution, high-frequency dynamic monitoring. Two Lidarlidar (LIght Detect And 25 Ranging) techniques have been applied to the detection of water vapor: the Differential 26 DIfferential Absorption Lidarlidar (DIAL) and the Raman Lidarlidar technique. In terms of 27 the DIAL, two laser pulses at different wavelengths, called "on-line" and "off-line", 28 respectively, are emitted to the atmosphere (Browell, 1983; Grant, 1991; Wulfmeyer and 29

Bösenberg, 1998; Bruneau et al. 2001; Wirth et al., 2009; Vogelmann and Trickl, 2008). In 1 this paper, the *Lidarlidar* system applies Raman technique. This technique was firstly used by 2 Melfi (Melfi et al., 1969 and 1972) and Cooney (Cooney, 1970) and the profiles of water 3 vapor mixing ratio were retrieved and provided. The Raman Lidarlidar technique depends on 4 the detection of Raman backscattered radiation from atmospheric molecules (Melfi et al., 5 1969 and 1972; Renaut and Capitini, 1988). The process of Raman scattering is characterized 6 by a wavelength shift of the scattered radiation in respect to the exciting wavelength. The shift 7 is uniquely associated with the internal transitions between the rotational-vibrational energy 8 levels of the molecules (Inaba and Kobayasi, 1972; Inaba, 1976; Demtröder, 2005 and 9 Demtröder, 2013Inaba, 1976; Demtroder, 2005), and is used for identification of the 10 scattering molecules. Due to the developmentBecause of the advantages of the high power 11 laser source, the vertical operation detection range of the Raman Lidarlidars can be extended 12 up to 7km and throughout the troposphere (Whiteman et al., 1992; Vaughan et al., 1988; 13 Goldsmith, 1998; Leblanc et al., 2008; Dinoev 2009 and Dinoev et al. 2013). 14 15

16

The Tibetan Plateau lies at a critical and sensitive junction of four climatic systems: the 17 Westerlies, the East Asian Monsoon, the Siberian cold polar airflow and the Indian monsoon. 18 The Tibetan Plateau is an outstanding topographic feather in the middle of the Eurasian 19 Continent with averaged height above 4500 m (MSL), and has important roles in global and 20 regional climate system. (Kuwagata et al., 2001) In turn, tThe Tibetan Plateau influences the 21 atmosphere in East Asia area and even the whole northern hemisphere. The Tibetan Plateau 22 has great impact on the water vapor budget of area around. The water vapor transportation 23 based on the plateau-monsoon interaction affects the drought and flood of Asia and even the 24 whole north hemisphere. During the middle of the monsoon season, from the end of June to 25 early September, very intense cloud activity continually exists over the Tibetan Plateau. Even 26 though the altitude is very high, a relatively wet condition is maintained over the Tibetan 27 Plateau and the hydrological cycle is active during the monsoon season (Kuwagata et al., 28 2001). Consequently, to study the development of water vapor in Tibetan Plateau it is becomes 29

1 <u>the focus of a significant scientific problem concernto study the development of water vapor</u>

2 in Tibetan Plateau.

During the routine observation from 10 July to 16 August, tThe water vapor mixing ratio is 3 monitored twice one day (00:00 and 12:00 UTC) by the applying of operational radiosondes. 4 However, because of the limitation of the temporal resolution and measurement frequency, 5 6 the water vapor mixing ratio data from radiosonde cannot satisfy the requirement of nowcast due to the various meteorological situation (Dinoev 2009), especially in the high elevation 7 area with strong radiation and convection. Moreover, the lack of the vertical profiles of water 8 vapor mixing ratio make it difficult to obtain and analyse the vertical distribution of water 9 vapor (Kuwagata et al., 2001). Fortunately, Wwith the development of the knowledge, some 10 other remote sensing techniques appear. These techniques include passive and active remote 11 sensing. The paper introduces the Lidarlidar technique, an active sensing technique, . The 12 Lidarlidar is capable ofto providinge vertical profiles of water vapor mixing ratio with the 13 14 advantages of high temporal and spatial resolution and updating rate.

Several lidars have been deployed for are developed as mountain-based atmospheric 15 observationslidars, where and relatively complex ambient conditions resulting from the high 16 altitude above mean-sea level are need to be considered solved. Some special issues regarding 17 the meteorological conditions and problems regarding the ambient conditions at the ground 18 also need be considered. One lidar system was set up and operated in 1973 at the mauna loa 19 observatory (19.53 N, 155.58 W, 3400 m mean sea level (MSL)) (DeFoor and Robinson, 20 1987; DeFoor et al., 1992). This lidar was used for the detection of aerosol and detected the 21 eruption of the Philippine volcano Pinatubo firstly. A combined multiwavelength Raman 22 elastic-backscatter lidar system specially built for measurements in the EARLINET network 23 (Larchevêque et al., 2002). The system was installed in 1999 at the Jungfraujoch Research 24 Station (46.55 N, 7.98 E; 3580 m (MSL)) and can monitor the aerosol optical properties and 25 water vapor. In 2003, a powerful differential absorption lidar (DIAL) at the 26 Schneefernerhaus high altitude station next to the Zugspitze summit (Germany) (Vogelmann 27 and Trickl, 2008; Klanner et al., 2010). This lidar system, -located at 2675 m MSL, provides 28

1	water vapor profiles in the entire free troposphere above 3 km with high vertical resolution
2	and an accuracy of about 5 % up to 8 km-without observable bias.
3	In this paper, the observation of lidars during the third Tibetan Plateau atmospheric
4	expedition experiment campaign is described. The methodology of the water vapor mixing
5	ratio, wind field and vertical water vapor flux isare introduced in section 2 and the results and
6	case studies are provided in section 3.
7	_
8	During the 2014 Tibetan Plateau atmospheric expedition experiment campaign, the vertical
9	profiles of water vapor mixing ratio are measured by WACAL.
10	
11	
ΤT	
12	2. Lidar technology and Methodology methodology
13	During t The 2014 Tibetan Plateau atmospheric expedition experiment campaign was
14	operated in Nagqu (31.5 N, 92.05 E, 4508 m MSL) on Tibetan Plateau., During this
15	campaign, the vertical profiles of water vapor mixing ratio arewere measured by the WACAL
16	and -the horizontal and vertical wind field profiles is were detected by the CDL. Moreover, the
17	temperature, pressure and relative humidity are detected by applying the radiosonde twice one
18	day (00:00 and 12:00 UTC). Combining the data products of the three systems, the water
19	vapor flux can be monitored. In the WACAL system, since the laser chiller inside the cabin
20	generate a lot of heat, which is harmful for the stable operation of the laser, it is essential to
21	cool the air in this cabin. The ventilation facility with high ventilation rate fan iswas taken
22	into consideration, which plays a very practical role in the high elevation and low air pressure
23	field experiment, e.g. at the Tibetan Plateau-field campaign. MoreoverIn addition, to ensure
24	the normal operation and to avoid the electric arc breaking through the air under the condition
25	of low pressure, reduce the heat of the laser, the rated voltage of the pump lamps in the laser
26	oscillator and amplifiers and oscillator stage is decreased were reduced, and therefore the heat
27	load also decreased.

The principle and basic layout of WACAL is described in this section for the integrality and 1 2 the detailed design is described in a separated paper (Wu et al., 2015). Figure. 1 shows the schematic diagram of WACAL. The laser transmitter of WACAL, Continuum Powerlite 9030, 3 is a high peak power flash lamp pumped Nd:YAG laser with three wavelengths of 354.7 nm, 4 532 nm and 1064 nm. And the pulse energy is 410 mJ, 120 mJ and 700 mJ, respectively. The 5 flash lamp-pumped Nd:YAG laser transmitter generates light pulses at the wavelength of 6 1064 nm. And after the second harmonic generator (SHG) and third harmonic generator 7 (THG), the wavelengths of 532 nm (frequency doubled) and 354.7 nm (frequency tripled) are 8 9 generated. With the residual light at wavelength 1064 nm, all these three beams are transmitted to the atmosphere. The basic parameters are listed in table 3. The light with the 10 wavelength of 354.7 nm is used for exciting Raman backscatter of nitrogen and water vapor 11 12 molecule. Meanwhile the backscattered light excited by the light at the wavelengths of 532 nm and 1064 nm are utilized for the detection of aerosol and cloud. For purpose of decreasing 13 divergence angle, two beam expanders are designed. As shown in Fig. 1, the transmitter 14 includes laser, one half-wave plate, one reflecting prism, one mirror, two beam expanders and 15 16 two windows with anti-reflective coating. The expanded laser beams with 90 mm diameter transmit into the atmosphere on an axis closed to the receiver axis. 17

18 After a laser pulse is transmitted to the atmosphere, molecules and particles scatter the light in all directions. A portion of the light is scattered backwards to the lidar. The light that is 19 20 collected by telescopes and then transmitted to the detection system. In order to increase the amount of collected light, this system deployed uses four Newtonian telescopes with the 21 diameter of 300 mm and the focal length of 1524 mm, forming a telescope array with an 22 equivalent receiver aperture of about 610 mm. The primary mirror of Newtonian telescope is 23 a parabolic mirror while the secondary mirror is a plane mirror. The 4 telescopes assembly 24 served as a telescope array with an equivalent receiver aperture of about 610 mm. The design 25 of the array has better practicability for detecting the signal from near field and far field. 26 Moreover, it takes the collection efficiency of the strong elastic backscatter light and the weak 27 Raman backscatter light into consideration. This design also makes the system easy to 28 transport and suitable for field experiments. However, it makes the system more complicated 29

1 to align the telescope and to determine the overlap function.

2 After collected by the telescope array, the scattered light is transmitted into 5 fibers,

3 including 4 far-field fibers and 1 near-field fiber. Considering the overlap function and the

4 collection efficiency of near-field signal, the near-range fiber is designed specially (Wu et al.,

5 <u>2015).</u>

6 The laser at wavelengths of 354.7nm, 532nm and 1064nm are transmitted to the atmosphere
7 after the beam expanders. The diameter of laser at wavelength of 354.7nm is expended from
8 9mm to 9cm and the divergence angle of the beam is reduced to 0.05mrad. After scattered by
9 the molecular and particles, the backscatter signal is collected by a four-telescope assembly.

Here the rotational-vibrational Raman spectrum of nitrogen and water vapor are explained. 10 According to the selection rule for vibrational transitions (Inaba and Kobayasi, 1972; Inaba, 11 1976; Demtröder, 2005 and Demtröder, 2013), the change of the vibrational quantum number 12 $\Delta v = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ However, when come to the area of molecular rotational structure atomic 13 fine structure and atomic physics, the sublevels cannot be ignored. And the change of the 14 rotational quantum number ΔJ obeys to the transition selection rule $\Delta J = 0, \pm 2$. In turn, the 15 Δv and ΔJ can describe the transitions of the atoms rotational resolved molecular 16 transitions. So because of the presence of sublevels, several branches of rotational-vibrational 17 Raman spectrum can be detected as table. 1 shows. 18

All lines in the Q-branch lie very close to each other and are not resolved excepted with 19 extremely high resolution spectroscopy. The S-branch ($\Delta v = 1, \Delta J = +2$) and O-branch 20 $(\Delta v = 1, \Delta J = -2)$ are well separated in energy and appear as sidebands on the either side of 21 the Q-branch (Inaba and Kobayasi, 1972). The cross section of nitrogen in Q-branch is about 22 10⁻³⁰ cm² sr⁻¹, which is two orders of magnitude bigger than the cross section in S- and 23 O-branch (about $10^{-32} cm^2 sr^{-1}$). In table 2, the shift of wave numbers Δk corresponding to 24 $\Delta v = 1, \Delta J = 0$ of nitrogen and water vapor are listed. In this workpaper, the Q-branch 25 $(\Delta v = 1, \Delta J = 0)$ is applied for the detection. Moreover, by using the narrowband interference 26

- <u>filters, the cross-talk of S- and O-branch backscatter light is highly suppressed.</u> The shift of
 wave number ______ of nitrogen and water vapor are listed in table 2.
- 3

5 Since the Raman scattering signal is 2 to 3 orders of magnitude weaker than Rayleigh scattering signal, the detection of the Raman signal at wavelength of 386.7 nm and 407.5 nm 6 is more difficult due tobecause of -the much lower SNR. The backscattered laser light is 7 collected by four 304.8 mm in diameter telescopes with focal length of 1524 mm. For the 8 9 better receiving efficiency and lower height to fit in the compact container, As discussed above, these four telescopes are assembled as a telescope array with, and the efficient 10 equivalent aperture of 610 mm.receiver widens to 609.6 mm. Four fibers are mounted at the 11 focus of the telescopes for the coupling of the signal. The core diameter of the fibers is 200 12 microns and the numerical aperture is 0.22, which also serves as a field stop. After Through 13 the coupling of fiber, the Raman signal is delivered to the spectrophotometer spectrometer 14 and which separated as nitrogen Raman signal and water vapor Raman signal. Meanwhile, the 15 532 nm and 1064 nm Mie and Rayleigh scattering signal at 532 nm and 1064 nm are 16 transmitted to the polarization channel and the infrared channel respectively. With the help of 17 the polarization channel, the measurements of to retrieve the -depolarization ratio, extinction 18 coefficient and <u>clouds cloud heightare solved</u>, which are not described in details in this paper. 19

The Raman channel is shown in Fig. 1(c). In this figure, the transmitter, receiver and 20 spectrophotometer spectrometer are provided in details. For purpose of avoiding the 21 22 interference of the elastic backscatter signal, band-pass filters are used. The central wavelength of the filters is 390 nm and the FWHM is 44.6 nm. The transmission between 370 23 nm and 410 nm is bigger-greater than 93% and the optical density (OD) is bigger-greater than 24 5 for light at the wavelength of 354.7 nm and 532 nm. After the filters, four fibers are 25 mounted for the coupling of the signal. After the coupling of fiber, the Raman signal is 26 delivered to the spectrophotometer and separated as Raman signal of nitrogen and water 27 28 vapor.

When the signal is transmitted to spectrophotometer the spectrometer, the light is dispersed 1 and then collimated by the convex lens with the focal length of 50.0 mm. After the reflection 2 of the reflecting prism, the parallel light arrives at the grating. The groove density of the 3 4 grating is 1302 l/mm and the blaze is 400 nm. So far, tThe Raman scattering signal from of nitrogen and water vapor are separated and go in different directions to the photomultiplier 5 tubes (PMT) because of the grating diffraction. Then the additional narrow band filters are 6 used before the PMT to suppress the interference from the elastic scattering and the stray 7 lightensure the purity of each signal at 386.7nm and 407.5nm. The central wavelengths 8 (CWLs) of the filter-1 is are 407.5 ± 0.1 nm. Meanwhile, the CWLs are, 386.7 ± 0.1 nm and 9 354.7 \pm 0.08 nm for <u>filter-1</u>, filter-2 and filter-3, respectively. The FWHM of all filters is 0.5 10 ± 0.10 nm and <u>the peak transmittance is bigger greater</u> than 50% and OD is 5 when out of 11 band blocking from 200 to 1200 nm. Note that together with the filters beforeat the incident 12 end of the fibers, the total OD in the Raman channel is >10 to eliminate the interference from 13 the elastic backscatter signal. After the filtration of filters, the parallel-scattering signals areis 14 15 then focused by plano-convex lens with a focal length of 100mm. Finally, the signals are 16 acquired by the photomultiplier tubes which PMTs, which are mounted at the focal point of plano-convex lens. The specifications of the optical elements of this channel are shown in 17 table.3. 18

19 The <u>LidarRaman lidar</u> equation can be described as <u>Eq. (1) (Dinoev, 2009)</u>:

$$P(z,\lambda_R) - P_{BG} = P_0(\lambda_L) \Delta z \frac{A_0 O(z)}{z^2} \xi(\lambda_R) \beta_R^{\pi}(z,\lambda_R) T^{up}(z,\lambda_L) T^{down}(z,\lambda_R)$$
(1)

$$T^{up}(z,\lambda_L) = \exp[-\int_{z_0}^{z} \alpha(z',\lambda_L)dz']$$

$$T^{down}(z,\lambda_R) = \exp[-\int_{z}^{z_0} \alpha(z',\lambda_R)dz']$$
(2)

20 Where $P_0(\lambda_L)$ is the laser pulse energy at a wavelength of λ_L , P_{BG} is the background 21 signal and noise, Δz is the range resolution, A_0 is the aperture of the telescope, O(z) is 22 the overlap of the system at height of $z_{,z}$, $\xi(\lambda_R)$ is the receiving efficiency at a given 1 wavelength λ_R , $\beta_R^{\pi}(z, \lambda_R)$ is the backscatter coefficient at λ_R at an altitude of \underline{z} , 2 $\alpha(z, \lambda_L)$ and $\alpha(z, \lambda_R)$ are is the extinction coefficient at wavelengths of λ_L and λ_R ; 3 respectively. $T^{up}(z, \lambda_L)$ and $T^{down}(z, \lambda_R)$ are the atmospheric transmission at λ_L and λ_R 4 respectively.

5 According to Eq. (1), the backscatter signal of N_2 and H_2O are obtained as $P(z, \lambda_{N_2})$ 6 and $P(z, \lambda_{H_2O})$. The water vapor mixing ratio can be calculated by Eq. (3):

$$w(z) = C \frac{P(z, \lambda_{H_2O})}{P(z, \lambda_{N_2})} \Delta T(\lambda_{N_2}, \lambda_{H_2O}, z)$$
(3)

7 Where: *C* is <u>the</u> calibration constant and can be obtained by contrast of <u>Lidarlidar</u> data and 8 radiosonde data, $\Delta T(\lambda_{N_2}, \lambda_{H_2O}, z)$ -, <u>contributed by molecular and aerosol extinction</u>, is the 9 differential atmospheric transmission at nitrogen and water vapor Raman wavelengths and is 10 calculated by Eq. (4):

$$\Delta T(\lambda_{N_2}, \lambda_{H_2O}, z) = \exp\left(-\int_{z_0}^{z} [\alpha(z', \lambda_{N_2}) - \alpha(z', \lambda_{H_2O})]dz'\right)$$
(4)

<u>The</u> $\alpha(z', \lambda_{N_2})$ and $\alpha(z', \lambda_{H_2O})$ can be calculated by Raman method (Ansmann et al., 11 1992). The calibration constant is retrieved using linear regression to a vertical water vapor 12 mixing ratio profile obtained by a reference radiosonde of GTS1 type. The radiosonde 13 provides temperature accuracy of ±0.2 °C, relative humidity accuracy of ±5% and pressure 14 accuracy of ±1hPa. The calibration constant is retrieved using regression to a vertical water 15 vapor mixing ratio profile obtained by a reference radiosonde. The radiosonde provides 16 temperature profiles with measurement accuracy of 2 %. Additionally, the pressure and 17 18 relative humidity profiles are also obtained. The Eq. (5) is used to obtain a mixing ratio profile from radiosonde data. In this equation, the temperature, pressure and relative humidity 19 profiles are used and the mixing ratio WR (g/kg) is then estimated. 20

$$WR = \varphi * S = \varphi * \frac{0.622 * P_s(T)}{P - 0.378 * P_s(T)}$$
(5)

1 <u>Where: φ is the relative humidity, S is the specific humidity, P is the atmospheric 2 pressure and P_s is the saturated vapor pressure (mb) at temperature $T_{(\circ C)}$ and can be 3 calculated by Arden-Buck equation (Buck, 1981) as Eq. (6) shows:</u>

$$P_s(T) = 6.1121 \times \exp((18.678 - \frac{T}{234.5}) \times (\frac{T}{257.14 + T}))$$
(6)

4

5 Where: _p_is relative humidity, _P_is the pressure and _P_i is the saturated vapor pressure at
6 temperature _T_and can be calculated by Eq. (6):

The calibration constant for this comparison <u>was retrieved using regression to a vertical</u> <u>water vapor mixing ratio profile obtained by a reference radiosonde</u>was obtained by <u>regressing the lidarlidar profile (up to 5 km) to radiosonde</u> as shown in Fig. 2. The <u>lidarlidar</u> water vapor mixing ratio (W_{Lidar}) profile <u>was is</u> calculated according to Eq. (3) with a calibration constant set to one. We assume that the relationship between <u>Lidarlidar</u> data $W_{Lidar} = \Delta T(\lambda_{N_2}, \lambda_{H,O}, z) * P(z, \lambda_{H,O}) / P(z, \lambda_{N_2})$ and radiosonde data W_{Sonde} as Eq. (7):

$$W_{Sonde} = C * W_{Lidar} + D \tag{7}$$

13 Where C is the calibration constant and D is the offset. Before the field campaign in the Tibetan Plateau, the water vapor profiles of the WACAL were compared with the 14 measurements of radiosonde at the campus of Ocean University of China in Qingdao. Since 15 the radiosondes were launched every day at 00:00 and 12:00 UTC, the Lidarlidar 16 measurements covered the period for the purpose of validation. The radiosondes were 17 launched at the site of Meteorological Administration of Qingdao (36.07 N,120.33 E) 18 19 everyday, while the WACAL was deployed at Ocean University of China 20 (36.165 N,120.4956 E). As Fig. 2(a) shows, the distance between these two sites is 16.7 km. In table 4, the period of time of the simultaneous observations by radiosonde and WACAL is 21

1 provided.

Using the linear regression model, the lidar and radiosonde profiles are fitted. The slope 2 fromusing the linear regression fitting the fit is a direct estimation of the lidar calibration 3 constant C. According to Fig. 2(b), C is found to be equal to 219. D is the offset and 4 determined as -0.34. Result from the different observation stations of the WACAL and 5 radiosonde and the WACAL system error, the offset exists. The correlation coefficient of 6 measurements by these two systems is 0.83. The standard deviation is 1.4 and the number of 7 samples is 169. After the calibration the water vapor mixing ratio can be rewritten as Eq. 8 (8) the lidarlidar and radiosonde profiles are fitted. The slope C from the fit is a direct 9 estimation of the lidarlidar calibration constant, and is found to be equal to 219. Meanwhile, 10 the -D - is determined as 0.34. As Fig. 2 shows, the correlation coefficient of these two system 11 data can reach up to 0.83. The standard deviation is 1.4 and the number of samples is 169. 12 After the calibration the water vapor mixing ratio can be rewritten as Eq. (8): 13

$$W_{Lidar}^{Cal} = 219 * W_{Lidar} - 0.34 \tag{8}$$

14 **3.** Observation consequences results and discussion

Atmospheric observations were operated performed in the Tibetan Plateau during from 10 July and to 16 August, 2014 by utilizing the WACAL and other lidars. The Tibetan Plateau atmospheric expedition experiment campaign had been carried out in Nagqu (31.5 %, 92.05 °E), which is 4508 meters above the mean sea level.

In our system<u>the WACAL</u>, both of <u>Analog-to-Digital AD (ADAnalog to Digital</u>) signal and <u>Photon Counting PC (PC-Photon Counting</u>) signal are detected by the <u>photomultiplier tube</u> (PMT<u>s</u>). However, Data acquisition by the PC method is possible only when the photons are individually distinguishable (Whiteman et al., 1992). In other words, because of the saturation effect and the bandwidth limitation of PMTs, the response of counting system is nonlinear. As a result, we have to correct Nitrogen and Oxygen-water vapor <u>echo-scattering</u> signal by the equation next:

$$P_{real} = \frac{P_{meas}}{1 - \tau * P_{meas}} -$$
(79)

1 Where P_{real} is the actual number of photons detected by PMTs, P_{meas} is the measured 2 <u>number-counts</u> and τ is the resolving time of the discriminator counter combination of 3 PMTs, which is also known as <u>the</u> dead-time. After the correction, the actual signal of 4 nitrogen and water vapor Raman signal will be draw in Fig. 3.

Aiming at the validation of In order to validate the calibration equation, the scatter diagram
based on theof the measurements by calibrated Lidarlidar methoddata and radiosonde data
measured in Nagqu is drawn shown as Fig. 4:.

Note that According to the figure above Fig. 4, the correlation coefficient can reach be up to 9 93.54% and mean deviation is 0.77 g•kg⁻¹. As a conclusion, the calibration of the water vapor mixing ratio-WACAL measurement can give a reasonably accurate estimate of water vapor profile is accurate enough for the routine observation. Here we will provide some case studies in Fig. 5 for the discussion. Several inter-comparisons of Lidarlidar derived vertical profiles with radiosonde measurements are presented (Fig. 5) as well as time serialsseries of water vapor mixing ratio in Nagqu from July 10 to August 16, 2014 (Fig. 6).

In Fig. 5, the blue dashed line indicates the water vapor mixing ratio measured by Lidarlidar and the pink-horizontal line shows the error bar of the data. Meanwhile the red line shows the data which are gotten-obtained from the operational radiosonde. From these four figures, one dry layer could-can be seen at about 2.8 km to 3 km in figure (a) and one distinct wet layer could-can be seen found at about 1.5 km to 2 km in figure (c). And in figure Fig. 5 (b) and (d), the water vapor mixing ratio gradually decreased as height increase. All of the water vapor mixing ratio profiles is averaged every 60 minutes and the range resolution is 75 m.

The Tibetan Plateau not only feed the most of Asia's major rivers, it also holds scattered
 numerous lakes. Note that Nagqu is located in the inland-north central part of the Tibetan
 Plateau that is a sub-frigid, semi-arid, monsoon climate zone, with the largest lake, Nam Co
 Lake, in Tibet in the southeast.area, _ The average annual precipitation is 380 - 420 mm, 80%

of which is in summer and autumn. The the content of water vapor in Nagqu is abundant in
 summer because of the monsoon activities and . It is likely that this phenomenon may result
 from the abundant vegetation, precipitation and strong evaporation from nearby plateau lakes
 in July and August.

However, since the nitrogen concentration at altitude of 4508 meters is about 42% lower than
at sea level altitude, the density and the backscatter coefficient of water vapor is also lower in
Nagqu. Consequently, the measurement Signal-to-Noise-Ratio (SNR) is getting smaller and
the error bar is bigger.

According to the profiles of water vapor mixing ratio, the observation data results of the 9 Lidarlidar and operational radiosonde have a good consistency. However, the divergence 10 cannot be ignored. Since the nitrogen concentration at elevation of 4508 meters is about 42% 11 lower than that at sea level, the density and the backscatter coefficient of water vapor is also 12 much lower in Nagqu with high elevation over 4500 m. Furthermore, becauseSince the 13 background light in Nagqu was still strong at 20:00 LST (LST=UTC+8) and the strong solar 14 radiation in ultra violet is caused by shallow atmosphere, it also brought in errorsis difficult 15 to in measure the water vapor mixing ratio measurementaccurately by WACAL. For To 16 ensuring ensure the accuracy of the measurement, the WACAL was utilized measured the 17 water vapor profiles from 21:30 LST, which is 1.5h later than the measurement of radiosonde. 18 The measuring time difference may be the main error source of observation in Nagqu. 19

In Fig. 6, the water vapor mixing ratio measured by the WACAL and the radiosonde are 20 presented. The time serials of water vapor mixing ratio from these two systems are provided 21 in Fig. 6(a) and (c) respectively. And the trend of W_{Lidar}^{Cal} is shown and two dry or low water 22 vapor content time periods are found. Fig. 6(b) and (d) provides the mean water vapor mixing 23 ratio and the deviation measured by WACAL and radiosonde. The deviation of water vapor 24 mixing ratio from WACAL and radiosonde which is shown in Fig. 6(e) indicates that the 25 water vapor mixing ratio measured by WACAL is about 0.7 $g \cdot kg^{-1}$ smaller than that measured 26 by radiosonde. This result is also consistent with the mean deviation from Fig. 4 and can also 27 explain the different of water vapor mixing ratio between Fig. 6(a) and (c). Here the time 28

serials of water vapor mixing ratio profile at 13:30 UTC from July, 10 to August 16 is shown
in Fig. 6. The trend and variation of the water vapor during this summer field observation can
be distinctly illustrated. According to Fig. 6(a), the trend of -w^{cd}_{Ldar}_was getting smaller with the
development of the time in July and August which might result from the gradually withered
vegetation. In July, the vegetation is abundant in Nagqu. And maybe because of the
transpiration of plants, water vapor content is rich. However, in August, the wilt of vegetation
may lead to the decrease of water vapor content.

In the following section, the error of the signal and results are discussed. For the purpose of determining evaluating detection performance of the Lidarlidar system, the SNR is taken into consideration. The SNR, which can be described as Eq. (810) (Papayannis et al., 1990; Pelon and Mégie, 1982):

$$SNR_i = \frac{P_i}{\sqrt{P_i + P_{bi}}} \tag{810}$$

- 12 Where P_i is the backscatter signal, P_{bi} is the solar background signal.
- 13 Moreover, from Eq. (3), the relative error δ_{RE} can also be calculated by Eq. (911):

$$\delta_{RE} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left(\frac{1}{SNR_1^2} + \frac{1}{SNR_2^2} \right)$$
(911)

14 Where *N* is the number of profiles used for averaging. SNR_1 and SNR_2 are the signal to 15 noise ratio of nitrogen and water vapor respectively.

16 Here we will present one case study of the SNR and δ_{RE} in the following figure.

In Fig. 7, the SNR and relative error are analyzed. Because of the limitation of the lower water vapor content, the acceptable detection range is 3.5 km. The <u>biggest greatest</u> SNR for nitrogen and water vapor in this observation are 6.8 and 0.22, respectively.

20 According to Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, it is noted that the water vapor mixing ratio are several times

21 <u>higher than the global average, and still at least two times higher than in a tropical atmosphere</u>

at corresponding altitudes. For the explanation, tThe backward trajectory model HYSPLIT 1 (Draxler and Rolph, 2003; Rolph, 2003) from NOAA is taken into accountused to analyze the 2 possible sources of the water vapor. Corresponding to Fig. 5, four backward trajectories 3 ending at 21:00LST on 11, 15, 18 and 22 July 2014 simulated by HYSPLIT model are 4 provided (Draxler and Rolph, 2003; Rolph, 2003) in Fig. 8. The black star represents the 5 observation station of lidar in Nagqu. On the basis of the trajectories, the high water vapor 6 mixing ratiocontent maybe partly resulted from the input the advection of the air mass from 7 the Southeast Asian warm pool region. AndFurthermore, -according to our observation by 8 the CDL, the east wind dominates the wind field during the field experiements in Nagqu-area, 9 which may indicate the influence of the Asian monsoon. As a conclusion, perhaps the 10 observed high water vapor mixing ratio is likely effected by the combination of the moist air 11 massmoisture from Southeast Asian warm pool region and Asian monsoon. 12 In addition to the water vapor content measurements, During the experiment campaign, for 13 14 purpose of detection the flux of water vapor, the wind field profiles is were also measured by utilizing a compact CDLCoherent Doppler Lidarlidar developed by the OUC lidarlidar group 15 to calculate the water vapor flux. The Coherent Doppler lidarlidarCDL takes advantage of the 16

component of the air motion. The Doppler shift
$$f_D$$
 can be obtained by Eq. (1012):

$$f_D = \frac{2 |\vec{V}_{LOS}|}{2}$$
(1012)

fact that the frequency of the echo signal is shifted compared to the local-oscillator light

because of the Doppler affect effect which occurs from backscattering of aerosols. The details

of the CDL system is described in a separated paper (Wu et al. 2014). The Doppler shift in the

frequency of the backscattered signal is analyzed to calculate the line-of-sight (LOS) velocity

17

18

19

20

21

λ

22 Where \vec{V}_{LOS} is the line-of-sight (LOS) velocity, λ is the laser wavelength and is equal to 23 1550 nm in this <u>lidarlidar</u> system.—

24 When the LOS velocities in four directions $\vec{V}_{LOS,E}$, $\vec{V}_{LOS,W}$, $\vec{V}_{LOS,S}$ and $\vec{V}_{LOS,N}$ are 25 measured, the vertical wind speed can be calculated by Eq. (4413) (Cariou, 2011):

$$\vec{V}_{ver} = \frac{1}{4\sin\theta} (\vec{V}_{LOS,E} + \vec{V}_{LOS,N} + \vec{V}_{LOS,N} + \vec{V}_{LOS,N})$$
(1113)

1 Where θ is the elevation angle.–

2 Since water vapor mixing ratio is the most common unit in boundary layer meteorology, it is 3 used to describe the water vapor measurements throughout the work. With the 4 synchronized concurrent observations of the water mixing ratio and vertical velocity, the 5 vertical water vapor flux $Flux_{WV,ver}$ can be calculated by Eq. (1214) (Giez et al., 1999):

$$Flux_{WV,ver}(T) = \overline{W_{Lidar}^{Cal} * \left| \vec{V}_{ver} \right|}$$
(1214)

Where ρ_{WV} is the absolute humidity that can be obtained from the water vapor mixing ratio.
Where <u>W</u>^{Cal}_{Lidar} and <u>V</u>_{ver} are the time serials of the turbulent fluctuations in the water vapor
mixing ratio and the vertical wind speed. The bar represents the temporal average over the
time interval <u>T</u>. For the consistency of the symbols, the symbols in Eq. (14) are different
from the original paper (Giez et al., 1999).

Although the water vapor mixing ratio can only be measured in the nighttime in this field 11 experiment, Result from the unique atmospheric characteristics and heating power of the 12 Tibetan Plateau thea longtime serials observation of vertical wind velocity is still important to 13 be required to recognize the unique atmospheric characteristics and heating power over the 14 Tibetan Plateau.- From thise wind observation, the turbulence, updraft and downdraft at 15 16 different time period in one day can be detected and analyzed. For this purpose, oneOne case study on 15 July 2015 is provided in Fig. 9. DuringFrom 0000 LST and to 0927 LST, because 17 of the low temperature and rare human and industrial activities, the boundary layer in Tibetan 18 plateau is toovery low and cannot to be detected by the CDL with a detection blind 19 20 regionminimum detection limit of 6090 m. During the daytime, the turbulence can be found and the value of the vertical wind velocity is between ± 1 m·s⁻¹. However, the turbulence in 21 nighttime is rare and the vertical wind velocity is between 0 $m \cdot s^{-1}$ and 1 $m \cdot s^{-1}$, which 22 indicates that the upwellingupdraft of the atmosphere -on the Tibetan Plateaudue to the 23

1 difference in temperature between the heated ground and the cooled air in nighttime.

In term of the vertical velocity and vertical water vapor flux, one case study on 15 August 2 2014 is presented below. Figure 10(a) shows the time serials of range correction 3 backscattering signal measured by the WACAL and FigureFig 810(ac) is the time serials of 4 5 the vertical velocity profile of 164 minutes obtained from the CDLCoherent Doppler Wind Lidarlidar. By combining the absolute humiditywater vapor mixing ratio (Fig. 810(b)) and 6 vertical wind velocity data, the Then we can calculate the vertical water vapor flux from the 7 water vapor mixing ratio (Fig. 10(b)) and the vertical wind velocity can be calculated and the 8 temporal development is shown in (Fig. 911). The temporal resolution (Δt) and the spatial 9 resolution (Δr) of the vertical wind velocity is 22 s and 13 m respectively. And the original 10 Δt and Δr of the water vapor mixing ratio is 10 min and 3.75 m respectively. However, in 11 order to sample capture the turbulent processes, the simultaneous observations of the WACAL 12 and CDL should have with the same sampling rate and the high resolutionand same and 13 14 by WACAL and CDL are required. For this purpose Therefore, the Δt and Δr of WACAL are adjusted to be equal to those of the CDL by means of interpolation and moving average. 15 Vertical profiles The time serials of water vapor mixing ratio shown in Fig. \$10(b) indicates 16 that the water vapor mixing ratiocontent inside clouds which are located at the height of 1.0 17 <u>km to 1.5 km at time period from 21:40 LST to 22:25 LST is 8.63 ± 1.66 g·kg⁻¹ higher than</u> 18 that in the ambient atmosphere around. The water vapor mixing ratio in the cloud is around 19 8.631.66. It can be found According to Fig 10(a) that, it started to rain at about 22:00 LST. 20 From these figures, iIt's also worth mentioning that is noted that the water vapor kept 21 transported risingupwelling and depositing both by the updraft and downdraft and the flux 22 iswas about 1.20 \pm 2.48 $g \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$ during between 21:03 and 22:00 LST before the 23 raining. Meanwhile, in the process of raining, the water vapor inside the clouds kept 24 <u>transporting downwards depositing and the flux is about -3.37 \pm 2.24 $g \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$. Note</u> 25

26 that because of the coverage and blocking of the raindrops gathered on the optical windows of

WACAL, the water vapor mixing ratio measured during the time period of between 22:05 LST
andto 22:10 LST should be used carefully and iswere removed by data quality control.during
the calculation of the flux. ConsequentlyNevertheless, a small-scale water vapor cycling can
be recognized was formed partly, in which and the ascending and descending upwelling and
deposition of the water vapor were monitored.

- 6
- 7
- 8

9 4. Summary

In this study, we have presented atmospheric observations during the Tibetan Plateau atmospheric expedition experiment campaign in 2014 in Nagqu. With the help of <u>the</u> WACAL, we observed the <u>atmosphere-water vapor profiles</u> in Tibetan Plateau and obtained information about the atmospheric conditions. The key findings of <u>our-this</u> study are listed below.

The calibration and validation of water vapor mixing ratio measurement have been 15 1) completed. In the process of the calibration, we found a the correlation coefficient 16 reached of up to 0.91.34% between the measurements of lidar and radiosondes. And in 17 tThe process of the validation, experiment shows athe correlation coefficient is of 18 0.9394.54% and the standard deviation is of 0.77 g·kg⁻¹. Considering the space distance 19 and <u>measurement</u> time difference between the <u>Lidarlidar</u> system and radiosondes, the 20 deviation is acceptable-, indicating that the lidar as a useful remote sensing tool can be 21 used for high temporal and spatial monitoring of water vapor profile. 22

23 2) With WACAL, significant information about water vapor is acquired. Water vapor mixing
 24 ratio profile in Nagqu the Tibetan Plateau is measured for the first time to our knowledge
 25 and the some case studies are provided in this paper._

3)2) The observations were operated in Nagqu from July to August, 2014. And the water
 vapor content in Tibetan plateau during July and Augustin summer was richrelatively

high-, mainly because the monsoon activities dominated and the abundant moisture 1 evaporated from nearby constellation plateau lakes. To a certain extent, this phenomenon 2 maybe results from the abundant vegetation, precipitation, evaporation from near plateau 3 lakes effect. Aand perhaps tThe moist air from the Southeast Asian warm pool region 4 ismaybe another significant source of the water vapor. And Aaccording to the our wind 5 observation by the coherent Doppler lidarCDL, the east wind dominateds the wind fieldin 6 summer in Nagqu area, which may indicatinge the influence of the Asian monsoon. the 7 wet East Asian Monsoon and the Indian monsoon, water vapor content in Tibetan plateau 8 9 during July and August was rich. 4)3) According to the diurnal variation time serials of water vapor mixing ratio at 21:30 LST 10 from July, 10 to August 16, the <u>development</u> of <u>water vapor mixing ratio</u> $\frac{W^{Cal}}{W_{Lidar}}$ was 11 getting smaller with the development of the time in July and Augustmonitored provided 12 and two dry or low water vapor content casestime periods wereare found. 13

5)4) With the help of Using multi-functional lidar techniques of Doppler wind lidar and
 Raman lidar the WACAL and the Coherent Doppler Wind Lidarlidar, the vertical wind
 speed and vertical water vapor flux are can be calculated. So as to monitoring t
 ascending and descending upwelling and deposition of the water vapor in a synoptic
 process.are monitored.

19

20 Acknowledgements

We thanks our colleagues for their kindly support before and during the field experiment, 21 including Kailin Zhang from Ocean University of China (OUC) for preparing the hardware 22 and conducting the lidar transportation; Xiaochun Zhai and Dongxiang Wang for operating 23 lidars in Nagqu; Rongzhong Li and Xitao Wang from Seaglet Environment Technology for 24 maintaining the Doppler lidar; Zhiqun Hu from Chinese Academy of Meteorological Science 25 for the coordinating of field experiments; Jianhua Ye from Genuine Optronics Limited for his 26 kindly supplying the backup circuit of the laser. This work was partly supported by the 27 National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC) under grant 41375016, 41471309 and 28

91337103, by the China Special Fund for Meteorological Research in the Public Interest
 under grant GYHY201406001. The authors wish to thank Dr. Liping Liu from CAMS/LAWS
 for his help and support before and during the observations. Thanks to the whole Lidarlidar
 group of Ocean University of China (OUC). The authors gratefully acknowledge the NOAA
 Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) for the provision of the HYSPLIT transport and dispersion
 model and/or READY website (http://www.ready.noaa.gov) used in this publication.

7

8 References

- 9 Ansmann, A., Wandinger, U., Riebesell, M., Weitkamp, C., and Michaelis, W.: Independent
 10 measurement of extinction and backscatter profiles in cirrus clouds by using a combined
 11 Raman elastic-backscatter lidar, Appl. Opt., 31, 7113-7131, 1992.
- Behrendt, A., Wulfmeyer, V., Bauer, H.-S., Schaberl, T., Di Girolamo, P., Summa, D.,
 Kiemle, C., Ehret, G., Whiteman, D. N., and Demoz, B. B.: Intercomparison of water
 vapor data measured with lidar during IHOP_2002. Part I: Airborne to ground-based
 lidar systems and comparisons with chilled-mirror hygrometer radiosondes, J. Atmos.
- 16 <u>Oceanic Tech., 24, 3-21, 2007a.</u>
- Behrendt, A., Wulfmeyer, V., Schaberl, T., Bauer, H.-S., Kiemle, C., Ehret, G., Flamant, C.,
 Kooi, S., Ismail, S., and Ferrare, R.: Intercomparison of water vapor data measured with
- lidar during IHOP_2002. Part II: Airborne-to-airborne systems, J. Atmos. Oceanic Tech.,
 24, 22-39, 2007b.
- <u>Bhawar, R., Di Girolamo, P., Summa, D., Flamant, C., Althausen, D., Behrendt, A., Kiemle,</u>
 C., Bosser, P., Cacciani, M., and Champollion, C.: The water vapour intercomparison
- effort in the framework of the Convective and Orographically induced Precipitation
- 24 <u>Study: airborne to ground based and airborne to airborne lidar systems, Q. J. R.</u>
- 25 <u>Meteorol. Soc., 137, 325-348, 2011.</u>

Browell, E. V.: Remote sensing of tropospheric gases and aerosols with an airborne DIAL
system. In: Optical and laser remote sensing, Springer, Berlin Heidelberg, 138-147,

1 1983

- Bruneau, D., Quaglia, P., Flamant, C., Meissonnier, M., and Pelon, J.: Airborne <u>lidarlidar</u>
 LEANDRE II for water-vapor profiling in the troposphere. I. System description, Appl.
 Opt., 40, 3450-3461, 2001.
- 5 <u>Buck, A. L.: New equations for computing vapor pressure and enhancement factor, J. Appl.</u>
- 6 <u>Meteorol., 20, 1527-1532, 1981.</u>
- Cariou, J. and Boquet, M.: LEOSPHERE pulsed <u>lidarlidar</u> principles, Leosphere, Orsay (FR),
 2011. 1-32, 2011.
- 9 Cooney, J.: Remote measurements of atmospheric water vapor profiles using the Raman
 10 component of laser backscatter, J. Appl. Meteorol., 9, 182-184, 1970.
- 11 DeFoor, T. and Robinson, E.: Stratospheric lidar profiles from Mauna Loa Observatory,
 12 winter 1985 1986, Geophys. Res. Lett., 14, 618-621, 1987.
- DeFoor, T. E., Robinson, E., and Ryan, S.: Early lidar observations of the June 1991 Pinatubo
 eruption plume at Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii, Geophys. Res. Lett., 19, 187-190,
 15 1992.
- <u>Demtröder, W.Demtroder, W.</u>: Molecular physics: theoretical principles and experimental
 methods, Wiley VCH, Weinheim, 2005.
- 18 Demtröder, W.: Laser spectroscopy: basic concepts and instrumentation, Springer Science &
 19 Business Media, 2013.
- Dinoev, T.: Automated Raman lidarlidar for day and night operational observation of
 tropospheric water vapor for meteorological applications, 2009. ÉCOLE
 POLYTECHNIQUE FÉDÉRALE DE LAUSANNE, 2009.
- 23 Dinoev, T., Simeonov, V., Arshinov, Y., Bobrovnikov, S., Ristori, P., Calpini, B., Parlange,
- M., and Van den Bergh, H.: Raman Lidar for Meteorological Observations,
 RALMO-Part 1: Instrument description, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 6, 1329-1346, 2013.
- 26 Draxler, R. R. and Rolph, G.: HYSPLIT (HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated

1	Trajectory) model access via NOAA ARL READY website (http://www. arl. noaa.
2	gov/ready/hysplit4. html). NOAA Air Resources Laboratory, Silver Spring. Md, 2003.
3	Ferrare, R., Melfi, S., Whiteman, D., Evans, K., Schmidlin, F., and Starr, D. O. C.: A
4	comparison of water vapor measurements made by Raman lidarlidar and radiosondes, J.
5	Atm. Ocean. Tech., 12, 1177-1195, 1995.
6	Giez, A., Ehret, G., Schwiesow, R. L., Davis, K. J., and Lenschow, D. H.: Water vapor flux
7	measurements from ground-based vertically pointed water vapor differential absorption
8	and Doppler lidars, J. Atmos. Oceanic Tech., 16, 237-250, 1999.
9	Goldsmith, J., Blair, F. H., Bisson, S. E., and Turner, D. D.: Turn-key Raman lidarlidar for
10	profiling atmospheric water vapor, clouds, and aerosols, Appl. Opt., 37, 4979-4990,
11	1998.
12	Grant, W. B.: Differential absorption and Raman lidarlidar for water vapor profile
13	measurements: a review, Opt. Eng., 30, 40-48, 1991.
14	Inaba, H. and Kobayasi, T.: Laser-Raman radar-Laser-Raman scattering methods for remote
15	detection and analysis of atmospheric pollution, Opto-electron., 4, 101-123, 1972.
16	Inaba, H.: Detection of atoms and molecules by Raman scattering and resonance fluorescence.
17	In: Laser monitoring of the atmosphere, Springer, Berlin Heidelberg, 153-236, 1976.
18	Klanner, L., Trickl, T., and Vogelmann, H.: Combined Raman lidar and DIAL sounding of
19	water vapour and temperature at the NDACC station Zugspitze, 15414, 2010.
20	Kuwagata, T., Numaguti, A., and Endo, N.: Diurnal variation of water vapor over the central
21	Tibetan Plateau during summer, J. Meteorol. Soc. Jpn., 2, 79, 401-418, 2001.
22	Larchev êque, G., Balin, I., Nessler, R., Quaglia, P., Simeonov, V., van den Bergh, H., and
23	Calpini, B.: Development of a multiwavelength aerosol and water-vapor lidar at the
24	Jungfraujoch Alpine Station (3580 m above sea level) in Switzerland, Appl. Opt., 41,
25	<u>2781-2790, 2002.</u>
26	Leblanc, T., McDermid, I. S., and Aspey, R. A.: First-year operation of a new water vapor

- Raman lidar at the JPL Table Mountain Facility, California, J. Atmos. Oceanic Tech., 25,
 1454-1462, 2008.
- Melfi, S., Lawrence Jr, J., and McCormick, M.: Observation of Raman scattering by water
 vapor in the atmosphere, Appl. Phys. Lett., 15, 295-297, 1969.
- Melfi, S.: Remote measurements of the atmosphere using Raman scattering, Appl. Opt., 11,
 1605-1610, 1972.
- Papayannis, A., Ancellet, G., Pelon, J., and Megie, G.: Multiwavelength <u>lidarlidar</u> for ozone
 measurements in the troposphere and the lower stratosphere, Appl. Opt., 29, 467-476,
 1990.
- Pelon, J. and Mégie, G.: Ozone monitoring in the troposphere and lower stratosphere:
 Evaluation and operation of a ground based lidarlidar station, J. Geophys. Res., 87,
 4947-4955, 1982.
- Renaut, D. and Capitini, R.: Boundary-layer water vapor probing with a solar-blind Raman
 lidarlidar: validations, meteorological observations and prospects, J. Atmos. Oceanic
 Tech., 5, 585-601, 1988.
- 16 <u>Rolph, G.: Real-time Environmental Applications and Display sYstem (READY) Website</u>
 17 (<u>http://www. arl. noaa. gov/ready/hysplit4. html</u>). NOAA Air Resources Laboratory,
 18 Silver Spring, Md, 2003.
- Turner, D. D. and Goldsmith J. E. M.: 24-hour Raman <u>lidarlidar</u> water vapor measurements
 during the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement program's 1996 and 1997 water vapor
 intensive observation periods, J. Atmos. Oceanic Tech., 16,1062–1076, 1999.
- Vaughan, G., Wareing, D., Thomas, L., and Mitev, V.: Humidity measurements in the free
 troposphere using Raman backscatter, Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc., 114, 1471-1484, 1988.
- 24 <u>Vogelmann, H. and Trickl, T.: Wide-range sounding of free-tropospheric water vapor with a</u>
- 25 <u>differential-absorption lidar (DIAL) at a high-altitude station, Appl. Opt., 47, 2116-2132,</u>
- 26 <u>2008.</u>

1	Wang, J., Carlson, D. J., Parsons, D. B., Hock, T. F., Lauritsen, D., Cole, H. L., Beierle, K.,
2	and Chamberlain, E.: Performance of operational radiosonde humidity sensors in direct
3	comparison with a chilled mirror dew - point hygrometer and its climate implication,
4	Geophys. Res. Lett., 30, 16, 2003.
5	Whiteman, D., Melfi, S., and Ferrare, R.: Raman lidarlidar system for the measurement of
6	water vapor and aerosols in the Earth's atmosphere, Appl. Opt., 31, 3068-3082, 1992.
7	Wirth, M., Fix, A., Mahnke, P., Schwarzer, H., Schrandt, F., and Ehret, G.: The airborne
8	multi-wavelength water vapor differential absorption lidar WALES: system design and
9	performance, Appl. Phys. B, 96, 201-213, 2009.
10	Wu, S., Yin, J., Liu, B., Liu, J., Li, R., Wang, X., Feng, C., Zhuang, Q., and Zhang, K.:
11	Characterization of turbulent wake of wind turbine by coherent Doppler lidar, 2014,
12	<u>92620H-92620H-92610.</u>
13	Wu, S., Song, X., Liu, B., Dai, G., Liu, J., Zhang, K., Qin, S., Hua, D., Gao, F., and Liu, L.:
14	Mobile multi-wavelength polarization Raman lidar for water vapor, cloud and aerosol
15	measurement, Opt. Express, 23, 33870-33892, 2015.
16	Wulfmeyer, V. and Bösenberg, J.: Ground-based differential absorption lidarlidar for
17	water-vapor profiling: assessment of accuracy, resolution, and meteorological
18	applications, Appl. Opt., 37, 3825-3844, 1998.
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	Table 1 Branches of the rotational-vibrational Raman spectrum

$\Delta \upsilon$	ΔJ	Branch
$\pm 1, \pm 2$	-2	O-branch
$\pm 1, \pm 2$	0	Q-branch
±1,±2	+2	S-branch

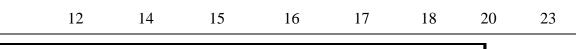
Table 2 The shift of wave number of nitrogen and water vapor

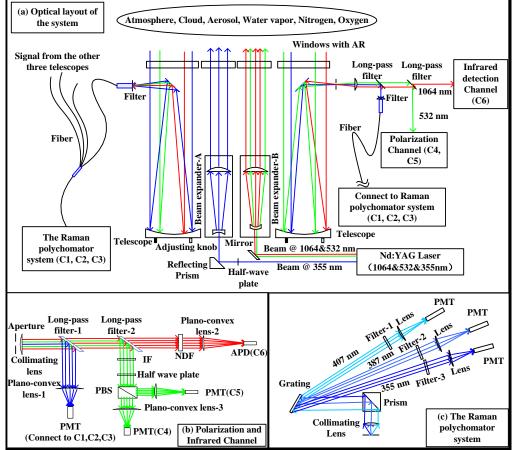
Molecule	Excitation wavelength	Δk $\Delta \upsilon = 1,$ $\Delta J = 0$	The center of the Q-branch		
Nitrogen	354.7nm	2330.7 /cm	386.7nm		
Water vapor	354.7nm	3651 <u>.7</u> /cm	407.5nm		

2 **Table 3** System specification of the Raman channel of the LidarLidar systemWACAL

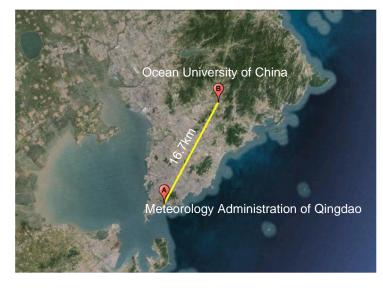
System	Specification	
	Wavelength (nm)	355<u>354.7</u>
	Pulse energy (mJ)	410
Lagar	Repetition rate (Hz)	30
Laser	Divergence (mrad)	0.5
	Pulse width (ns)	3-7
	Stability (\pm %)	4.0
Beam expender	Amplification factor	×10 @ 355 nm
	Aperture (mm)	304.8
Telescope	Focal length (mm)	1524
Fiber	Aperture (µm)	200

	Collimati	ing Lens		Foc	al length	:50mm		
				D: 1	1302 l/m	m		
	Grating			Blaz	ze: 400m	m		
	D'1 1				'L: 407.5)nm	± 0.1nm-	, FWHM	:0.5±
	Filter-1)%-, OD5		
Polychromator				CW	L: 386.7	± 0.1 nm,	FWHM:	0.5±
	Filter-2			0.10)nm			
				Peak %T: 50%-, OD5				
				CW	L=354.7	$2 \text{ nm} \pm 0.08$	3nm, FWI	HM: 0.5
	Filter-3			± 0	.10nm			
				Pea	k %T: 50)%-, OD5		
	Lens			Foc	al length	:100mm		
Photomultiplier	Photocath (Dia. mm	node Area	Size	0.8				
tube <u>(Hamamatsu</u> <u>H10721P-110)</u>	Cathode	radiant sei	nsitivity	~10	0mA•W	r ⁻¹ @ 355	nm	
	Waveleng	gth (Peak,	nm)	400				
	Temporal	l resolutio	n (ns)	25				
Data acquisition system (Licel_Licel_ transient recorder)	Range res	Range resolution (m)			3.75			
	Maximum counting rate (MHz)		250					
Table 4 Period of time of the simultaneous observations								
						• •		
May, 2014 12	21	22	26		27	28	29	31

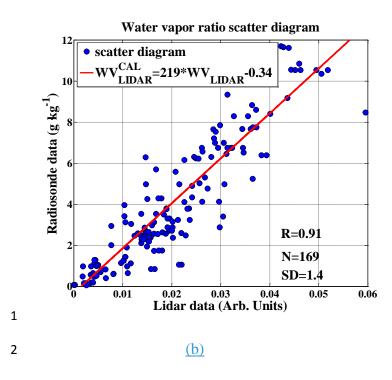




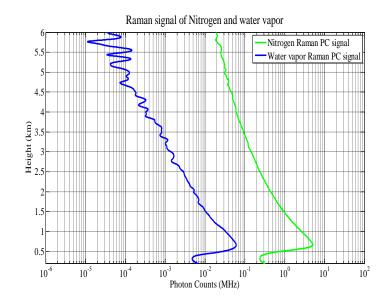
2 Fig. 1 Schematic diagram and photos of WACAL



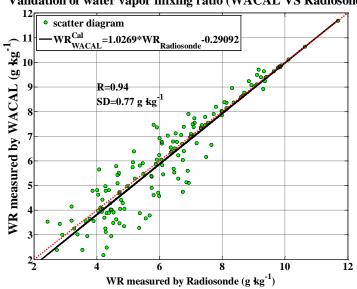
4

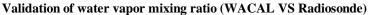


- **Fig.2** (a). Distance between sites of WACAL and radiosonde; (b). Regression of WACAL
- 4 mixing ratio profile to radiosonde measurement

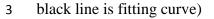


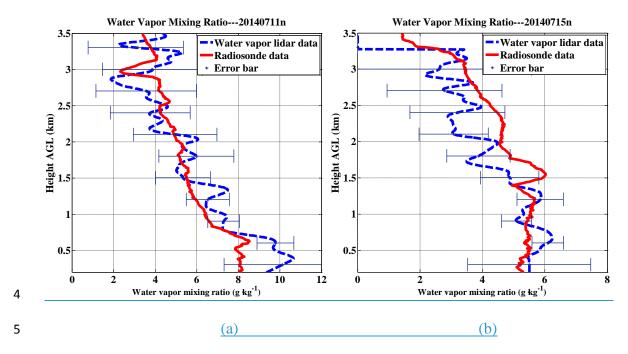
- 5
- 6 **Fig. 3** The actual <u>backscattering</u> signal <u>detected byof</u> nitrogen and water vapor Raman
- 7 channels at night time from 19:00 to 21:00 on 12 June 2014, Qingdao (36.17 N, 120.5 E).

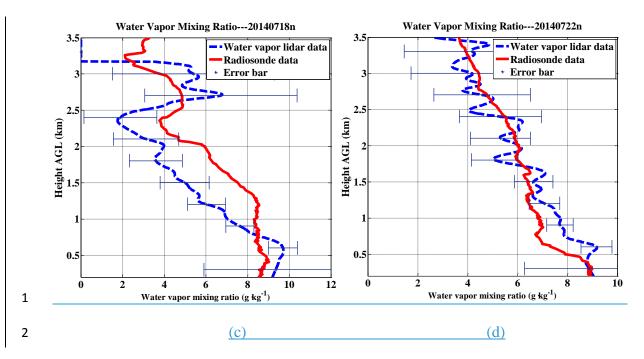




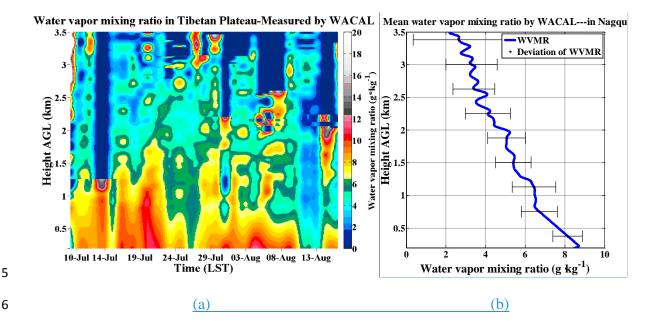
2 Fig. 4 Validation of the calibrated water vapor mixing ratio (red dashed line is 1:1 curve and

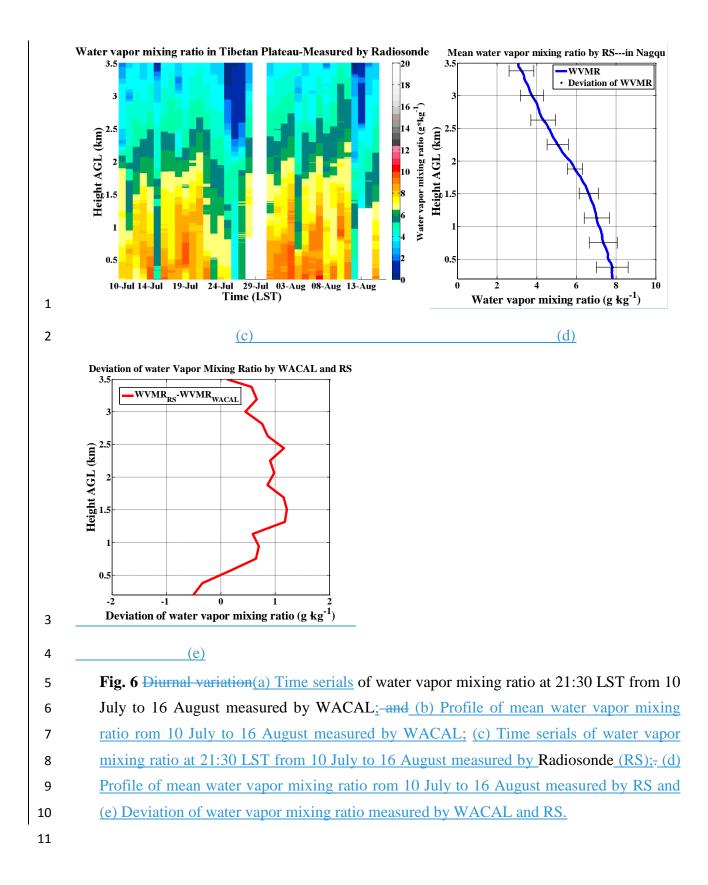






- 3 Fig. 5 Water vapor mixing ratio case studies: (a), (b), (c) and (d) measured in Nagqu on July
- 4 11, 15,18 and 22, 2014, respectively.





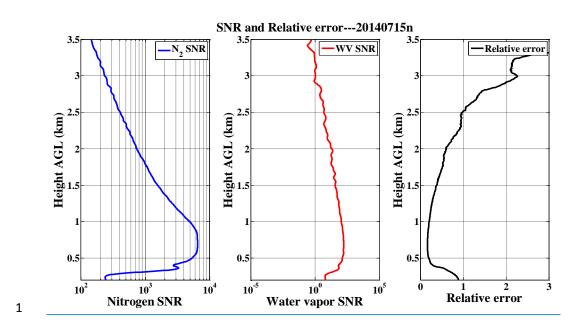
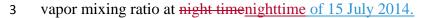
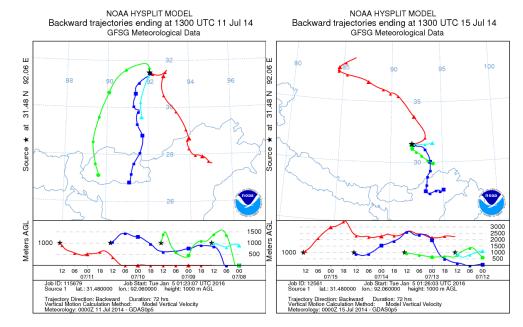
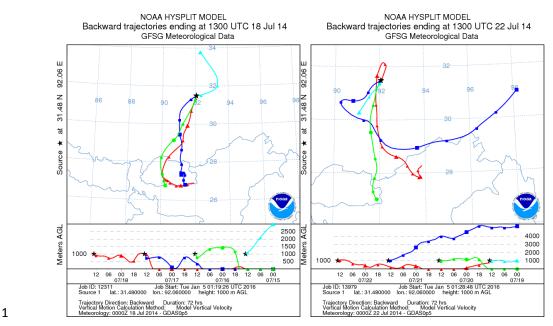


Fig. 7-7 The SNR of nitrogen and water vapor Raman signal and the relative error of water

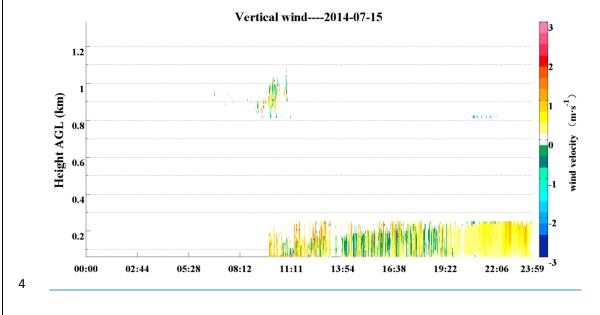




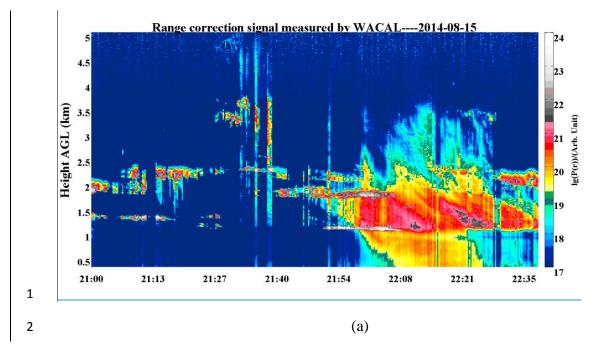


2 Fig. 8 Backward trajectories ending at 21:00 LST on 11, 15, 18 and 22 July 2014 simulated

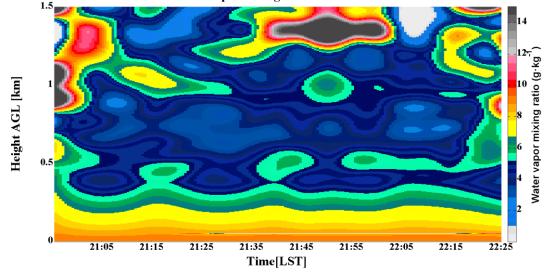
3 <u>by HYSPLIT model.</u>



5 Fig 9. Time serials of vertical wind velocity from 00:00 LST to 23:59 LST, 15 July 2014.



Water vapor mixing ratio----2014-08-15



(b)

4

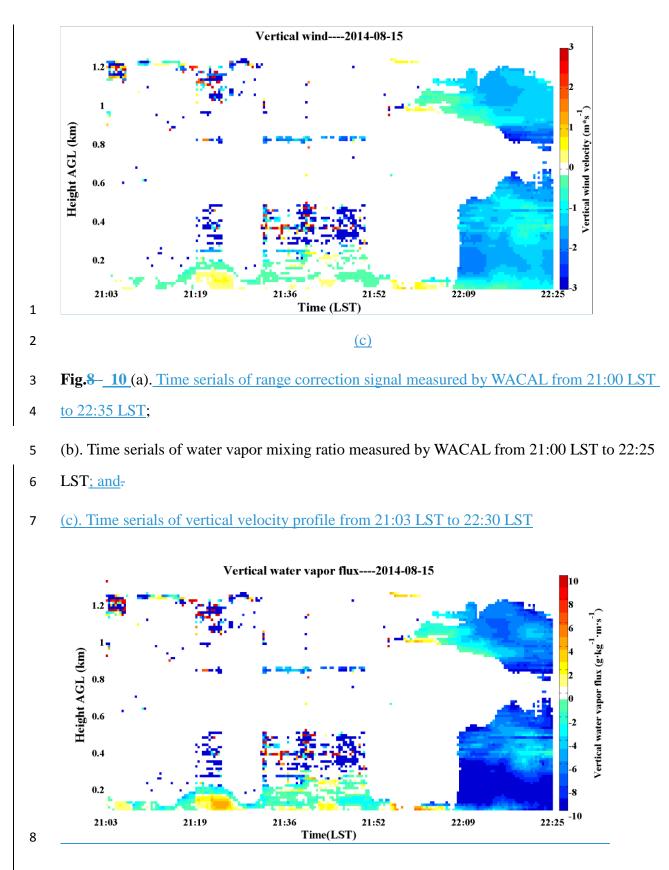


Fig. <u>11</u>9 Time serials of vertical water vapor flux from 21:03 LST to 22:30 LST.