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7	New and	improved infrared absorption cross sections for	
8		chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22)	
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14		Jeremy I Harrison ^{1,2}	
16			
17	¹ Department of Phys	cs and Astronomy, University of Leicester, University Road, Leicester	
18		LE1 7RH, United Kingdom	
19	² National Centre for	Earth Observation, University of Leicester, University Road, Leicester	
20		IF1 7RH United Kingdom	
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27			
28			
29	Address for correspon	dence:	
30 21		Dr. Jaramy I. Harrison	
32		Di. Jelelly J. Hallisoli Department of Physics and Astronomy	
33		University of Leicester	
34		University Road	
35		Leicester LE1 7RH	
36		United Kingdom	
37			
38	e-mail:	Jh592@leicester.ac.uk	
39			





40 Abstract

The most widely used hydrochlorofluorocarbon (HCFC) commercially since the 41 42 1930s has been chlorodifluoromethane, or HCFC-22, which has the undesirable effect of depleting stratospheric ozone. As this molecule is currently being phased out under the 43 Montreal Protocol, monitoring its concentration profiles using infrared sounders crucially 44 45 requires accurate laboratory spectroscopic data. This work describes new high-resolution infrared absorption cross sections of chlorodifluoromethane over the spectral range 730 -46 1380 cm⁻¹, determined from spectra recorded using a high-resolution Fourier transform 47 spectrometer (Bruker IFS 125HR) and a 26-cm-pathlength cell. 48 Spectra of 49 chlorodifluoromethane / dry synthetic air mixtures were recorded at resolutions between 0.01 and 0.03 cm⁻¹ (calculated as 0.9/MOPD; MOPD = maximum optical path difference) over a 50 51 range of temperatures and pressures (7.5 - 762 Torr and 191 - 295 K) appropriate for 52 atmospheric conditions. This new cross-section dataset improves upon the one currently 53 available in the HITRAN and GEISA databases; in particular it provides coverage over a 54 wider range of pressures and temperatures, has more accurate wavenumber scales, more 55 consistent integrated band intensities, improved signal-to-noise, is free of channel fringing, 56 and additionally covers the v_2 and v_7 bands.





58 **1. Introduction**

59 The consumer appetite for safe household refrigeration led to the commercialisation 60 in the 1930s of dichlorodifluoromethane, or CFC-12, a nonflammable and non-toxic refrigerant (Myers, 2007). Within the next few decades, other chemically related refrigerants 61 62 were additionally commercialised, including chlorodifluoromethane, or HCFC-22, which 63 found use in a wide array of applications such as air conditioners, chillers, and refrigeration 64 for food retail and industrial processes. Additionally, HCFC-22 was a component of 65 refrigerant R-502, an azeotropic blend of 48.8% HCFC-22 and 51.2% CFC-115 by mass, introduced in the 1960s for commercial refrigeration equipment (Watanabe, 2003). The use 66 of chlorodifluoromethane has also grown as a feedstock, for example its pyrolysis yields 67 68 tetrafluoroethylene (TFE), the monomer for polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), which is 69 trademarked as Teflon (Myers, 2007). Furthermore, its manufacture results in the by-product 70 trifluoromethane, or fluoroform (HFC-23), a very strong greenhouse which continues to 71 increase in the atmosphere (Harrison et al., 2012).

72 The discovery that CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons) could reach the stratosphere and 73 photodissociate to release chlorine atoms, which would catalyse the destruction of 74 stratospheric ozone (Solomon, 1999), led to international action and the ratification of the 75 1987 Montreal Protocol (and its later amendments), which aimed to phase-out the worldwide 76 production and use of CFCs and other ozone-depleting substances. HCFCs 77 (hydrochlorofluorocarbons), which were not regulated until the 1992 amendment and have a 78 less deleterious effect on the ozone layer than CFCs, were designated 'transitional' 79 replacements to aid in the rapid phase out of CFCs. With the worldwide CFC phase out 80 achieved, the focus has shifted to ending the use of HCFCs themselves, with a final phase out 81 currently scheduled for 2040 in the developing world and 2030 for developed countries.

82 HCFCs, in particular HCFC-22, continue to increase in the atmosphere. HCFC-22 83 is currently the most abundant HCFC in the Earth's atmosphere; it has an ozone depletion 84 potential of 0.034 (Harris et al., 2014), and an atmospheric lifetime of 11.9 years (Harris et 85 al., 2014). It is also a very strong greenhouse gas with a 100-year global warming potential 86 of 1780 (Harris et al., 2014). It is unsurprising, therefore, that there is much work carried out 87 in monitoring HCFC-22 atmospheric concentrations. For example, according to in-situ, 88 ground-based AGAGE (Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment) measurements, 89 the tropospheric abundance of HCFC-22 increased from 191.8 ppt in 2008 to 214.2 ppt in 90 2011 to 219.8 ppt in 2012 (Carpenter et al., 2014), with a 2011-2012 growth rate of 91 2.6%/year. However, emissions of HCFC-22 have stabilised since 2008 at \sim 370 Gg year⁻¹





92 (Carpenter et al., 2014). Saikawa et al. (2012) have estimated regional HCFC-22 emissions 93 from globally distributed surface data, which indicate an increasing trend between 1995 and 94 2009, and a surge in HCFC-22 emissions between 2005 and 2009 from developing countries 95 in Asia, including China and India, partially offsetting first efforts in developed countries to 96 phase out production and consumption. Although there is believed to be a large worldwide 97 bank of HCFC-22 in refrigeration systems, it is expected that emissions will decline over the 98 coming decade as new refrigerants are adopted (Carpenter et al., 2014).

99 Measurements of HCFC-22 in the atmosphere are also made using remote-sensing 100 techniques. The literature reports a number of remote-sensing instruments capable of 101 measuring HCFC-22 in the Earth's atmosphere; the ATMOS (Atmospheric Trace MOlecule 102 Spectroscopy) instrument deployed on the space shuttle (Irion et al., 2002), the JPL balloon-103 borne MkIV interferometer (Velazco et al., 2011), the MIPAS (Michelson Interferometer for 104 Passive Atmospheric Sounding) instrument on ENVISAT (ENVIronmental SATellite) (e.g. 105 Moore and Remedios, 2008), and the ACE-FTS (Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment -106 Fourier transform spectrometer) instrument on SCISAT (Brown et al., 2011).

107 Crucially these remote-sensing datasets all rely on the accuracy of the underlying 108 laboratory spectroscopy used in the forward model. Since the chlorodifluoromethane 109 infrared (IR) spectrum consists of an abundance of densely packed lines, it is virtually an 110 impossible task to derive spectroscopic line parameters. The solution for remote-sensing 111 purposes is to derive absorption cross sections from air-broadened spectra recorded in the 112 laboratory. In order to be most useful for remote sensing, these cross-section datasets 113 require: (1) accurate band intensities; (2) accurate wavenumber scales; (3) a wide coverage of 114 atmospherically relevant pressure-temperature (PT) combinations; (4) spectra recorded at an 115 appropriate resolution (Doppler-limited at the lowest pressures). This work presents new 116 spectroscopic data which improve upon those currently available in the HITRAN (High-117 resolution TRANsmission) and GEISA (Gestion et Etude des Informations Spectroscopiques 118 Atmosphériques) databases. In Section 2, a discussion of previous HCFC-22 IR absorption 119 cross section datasets, derived from laboratory measurements, is presented. Section 3 120 provides details on the new measurements taken as part of this work and the derivation of 121 cross sections, with Section 4 providing a discussion of the results and comparison with 122 previous measurements.

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124 2. Previous quantitative spectroscopic measurements of chlorodifluoromethane





There are two principal chlorodifluoromethane isotopologues, $CH^{35}CIF_2$ and CH³⁷CIF₂, with abundances of ~76% and ~ 24%, respectively. Both isotopologues are asymmetric tops belonging to the C_s point group, and each possess a single plane of symmetry (CHCl) containing the *a* and *c* principal axes. Chlorodifluoromethane has nine fundamental vibrational modes, six ($v_1 - v_6$) are symmetric (A') with respect to the symmetry plane, appearing as *a/c*-type bands in the IR, and three ($v_7 - v_9$) are antisymmetric (A'') with respect to the symmetry plane, corresponding to *b*-type bands (Snels and D'Amico, 2001).

The 730 - 1380 cm⁻¹ spectral range covered in the present work contains a number 132 of strong band systems: the fundamental $v_4 \sim 804.5 \text{ cm}^{-1} (\text{CH}^{37}\text{ClF}_2) / 809.3 \text{ cm}^{-1} (\text{CH}^{35}\text{ClF}_2)$ 133 (Ross et al., 1989) in Fermi resonance with the overtone $2v_6 \sim 820.9$ (CH³⁷ClF₂) / 829.1 134 (CH³⁵ClF₂) (Ross et al., 1989), and Coriolis-coupled doublets $v_3 \sim 1108.7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $v_8 \sim$ 135 1127.1 cm⁻¹ (CH³⁷ClF₂) / 1127.3 cm⁻¹ (CH³⁵ClF₂) (Snels and D'Amico, 2001), and $v_2 \sim$ 136 1312.9 cm⁻¹ (CH³⁷ClF₂) / 1313.1 (CH³⁵ClF₂) and $v_7 \sim 1351.7$ cm⁻¹ (Thompson et al., 2002). 137 138 Figure 1 provides a plot of the new absorption cross section at 270.0 K and 7.51 Torr with 139 these main band systems labelled. Note that the v_4 and $2v_6$ Q branches associated with each 140 isotopologue are easily identified in Figure 1. Full details on the measurement conditions 141 and derivation of this cross section are given in Section 3.

142 The first published absolute intensities of chlorodifluoromethane IR bands were 143 those of Varanasi and Chudamani (1988), however it was several years later before absorption cross sections appeared (McDaniel et al., 1991). Derived from measurements of 144 145 pure chlorodifluoromethane at 0.03 cm⁻¹ resolution and 203, 213, 233, 253, 273, and 293 K 146 (780–1335 cm⁻¹), these cross sections were subsequently incorporated into the HITRAN 147 1992 compilation (Rothman et al., 1992; Massie and Goldman, 1992). N₂-broadened chlorodifluoromethane absorption cross sections for the bands between 700 and 1400 cm⁻¹, 148 149 derived from measurements over a range of temperatures down to 200 K at a spectral resolution of 0.03 cm⁻¹, were subsequently published by Varanasi et al. in 1994. Seven of 150 these PT combinations, over the range 760-860 cm⁻¹ with temperatures ranging from 216 to 151 152 294 K and pressures from 40 to 760 Torr, were included in the HITRAN 1996 compilation 153 (Rothman et al., 1998).

The chlorodifluoromethane cross sections were given an overhaul for HITRAN 2000 (Rothman et al., 2003); the database now contained nine cross sections (0.03 cm⁻¹ resolution) from Clerbaux et al. (1993) for pure samples at three temperatures (287 K, 270 K and 253 K) and three wavenumber ranges (760–860 cm⁻¹, 1060–1210 cm⁻¹, and 1275–1380 cm⁻¹), and 57 from Varanasi (private communication, 2000) over the range 181–297 K and





21-761 Torr, 26 of these covering 760-860 cm⁻¹ and the remaining 31 covering 1070-1195 159 cm⁻¹; note that this dataset does not cover the v_2 and v_7 bands. Whereas the Clerbaux dataset 160 161 (Clerbaux et al., 1993) is not particularly useful for atmospheric remote-sensing applications 162 because it does not cover an appropriate range of atmospheric temperatures and pressures, 163 the Varanasi dataset has been used extensively for such applications over the last decade and 164 a half. This dataset has remained unchanged for subsequent HITRAN compilations, 165 including the most recent HITRAN 2012 (Rothman et al., 2013), and has additionally been 166 included in the most recent GEISA 2003 (Jacquinet-Husson et al., 2005) and 2009 167 (Jacquinet-Husson et al., 2011) compilations, although in GEISA there are 51 cross-section files, six of which cover both spectral regions. Despite its widespread use, the Varanasi 168 169 dataset has a number of deficiencies which will be fully discussed in Section 4.

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171 3. New absorption cross sections of air-broadened chlorodifluoromethane

172 **3.1. Experimental**

173 The experimental setup has been used previously for related measurements (e.g. 174 Harrison et al., 2010; Harrison, 2015b), so only a summary is provided here. All air-175 broadened chlorodifluoromethane IR spectra were recorded at the Molecular Spectroscopy 176 Facility (MSF), Rutherford Appleton Laboratory (RAL), using a Bruker Optics IFS 125 HR 177 FTS, and an internally mounted 26-cm-pathlength sample cell connected to a Julabo F95-SL 178 Ultra-Low Refrigerated Circulator filled with ethanol. Sample mixtures were prepared by 179 introducing chlorodifluoromethane (Asahi Glass Company, > 99% purity, natural-abundance 180 isotopic mixture, used 'as is') directly into the cell and then adding dry synthetic air ('Air 181 Zero', supplied by BOC); between measurements the cell was evacuated to < 0.001 Torr. 182 Mixture pressures were measured close to the cell inlet using Baratron capacitance 183 manometers (MKS), and the cell temperature was monitored by four platinum resistance 184 thermometers (PRTs) in thermal contact at different points on the exterior surface of the cell; 185 for the majority of measurements the temperature gradient within the cell was below 0.5 K, although this was closer to 1.0 K at the lowest temperatures. Spectra were recorded at 186 resolutions between 0.01 and 0.03 cm⁻¹ (defined as the Bruker instrument resolution of 187 188 0.9/MOPD; MOPD = maximum optical path difference), a similar range to those of the Varanasi measurements; 0.01 cm⁻¹ resolution for the lowest pressures (in the Doppler-limited 189 190 regime), and 0.03 cm⁻¹ for the highest pressures. The FTS instrumental parameters and 191 settings are summarised in Table 1, with sample pressures, temperatures, and their 192 experimental uncertainties and associated spectral resolutions listed in Table 2. Multiple





193 interferograms were recorded at each PT combination in order to improve the signal-to-noise, 194 with empty cell background interferograms recorded before and after these sample 195 measurements. Pure nitrous oxide (N_2O) spectra were additionally recorded at each 196 temperature to calibrate the wavenumber scale of the air-broadened chlorodifluoromethane 197 spectra.

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199 **3.2. Determination of absorption cross sections for chlorodifluoromethane**

The procedure for generating absorption cross sections from the experimental data is identical to that reported previously (e.g. Harrison et al., 2010; Harrison, 2015b). A Fourier transform algorithm was applied to measured interferograms using Bruker's OPUS software, and transmittance spectra calculated directly as $I_{sample}/I_{background}$. Wavenumbers were calibrated against the positions of isolated N₂O absorption lines in the ranges 1140 to 1320 cm⁻¹, taken from the HITRAN 2012 database (Rothman et al., 2013).

Initial absorption cross sections were derived via the Beer-Lambert Law, which relates the transmittance, $\tau(v, P_{air}, T)$, at wavenumber v (cm⁻¹), temperature T (K) and synthetic air pressure P_{air} , to the absorption cross section, $\sigma(v, P_{air}, T)$, with units cm² molecule⁻¹, by

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$$\sigma(\nu, P_{air}, T) = -\frac{10^4 k_{\rm B} T}{Pl} \ln \tau(\nu, P_{air}, T), \qquad (1)$$

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where *P* is the pressure of the absorbing gas (Pa), *l* is the optical pathlength (m) and $k_{\rm B}$ is the Boltzmann constant (= 1.3806488 × 10⁻²³ J K⁻¹).

215 During the experimental work, evidence was found for chlorodifluoromethane 216 adsorption in the vacuum line and on the cell walls, resulting in its partial pressure during 217 each measurement differing from the initial, measured, value; although there was no 218 evidence for this partial pressure changing over the course of a scan. This confirms previous 219 observations made during the Spectroscopy and Warming potentials of Atmospheric 220 Greenhouse Gases (SWAGG) project, which focused only on spectroscopic measurements 221 for radiative forcing and global warming potentials rather than for remote sensing (Ballard et 222 al., 2000). Due to this adsorption, the initial cross sections derived from Equation 1 needed 223 to be calibrated against a "calibration standard" integrated band strength. This assumes that 224 the integrated intensity over each band system is independent of temperature. The reader is 225 referred to the discussion in Harrison et al. (2010) for a more complete explanation of the





226 underlying assumption, and references cited within Harrison (2015a) for details on the 227 successful use of this approach in the past.

Integrated band strengths were calculated over the range 730 - 1265 cm⁻¹ for each of 228 229 these cross sections, and ratios taken against a "calibration standard" integrated band strength 230 over the same spectral range, derived from two 760-Torr-N2-broadened 231 chlorodifluoromethane spectra (recorded at 278 and 298 K) from the Pacific Northwest 232 National Laboratory (PNNL) IR database (http://nwir.pnl.gov) (Sharpe et al., 2004). Final 233 absorption cross sections were obtained by calibrating the y-axis, i.e. multiplying each cross 234 section from Eq. (1) by the calibration factor ξ , given by

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$$\xi = \frac{9.3554 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm molecule}^{-1}}{\int\limits_{730 \text{ cm}^{-1}}^{1265 \text{ cm}^{-1}} \sigma(\nu, P_{air}, T) \Im \nu}.$$
 (2)

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Note that each PNNL spectrum, recorded at 0.112 cm⁻¹ spectral resolution, is a composite of multiple pathlength–concentration burdens, and great care has been taken to ensure that sample concentrations have been determined accurately; systematic errors are ~ $1.5 \% (1\sigma)$.

241 The wavenumber accuracy of the new absorption cross sections is comparable to the 242 accuracy of the N₂O lines used in the calibration; HITRAN error codes indicate this is between 0.001 and 0.0001 cm⁻¹, but in reality is likely closer to 0.0001 cm⁻¹. In order to 243 244 obtain an estimate of the y-axis random errors, many measurements should be taken at each 245 PT combination. Due to time constraints, however, only one spectrum has been recorded for 246 each of these combinations, in the same manner as the Varanasi dataset. Despite this, it is 247 expected that systematic errors make the dominant contribution to the uncertainty. 248 Maximum uncertainties in the sample temperatures (μ_T) and total pressures (μ_P) are 0.3 % 249 and 0.7 %, respectively (Table 2). The photometric uncertainty (μ_{phot}) is estimated to be ~2 250 %. The pathlength error (μ_{path}) is estimated to be negligibly small, lower than 0.1 %. 251 According to the relevant metadata files in the PNNL database, the systematic error in the 252 PNNL chlorodifluoromethane spectra used for intensity calibration is estimated to be ≤ 3 % 253 (2 σ). Equating the error, μ_{PNNL} , with the 1 σ value, i.e. 1.5 %, and assuming that the error 254 estimates for all quantities are uncorrelated, the overall systematic error in the dataset can be 255 calculated from:





$\mu_{\text{systematic}}^{2} = \mu_{\text{PNNL}}^{2} + \mu_{\text{T}}^{2} + \mu_{\text{P}}^{2} + \mu_{\text{phot}}^{2}.$ (3)

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Note that using PNNL spectra for intensity calibration effectively nullifies the errors in the chlorodifluoromethane partial pressures and cell pathlength, so these do not have to be included in Eq. (3). According to Eq. (3), the systematic error contribution, $\mu_{systematic}$, to the new cross sections is ~3%.

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264 **4. Discussion and comparison of absorption cross-section datasets**

This section outlines the improvements in the new absorption cross-section dataset in relation to the previous Varanasi dataset. A numerical quantification of how the new cross sections improve atmospheric retrievals is beyond the scope of this work. However, some preliminary investigations of the ACE-FTS HCFC-22 retrieval for the upcoming version 4.0 processing indicate an improvement in the 1σ retrieval errors (C.D. Boone, personal communication, 2015); a more detailed investigation will follow at a later date.

This new dataset is available electronically from the author, and will be made available to the community via the HITRAN and GEISA databases.

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274 4.1. Signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs)

The SNRs of the new transmittance spectra, calculated using Bruker's OPUS software at ~ 990 cm⁻¹ where the transmittance is close to 1, range from 1300 to 2500 (rms). Without access to the original Varanasi transmittance spectra and without knowledge of the absorber partial pressures, it is not possible to determine the same quantity for the Varanasi measurements. A direct comparison between the absorption cross-section datasets reveals the new cross sections represent an overall improvement in SNR.

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282 **4.2. Channel fringing**

The majority of the Varanasi cross sections, principally those derived from 0.01-cm⁻ ¹-resolution spectra at low P and T, contain channel fringes noticeably above the noise level, likely equating with peak-to-peak amplitudes of ~2-3 % in transmittance for the original Varanasi measurements; these are caused by reflections from windows etc. in the optical path of the spectrometer. For the measurements described in the present work, channel fringes have been avoided by using wedged cell windows.





290 **4.3. Integrated band strengths**

291 In order to compare integrated band strengths of the new absorption cross sections 292 with those of Varanasi, integrals have been calculated over the spectral ranges of the Varanasi cross-section files in HITRAN, 760 - 860 and 1070 - 1195 cm⁻¹, covering 293 principally the v_4 / $2v_6$ and v_3 / v_8 bands respectively. There are a number of instances of 294 295 baseline inconsistencies in the Varanasi cross sections, e.g. shifts or changes in slope, and the 296 cross sections provided via both the HITRAN and GEISA databases have had all negative y-297 values set to zero; these issues will all contribute to systematic errors in the Varanasi 298 integrated band strengths. Figure 2 provides a plot of integrated band strength (without error 299 bars, for ease of viewing) against temperature for each dataset and wavenumber range. The 300 Varanasi integrated band strengths display a small spread in values, with a good deal more 301 scatter for the v_3 / v_8 bands, however there is no evidence for any temperature dependence, as 302 expected.

303

304 4.4. Wavenumber calibration

305 There is no mention of wavenumber calibration in the initial publication of Varanasi 306 et al. (1994), however the HITRAN 2000 publication (Rothman et al., 2003) states that the 307 wavenumber scales were calibrated using the absorption lines of ammonia, acetylene, carbon 308 dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide bands in the thermal IR $(7-14 \mu m)$ as given in HITRAN. 309 Despite this, the wavenumber scale does not agree with that determined for the new dataset, 310 and there is some variation in this scale from cross section to cross section. Figure 3 311 provides a plot of the new cross section at 201.5 K and 52.51 Torr, with the difference 312 relative to a re-baselined and re-normalised Varanasi cross section (at 201.0 K and 50.4 Torr) plotted underneath (new - old). The difference plot reveals a number of sharp features, 313 particularly the one at ~829.05 cm⁻¹, which coincides with the sharp $2v_6 Q$ branch of the 314 (CH³⁵ClF₂) isotopologue. Although there are small differences in the measurement P, T and 315 316 intensity between the two cross sections, the systematic features in the differences result 317 almost entirely from the poor wavenumber scale of the Varanasi cross section, which in this spectral region is shifted too low by ~ 0.0045 cm⁻¹ (a correction factor of ~ 1.000005). This 318 319 is in line with the wavenumber calibration errors observed for previous Varanasi HFC-134a 320 (Harrison, 2015a) and CFC-12 (Harrison, 2015b) datasets.

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322 **4.5. Pressure-temperature coverage**





323 A retrieval scheme in which the forward model uses absorption cross sections 324 should ideally interpolate between cross sections rather than extrapolate beyond them. The 325 target P and T of an atmospheric spectrum should be bracketed with four cross sections, two 326 of these at higher T, two at lower T, and one each of these at lower and higher P. This means 327 that the PT combinations within the dataset must cover all possible combinations of pressure 328 and temperature appropriate for the region of the atmosphere being observed. Figure 4 329 provides a graphical representation of the PT combinations for both datasets. It is readily 330 observed that the Varanasi dataset does not cover a wide enough range of pressures and 331 temperatures for the successful implementation of a four-point interpolation scheme. Note, for example, that above 225 K the very strong $2v_6$ Q branch (CH³⁵ClF₂) is covered by only 332 six absorption cross sections, each at a different temperature; this would necessarily result in 333 334 errors in retrieved HCFC-22 mixing ratios. The new dataset presented in this work has 335 extended the PT coverage (30 PT combinations in total) to resolve this problem. However, it 336 was not possible to record spectra at temperatures below 191 K with the Julabo F95-SL 337 Ultra-Low Refrigerated Circulator used in this work.

338

339 **5.** Conclusions

340 New high-resolution IR absorption cross sections for air-broadened chlorodifluoromethane have been determined over the spectral range 730 - 1380 cm⁻¹, with 341 342 an estimated uncertainty of 3 %. Spectra were recorded for mixtures of 343 chlorodifluoromethane with dry synthetic air in a 26-cm-pathlength cell at spectral resolutions between 0.01 and 0.03 cm⁻¹ (calculated as 0.9/MOPD) over a range of 344 345 temperatures and pressures appropriate for upper troposphere – lower stratosphere conditions 346 (7.5 - 762 Torr and 191 - 295 K). Intensities were calibrated against chlorodifluoromethane 347 spectra in the PNNL IR database. These new cross sections improve upon those currently 348 available in the HITRAN and GEISA databases (Varanasi et al. in 1994; Rothman et al., 349 2003); in particular they cover a wider range of pressures and temperatures, have more 350 accurately calibrated wavenumber scales, have more consistent integrated band intensities, 351 exhibit no discernible channel fringing, possess improved SNR, and additionally cover the v_2 352 and v_7 bands. This dataset will provide a more accurate basis for retrieving HCFC-22 353 abundances from atmospheric IR spectra recorded by remote sensing instruments.

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360

361 Figure Captions

Figure 1. The IR absorption cross section of chlorodifluoromethane / dry synthetic air at 270.0 K and 7.51 Torr, with vibrational band assignments for the main band systems covered in this work. Note that the arrows associated with v_4 and $2v_6$ indicate the Q branches associated with each isotopologue, with that for the more abundant CH³⁵ClF₂ at higher wavenumber than CH³⁷ClF₂.

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Figure 2. A plot of integrated band strength versus temperature for each of the datasets over the wavenumber ranges $760 - 860 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (principally the v_4 and $2v_6$ bands; bottom) and 1070 -1195 cm^{-1} , (principally the v_3 and v_8 bands; top). The Varanasi data at each temperature display a small spread in values, with a good deal more scatter in the v_3 / v_8 band strengths, likely due to some systematic error in the measurements.

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Figure 3. Top: the new IR absorption cross section of chlorodifluoromethane / dry synthetic air at 201.5 K and 52.51 Torr, covering part of the v_4 and $2v_6$ bands. Bottom: the difference between the new cross section and the re-baselined and re-normalised Varanasi cross section at 201.0 K and 50.4 Torr (new – old). The observed features in the difference plot are indicative of poor wavenumber calibration in the Varanasi cross section.

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Figure 4. A graphical representation of the PT coverage for both the new and Varanasi
datasets. Although the new dataset contains fewer individual IR absorption cross sections
(30), it has been optimised to provide a more balanced dataset with wider PT coverage.

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543	Table 1: FTS parameters and cell configuration for all measurements			
	Mid-IR source	Globar		
	Detector	Mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) D313 ^{<i>a</i>}		
	Beam splitter	Potassium bromide (KBr)		
	Optical filter	\sim 700–1700 cm ⁻¹ bandpass		
	Spectral resolution	$0.01 \text{ to } 0.03 \text{ cm}^{-1}$		
	Aperture size	3.15 mm		
	Apodisation function	Boxcar		
	Phase correction	Mertz		
	Cell windows	Potassium bromide (KBr) (wedged)		
	Pressure gauges	3 MKS-690A Baratrons (1, 10 & 1000 Torr) (±0.05% accuracy)		
	Thermometry	4 PRTs, Labfacility IEC 751 Class A		

^aDue to the non-linear response of MCT detectors to the detected radiation, all interferograms were Fourier transformed using Bruker's OPUS software with a non-linearity correction

546 applied.

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540	Toble 2. Summory	of the com	nla conditiona	for all	maggiromonta
349	Table 2. Summary	or the same	Die conditions	101 all	measurements

Temperature (K)	Initial CHClF ₂ Pressure $(Torr)^a$	Total Pressure (Torr)	Spectral resolution $(cm^{-1})^b$
190.9 ± 0.5	0.1440	7.496 ± 0.008	0.0100
190.8 ± 0.5	0.1875	50.75 ± 0.08	0.0150
190.8 ± 0.5	0.1984	99.50 ± 0.23	0.0150
190.8 ± 0.5	0.3018	199.2 ± 0.4	0.0225
201.5 ± 0.4	0.1566	7.507 ± 0.030	0.0100
201.5 ± 0.4	0.1902	52.51 ± 0.15	0.0150
201.4 ± 0.4	0.2027	100.6 ± 0.7	0.0150
201.4 ± 0.4	0.3377	200.0 ± 0.2	0.0225
201.4 ± 0.4	0.3267	302.5 ± 0.7	0.0300
216.3 ± 0.1	0.1721	7.570 ± 0.005	0.0100
216.3 ± 0.1	0.2066	50.83 ± 0.11	0.0150
216.3 ± 0.1	0.2280	100.6 ± 0.1	0.0150
216.3 ± 0.1	0.3851	200.6 ± 0.2	0.0225
216.3 ± 0.1	0.3862	349.5 ± 0.2	0.0300
232.7 ± 0.1	0.1857	7.500 ± 0.002	0.0100
232.8 ± 0.1	0.2229	50.07 ± 0.02	0.0150
232.7 ± 0.1	0.3288	100.3 ± 0.0	0.0150
232.7 ± 0.1	0.4769	201.9 ± 0.1	0.0225
232.7 ± 0.1	0.4800	399.9 ± 0.1	0.0300
251.2 ± 0.2	0.2571	7.523 ± 0.023	0.0100
251.2 ± 0.2	0.3683	50.82 ± 0.04	0.0150
251.2 ± 0.2	0.4594	204.9 ± 0.1	0.0225
251.2 ± 0.2	0.6050	400.2 ± 0.1	0.0300
251.2 ± 0.2	0.6469	602.6 ± 0.2	0.0300
270.0 ± 0.2	0.2858	7.514 ± 0.045	0.0100
270.0 ± 0.2	0.5317	201.5 ± 0.0	0.0225
269.9 ± 0.1	0.6917	352.2 ± 0.0	0.0300
269.9 ± 0.1	0.9080	759.9 ± 0.2	0.0300
294.5 ± 0.1	0.8388	351.4 ± 0.1	0.0300
294.8 ± 0.1	1.0162	761.6 ± 0.5	0.0300

550 ^{*a*} MKS-690A Baratron readings are accurate to \pm 0.05%.

551 ^b Using the Bruker definition of 0.9/MOPD.























