



Plume Propagation Direction Determination with SO₂ Cameras

Angelika Klein¹, Peter Lübcke¹, Nicole Bobrowski¹, Jonas Kuhn¹, and Ulrich Platt¹ ¹Institute of Environmental Physics, University of Heidelberg

Correspondence to: Angelika Klein (angelika.klein@iup.uni-heidelberg.de)

Abstract. SO₂ cameras are becoming an established tool for measuring sulphur dioxide (SO₂) fluxes in volcanic plumes with good precision and high temporal resolution. The primary result of SO₂ camera measurements are time series of two-dimensional SO₂ column density distributions (i.e. SO₂ column density images). However, it is frequently overlooked that in order to determine the

- 5 correct SO_2 fluxes, not only the SO_2 column density, but also the distance between the camera and the volcanic plume has to be precisely known. This is because cameras only measure angular extensions of objects while flux measurements require knowledge of the spatial plume extension. The distance to the plume may vary within the image array (i.e. the field of view of the SO_2 camera) since the plume propagation direction (i.e. the wind direction) might not be parallel to the image
- 10 plane of the SO₂ camera. If the wind direction and thus the camera-plume distance is not well known, this error propagates into the determined SO₂ fluxes and can cause errors exceeding 50%. This is a source of error which is independent of the frequently quoted (approximate) compensation of apparently higher SO₂ column densities and apparently lower plume propagation velocities at non-perpendicular plume observation angles.

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Here, we propose a new method to estimate the propagation direction of the volcanic plume directly from SO_2 camera image time series by analysing apparent flux gradients along the image plane. From the plume propagation direction and the known location of the SO_2 source (i.e. volcanic vent) and camera position the camera-plume distance can be determined. Besides being able to de-

- 20 termine the plume propagation direction, and thus the wind direction in the plume region, directly from SO_2 camera images, we additionally found, that it is possible to detect changes of the propagation direction at a time resolution on the order of minutes. In addition to theoretical studies we applied our method to SO_2 flux measurements at Mt. Etna and demonstrate that we obtain considerably more precise (up to a factor of 2 error reduction) SO_2 fluxes. We conclude that studies on SO_2
- 25 flux variability become more reliable by excluding the possible influences of propagation direction variations.





1 Introduction

Prediction and monitoring of volcanic events is highly desirable. Besides conventional methods, like seismicity or deformation measurements, continuous monitoring of volcanic gas emissions is a still

- 30 relatively new method for predicting volcanic eruptions. The four most common changes in volcanic behaviour preceding an eruption are earthquakes, deformation, thermal anomalies, and an increase in degassing of the volcano. Moreover, not only an increase in its degassing behaviour but also a change in composition of the volcano's degassing can be an indicator of an imminent eruption (see e.g. Bobrowski et al., 2015).
- 35 For short term as well as long-term monitoring of volcanic degassing behaviour in-situ as well as remote-sensing techniques have been developed. While in-situ techniques, such as alkaline traps and MultiGAS (Noguchi and Kamiya, 1963, Aiuppa et al., 2007) have been successfully applied, remote-sensing techniques have the particular advantage that they can be applied from a safe distance. Remote-sensing started with the correlation spectrometer (COSPEC, Moffat and Millan, 1971)
- 40 and Stoiber et al., 1983) but more recently the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) technique (Platt and Stutz, 2008) is applied at volcanoes. Long-term remote-sensing monitoring of the SO₂ emission rate (e.g. by the Network for Observation of Volcanic and Atmospheric Change (NOVAC), Galle et al., 2010) provides insights in the standard behaviour of each individual volcano and deviations from the normal activity can be used to predict eruptions. More recently, the SO2
- 45 camera (e.g. Mori and Burton, 2006) that can record two dimensional SO₂ column density distributions allowed unprecedented insight into chemical and dynamic processes in volcanic plumes. Future developments promise further improvements (Platt et al., 2015).

The SO₂ camera is a UV sensitive camera utilizing one or more band-pass interference filters to 50 measure the optical density (OD) of SO₂. One of those interference filters has a central transmission wavelength at about 310 - 315 nm. This filter is used to determine the light extinction mainly due to SO₂ and aerosols. The light extinction due to aerosol exhibits a broad band structure when compared to the narrow band structure caused by the light attenuation due to SO₂. Therefore, a second filter is applied with a center wavelength of approximately 330 nm, where the SO₂ absorption is negligible,

55 but which is close enough to cause only small changes in light extinction by aerosol (Lübcke et al., 2013). From the logarithm of the (suitably normalized) pixel-per-pixel ratio of two images taken through either filter, images of the SO₂ OD can be calculated. The SO₂ OD in turn is proportional to the SO₂ column density along the line of sight.

The propagation velocity of the plume and the distance between the plume and the camera are two important variables to determine the SO₂ emission rate from volcanoes using imaging data. Usually the apparent propagation velocity (i.e. the angular velocity) of the plume can be derived directly from the camera image series. For that purpose one correlates two integrated transects of the trace gas slant column density images of the moving plume, and determines the time lag between the two





- signals (McGonigle et al., 2005). One can determine the velocity of the plume from the time lag, the
 angular distance between the two image columns, and the distance of the plume. While this method
 is simple to implement it only provides a spatial and temporal mean propagation velocity that neglects for example turbulence or propagation velocity variations over the extension of the plume.
 A more detailed plume velocity determination can be achieved using optical flow algorithms (Kern
 et al., 2015b). These algorithms determine the displacement of image intensity values for each pixel
 from one frame to the next frame, thus giving a detailed spatial and temporal plume velocity estima-
- tion if the direction of the plume is known.

In any case an important prerequisite for the determination of an absolute trace gas flux values is the precise knowledge of the distance between plume and observing instrument (usually the SO_2

- 75 camera). This distance is usually more difficult to (precisely) determine than it is generally assumed: While the geographic locations of the volcanic gas source (i.e. usually the crater) and the position of the instrument are almost always precisely known, the plume propagation direction (like the plume velocity) is not. It is advantageous to know the propagation direction of the plume to achieve a good estimation of the plume distance. This usually requires additional measurements, which are
- 80 often hard to make at volcanoes due to the limited infrastructure. This paper is about the possibility to determine the plume propagation direction itself from a time series of SO₂ camera images of a volcanic plume.

2 Theory

The trace gas flux Φ is approximated from 2D imaging data following the equation

$$\Phi = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \sum_{i} h_i \cdot S_i \tag{1}$$

Here, v is the propagation velocity of the plume perpendicular to the viewing direction, h_i is a side length of a pixel at the distance of the plume and S_i denotes the SO₂ column densities of each respective pixel.

If the volcanic SO₂ plume moves within the image plane, the camera captures a scaled image of the 90 Field of View (FOV) of the camera image, with a scaling factor dependent on the plume distance. Thus, the height of the plume and its propagation velocity can be easily calculated once the plume distance is known. In a simplified approach neglecting radiation transport issues (as described e.g. by Kern et al., 2010) and assuming a homogeneous SO₂ distribution within the plume, the column densities S_i depend linearly on the length of the light path through the plume. For a cylindrically

95 symmetric plume moving parallel to the object plane, the detector pixels at the center of the plume capture column densities corresponding to the SO₂ concentration integrated along the plume diameter, while the detector pixels towards the border of the plume capture the light-path along secants





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of the plume. Since the secants are not exactly parallel to the radius this causes an overestimation of the measured SO_2 column densities towards the edges of the detector. Furthermore, if the plume

100 is inclined (by the angle α , see Fig. 1) with respect to the image plane, deviations in the SO₂ flux determination of the plume will occur even in the center of the image plane. In the following sections different approaches to take the geometry into account during the calculation of SO₂ emission rates will be discussed. The angle between the image plane and the tilted plume will be referred to as inclination angle α . The inclination of the plume changes all the measured variables in Eq. 1.

105 2.1 Small FOV Angle Approach

In a first simplified approach for a small FOV angle of a few degree, the inclination deviations are negligible (below 10 % change in SO₂ flux at α smaller than 2 degrees). Figure 1 shows a schematic sketch of the geometry of the setup of an inclined plume. The actual plume extension in x-direction x_R of a tilted plume imaged with the SO₂ camera is longer than the apparent plume extension x_M projected on the image plane. It can be calculated as

$$x_R = \frac{x_M}{\cos\alpha} \tag{2}$$

The true plume velocity v_R (in x-direction) depends linearly on the plume extension ($v_R = \frac{x_R}{t} = \frac{x_M}{\cos(\alpha)t} = \frac{v_M}{\cos(\alpha)}$). In contrast to the apparent underestimation of the plume velocity, the measured column densities S_M for an inclined SO₂ plume are larger than the perpendicular column densities

115 S_R . The column density correction follows the equation

$$S_R = S_M \cdot \cos \alpha \tag{3}$$

The column densities depend linearly on the light path *s* through the plume in a first order approximation for a homogeneous plume with an SO₂ concentration c ($S = c \cdot s$). Therefore, Eq. 3 can be rewritten as

$$120 \quad s_R = s_M \cdot \cos \alpha \tag{4}$$

In this first assumption (FOV $\leq 2^{\circ}$) the deviations in the velocity and in the column density would cancel each other out in the flux calculation (see Eq.1) as already noted by Mori and Burton (2006). Only the apparent plume diameter h_M (i.e. the vertical extension of the plume in the direction of the y-axis) would be affected and thus deviate from the true plume diameter h_R , since the actual

125 distance of the plume differs from the assumed distance which causes a wrong scaling of the plume diameter on the image plane.

$$h_R = h_M + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_M \cdot \tan \alpha \tag{5}$$

It should be noted, that the x_R and s_R over- and underestimations nearly cancel each other out for 130 SO₂ cameras with a small FOV angle but also for a chosen small FOV angle within the large FOV





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angle of an SO_2 camera. However, the distance of the plume still needs to be known to determine the correct plume diameter and thus also the information about the propagation direction of the plume is a necessary prerequisite even in this approach.

2.1.1 Large FOV Angle Approach

135 Usually, SO₂ cameras have a relatively large FOV angle γ (typically several 10 degrees, Fig. 2). Therefore, a more realistic approach includes the angular aperture of the FOV in the determination of the variation of the variables in Eq. 1.

For FOV angles of the SO_2 camera larger than 2 degree, the apparent plume extension in x-direction and also the column densities are affected in a way that is different from the approach before if the plume is tilted with respect to the image plane (i.e. at non-zero alpha).

The plume length deviation equation (Eq. 2) changes if the FOV projection is taken into account. Additionally to the deviations x_K of an orthographic projection (every distance is projected with the same magnification factor, see gray section in plume length x_R in Fig. 2), the perspective projection leads to an addition of a length x'_K (see red section in plume length x_R in Fig. 2) for a plume moving

145 away from the observer (alpha > 0) and subtraction of x'_K (i.e. x'_K becoming negative) if the plume moves towards the observer (apha < 0). The additional length x'_K can be calculated with the law of sines.

$$x_K = \frac{x_M}{\cos \alpha} \tag{6}$$

$$0 \quad \frac{x'_K}{\sin\gamma} = \frac{q}{\sin\left(90^\circ - \alpha - \gamma\right)} = \frac{x_M \cdot \tan\alpha}{\sin\left(90^\circ - \alpha - \gamma\right)} \tag{7}$$

$$\Rightarrow x'_{K} = \frac{x_{M} \cdot \sin\gamma \tan\alpha}{\sin\left(90^{\circ} - \alpha - \gamma\right)} \tag{8}$$

$$x_R = \frac{x_M}{\cos\alpha} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\sin\gamma\sin\alpha}{\sin\left(90^\circ - \alpha - \gamma\right)} \right) \tag{9}$$

Equation 9 can be rewritten as Eq. 10. Besides the scaling with $\cos \alpha$ from the small FOV angle approach (see Eq.2), an additional term describes the influence of the FOV angle γ on x_R .

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$$x_R = \frac{x_M}{\cos\alpha} \left(1 - \frac{\tan(\gamma)\tan(\alpha)}{1 + \tan(\gamma)\tan(\alpha)} \right)$$
(10)

Additionally, the length of the slant beam through the plume is not only dependent on the tilt angle α but also on the FOV angle γ of the respective pixel following equation

$$s_R = s_M \cdot \cos\left(\alpha + \frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \tag{11}$$





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The distance of the plume also changes for every FOV angle in dependence of the inclination of the plume.

$$d_R = \frac{r}{\tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)} = \tan\alpha \cdot r + d_M \tag{12}$$

$$r = \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \tan \alpha \cdot r + \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \cdot d_M \tag{13}$$

$$r \cdot \left(1 - \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \tan\alpha\right) = \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \cdot d_M \tag{14}$$

$$r = \frac{\tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \cdot a_M}{1 - \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \tan\alpha} \tag{15}$$

$$l_R = \frac{\tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \cdot d_M}{\tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)\tan\alpha\right)} \tag{16}$$

$$d_R = \frac{d_M}{1 - \tan\left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right)\tan\alpha} \tag{17}$$

Figure 3 shows the deviations of the tilt corrected values of the variables (with index R) from the measured values of the variables (indicated by the index M) in dependence of the inclination angle α . The distance of the plume in the midst of the FOV is known but since the direction of the plume

170 is not known, also the distances in other positions of the image are not known. The camera's FOV angle is chosen as 24° which is in the range of commonly used SO₂ camera FOV today (Kern et al., 2015a). The graphs show the deviations for half of the image plane from its center to an angle $\frac{\gamma}{2}$ of 12° where half of the image plane is chosen to be a detector (consisting only of one large pixel). An orthographic projection leads to the blue lines in Fig. 3. The red lines in Fig. 3 represent the

175 deviations due to a perspective projection that is more common in SO₂ camera measurement setups. Figure 4 shows the combined deviations that would influence the flux determination. These calculations cover half of the actual FOV angle of the camera. If the plume is inclined with the angle α towards the image plane, it is tilted by a negative angle $-\alpha$ for the respective other half of the FOV. Therefore the over- and underestimations of the actual SO₂ flux differ on both sides of

180 the field of view.

Usually the SO₂ camera detectors consist of several hundred pixels. Equation 18 represents the deviations in the plume length and therefore in the plume propagation velocity if the FOV angle is divided in a finite absolute number of pixels p for every pixel i in p.

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$$x_R(i, x_M) = \frac{x_M}{\cos\alpha} \left[1 + i^2 \frac{\tan\gamma\tan\alpha}{p - i\tan\gamma\tan\alpha} - (i - 1)^2 \frac{\tan\gamma\tan\alpha}{p - (i - 1)\tan\gamma\tan\alpha} \right]$$
(18)

Equation 19 represents the deviations in the measured column densities if the FOV angle is divided in a finite absolute number of pixels p for every pixel i in p.

$$s_R(i, s_M) = s_M \cdot \cos\left[\alpha + \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{i-1}{p}\tan\gamma\right) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{i}{p}\tan\gamma\right)\right]$$
(19)





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Equation 20 represents the deviations in the measured distance for every pixel *i* for a tilted plume.

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$$d_R(i, d_M) = \frac{d_M}{1 - \tan\alpha \tan\left[\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{i-1}{p}\tan\gamma\right) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{i}{p}\tan\gamma\right)\right]}$$
(20)

If we want to determine the plume propagation direction, we can measure the SO_2 flux for a given distance in different positions of the plume. If the mean flux is the same over a given time period for the different positions in the plume, the plume lies within the image plane. Otherwise we observe an apparent gradient in the measured fluxes that however contains the plume propagation direction information of the plume. Dividing the mean measured fluxes with the respective deviations for

the investigated pixel columns for every possible tilt angle α and minimizing the observed gradient yields the information about the mean plume propagation direction during the respective time period. The conservation of the mean SO₂ flux assumption can be made since the mean lifetime of SO₂ in the troposphere is in the order of several days (Eisinger and Burrows, 1998) while typical SO₂ camera
 time series measurements are made at plumes with an age of seconds or minutes after emission.

Figure 5 shows the deviation in each measurement variable separately for an SO₂ camera with again a typical FOV of 24°, while Fig. 6 shows the combined deviation of the flux measurement due to the perspective influence on the three variables. For an SO₂ camera with a typical FOV of 24° the deviations in the ratio $\frac{x_R}{x_M}$ easily exceeds 50 % at plume direction tilts of > 30 degrees. As a

205 consequence, the SO₂ flux deviation already exceeds ten percent in parts of the SO₂ camera images for a plume tilt angle larger than 15° .

Equations 18, 19 and 20 are defined for the case that the best known distance between the observer and the plume is in the center of the FOV. If the best known distance is not in the center of the FOV, the equations can be adjusted since the distance correction d_R and the inclination velocity correction

210 x_R change (see also Fig. 7).

With n as the number of pixels that the known position is shifted to the side of the FOV, we can derive the new distance of the center of the FOV as

$$d'_M = d_M + d_P \tag{21}$$

$$d_P = n \cdot x_M \cdot \tan \alpha = \frac{n}{p} \cdot d_M \cdot \tan \gamma \tan \alpha \tag{22}$$

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$$d'_M = dM \cdot \left(1 + \frac{n}{p} \tan \alpha \tan \gamma\right)$$
 (23)

Accordingly the new measured lengths of the pixels x^\prime_M can be calculated as:

$$x'_{M} = x_{M} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{n}{p} \tan \alpha \tan \gamma\right) \tag{24}$$

3 Application

We used the considerations developed in Sect. 2 (together with the usually well justified assumption of a constant SO_2 flux) to design an algorithm which allows to determine the wind direction directly





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from SO_2 camera plume images without the need for further data or assumptions. The new algorithm has been applied to an SO_2 camera measurement data set taken at Mount Etna, Sicily on 9th July 2014. Not only the possibility of the inclination angle estimation but also the possibility of the observation of a wind direction change were investigated. Figure 8 shows the geometry of the data set.

3.1 Plume propagation direction determination

Figure 9 shows the SO₂ fluxes at three different positions in the FOV of the SO₂ camera for a measurement data set taken at Mount Etna. The upper panel shows the SO₂ flux for each of these positions not corrected for inclination. The lower panel shows the fluxes corrected for the inclination. Parallel to the SO₂ camera measurements, measurements were taken by a DOAS instrument mounted on a car and looking to the zenith by traversing underneath the plume (see e.g. McGonigle et al., 2002, Galle et al., 2003). The center of the plume can be found by evaluating the SO₂ CD and determining the location with the maximum values. Thus, the wind direction could be estimated, giving an inclination of the plume of about 38 degree. Figure 10 shows the fluxes at seven different positions in the camera image from the data set taken at Etna on 9th of July 2014. The SO₂ emis-

sion rate was calculated assuming different plume inclination angles. Figure 10 shows that the SO₂ emission rates are nearly the same if the plume is tilted about 40 degree in the backward direction with an uncertainty of ± 5 degree. This result is nicely comparable with the result from the traverse measurements.

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3.2 Real-Time Tracking of Changes in the Wind Direction

If there are changes in the propagation direction of the plume during SO₂ camera measurements, it is possible to detect these changes on time scale of minutes. Figure 11 shows a change in the ratio between the apparent SO₂ flux determined in two different positions of the plume within the FOV of the camera. During 2 hours measurement between 11:32 - 13:23, on 9th July 2014, the wind direction was stable for about one hour (A), then the inclination angle changed about 20 degree, which we attribute to a change of the wind direction (B) until the new wind direction stabilized in (C).

4 Conclusions

250 We showed that an inclined plume causes apparent spatial flux gradients in the SO₂ camera measurement images. The frequently implicitly (e.g. Smekens et al., 2015) or explicitly (e.g. Mori and Burton, 2006) assumed compensation effect only occurs at very small inclination angles (< 15 degree) or small FOV (< 2 degree). For an SO₂ camera with an FOV angle of 24 degree a tilt angle of





- 15 degree already causes flux deviations larger than 10 percent in parts of the SO₂ camera's images for evaluations relying on the compensation effect. However, these gradients are unambiguous for every possible inclination angle of the volcanic plume with respect to the image plane of the SO₂ camera. Therefore, they can not only be corrected but also be used to determine the direction of the plume (i.e. the wind direction at the location of the plume). On longer time scales, even the change in the mean wind direction can be observed. On the other hand, if these errors in plume inclination
- 260 are ignored they can give rise to erroneous observations of fluxes, in particular fake flux changes with plume age or over time can occur. If these changes in flux are attributed to chemical processes in plumes (e.g. SO₂ oxidation) or of volcanic degassing patterns, wrong conclusions with respect to chemical processes in volcanic plumes or wrong interpretation on degassing behaviour may be drawn.
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Figure 1. Schematic view on the influence of the inclination of the plume on the measured variables for the SO_2 flux determination for an SO_2 camera with a small FOV angle. a) side view on the volcanic plume and b) top view of a volcanic plume parallel to the image plane, c) top view of a plume inclined with respect to the image plane.







Figure 2. Schematic sketch of the influence of a large FOV angle on the deviation of the plume length x_R from the assumed plume length x_M and on the plume distance d_R from the assumed plume distance d_M . The additional distance the plume travels in comparison to the case of a plume moving away from the camera $(\alpha = 0)$ is marked in red. Here, only the case of a plume moving away from the camera $(\alpha > 0)$ is shown.







Figure 3. Mean deviations of the three variables plume extend in x-direction (x_R) , plume diameter (d_R) , and CD (s_R) used in the flux determination for the right half of the image plane of an SO₂ camera with an FOV angle of 24 degree (for the left half of the detector the inclination deviations would be vice versa). The blue lines show the ratio between the ground truth (i.e. the geometric accurate) variables and the measured variables for a telecentric (an orthographic projection where the apparent size does not depend on the distance) approach. The red lines show the same ratio for a perspective approach.







Figure 4. Combined deviations of the three variables of the flux determination for the right half of the image of an SO₂ camera with an FOV angle of 24 degree.



Figure 5. Ratio of the real variables to the measured variables of the velocity (upper panel), plume distance or diameter respectively (middle panel) and column densities (lower panel) for an SO₂ camera with an FOV angle of 24 degree. The relative deviations of distance are the same as for the diameter $\left(\frac{h_R}{h_M} = \frac{d_R}{d_M}\right)$. Relative deviations larger than 0.5 from the measured data are shaded white.







Figure 6. Deviation of the total true flux from the measured flux (with no inclination assumed) in dependence of the FOV angle of the SO₂ camera and the inclination angle α . A perspective imaging of a plume with unknown inclination can lead to wrong flux estimations. Deviations larger than 0.5 from the measured data are shaded white. White stripes show the 0.1 steps of the deviations.



Figure 7. Schematic drawing of the shift of the best known distance towards the border of the image array. The equations for the perspective correction can be adapted to the respective position of the best known distance.



Figure 8. Map of the geometrical setup of the measurement data set. The inclination of the plume is 38 degree with respect to the image plane. The positions in the FOV used for the emission rate determination are colored respectively.







Figure 9. Deviations of the SO₂ fluxes of three different cross sections through the plume. These apparent deviations are caused by the unknown inclination of the plume with respect to the image plane. This measurement set was taken at Mount Etna on the 9th of July 2014.







Figure 10. Mean fluxes of 7 different cross sections of the measurement data set in dependence on the angle correction. Each cross section is plotted in a different colour. With the a priori knowledge that the mean fluxes should be the same on time scales of hours, the plume inclination can be estimated to 40 degree with an uncertainty of 5 degree. Knowing the orientation of the camera setup this information can be used to determine the plume propagation direction.



Figure 11. Observation of a wind direction change using the apparent flux ratios of two different cross sections of the plume which were corrected for the perspective. Depending on the propagation velocity, it is possible to determine direction changes on the time scale of minutes. For every inclination towards the image plane, the ratio of the fluxes is unique. On this data set, there occurred a direction change after phase A at 12:26 UTC. The wind direction in phase A was 281 ± 5 degree. The direction change of about 20 degree in phase B took approximately 23 minutes. A new stable propagation direction of 301 ± 5 degree established in phase C at 12:49 UTC.