

Letter to the Editor

Bremen, 21.06.2019

Dear Udo Frieß,

We would like to take the opportunity to thank you again for your efforts and acting as editor for our manuscript "Full-azimuthal imaging-DOAS observations of NO₂ and O₄ during CINDI-2". In addition, we thank the two anonymous reviewers!

All comments from the reviewers could be addressed. We attached our point-by-point replies below as well as a version of the revised manuscript with highlighted changes and the final revised manuscript in AMT format.

Yours sincerely,

Enno Peters

List of Attachments

- Point-by-point replies to the reviewer comments
- Revised manuscript with color-coded changes
- Final revised manuscript in AMT format

Author's reply to reviewer 1:

Review of "Full-azimuthal imaging-DOAS observations of NO₂ and O₄ during CINDI-2" by E. Peters et al.

This paper presents a novel imaging-DOAS instrument able to perform panoramic 360° azimuth views. The instrument is presented in details with: 1) a comparison to MAXDOAS instrument during the CINDI-2 campaign (pointing to horizontal/temporal short term NO₂ variability), 2) illustration of a rapid plume transport in the rural Cabauw location, and 3) the potential of O₄ measurements added value for the aerosols retrieval with the various almucantar geometries measured simultaneously. The scientific content of the paper fits well the scope of AMT and the manuscript is well written and of interest for the community. The large NO₂ variabilities seen on short time scales in the remote location is of interest for MAXDOAS and validation studies. I recommend the publication after the suggested revisions.

We thank the reviewer for his efforts and encouraging comments. Please find our point-by-point replies marked in blue below.

Please note, page and line numbers in the discussion paper do not correspond to issues addressed by the reviewer. This is because the review is based on the uploaded file, which was in "2-column AMT" format. The version published in AMTD is in "1-column manuscript"-format, which was a last minute request of Copernicus Publications. Nevertheless, all issues have been addressed.

General comments:

Consider moving paragraph 4.2 after 4.3, to present results in a more clear way (as in the introduction and in the conclusions). To improve readability, please add a sentence explaining that different days are selected to present different studies: first the 23/9, to present temporal variations and comparison with MAXDOAS, then 20/9 to illustrate a transport event and finally the 24/9 for exploring the aerosols potential with O₄ measurements. It would be nice to also specify wind conditions for each case.

In the revised manuscript, we provide a table summarizing the meteorological conditions during these days. We also clarified in the introduction (last paragraph explaining the structure of the manuscript) that different example days are shown to demonstrate different aspects (giving links to the respective sections). We agree that this will improve readability.

We agree with the reviewer that shifting paragraphs improves readability. We therefore re-structured the revised manuscript:

- **We moved the comparison to MAX-DOAS data (Sect. 3.1) into Sect. 4 (Results). The comparison is now Sect. 4.1.**
- **Following the reviewer's suggestion, we exchanged Sect. 4.2 and 4.3 (now Sect. 4.4 and 4.3).**
- **From formerly Sect. 4.3 we had to include subsection 4.3.1 and Fig. 17 into the text in Sect. 4.2 (now 4.4), because Fig. 17 was a proof of conclusions in the aerosol section and thus cannot be placed before this.**

The text in the introduction was adequately adapted to the new structure of the revised manuscript.

Please clarify somewhere the time needed for 1 azimuth image and how "large" it is, i.e. what is the azimuthal "FOV" (compared to the ~40° in elevation) (p. 4, L 2). My understanding is 10 azimuth degrees covered in one azimuth image, and it needs 15 minutes for the 36 steps that covers the 360°? (but P.6, L12: -175 to 175= 350°, so is it 350 or 360°?). 10 steps azimuth (as mentioned in P.6),

but 11 points on figure 6, which covers 12 minutes... please clarify/add a small paragraph on the azimuth "FOV" (512 pixels for 10° azimuths in one image ?) somewhere (as a confrontation to the elevation $4 \times 0.2^\circ = 0.8^\circ$ FOV and total image of 40 to 41° in the vertical). See also detailed question for figure 6.

We apologize, the azimuthal FOV has never been explicitly introduced so that there is a misunderstanding. 10° is not the azimuthal FOV but the step-size in which the telescope is moved. The instantaneous azimuthal FOV is much smaller and comparable to the instantaneous vertical FOV of a single fibre (which is approximately 0.8°). The single fibres are stacked in the vertical and therefore sum up to a complete vertical coverage of approx. 41° while it remains 0.8° in the horizontal dimension. The size of the instantaneous FOV of a single fibre is determined by its dimensions (active area) and the focal length of the objective used.

As this easily leads to confusion and is an important aspect, we clarified this point and rephrased/added paragraphs in the revised manuscript:

1. In Sect. 2.2 we included:

"[...] Light is collected and focused on the light fibre bundle with a commercial objective (1:1.4, focal length 8 mm). The instantaneous FOV of a single fibre is determined by its dimension (active area) and the focal length of the objective and is about 0.8°, both in the horizontal (azimuthal) as well as in the vertical (elevation) direction. As the single fibres are stack up in the vertical dimension, the resulting hypothetical vertical FOV of the entire fibre bundle is ~58°, i.e. all 69 stacked single fibres. The part of the measurements used for the analysis yields a vertical FOV of ~41° (only 50 individual fibres are fully mapped on the CCD). [...]"

2. In Sect. 4.2 we clarified bullet point 2 explaining the panoramic scans in detail:

"[...] As a result, a full panoramic view (in the azimuth: 36 consecutively performed measurements between -175° to 175° in 10° steps with an azimuthal FOV of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ for each measurement; in the vertical: 50 simultaneous measurements of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ vertical FOV each, covering in total $\approx -5^\circ$ to 36° elevation angle due to the vertical alignment of the single fibres as explained in Sect. 2.2) was recorded every 15 minutes [...]"

Another misunderstanding arises in Fig. 6, where no azimuthal data is shown. This is the comparison to MAX-DOAS measurements, which were performed for 15 min in a fixed azimuth of 287° from North following a prescribed measurement protocol. This is explained in Sect. 2.4 and therefore potentially confusing for the reader. We clarified this in the figure caption of Fig. 6 in the revised manuscript and give explicitly the link to bullet point 1 in Sect 2.4 (CINDI-2).

Please explain in more details what is done for the zenith measurements and for the dark current correction (see specific comments).

We put more explanations in the revised manuscript. A more comprehensive reply is given below at the respective specific comments.

To improve readability of the figures, also consider adding "N", "E", "W" and "S" letters in addition to azimuth angles from the north in figures 8, 10, 13, 16 and 17.

We clarified this explicitly (N = 0°, E = 90°, S = 180°, W = -90°) at first appearance in figure 8.

Specific comments and Technical corrections

- P. 4, fig2: add the x and y label on the figure for improved readability

We replaced the example plot and added axes and labels.

- what is done for the zenith measurements? After each azimuth scan, a zenith image that is correcting pixel-by-pixel the azimuth image? Or one zenith after a whole 360° hemispheric measurement? Never mentioned except very slightly in P.4, L4 P. 4, L 15: 41° vertical FOV: in P2 L70 is 40° - check the coherence!

- The zenith reference measurement (for all CCD lines, binned to represent the individual fibres as explained in Sect. 3.1) is performed after each azimuth scan. This means there is a separate reference spectrum for each elevation angle in a panoramic image - but it is the same for different azimuth angles within the panoramic image. We explained that in the revised manuscript in Sect. 2.4 (bullet point 2 that describes the measurement strategy for panoramic scans). We also put a note in table 1 (summary of fit settings).
- 2nd addressed issue: As the precise vertical FOV is fractional, we changed all occurrences in the text to “approx. 41°”.

- P. 4, L61: “the detector continuous to be illuminated” → continue to be
Thanks, we changed it to “continues”.

- Considering the increased exposure time (P.5, L5 - how much) to decrease impact of the sequential CCD read out, what is done for the dark current correction?
Dark spectra were recorded routinely for every exposure time applied, including the increased exposure times used to compensate the reduction of intensity by the optical filter. It should be mentioned that the increased exposure times (with filter) are not unusually large, but in the range of normal MAX-DOAS exposure times during twilight. Typical values for the exposure time (with filter) are in the order of a few seconds, which is stated in the revised manuscript. The respective dark signal is then subtracted from the measurement (using the correct exposure time), which is now stated in Sect. 2.2 in the revised manuscript. The procedure is mostly the same as for MAX-DOAS measurements.

- P. 5, L46: cite Kreher et al. for the intercomparison period
Cited here.

- P. 6, L26 : remove the acknowledgements in the acknowledgements section.
We moved the respective acknowledgements into the acknowledgement section (and deleted it here).

- P.6, L31: the 0.2° steps of the telescope are done in elevation, right? → add 0.02° steps vertically to clarify.
Thanks, we clarified this in the revised manuscript.

- P. 6, L35 to 41: figure 3b is not very clear in representing these sentences – there are 3 yellow spots in each of the fibers instead of 4
The reviewer is right, this could be confusing (the plot was just a sketch). We updated figure 3b.

- P. 6, L97: remove point after “Figure. 6 “
Removed.

- P. 7, L 21: “while IMPACT repeats measurements of the complete elevation angle range”. Clarify in which azimuthal direction. Is figure 6 presenting, in 12 minutes, a full 360° IMPACT scan or only scans in the same “main” azimuthal direction than the MAXDOAS? Same question for P 8, L 6 “the closest IMPACT vertical scan (measured simultaneously) was selected” for figure 7. I.e., is it temporal variability in the MAXDOAS viewing direction (what is the wind speed?) or space variability around the MAXDOAS?
No, there was a confusion, please see our explanation above to Fig. 6 (general comments). No azimuthal data is shown here. As mentioned above, we clarified that in the revised manuscript (in Sect. 2.2, Sect. 2.4 as well as in the caption of Fig. 6).

- Table 2/figure 7: why not including the results for 1° elevation, which is the elevation with the steepest decrease in figure 6? Because of explanations in P. 7, L2 to 14? If yes, this will

also have an impact on the profiling comparison of Sect. 4.3, figure 15b... could you quantify/estimate it? Link the statistical results to those from the semi-blind intercomparison.

The difficulty in using 1° elevation for this intercomparison exercise is that 1° is actually not measured by IMPACT due to the imaging approach used in the instrument (approx. 0.8° FOV leading to fractional elevation angles). This is mentioned in the text and in the caption of Fig. 6 (and its legend). We therefore interpolated IMPACT results to integer elevations (1.0°, 2.0° etc.), which is also described in the text. These numbers were then compared to MAX-DOAS. In the case of 1° elevation, the closest IMPACT elevation angles are 1.4° (shown in Fig. 6) and ~0.6°, which is influenced by ground effects (especially because of the overlapping of adjacent fibres shown in Fig. 5). The interpolated NO₂ slant column is therefore biased and typically smaller than the 1° MAX-DOAS value. To demonstrate this, we included values for 1° elevation to the regression analysis shown in Fig. 7 in the figure below, but left Fig. 7 in the manuscript as it is.

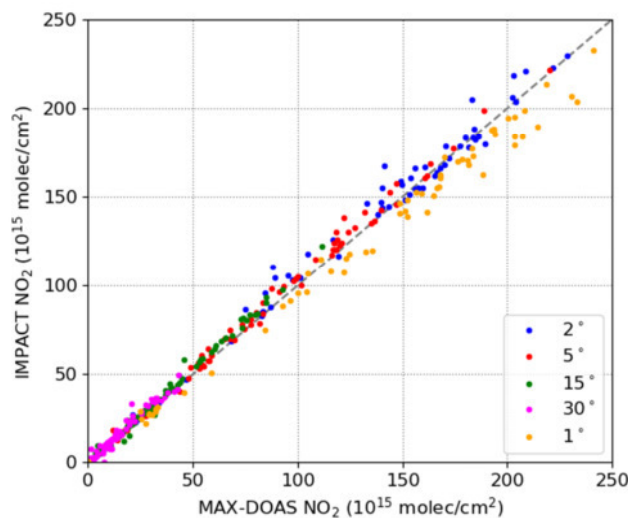


Figure 1: Same as Fig. 7 in the manuscript, but including the (interpolated) 1° elevation slant columns.

Note, for the profile retrieval BOREAS (and radiative transfer calculations therein) the true elevations have been used, i.e. round angles for MAX-DOAS and fractional angles for IMPACT. The results should therefore be free of any bias from interpolating issues. However, depending on the profile shape, differences can occur due to different sampling of the vertical scanning sequence (e.g. MAX-DOAS measures in 1° and 2°, IMPACT in 1.4° and 2.3°, and the profile is retrieved based on these angles). However, differences in elevation angles are usually in the range of 0.5° or less, so that no severe differences are expected for smooth profiles.

The reviewer is correct that we didn't put enough references to the official semi-blind intercomparison paper (Kreher et al., 2019). The reason is that the official intercomparison exercise was not yet published at time of writing, which was the reason to include a separate intercomparison section in our study. However, in general, the results from the official semi-blind intercomparison are similar to our findings, which we mention now in the revised manuscript. In particular, the slope shows the same behavior (close to one for small elevations, largest values of almost up to 1.1 for 15° and a smaller value again for 30°, if compared to Fig. 17 in Kreher et al 2019). Nevertheless, absolute numbers differ, which is expected as we only compare to a single instrument, while in the official intercomparison exercise a reference data set consisting of several instruments is used. In addition, the time periods on which the intercomparison is based, is different in our study and in Kreher et al. 2019.

- P. 8, L 45: "In general, largest NO₂ slant columns are found not in 0 or 1 but ~2 elevation,... which is an effect of the instrument's FOV, i.e. surface effects are present in the 0 and (to a

lesser extent) in 1 elevation angle as a result of the overlap of adjacent fibres mapped onto the CCD”: is this taken into account in the profiling? How?

No, surface effects have generally not been taken into account, neither for MAX-DOAS nor IMPACT profile retrievals. However, see also our explanation above and below to p. 14 I.90.

- P. 9, L 10 to 16: it would be nice to compare the horizontal variability during the campaign illustrate in figure 9 for 4° elevation (between 10 and 120%, with 35% in average), to the vertical variability in the first kilometre

We don't understand the point here. The azimuthal variability, which was investigated, is a measure of the homogeneity around the measurement site, which turned out to be more inhomogeneous than expected (which in turn is important for satellite validation activities). The vertical variability on the other hand is largely influenced by convection and local sources/events, and is not easily obtained as profile retrievals for the complete campaign would have to be performed and analyzed. Nevertheless, given the advantages of an imaging instrument, it would be interesting to retrieve the vertical variability in the first km in different azimuths, for example to detect sources. However, this would have to be done in a subsequent analysis.

- P. 9, L 22: cite references of validation studies that did this averaging in several directions. Is averaging ground-based data in time also an advisable option (i.e Pandora instruments measuring with a very high frequency)?

A validation of OMI satellite pixels taking into account not only the azimuthal inhomogeneity around the measurement site but also changes of the NO₂ concentration along the light path (using 3D DOAS) was presented by Ortega et al. (2015). However, spatial inhomogeneity (predominantly in the context of satellite validation) is usually regarded in urban areas, where it is expected. The new finding in our study is that even in rural or semi-rural areas like Cabauw, the spatial variability can be much larger than expected, at least partly due to transport events, and has to be considered when performing satellite validation. We point this out more clearly in the revised manuscript.

- Figure 11: add a little bit of description (beta is the azimuth, 75° is the mean wind direction between 10 and 11h, ...)

We included a description of the angles in the figure caption.

- P. 11, L 27: “However, ...” this sentence is strange. Reformulate to something like “with MAXDOAS it is also possible to incorporate O4... as suggested by Wagner...”

We agree and changed the sentence accordingly.

- P. 11, L 33: “the aureole region“ of the sun ?!

Yes. We clarified this in the revised manuscript.

- P. 11, L 52: “For research question (1) it is important that sky radiometers (e.g. within the AERONET network) and current state of the art MAX-DOAS instrument”. Modify the “it is important” by “a limitation of”?

We modified according to the reviewer's suggestion.

- P. 11, L 59: replace to “Fig 13, both above and below the ...”

Replaced.

- P. 11, L79: “short” and “much larger”: give an estimation/order of magnitude.

This strongly depends on viewing conditions and aerosol profile, but in first approximation the horizontal extent is scaling with $1/\tan(\text{elevation})$, if only averaging in the boundary layer is considered and the last scattering point is above the boundary layer height, which is added in the revised manuscript. For a more accurate analysis, extensive radiative transfer simulations would

be required. However, it is just a qualitative argument here leading to the retrieval of the respective elevation threshold, which applies to the meteorological conditions for this case study.

- P. 11, L 88: change to “this is not the location of largest scattering angles (occurring at $\sim 55^\circ$ azimuth only)”

Changed.

- Figure 13: specify somewhere in the text or figure caption that the sun is at 25° elevation and 125° azimuth (fig 13 a))

This is already explicitly mentioned in the text on p.10, l.15 (attention: issue with pages and lines, see remark above): “The position of the sun is clearly visible at $\sim 125^\circ$ azimuth (Solar Azimuth Angle, SAA) and $\sim 25^\circ$ elevation.”

- P. 13, L 11: remove “again” when specifying the decrease. Before, only “increase” as been using for describing figure 14 d).

Removed.

- P. 13, L 22: remove “interestingly”. This is somehow “hoped”, no?! that the measurements of the aeronet “ $g=0.75$ ” value gives the best correlations.

We rephrased the text.

- Figure 15: panel a) and b) do not cover exactly the same time-period. A) stops before 9h06, while in b) profiles up to 9h11 are presented, and averaged together. Use a more distinct color than black and blue for the IMPACT mean profile and MAXDOAS profile in panel b.

We apologize, there was an issue with the conversion of the decimal time on the x-axis into a more convenient format (the 11 data points from subfigure b are present in subfigure a, but the time was wrong). We corrected this and provide an updated plot in the revised manuscript. We also added seconds to the legend in the right subfigure, to avoid confusion as minutes are too coarse (measurements were performed fast...). Many thanks!

- check that the day is specified in all the figures (not the case in fig 14 and 15).

We now included the day explicitly in the figure captions (figs. 14 and 15 are linked to figs. 13 and 6, where the day was specified).

- P. 14, L. 90: “ These small elevations contain much information and have a large influence on the retrieved profile in lower altitudes”: cf previous question on the impact of the low elevations of IMPACT being impacted by surface + impact of the different decimal digits of IMPACT elevation instead of round elevations of MAXDOAS?

What are the Degrees of freedom for the profiles coming from the 2 instruments? Are they comparable?

- **To the issue of the different decimal digits (as mentioned above): The MAX-DOAS profile retrieval (and radiative transfer simulations therein) were performed with the correct integer MAX-DOAS elevation angles and the profile retrieval on IMPACT data was performed using the correct fractional elevation angles, i.e. no problem caused by interpolating arises. There is a different sampling on the vertical scanning sequence, but usually differences are smaller than 0.5° , which should not lead to different results except for the case of highly structured profiles.**
- **To the issue of surface impacts: The open question is, how surface effects impact the retrieval, which cannot be answered completely here. For a test run, we omitted all elevations up to 4° in our profile retrieval (as these directions are blocked by trees in some azimuths). In these retrievals, the number of degrees of freedom was clearly smaller, whereas retrieved profiles were – surprisingly – quite similar. This is remarkable as it implies that for this test case blocked elevation angles have a similar effect on the**

retrieved profile as omitting the blocked measurements completely, which seems to be in contrast to the assumption that the lowest elevations are crucial for the retrieval. A possible explanation is that IMPACT's relatively large effective FOV (due to overlapping of single fibres) makes the retrieved profile somewhat insensitive to single measurements, even at low elevations. This should be further investigated in subsequent studies on profiling, but is out of scope (and out of focus) for our current study (and therefore not discussed in the manuscript).

- To the number of degrees of freedom for MAX-DOAS and IMPACT: This number is a bit larger for MAX-DOAS profile results, which is most likely caused by the smaller FOV compared to IMPACT (which has a small FOV of 0.8° for single fibres, but adjacent fibres overlap and therefore increase the "effective FOV"). This is demonstrated in the following plot showing the degrees of freedom in the morning of 24 September 2016.

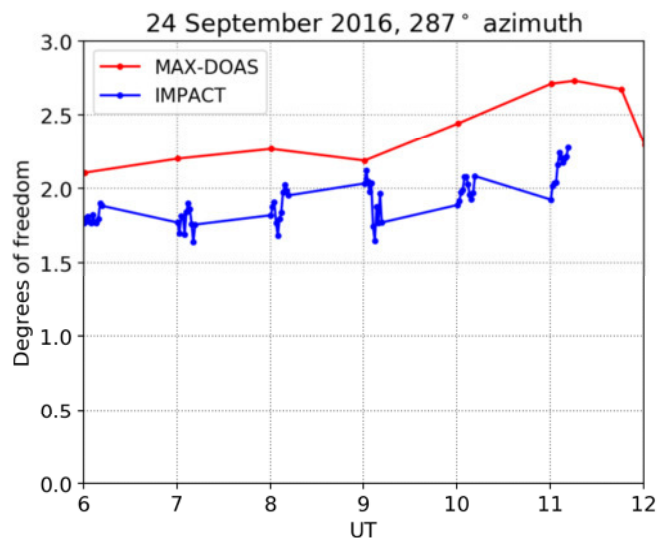


Figure 2: Degrees of freedom from the NO_2 profile retrieval using IMPACT data (blue) and MAX-DOAS data (red) in the "intercomparison exercise azimuth angle" of 287° on 24 September 2016.

- P. 16, L 16 "coinciding observations". word should be attenuated, as the measurements are up to 12 minutes apart.

No, they are not. As can be seen from Fig. 6, there is a complete IMPACT vertical scan (recorded simultaneously) for every MAX-DOAS measurement. Simultaneous IMPACT slant columns were then interpolated to the MAX-DOAS elevation. As a quality criterion, measurements were only compared if they differ by less than 2 minutes, which was explained in the last paragraph of the (former) Sect. 3.1 (now 4.1). Thus, the text was left as is.

- P. 16, L 35 "measurements in one direction are not enough to characterize tropospheric NO_2 , which is in particular crucial for MAXDOAS validation of tropospheric NO_2 from satellites". This is true, but also the low sensitivity of the satellite close to the ground is a "limiting" factor.

Of course, but the sensitivity of satellite measurements is a different topic and out of scope of our study. The finding here is that the spatial variability even in semi-rural environments like Cabauw is much larger than expected and is very likely neglected in satellite validation activities because the NO_2 is assumed to be homogeneously distributed.

Author's reply to referee #2:

The authors thank anonymous referee #2 for his/her efforts in reviewing our manuscript, which clearly improves during the review process. In the following, the reviewer's comments are printed in black, our replies are indicated in blue. Please find both the reviewer's comments and our point-by-point replies below.

This manuscript introduces a newly developed imaging-DOAS instrument (IMPACT) with the ability to simultaneously measure 50 elevation angles and achieve a panoramic view of the surrounding NO₂ distribution within 15 minutes. This enables the retrieval of tropospheric trace gas profiles at high temporal resolution. The observations presented in this paper were made at Cabauw during the CINDI-2 intercomparison campaign and hence, observations made with IMPACT could be compared with coinciding MAXDOAS measurements. The azimuthal distribution of NO₂ around the measurement site was found to be homogeneous on longer time scales but highly variable on short time scales which is certainly of relevance and interest for the validation of tropospheric NO₂ from satellites. The authors found that one reason for the observed NO₂ variability are transport events and one such event is further investigated in the manuscript. In addition to the NO₂ observations, the potential of O₄ measurements along multiple almucantar scans to be used to retrieve information about the aerosol phase function is investigated as well.

The research described in the manuscript is clearly presented and the manuscript is well written. The scientific content is certainly also relevant for AMT and the paper is recommended for publication in AMT.

Specific comments:

Page 2, line 10-11: Sounds a little strange and since the traffic fleet applies to both, domestic and industrial, I would recommend to delete 'in industry,'. And savanna and forest fires can certainly also be anthropogenic (intentional burn-offs), so needs some rewording.

The reviewer is correct, we rephrased this sentence to: "Emission sources of NO_x are both, anthropogenic and biogenic, and comprise e.g. the combustion of fossil fuels for domestic heating and cooking, power generation, traffic, as well as savanna and forest fires."

Page 2, line 13: Add comma: 'Overall, the ..'

Included.

Page 3, line 7: 'In summary, all previously reported ...'

Changed.

Page 3, line 14: '...retrieval of the entire ...'

Changed.

Page 3, line 15: 'The short acquisition time ...' – although discussed later, it would be good to add already here how long (15 min).

We added this value here.

Page 3, line 26: Better: '... be observed by investigating the temporal ...'

The reviewer is right, we changed that accordingly.

Page 4, line 12: Better: 'The latter part is ...'

True, we changed that accordingly.

Page 4, line 25-27: Sentence could be a bit improved, e.g.: ... either measured at a small solar zenith angle (SZA), or taken ... (sequential), as for the zenith viewing geometry the light path ... is then short'
We rephrased the text according to the reviewer's suggestion.

Page 4, line 28: Add comma after (lo)
Included.

Page 6, lines 1-5: If there are 69 fibres of which are only 50 used, wouldn't the others be a source of straylight in the spectrograph? If so, how is this dealt with?

This is a very good point! The reviewer is correct, the unused upper- and lowermost individual fibres, which are not mapped onto the CCD (due to its dimension and the magnification characteristics of the spectrometer), do not increase the used signal, but certainly increase straylight inside the spectrometer and therefore decrease the ratio $I_{\text{used}}/I_{\text{straylight}}$.

In general, straylight is accounted for in the DOAS analysis by means of an intensity offset correction (usually applied in DOAS fits). The straylight corrections was of zeroth order, which was prescribed by CINDI-2 fit settings (see Tab. 1, which is Tab. 2 in the revised manuscript after suggestions from referee #1). However, in future applications, light from unused fibres should be blocked (respective fibres should be blocked at the entrance slit) to reduce potential straylight problems.

We addressed this issue by including the intensity offset correction explicitly in the description of the DOAS analysis (Sect. 2.1). In addition, we rephrased the respective paragraph: "However, as a result of the size of the CCD and the magnification characteristics of the spectrometer, light from the upper- and lowermost fibres do not hit the detector (these fibres are imaged outside the detector area), so that only 50 individual fibres are fully mapped on the CCD used here. This is a non-optimal setup as these fibres do not contribute to the used signal, but enhance straylight within the spectrometer. Although straylight effects are compensated by the intensity offset correction in the later DOAS fit (see Sect. 2.1), light from this non-contributing fibres should be blocked in future applications to reduce potential problems with straylight."

Page 6, lines 18-19: Add commas after 'instrument' and after '(Sect. 2.4)'
Included, thanks.

Page 10, lines 8-9: replace 'realize' with either 'note' or 'acknowledge' and add 'the' before 'telescope elevation'
The sentence was rephrased accordingly.

Page 10, line 11: Delete 'promptly'
Removed.

Page 12, line 21: 'molec cm⁻²' needs -2 in superscript
Caption of Figure 7: Any reason why that particular period (17-23 Sep) was picked and not e.g. the complete campaign period?

Thanks, we corrected the superscript. The reason for the limited period in Fig. 7 is data availability. Unfortunately, not the entire intercomparison period could be covered. IMPACT operated from Sep. 16 in the afternoon until Sep. 24 in the morning when a breakdown occurred. Complete days of parallel operation of MAX-DOAS and IMPACT are therefore 17 – 23 September, which is the time period shown here.

Page 14, line 13: Replace 'persistence' with 'persisting', right?
Yes, many thanks. We corrected this.

Page 14, line 15: Should be 'overall'
No, but the "average of all" (instead of "mean over all") is meant. We corrected this.

Page 14, line 24 etc.: Would be interesting to know how many such transport events could be identified within the campaign period. Could you add that to the discussion?

This is a good question which is not easy to answer as we did a qualitative analysis of a specific (the largest occurring) transport event, instead of a quantitative retrieval of the number of transport events. Thus, we cannot give a certain number as we did not elaborate a detection algorithm. However, some events like the analyzed one on 20 September are easy to find manually e.g. from Fig. 9 in the manuscript (which is Fig. 1a below) as hints for a transport event are 1) peaks in the (mean) NO_2 slant columns and 2) peaks in the azimuthal variations of NO_2 meaning that some azimuthal directions are enhanced while others are not. The event on 20 September is by far the strongest observed variation and explains the largest maximum relative differences (Fig. 1b) during the whole campaign. However, on other days like September 19 (Fig. 2a below), 2 other transport events likely occurred around 9:00 UT and 12:00 UT, while for example on September 18 (Fig. 3a below), no transport event at all is seen. However, the 4° elevation is shown here (arbitrarily) and transport events passing the instrument in a closer distance would enhance predominantly measurements at larger elevations and are thus most likely missed. Therefore, a much more comprehensive analysis is required for a quantitative analysis. In addition, enhancements of the light path due to clouds or aerosols would also enhance the NO_2 and thus could be misinterpreted as NO_2 transport event.

In conclusion, a detection algorithm for transport events was not elaborated and is difficult to implement. Nevertheless, the reviewer's suggestion is very good as a quantitative analysis retrieving the number of transport events is valuable information for satellite validation activities. We therefore suggest including this activity in the next NO_2 intercomparison campaign.

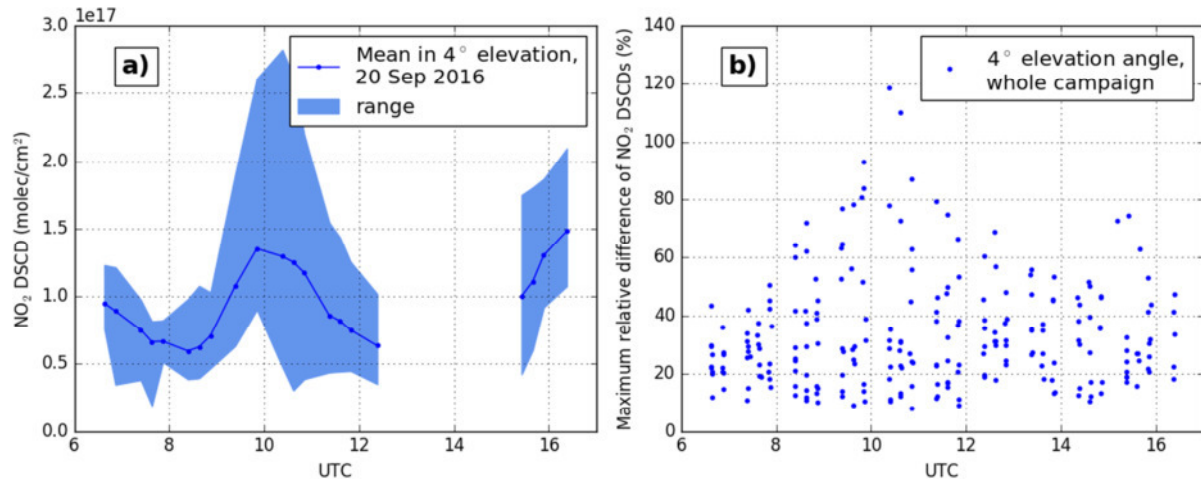


Fig. 1: Original figure from the manuscript (transport event on September 20 in subplot a)

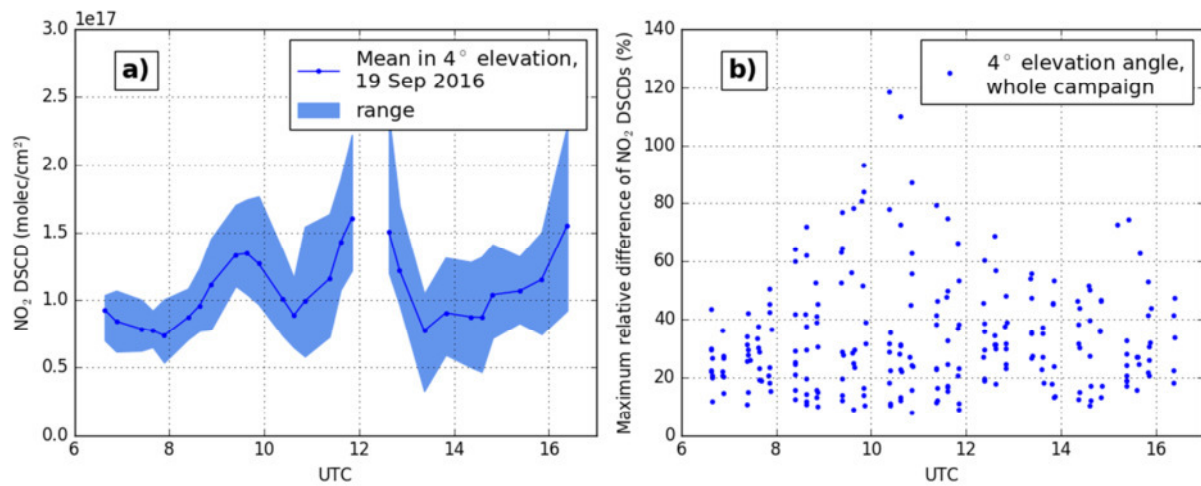


Fig. 2: The same figure, but subplot a) is replaced by September 19.

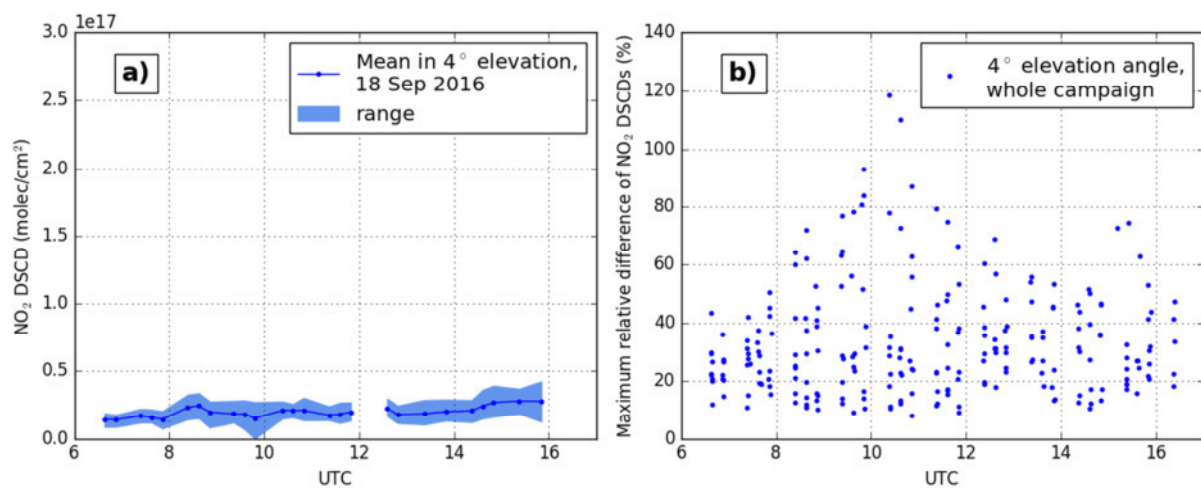


Fig. 3: The same figure, but subplot a) is replaced by September 18.

Page 15, Figure 8 caption: Could you please add here the time period used (i.e. averaged over)? I assume it is the complete campaign period?

This is the mean of all available IMPACT panoramic images. Due to instrument problems (as mentioned above) this is unfortunately not the complete semi-blind intercomparison period, but limited to the period from September 16 (afternoon) to September 24 (morning). We added the time period in the revised manuscript.

Page 17, Figure 12: Would be helpful if the blue arrow head could be bigger; in my printout, it was not really detectable.

Thanks for this hint, we increased the arrow head.

Page 20, line 17: Add comma after 'question (1)'

Included, thanks.

Page 23, line 4: Add 'with' after 'interfering'

Added.

Full-azimuthal imaging-DOAS observations of NO₂ and O₄ during CINDI-2

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Abstract. A novel imaging-DOAS instrument (IMPACT) is presented combining full-azimuthal pointing (360°) with a large vertical coverage ($\sim 4041^\circ$). Complete panoramic scans are acquired at a temporal resolution of ~ 15 minutes enabling the retrieval of NO₂ vertical profiles over the entire panorama around the measurement site.

IMPACT showed excellent agreement (correlation $>99\%$) with ~~coinciding~~ coincident MAX-DOAS measurements during the CINDI-2 campaign. The temporal variability of NO₂ slant columns within a typical MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence could be resolved and was as large as 20% in a case study under good viewing conditions. The variation of corresponding profiles and surface concentrations were even larger (40%). This variability is missed when retrieving trace gas profiles based on standard MAX-DOAS measurements.

The azimuthal distribution of NO₂ around the measurement site showed inhomogeneities (relative differences) up to 120% (on average 35%) on short time scales (individual panoramic scans). This is more than expected ~~taking into account~~ for the semi-rural location. ~~One reason for this are transport events~~ We explain this behaviour by the transport of pollution. Exploiting the instrument's advantages, the plume's trajectory during a prominent transport event could be reconstructed.

~~Furthermore~~ Finally, the potential ~~of~~ for retrieving information about the aerosol phase function from O₄ slant columns along multiple almucantar scans of IMPACT is demonstrated, with promising results for future studies.

15 1 Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a prominent pollutant in the atmosphere and harmful for human health, causing damage to the respiratory system (Kampa and Castanas, 2008). It originates primarily from NO that is produced in the equilibrium between

N₂ and O₂ at high temperatures in combustion processes. The emitted NO reacts with ozone (O₃) to form NO₂. The sum of NO and NO₂ is called NO_x.

The UV photolysis of NO₂ produces NO and O atoms, which react with O₂ in air to form O₃. Under certain conditions for NO_x and O₃ in the troposphere, the Leighton photo-stationary state is achieved:

$$5 \quad \frac{[\text{NO}]}{[\text{NO}_2]} = \frac{J(\text{NO}_2)}{k(\text{NO} + \text{O}_3)[\text{O}_3]} \quad (1)$$

where J(NO₂) is the photolysis frequency for NO₂ in an air mass and k(NO+O₃) is the rate coefficient for the reaction of NO with O₃. Deviation from the Leighton photo-stationary state occurs when significant amounts of NO₂ is produced by reaction of hydroperoxyl radicals (HO₂), or organic peroxy radicals (RO₂), with NO (e.g., Shetter et al., 1983). The photolysis of this NO₂ then results in the O₃ formation, as found in photochemical smog. Thus, NO_x plays a key role in the formation of
10 tropospheric ozone.

Emission sources of NO_x are both, anthropogenic ~~-, predominantly due to and biogenic, and comprise e.g.~~ the combustion of fossil fuels for domestic heating and cooking, ~~in industry, for power generation and by traffic fleet~~ power generation, traffic, as well as biogenic, e.g. from savanna and forest fires. NO_x is also released from lightning events and soil microbial processes (Lee et al., 1997).

15 Overall, the lifetime of NO₂ in the atmosphere is typically in of the order of several hours due to photolysis or removal by OH, which leads to the formation of HNO₃ and thus contributes to acidification of precipitation, soil and water. NO₂ shows characteristic absorption bands in the UV and visible wavelength range facilitating quantification by differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) measurements.

DOAS is a well-established remote sensing technique used for atmospheric trace gas observations, which arguably reaches
20 back to Dobson and Harrison (1926) who detected stratospheric ozone using UV measurements at distinct wavelengths. Later, Brewer et al. (1973) and Noxon (1975) used zenith-sky pointing measurements of scattered sunlight to retrieve stratospheric NO₂ abundances. Perner et al. (1976) and Platt et al. (1979), who first used the term DOAS, applied active DOAS for measurements of further trace gases in the troposphere using artificial light sources. The passive DOAS technique was continuously improved to so-called *off-axis* (1D) and 2D-pointing instruments (Hönninger et al., 2004, provide a brief historic overview
25 about passive DOAS systems) and recently even 3D MAX-DOAS analysis techniques have been reported (Ortega et al., 2015; Seyler et al., 2018). In addition to static platforms, passive DOAS was also adopted to movable platforms, e.g. cars, ships, airplanes (e.g., Sinreich et al., 2010; Shaiganfar et al., 2011; Peters et al., 2012) as well as satellites (e.g., Burrows et al., 1999; Richter et al., 2005; Lelieveld et al., 2015).

In this study, the DOAS method has been combined with imaging capabilities. Pushbroom imaging-DOAS instruments
30 consisting of a spectrometer equipped with a 2D CCD or CMOS camera are often used for aircraft applications (Heue et al., 2008; Popp et al., 2012; Schönhardt et al., 2015). The spectrometer's slit and thus the spatial axis of the spectrometer/CCD-system is aligned perpendicular to the flight direction while pixel size along track is determined by the integration time and aircraft speed. Imaging DOAS instruments have been also used in ground-based applications. Lohberger et al. (2004) observed the NO₂ plume emitted from a power plant stack by using an imaging spectrometer mapping different elevation angles on the

vertical (spatial) axis of the CCD and a motorized mirror system for scanning in the azimuthal direction. The same instrumental setup was used by Bobrowski et al. (2006) to observe the SO₂ emission from a volcano. A scanning mirror system was also used by Lee et al. (2009) to analyze the spatial and temporal variation of NO₂ during two days in the urban environment of Beijing.

5 Another imaging-DOAS concept was recently described by Manago et al. (2018) consisting of a combination of horizontal slit, transmission grating and hyperspectral camera acting effectively as a line scanner to produce a 13°x9° image with spectral information. 87 hyperspectral images were combined during an acquisition time of ≈ 1 hour to a full-azimuthal panoramic view in order to study the two-dimensional NO₂ distribution around the measurement site.

In summary, all [previously](#) reported imaging-DOAS observations have in common that a very small angular resolution was applied resulting in a rather limited total field of view (FOV) for the entire image (e.g., 13°x36°). While this approach is valuable for example for the observation of the trace gas emitted from a power plant or volcano, the observed scene is limited in its spatial scale. In contrast, the aim of the instrument concept presented in our study is to provide full azimuthal coverage (360°) around the measurement site with, at the same time, a large vertical coverage (~4041°). Aiming at high robustness and flexibility (predominantly for separating outdoor and indoor parts), no scanning mirror system but a telescope with a sorted quartz fibre bundle pointing in several elevations at the same time, and a pan-tilt-head for scanning in the azimuthal direction, are used. This setup enables profile retrievals [in-of](#) the entire hemisphere around the instrument at sufficiently high temporal resolution and to study the full 2-dimensional distribution and variability. The short acquisition time ([~15 min](#)) of a full panoramic image ensures constant atmospheric conditions and thus, minimizes the impact of temporal changes of trace gas distributions during the observation.

20 The imaging DOAS instrument IMPACT (novel Imaging MaPper for AtmospheriC observaTions) took part in the CINDI-2 campaign in Summer 2016, where it participated in the semi-blind intercomparison of NO₂. Results of the intercomparison are not a primary focus of this study and are presented in detail in [\(?\)](#)([Kreher et al., 2019](#)).

The main objective of the present study is to assess the added value of full-panoramic imaging-DOAS measurements as compared to MAX-DOAS. In particular, the change of NO₂ profiles and surface concentrations during a typical MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence could be resolved. Furthermore, assessment of the azimuthal distribution of NO₂ is a prerequisite for satellite validation, as a point measurement (in situ) or measurements in one azimuth direction only is not representative for the entire measurement's surrounding (satellite pixel) if the azimuthal distribution is inhomogeneous. In the current study, large inhomogeneities occurred on short timescales and were caused by transport events rather than persistent inhomogeneities (e.g. due to local sources). Due to the full-panoramic coverage, an exemplary transport event could be observed by [investigating](#) the temporal evolution of NO₂ profiles. The plume's trajectory could be reconstructed and its most likely emission source was identified. In addition, information with respect to the aerosol phase function was derived from the retrieved azimuthal

Table 1. Meteorological conditions during the example days focused on in the respective sections.

<u>Date</u>	<u>Viewing conditions</u>	<u>Mean wind direction</u>	<u>Mean wind speed</u>	<u>Section</u>
<u>20 September 2016</u>	<u>unstable, broken clouds</u>	<u>75° (highly variable)</u>	<u>1.2 m/s</u>	<u>Sect. 4.1</u>
<u>23 September 2016</u>	<u>sunny, mostly clear</u>	<u>270°</u>	<u>4.8 m/s</u>	<u>Sect. 4.1</u>
<u>24 September 2016</u>	<u>excellent</u>	<u>170°</u>	<u>4.8 m/s</u>	<u>Sect. 4.3</u>

distribution of the O₂ collision complex O₄, which was retrieved during the DOAS fitting process in the selected spectral window used for NO₂. We note that IMPACT measures simultaneously multiple almucantars¹.

The paper is structured as follows: ~~Section~~Sect. 2 briefly describes the performed DOAS measurements, instruments, and the CINDI-2 campaign. ~~The pointing calibration~~Calibration activities and FOV definition of IMPACT are explained in detail in
5 Sect. ??, which also contains a 3.1. Results from different studies on IMPACT measurements (for which different days during CINDI-2 have been selected) are then presented in Sect. 4. An overview over meteorological conditions during these example days is given in Tab. 1. A comparison with MAX-DOAS data -focusing on one day of reasonable viewing conditions is presented in Sect. 4.1. The spatial and temporal NO₂ variation observed during CINDI-2 is discussed in Sect. 4.4.1 including a detailed analysis of an observed transport event. ~~Section 4 also~~NO₂ profiles based on the full-panoramic measurement
10 strategy are retrieved in Sect. 4.2. Finally, Sect. 4.3 discusses the potential of retrieving aerosol phase function information from IMPACT's observations ~~-A subsequent profile retrieval based on the full-panoramic measurement strategy was used to further investigate the distribution around the measurement site, in particular during the transport event. at an example day~~
having excellent viewing conditions. The study closes with a summary and conclusion.

2 Measurements

15 2.1 DOAS technique

The passive DOAS technique uses measurements of scattered sunlight and the Lambert-Beer's law to yield trace gas amounts and distributions in the atmosphere. While scattering causes smooth changes in the spectrum (e.g., λ^{-4} -dependence for Rayleigh scattering), molecular absorption often has structured spectra. The total spectral attenuation is therefore split into
20 molecules, aerosols, and clouds, as well as instrumental throughput. ~~This~~The latter part is described by a low-order polynomial. The effect of inelastic scattering known as the Ring effect (Shefov, 1959; Grainger and Ring, 1962), which is predominantly due to Rotational-Raman-Scattering ~~known as the Ring effect (Shefov, 1959; Grainger and Ring, 1962)~~ and leads a filling-in of Fraunhofer lines, is accounted for by a pseudo cross section ~~(e.g. Vountas et al., 1998)~~ σ_{Ring} (e.g. Vountas et al., 1998). Similar

¹Note, an *almucantar* is a circle on the celestial sphere parallel to the horizon. The almucantar containing the sun, i.e. having the sun's elevation, is the *solar almucantar*. Within the community, both terms are frequently used synonymously, but it is important to distinguish here because IMPACT measures in many elevations at the same time, i.e. records many almucantars when measuring in different azimuths.

spectral effects are caused by straylight inside the spectrometer when photons hit the detector at positions not corresponding to their wavelength. This is compensated by applying another pseudo cross section σ_{off} , for which often the inverse of the measured spectrum I is used. Further details about this so-called intensity offset correction and its similarity to spectral features produced by inelastic scattering can be found in, e.g. (Peters et al., 2014). Lambert-Beer's law can then be expressed by the

5 DOAS equation:

$$\tau = \ln\left(\frac{I_0}{I}\right) = \sum_i \sigma_i \cdot SC_i + \sigma_{\text{Ring}} \cdot SC_{\text{Ring}} + \sigma_{\text{off}} \cdot SC_{\text{off}} + \sum_p a_p \lambda^p + r \quad (2)$$

where τ is the optical depth and the first sum is over all absorbers i having cross sections σ_i . The polynomial degree is p , and the residual term r contains the remaining (uncompensated) optical depth, for example from measurement noise.

As measurements consist of spectra I and I_0 , Eq. 2 is defined at many wavelengths and solved in a linear least-squares fit
10 returning the fit factors SC_i and a_p . While the polynomial coefficients a_p are usually not used for further analysis, the so-called slant columns $SC_i = \int \rho_i ds$ are the integrated concentration ρ_i of absorber i along the light path s .

Recorded spectra contain almost no information about the altitude, in which the absorption occurred. Thus, the sensitivity to different altitudes depends predominantly on measurement geometry. The measurement is more sensitive to tropospheric absorbers, if the spectrum I is taken at small elevation angles above the horizon. This is due to the rather long light path through
15 atmospheric layers close to the surface. On the other hand, the reference spectrum I_0 is usually a zenith spectrum either **at small sun-measured at a small solar** zenith angle (SZA), or taken close in time to the measured spectrum I (sequential), as **the-for the zenith viewing geometry the** light path through the atmosphere is short**then**. The obtained SC_i are therefore not absolute but the difference between measurement (I) and reference measurement (I_0), and thus called differential slant column density (DSCD). As only DSCDs are used within this study, both terms are used synonymously in the following for simplicity. Furthermore,
20 sequential reference fits are used throughout this study.

More details of the DOAS method can be found for example in (Hönninger et al., 2004; Platt and Stutz, 2008).

2.2 IMPACT

The IMPACT instrument, as deployed during the CINDI-2 field campaign (Sect. 2.4), is shown in Fig. 1. It consists of a Czerny-Turner type ANDOR Shamrock 303i imaging spectrometer equipped with a Newton DU940P-BU CCD camera with 2048x512
25 pixels covering a wavelength range from 394.5-536.4 nm. The CCD is cooled to -30°C for reducing the dark signal (thermal electrons), while the spectrometer is actively temperature stabilized to $+35^\circ\text{C}$ in order to avoid thermal (and therefore spectral) drifts. The spectrometer-CCD-system is installed within a 19" rack that hosts at the same time all electronics and computers for instrumental control and operation. A 15 m long light fibre bundle consisting of 69 individual fibres (0.01 mm^2 each) separates the indoor part (rack) from the telescope unit located outside. At both sides, the individual fibres are aligned vertically, i.e.
30 stacked on top of each other (total height ~ 9 mm), and sorted in a way that the uppermost fibre on the entrance side is also the uppermost fibre on the spectrometer side. However, as a result of the size of the CCD and the magnification characteristics of the spectrometer, light from the upper- and lowermost fibres do not hit the detector (these fibres are imaged outside the detector area), so that only 50 individual fibres fully mapped on the CCD are used **here-.** This is a non-optimal setup as these fibres do



Figure 1. The IMPACT instrument installed during CINDI-2. a) Indoor parts integrated into a 19" rack. b) Telescope unit on top of the container deck (foreground). Next to IMPACT is the IUP-Bremen 2D-MAX-DOAS instrument (background) used for comparison in Sect. 4.1.

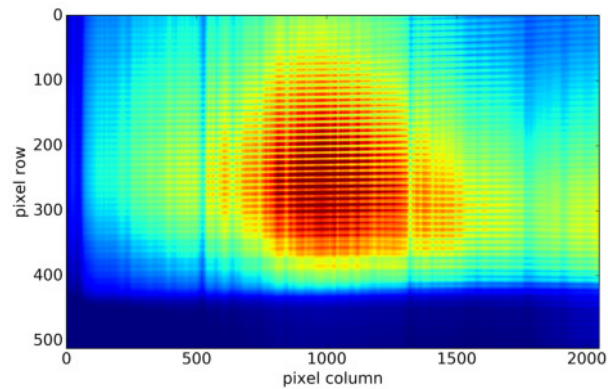


Figure 2. Typical CCD image as recorded during CINDI-2. The x-axis is the spectral direction while the y-axis represents the viewing elevation. Blue areas indicate low illumination while green is color-coded (blue = dark, red and white colours represent increasing light levels = large illumination). The x-axis covers 394.5-536.4 nm, i.e. for the DOAS fit of 425-490 nm only the inner part is used. On the y-axis, single fibres observing different elevation angles are separated and distinguishable. Fraunhofer lines are visible in each fibre at the same spectral position. The horizon causes a sharp transition between illuminated and non-illuminated fibres in the lower part of the image.

not contribute to the used signal, but enhance straylight inside the spectrometer. Although straylight effects are compensated by the intensity offset correction in the later DOAS fit (see Sect. 2.1), light from this non-contributing fibres should be blocked in future applications to reduce potential problems with straylight.

~~Light~~In the telescope unit, light is collected and focused on the light fibre bundle with a commercial objective (1:1.4, focal length 8 mm)~~resulting in a~~. The instantaneous FOV of an individual fibre is determined by its dimension (active area) and the focal length of the objective and is about 0.8° , both in the horizontal (azimuth) as well as in the vertical (elevation) direction. As the single fibres are stacked in the vertical dimension, the resulting hypothetical vertical FOV of ~~$\sim 58^\circ$ for~~ the entire fibre bundle is $\sim 58^\circ$, i.e. all 69 stacked single fibres. The ~~finally utilized~~ part of the measurements used for the analysis yields a vertical FOV of $\sim 41^\circ$ (50 individual fibres mapped on the CCD). The use of an objective instead of a single lens is necessary for overcoming spherical aberration and thus keeping the FOV constant for each individual fibre as the entrance slit has a considerable height (9 mm). This is different to usual MAX-DOAS instruments where the light is focused on a very small spot-sized fibre entrance located on the optical axis and therefore using a single lens is usually sufficient.

The vertical alignment of the sorted light fibres in combination with an imaging spectrometer - each fibre is mapped onto different CCD lines - allows to take measurements in multiple elevation angles simultaneously (see Sect. 3.1 for the calibration procedure of the elevation angle). Furthermore, the telescope hosts a visual camera taking snapshots for scene documentation with each measurement. The telescope unit is installed on an ENEO VPT-501 pan-tilt head, which allows pointing in any direction. However, as a result of the sufficiently large instantaneous vertical FOV, movements are performed in azimuthal direction only while the vertical tilt is kept constant (covering the elevation angles from -5° to $+36^\circ$) with the exception of zenith-pointing for taking reference measurements. ~~The IMPACT instrument as deployed during the CINDI-2 field campaign (Sect. 2.4) is depicted in Fig. 1.~~

Figure 2 shows an example image of the CCD for a typical off-axis measurement. The image quality (separation of single fibres) is best in the center of the CCD and blurred towards the edges. This is because the horizontal (spectrometric axis) and vertical (spatial axis) foci do not coincide everywhere in the focal plane (coincidence is optimized for the center of the CCD). The CCD can be placed in different positions, resulting either in good imaging or good spectrometric quality. Here, an intermediate flange was used placing the CCD in a position that is a compromise between imaging and spectroscopic performance. As a result, the slit function changes vertically across the detector from ≈ 1 nm FWHM in the center of the CCD to ≈ 1.5 nm FWHM towards bottom and top rows. This was compensated for in the DOAS analysis by measuring and applying separate slit functions for different vertical binning ranges on the CCD associated to individual light fibres as defined in Sect. 3.1.

Ideally, an imaging instrument should be operated with a shutter or a frame transfer CCD in order to minimize the impact of illumination of the detector during readout. As the Newton DU940P-BU is not a frame transfer CCD and long-term operation of a shutter is limited by shutter lifetime, IMPACT measurements are taken without a shutter. As a result, the detector ~~continuous~~ continues to be illuminated during the sequential CCD-readout, leading to larger signals in those rows which are read out later. As the vertical position on the CCD corresponds to different elevation angles, this leads to a smearing of the CCD image and the corresponding viewing directions.

Table 2. DOAS fit settings for NO₂ and O₄.

Parameter	Value
Reference (I_0)	sequential (performed after each panoramic scan)
Fit window	425-490 nm
Polynomial	degree 5
Intensity offset correction	Offset (zeroth order)
Cross-section	Reference
O ₃	(Serdyuchenko et al., 2014) at 223 K with I ₀ -correction (SC of 10 ²⁰ molec/cm ²)
NO ₂	(Vandaele et al., 1996) at 298 K and 220 K (orthogonalised to 298 K) with I ₀ -correction (SC of 10 ¹⁷ molec/cm ²)
O ₄	(Thalman and Volkamer, 2013)
H ₂ O	HITEMP (Rothman et al., 2010)
Ring	QDOAS (provided during CINDI-2)

If illumination is assumed to be constant during measurements, a simple correction can be applied to the measured data. Starting from the very first line for which there is no smear effect, the original signal can be computed for each line successively by subtracting the additional illumination occurring during readout:

$$I_j = I_j^{meas} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} I_k \cdot \frac{t_{readout}}{t_{exposure}} \quad (3)$$

- 5 where I_j is the signal of row j without smear, I_j^{meas} is the intensity with smear, and $t_{readout}$ and $t_{exposure}$ are the length of the duration of the readout of one line and the exposure time, respectively. While this correction works well in most cases, it can fail in situations where illumination changes rapidly, for example during measurements with broken clouds and high wind speeds.

Problems regarding the smear effect generally decrease with the ratio of exposure time to readout time because the relative contribution of illumination during readout then decreases. In other words, I_j approaches I_j^{meas} for $t_{readout}/t_{exposure} \rightarrow 0$ (see Eq. 3). To take advantage of this, an optical filter blocking parts of the sunlight was installed in the telescope unit. This allowed to increase exposure times ([typical IMPACT exposure times were then in the order of a few seconds](#)) while avoiding saturation of the CCD. [For every applied exposure time, dark images were recorded routinely and used to correct for dark current in the measurements prior to the DOAS analysis.](#)

15 2.3 MAX-DOAS instrument (IMPACT validation)

Data of the IUP-Bremen MAX-DOAS instrument is used to validate corresponding IMPACT measurements (see Sect. 4.1). Both instruments were set-up side by side (~2 m distance, see Fig. 1). The MAX-DOAS instrument consists of a telescope

unit (outdoor) and two CCD-spectrometer systems measuring in the UV and visible (indoor), respectively. For validation of IMPACT observations (measuring in the visible), only data collected by the visible spectrometer is used, which is an ACTON-500 covering a spectral range from 406-579 nm at a resolution of ≈ 0.85 nm. The spectrometer was actively temperature stabilized to $+35^\circ\text{C}$. A Princeton NTE/CCD 1340/100-EMB with 1340×100 pixels was used for recording spectra leading to a spectral sampling of 7-8 pixels/nm. The CCD was cooled to -30°C to reduce dark signal.

Light was collected by a telescope unit mounted (similar to IMPACT) on a commercial ENEO VPT-501 pan-tilt head allowing pointing in any viewing direction. The instrument's FOV ($\approx 1.1^\circ$) was determined by a lens focusing incoming light on an optical fiber bundle (length ≈ 20 m), which was Y-shaped and connected the telescope with both spectrometers. It consists of $2 \times 38 = 76$ single fibres. An in-telescope shutter and HgCd line lamp allow dark and wavelength-calibration measurements, which were routinely performed. A very similar instrumental set up has been used in previous campaigns, e.g. CINDI and TransBrom (Roscoe et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2012).

2.4 The CINDI-2 field campaign

The Second Cabauw Intercomparison of Nitrogen Dioxide measuring Instruments (CINDI-2) field campaign was carried out at the Cabauw Experimental Site for Atmospheric Research (CESAR), close to the villages of Cabauw and Lopik, the Netherlands, from 25 August to 7 October 2016. It was a successor of the first CINDI campaign in 2009 (Roscoe et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2012). CINDI-2 aimed at characterizing the differences between measurement approaches and systems and to progress towards harmonization of settings and methods (Hendrick et al., 2016). One key activity was a semi blind intercomparison (Kreher et al., 2019) of participating DOAS-type instruments from different international research groups. This intensive phase was scheduled for the time period 12-25 September 2016.

The measurement test site is located in a semi-rural environment, i.e. without strong local sources (except for a regional traffic road in the South potentially causing enhanced NO_x levels during rush hour) but within the polluted region between Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Utrecht.

In total, 23 groups and 31 DOAS-type instruments participated in CINDI-2. The instruments were mainly deployed at two container decks. At the lower level, 1D MAX-DOAS instruments were pointing permanently in a common azimuth direction of 287° (clock-wise from North) and performed vertical scanning sequences in this azimuth. 2D MAX-DOAS systems installed at the upper container deck (see Fig. 1) providing a free view around the measurement site were following a rather complex measurement protocol (?) prescribing the observation geometry on a 1-minute timebase. However, for comparison with 1D instruments, a vertical scanning sequence was performed in the common azimuthal direction every hour.

The IMPACT instrument fulfilled two purposes during CINDI-2:

1. To participate in the semi-blind intercomparison. For this reason, measurements were performed in the common azimuth direction of 287° every hour for 15 minutes, together with the 1D- and 2D-instruments.
2. To study the added value of full-panoramic imaging measurements at high repetition rate, in particular for estimating the spatial distribution and its temporal variability around the measurement site. Therefore, between hourly intercomparison

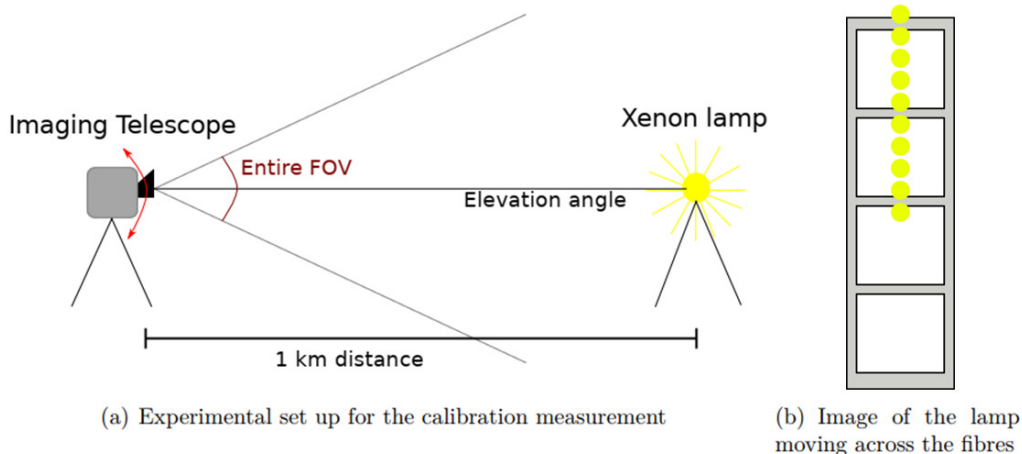


Figure 3. Scheme of calibration measurement procedure (Ostendorf, 2017).

measurements, full-azimuthal scans in 10° steps were taken. For each azimuth direction, a complete set of elevation angles was observed simultaneously due to the imaging capability of the system. As a result, a full panoramic view (was recorded every 15 minutes (in the azimuth: 36 consecutively performed measurements between -175° to 175° azimuth in 10° steps and with an azimuthal FOV of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ for each measurement; in the vertical: 50 simultaneous measurements of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ vertical FOV each, covering in total $\approx -5^\circ$ to 36° elevation in $\approx 0.8^\circ$ steps) was recorded every 15 minutes; angle due to the vertical alignment of the single fibres as explained in Sect. 2.2). After each azimuthal scan, zenith reference spectra were recorded for every simultaneous measurement (elevation), to ensure that in the later DOAS analysis every region of the CCD (corresponding to different single fibres and thus different elevations, as explained in Sect. 3.1), can be evaluated with a corresponding zenith reference measurement (which is important to eliminate biases caused by instrumental effects).

In addition to the observation geometry, also DOAS fit settings were prescribed for the CINDI-2 semi-blind intercomparison (Tab. 2). These fit parameters have been used as well for the analysis of NO_2 and O_4 distributions within this study.

3 Instrument performance Calibration activities

3.1 Pointing calibration

The calibration of the elevation angles in which IMPACT is taking measurements simultaneously was performed on-site during CINDI-2 as part of a pointing calibration exercise that was organized by the Max-Planck Institute for Chemistry (MPIC), Mainz, who operated a Xenon lamp positioned in a distance of ≈ 1 km from the measurement site (many thanks in particular to Sebastian Donner, Jonas Kuhn, and Thomas Wagner). Details about the exercise can be found in (Donner et al., 2019).

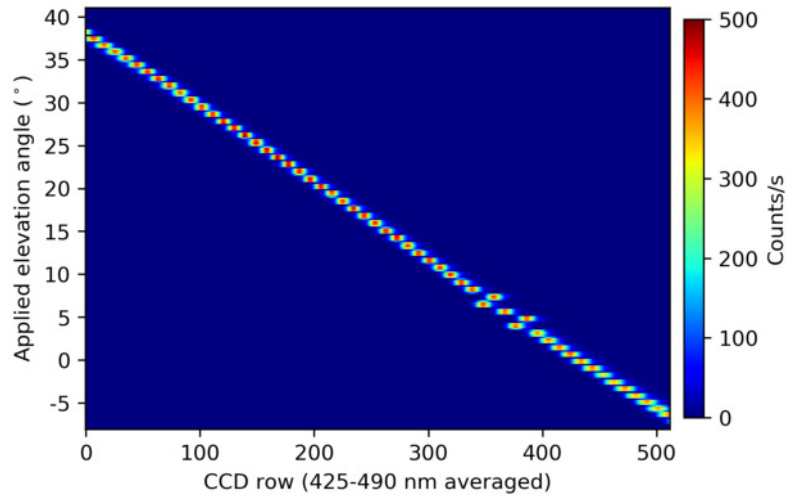


Figure 4. Elevation angle calibration matrix: The intensity in the fitting range is displayed as function of the CCD row (x-axis) and telescope elevation angle (y-axis).

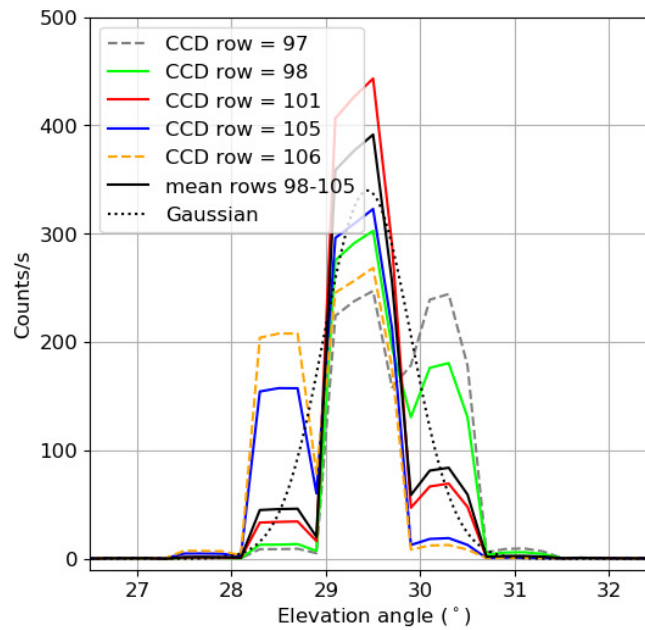


Figure 5. Cross sections through the calibration matrix. The defined binning range comprises rows 98-105 which all show a clear maximum in the same fibre, most pronounced in row 101. CCD rows 97 and 106 are rejected as their intensity distribution cannot be clearly assigned to one fibre. The mean of the binning range is plotted in black together with the corresponding Gaussian curve (same standard deviation) in order to estimate the effective FOV.

Fig. 3 shows a sketch of the experimental setup. IMPACT's telescope was moved in elevation steps of 0.2° ~~steps vertically~~ across the Xenon lamp. It is important to realize-note that changing the elevation angle moves the image of the lamp across the fibre entrances in the telescope while the imaging of individual fibres on the CCD is independent of the telescope elevation. For each measurement, only one individual fibre was illuminated meaning that the spot of the Xenon lamp at the light fibre entrance was smaller than the diameter of a single fibre (Fig. 3b). Furthermore, each fibre was illuminated for ≈ 4 steps before the signal was ~~promptly~~-switching into the neighbouring fibre in the following measurement. This indicates an instantaneous FOV of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ for single fibres (~~which is determined by the objective and the size of the fibres~~in agreement to Sect. 2.2).

In Fig. 4, the intensity of each CCD row (averaged in the spectral fitting region between 425-490 nm) is shown as a function of telescope elevation angle. As can be seen from this calibration matrix, the (vertical) extent of a single fibre mapped onto the CCD is typically ≈ 19 CCD rows (x-axis in Fig. 4) with the tendency of smaller extents in the center and larger extents towards the edges. This is caused by better imaging quality in the center of the CCD as mentioned before. However, the spacing between intensity maxima is only ≈ 9 CCD rows meaning that images of different individual fibres overlap each other (due to the limited imaging quality of the spectrometer). The overlapping is larger towards the edges and smaller in the center.

The pointing calibration procedure consists of 3 steps:

1. CCD rows corresponding to the same fibre were identified and binned. For this, each vertical cross section of the calibration matrix (i.e. each CCD row) was analyzed as shown in Fig. 5. CCD rows having a distinct maximum ~~for~~in the same fibre were binned while CCD rows having no clear maximum were rejected (as a criterion for a distinct maximum, a ratio of at least 1.5 between the intensity in different fibres was used). However, the assignment between CCD row and elevation angle is still not unique due to the overlapping of fibre images on the CCD. This results in an effective FOV which is larger than 0.8° (see below).

2. An intensity-weighted elevation angle is calculated for each CCD row:

$$\text{Weighted elevation}_i = \frac{\sum_i \text{intensity}_i \cdot \text{elevation}_i}{\sum_i \text{intensity}_i} \quad (4)$$

where i is varied over all applied elevation angles.

3. The weighted elevations are then averaged according to the binning intervals.

In this way, 50 binning ranges and corresponding elevation angles were defined in which measurements are performed simultaneously.

The effective FOV (per binning range) was estimated by the FWHM (full width at half maximum) of Gaussians having the same standard deviation as the weighted elevation angles (calculated in step 2) within the respective binning range. For the example shown in Fig. 5, an effective elevation of 29.4° and a FOV of 1.1° is obtained.

A prominent feature in Fig. 4 are two pairs of permuted individual fibres. This was discovered on-site only and is a defect of the fibre bundle used which was corrected by the manufacturer after the campaign. However, as a result of the performed calibration procedure, the effective elevation assigned to the twisted fibres is correct. The effective FOV is approximately

twice as large as for the other viewing directions because fibres which are next to each other at the spectrometer entrance and contribute due to the overlap are not properly ordered on the telescope side and therefore not pointing in adjacent elevation angles.

4 Results

5 4.1 Intercomparison to MAX-DOAS measurements

Figure 6 shows NO_2 DSCDs from an example MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence on 23 September 2016 under good weather and viewing conditions in comparison to IMPACT results. Note that due to instrumental restrictions, the elevation angles of IMPACT deviate slightly from the angles prescribed for the semi-blind intercomparison, while the MAX-DOAS instrument follows exactly the prescribed angles. As a result, the column for the 1° MAX-DOAS elevation (blue triangle) should be slightly larger than the IMPACT slant column (blue circles) taken at the same time because the effective elevation of IMPACT is 1.4° . Interestingly, this is not seen here (the NO_2 slant columns of both instruments agree quite well). The reason might be small misalignments between both instruments, either in elevation or azimuth, or the NO_2 profile shape (potentially in combination with differences in the FOV of both instruments).

Fig. 6 demonstrates a striking advantage of imaging-DOAS as measured NO_2 slant columns reveal a short-term temporal variation, which is resolved by IMPACT but not by the MAX-DOAS instrument. As mentioned, the 1° MAX-DOAS observation matches the IMPACT observation taken at the same time, but then MAX-DOAS continues with the next elevation (2°) while IMPACT repeats measurements of the complete elevation angle range. In the case of 1° (1.4°) elevation, the NO_2 slant columns change from $\sim 1.75 \cdot 10^{17}$ molec cm^{-2} to ~~$\sim 1.40 \cdot 10^{17}$~~ $\sim 1.40 \cdot 10^{17}$ molec cm^{-2} , which is about 20%. This temporal variation is not captured by the MAX-DOAS instrument, with clear consequences for any profile retrieval on these data which assumes that measurements at different elevation angles probe the same atmosphere. This is further investigated in Sect. 4.2.

Figure 7 shows ~~the a~~ correlation plot between MAX-DOAS and IMPACT NO_2 slant columns for several days within the semi-blind intercomparison phase. For each MAX-DOAS elevation angle (color-coded) the closest IMPACT vertical scan (measured simultaneously) was selected. As a quality criterion, data was rejected if no IMPACT scan was found ± 2 minutes around the MAX-DOAS measurement time (e.g. due to instrumental failures or saturated data). In addition, NO_2 slant columns from IMPACT's simultaneous elevations were interpolated to the MAX-DOAS elevation angle.

Statistical values for the correlation plot are summarized in Tab. 3. In general, an excellent agreement is found with correlation coefficients of $\approx 98\%$ for 30° elevation angle and even $> 99\%$ for elevation angles $\leq 15^\circ$. The slope is close to 1 (within 8%) and the offset is $< 1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm^{-2} with the exception of the 2° elevation, for which it is slightly larger.

In general, these intercomparison results agree well with the much more detailed (and official) intercomparison study from Kreher et al. (2019) comprising all instruments participating at CINDI-2, although values are not identical. However, this is expected as the considered time periods are different. In addition, the comparison here is between IMPACT and a single MAX-DOAS instrument only, while in the official intercomparison exercise performed by Kreher et al. (2019) a reference data set consisting of several instruments is used.

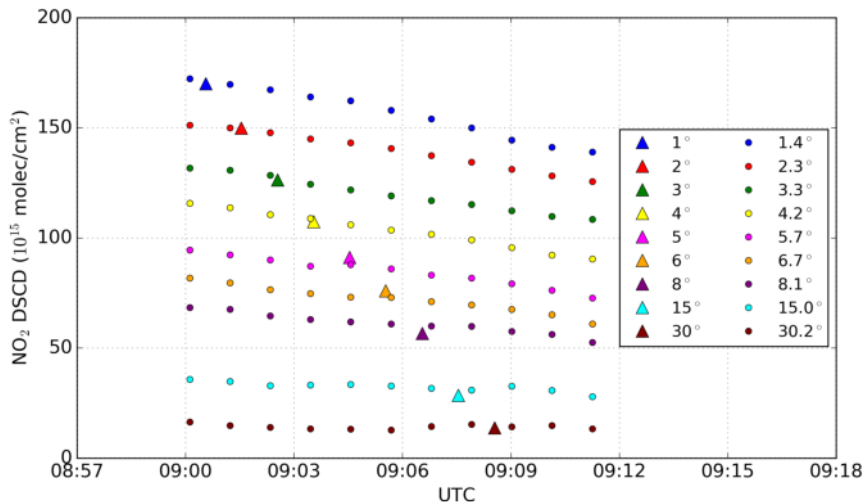


Figure 6. NO_2 DSCDs from an exemplary MAX-DOAS vertical scan (triangles) on 23 September 2016 compared to IMPACT (circles). **Note** For these intercomparison measurements, both instruments were pointing in the same fixed azimuth direction of 287° (from North) as explained in Sect. 2.4 (bullet point 1). While different prescribed elevation angles were applied consecutively by MAX-DOAS, IMPACT measures the complete vertical scanning sequence simultaneously as a result of its imaging capabilities. However, note that IMPACT's elevations deviate slightly from prescribed MAX-DOAS elevations.

Table 3. Statistics (correlation coefficient, slope and offset) between IMPACT and MAX-DOAS NO_2 slant columns from Fig. 7.

Elevation	Correlation	Slope	Offset (10^{15} molec/cm 2)
2°	0.995	0.99	4.76
5°	0.998	1.03	0.59
15°	0.997	1.08	-0.53
30°	0.979	1.07	0.42

5 Results

4.1 Azimuthal NO_2 distribution and transport events

Figure 8 shows the campaign average of NO_2 slant columns observed from IMPACT in all azimuths and elevation angles around the measurement site (note, due to instrument problems not the entire semi-blind intercomparison period is captured here, but only 16-24 September 2016). For better visibility, the 5 lowermost CCD bins (corresponding to single fibres) pointing towards the ground have been removed as well as 2 CCD bins pointing effectively in almost the same direction as a result of the twisted fibres discussed in Sect. 3.1. Consequently, the panoramic view in Fig. 8 consists of 43 elevation angles on the

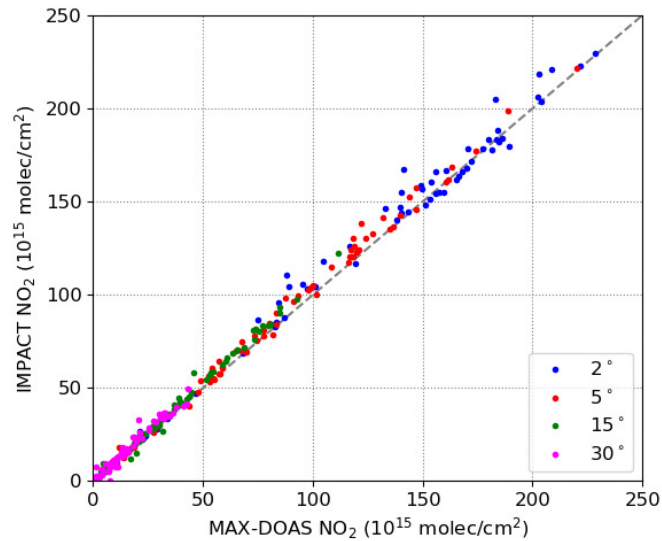


Figure 7. Correlation plot of NO₂ DSCDs from MAX-DOAS and IMPACT instrument for 17-23 September 2016 during CINDI-2. The elevation angle is color-coded, the 1:1 line is dashed.

vertical axis and 36 azimuth directions (-175° to +175° in 10° steps) on the horizontal axis. In addition, the fractional IMPACT elevation angles on the vertical axis have been rounded for better readability. We note that this has been done in subsequent figures and in the following discussion as well.

Obviously, the campaign mean NO₂ distribution around the measurement site is rather homogeneous with a slight tendency to larger values in the South-West (between -165° and -75°) which is most likely linked to a close-by local traffic road (in this azimuthal regime, the light path is almost along the road, which can be seen in Fig. 12). Furthermore, the light path was obstructed by trees in ≈75° to 135° azimuth and elevation angles <5° which can be clearly seen by reduced NO₂ slant columns in these directions - i.e. these small values are an effect of obstacles and the resulting short light path. In addition, obstruction by other instruments occurred in -25° and by a single tree in -115°. In general, largest NO₂ slant columns are found not in 0° or 1° but ≈2° elevation, which is an effect of the instrument's FOV, i.e. surface effects are present in the 0° and (to a lesser extent) in 1° elevation angle as a result of the overlap of adjacent fibres mapped onto the CCD (see Sect. 3.1 and Fig. 5).

The homogeneous long-term averaged NO₂ distribution around the measurement site is supporting the assumption of the absence of ~~persistence~~ persisting strong local pollutants. However, much more variability is present on shorter time scales. This is demonstrated by Fig. 9a where the range of NO₂ slant columns recorded on 20 September 2016 (maximum and minimum values) as well as the ~~mean over~~ average of all applied azimuths in 4° elevation angle is shown (one data point for each panoramic ~~view~~ image). Maximum values differ from the azimuthal mean by up to a factor of 2. This is quantitatively analyzed for the whole campaign in Fig. 9b showing the maximum relative difference, i.e. the ratio between maximum NO₂ observed in any azimuth to the NO₂ averaged over all azimuths. The maximum relative differences range from 10% to 120% for individual

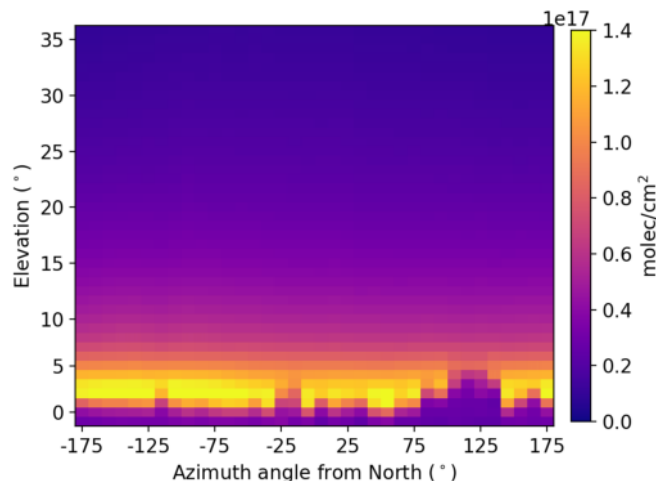


Figure 8. Campaign-mean Color-coded NO₂ DSCDs (average of 16-24 September 2016) as a function of azimuthal-azimuth angle on the x-axis (N = 0°, E = 90°, S = 180°, resp. -180°, W = -90°) and elevation angle on the y-axis.

panoramic views and are $\approx 35\%$ on average. This is an unexpectedly high value indicating large spatial inhomogeneity on short time scales even for semi-rural measurement sites like Cabauw with no large local sources and very homogeneous long-term trace gas distributions. As a result, care has to be taken if ground-based (MAX-DOAS) measurements are used for satellite validation as a single viewing direction does not necessarily provide a good estimate of the NO₂ columns within a satellite pixel. In this case, observations in many azimuths should be taken and averaged to reduce variability present in satellite ground pixels. This is often done when validating satellite observations in urban areas where spatial gradients are expected, e.g. a validation of OMI satellite pixels in an urban, polluted area taking into account not only the azimuthal inhomogeneity around the measurement site but also changes of the NO₂ concentration along the light path (using 3D DOAS) was presented by Ortega et al. (2015). The findings derived from IMPACT measurements suggest that similar efforts are necessary when validating satellite results even in semi-rural locations like Cabauw.

One reason for the observed spatial inhomogeneity of NO₂ is the transport and passing of polluted air masses. Fig. 10 shows the temporal evolution of NO₂ slant columns in all applied azimuth directions (vertical axis) and 4° elevation angle on 20 September 2016. The data gap around 14:00 UTC is due to an instrumental failure. Besides moderately enhanced NO₂ towards the evening, a clear transport event occurred around 10:00 UTC. Between 9:00 and 10:00 UTC, increased NO₂ slant columns appear in all azimuth directions between 25° and $\sim 175^\circ$ (South). Between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC, the maximum of NO₂ is then traveling from an azimuth angle of $\beta_1 \approx 30^\circ$ to $\beta_2 \approx -70^\circ$ (see geometrical considerations in Fig. 11).

The wind direction on 20 September 2016 was quite variable with low absolute wind speeds. However, the mean wind direction between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC was $\approx 75^\circ$ (see Tab. 1 for meteorological conditions). If the plume is transported by the wind, the direction of smallest distance r to the measurement site is $\alpha \approx -15^\circ$ (see Fig. 11). The assumption here

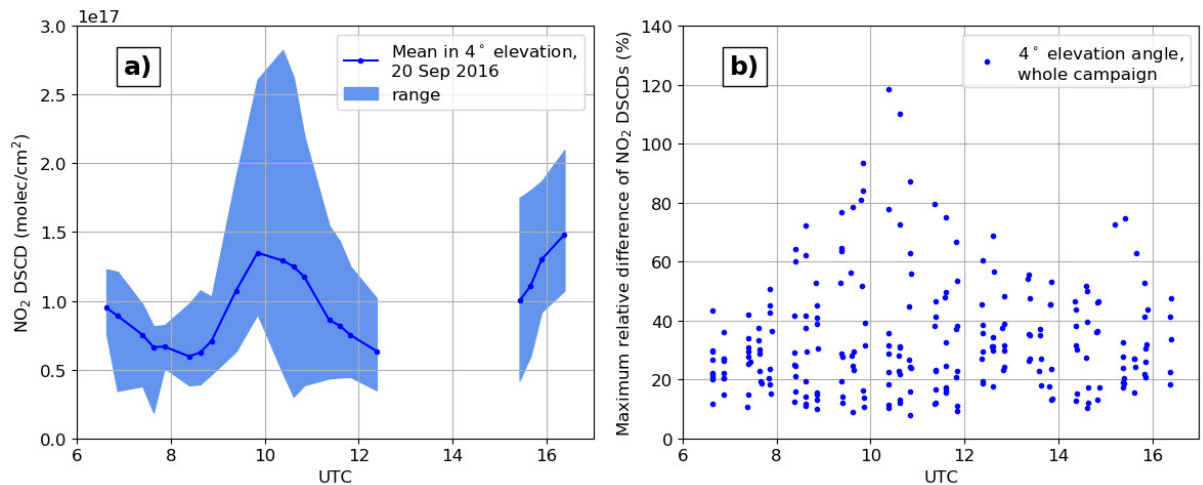


Figure 9. a) Range and mean of NO₂ DSCDs in different azimuths and 4° elevation angle on 20 September 2016 during CINDI-2. b) Maximum relative differences w.r.t. mean (azimuthal inhomogeneities within individual scans) for the whole campaign, as a function of UTC.

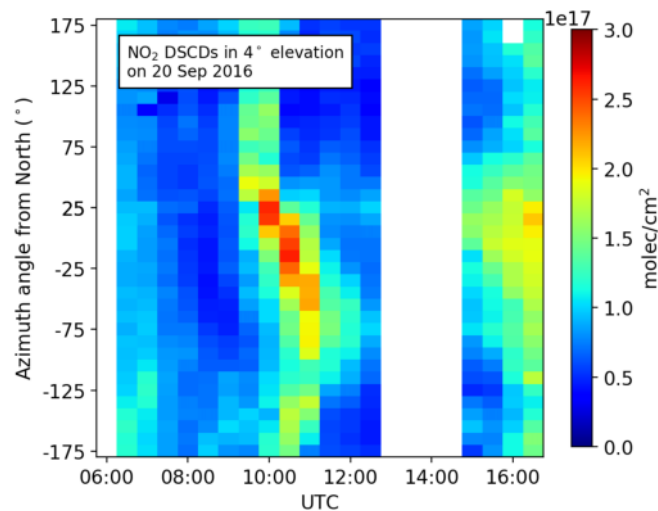


Figure 10. NO₂ DSCDs in 4° elevation angle (binned every 30 minutes) on 20 September 2016. A transport event occurred between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC.

is a straight trajectory s (blue arrow) of the plume and thus the smallest distance r (dashed line) to the measurement site is perpendicular to it. As can be seen from Fig. 10, this coincides roughly with the direction of largest NO₂ although slant

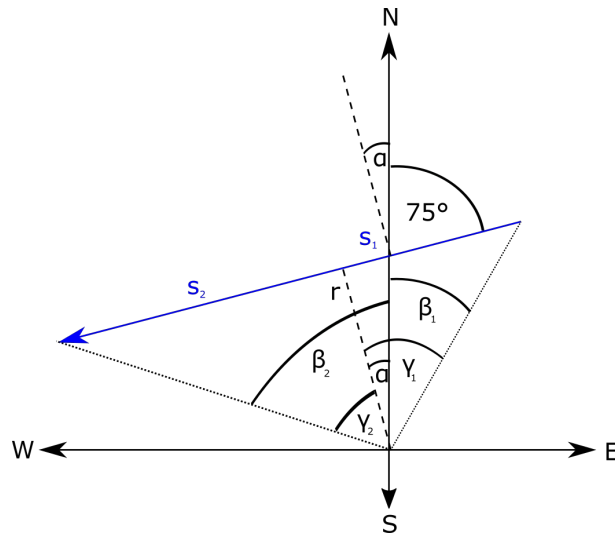


Figure 11. Geometry of transport event. The blue arrow indicates the plume's trajectory s . 75° is the mean wind direction on 20 September 2016. The black dashed line is the closest distance r between the instrument (in the origin of the coordinate system) and the trajectory, which is perpendicular to the trajectory and dividing it into s_1 and s_2 . The plume appears at 10:00 h under the azimuth angle β_1 and at 11:00 h under β_2 (w.r.t. North). γ_1 and γ_2 are the respective angles relative to the direction of closest distance (r) instead of North.



Figure 12. Map of the area around the measurement site. The transport event's trajectory on 20 September 2016 is indicated by a blue arrow (source: Google maps).

columns have not necessarily to be largest at smallest distance r as the magnitude depends also for example on the (unknown) plume's shape and relative contribution of the light path through it.

The spatial distance traveled in $\Delta t = 1$ hour (10:00 to 11:00 UTC) can be estimated from wind speed:

$$s = v_{wind} \cdot \Delta t \quad (5)$$

The angles between r and the trajectory's start/end points (i.e. plumes's positions at 10:00 and 11:00 UTC) are $\gamma_1 = |\beta_1| + |\alpha|$ and $\gamma_2 = |\beta_2| - |\alpha|$ (Fig. 11). The distances s_1 , s_2 , and s are then given by (omitting the sign of γ_1 and γ_2):

$$5 \quad s_1 = r \cdot \tan(\gamma_1) \quad (6)$$

$$s_2 = r \cdot \tan(\gamma_2) \quad (7)$$

$$s = s_1 + s_2 = r(\tan(\gamma_1) + \tan(\gamma_2)) \quad (8)$$

As a result, the smallest distance r to the measurement site is:

$$r = \frac{v_{wind} \cdot \Delta t}{\tan(\gamma_1) + \tan(\gamma_2)} \quad (9)$$

- 10 Note that this calculation is in principle true for 0° elevation angle only, whereas measurements in 4° were used here. However, this was neglected for simplicity as the effect is small and below the uncertainty introduced by the variety of assumptions made. For a mean wind speed of 1.2 m/s measured at the Cabauw meteorological tower, a smallest distance of $r \approx 1.8$ km is obtained ($s \approx 4.3$ km, $s_1 \approx 1.8$ km, $s_2 \approx 2.5$ km).

Fig. 12 shows the measurement site's surrounding with smallest distance r and plume's trajectory between 10:00 and 11:00
 15 UTC indicated as blue arrow. Obviously, the origin of the transport event can not be precisely identified, but it could be linked to a regional industrial park that is close to the *starting point* of the plume's trajectory. This speculation is supported by the fact that increased values of NO_2 are already found slightly earlier ($\approx 9:30$ UTC) in North-Eastern directions (see Fig. 9). In addition, increased NO_2 slant columns are seen in the zenith direction as well (not shown). This indicates that parts of the plume were overpassing the measurement site and thus a large spatial extent of the plume perpendicular to the direction
 20 of propagation, most likely as a result of the unstable wind direction. Finally, the fact that the 4° elevation angle is clearly enhanced although the plume was overpassing the instrument as well means that the plume is close to the ground which is usually an indication for a close-by origin. This is supported by vertical NO_2 profiles retrieved in Sect. 4.2.

4.2 [NO₂ profiling](#)

[As already mentioned, one of IMPACT's objectives is to enable aerosol and trace gas profile retrievals rapidly in every direction around the measurement site.](#)
 25

4.2.1 [BOREAS](#)

[The retrieval code BOREAS \(Bösch et al., 2018\) used here is an IUP-Bremen in-house algorithm. For the current study, profiles are retrieved on an altitude grid reaching from 0 to 4 km in 100 m steps. For MAX-DOAS profiles, NO₂ slant columns in prescribed elevation angles were used as input to BOREAS. For IMPACT profiles, all elevations from 0.6° to 10° and 29° to](#)

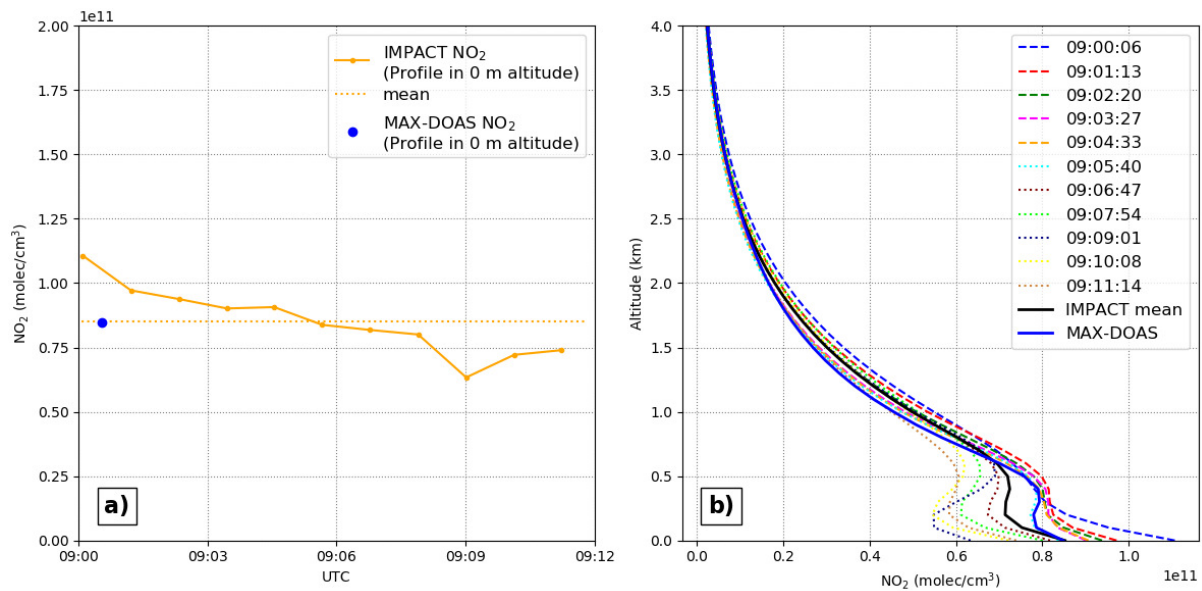


Figure 13. NO_2 surface concentrations (a) and profiles (b) retrieved from IMPACT's high-repetition measurements in the common azimuth direction of 287° during the acquisition of one MAX-DOAS vertical scan at 23 September 2016. Corresponding NO_2 DSCDs used as input for the profile retrieval are shown in Fig. 6.

31° have been used (while other simultaneously measured elevations have been excluded in order to decrease computational time).

As additional input, vertical profiles of pressure and temperature were created by taking the mean of 16 different sonde measurements taken during the years 2013-2015 in De Bilt, the Netherlands. The retrieval is based on an Optimal Estimation Method (OEM), for which an exponentially decreasing a priori profile having a surface concentration of $9.13 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ molec/cm}^3$ and a scaling height of 1 km has been used. For the aerosol profile retrieval, a surface extinction of 0.183 km^{-1} and again a scaling height of 1 km has been assumed. For the aerosol phase function and single scattering albedo (SSA), always the closest-in-time values obtained from the near-by Cabauw AERONET station were applied. Radiative transfer calculations were performed using SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2014) in its version 4.0.1. The BOREAS inversion algorithm is explained in detail in Bösch et al. (2018).

4.2.2 Temporal resolution

NO_2 slant columns were found to change during the acquisition time (~ 12 min) of a MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence in a fixed azimuth direction in Sect. 4.1 ($\sim 20\%$ variation were observed even under good weather and viewing conditions). If this MAX-DOAS scan is input to a profile retrieval, the change of NO_2 is 1) not resolved and 2) possibly interfering with the results, predominantly as the retrieved profiles will not simply be a temporal average of the true profiles.

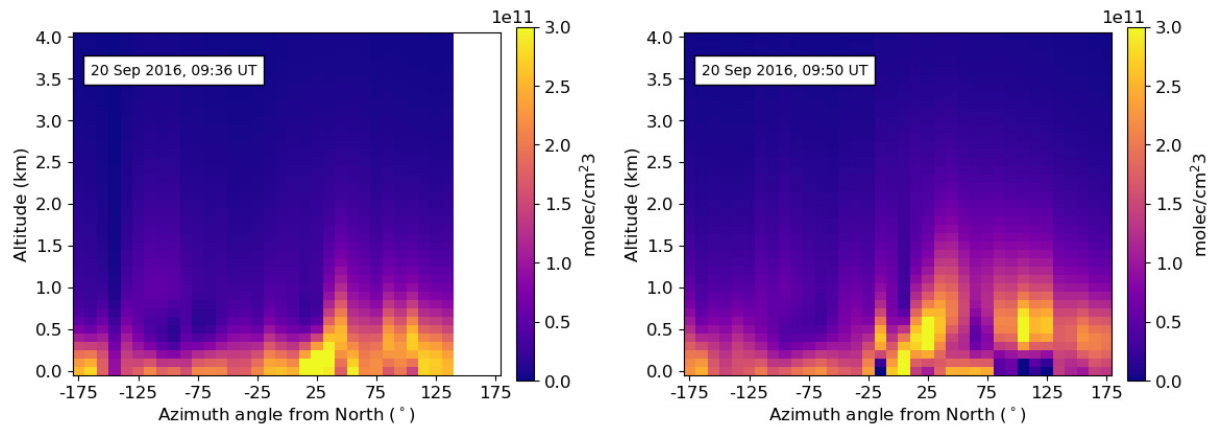


Figure 14. Retrieved NO_2 profiles around the measurement site during the observed transport event on 20 September 2016.

This is demonstrated in Fig. 13 showing IMPACT and MAX-DOAS surface concentrations and profiles for the case study presented above in Fig. 6. The temporal evolution of NO_2 slant columns seen in Fig. 6 is reproduced by NO_2 surface concentrations from IMPACT. Interestingly, the change in surface concentrations is even more pronounced and in the order of $\approx 40\%$ because aerosol concentrations were changing as well. In comparison, the NO_2 surface concentration derived from the single MAX-DOAS profile is of course not reflecting the NO_2 decrease, but is (in this case) close to the temporal mean. This is also shown in Fig. 13b comparing single profiles from IMPACT and their mean (solid black line) to the MAX-DOAS profile. However, apart from the surface concentrations, the MAX-DOAS profile and the mean of the IMPACT profiles do not agree. Especially in lower altitudes the MAX-DOAS profile is closer to the IMPACT profiles acquired first (between 09:00 and 09:05 UTC). This is reasonable because the MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence starts with small elevations, which agree with lowest elevations of the first (simultaneous) IMPACT scans (see Fig. 6). These small elevations contain much information and have a large influence on the retrieved profile in lower altitudes. In higher altitudes, the information content is limited and the retrieved profile is predominantly determined by a priori information (as discussed in Bösch et al., 2018).

4.2.3 NO_2 transport event

Full-panoramic NO_2 profiles retrieved on 20 September 2016 during the observed transport event (Sect. 4.1) are plotted in Fig. 14 as a function of azimuth and elevation angle. Viewing conditions during that time were challenging (broken clouds, unstable cloud conditions), affecting the retrieval results. Nevertheless, in agreement with findings in Sect. 4.1, increased NO_2 concentrations are observed between azimuths of 25° and 175° from North. As Fig. 14 (left) shows, these increasing concentrations are located close to the ground. The NO_2 is then uplifted around 10 UTC (Fig. 14 right) to altitudes of 500-1000 m and in subsequent scans transported in Westerly directions (profiles not shown due to poor viewing conditions). In general, this is in agreement with findings above and in particular the appearance of high NO_2 concentrations close to the

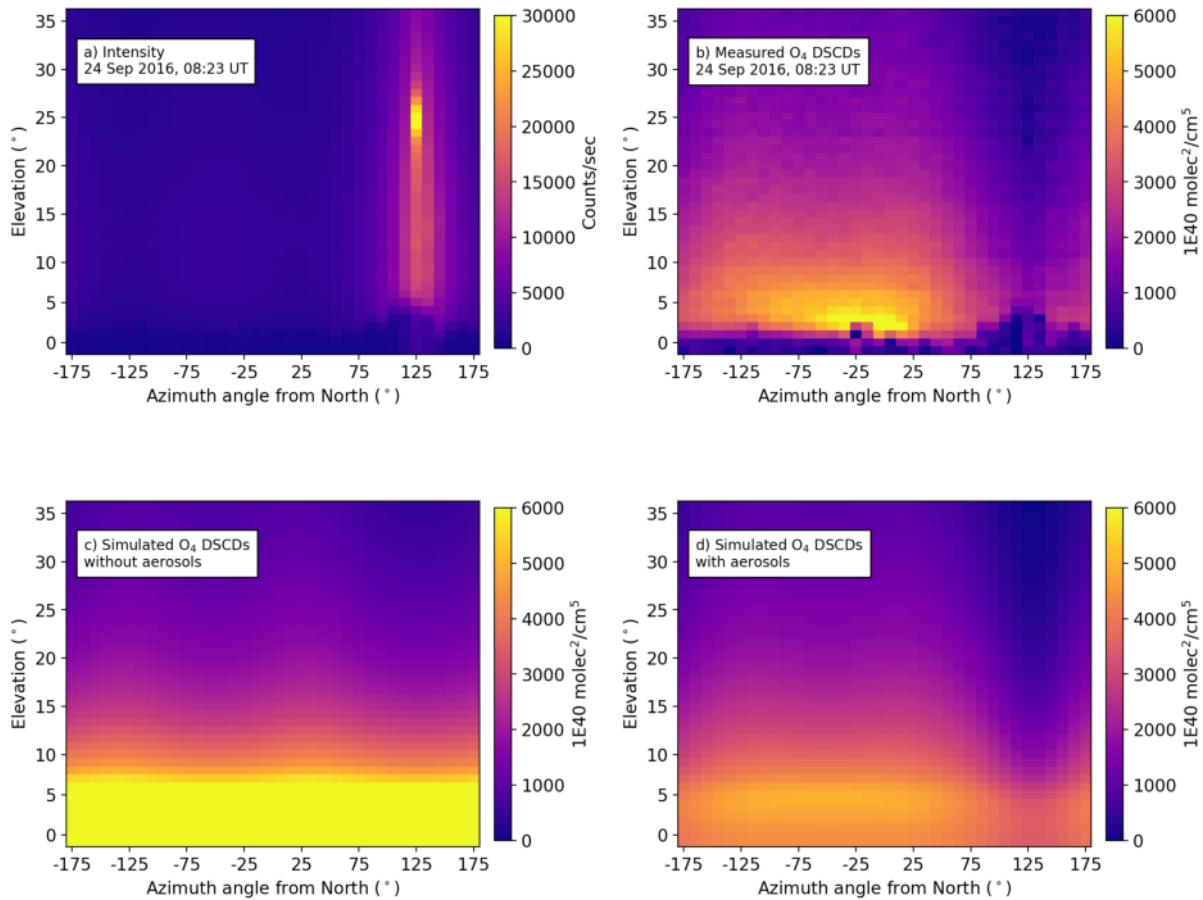


Figure 15. Intensity (a) and measured O_4 DSCDs (b) from one IMPACT panoramic scan on 24 September 2016, at 08:23 UTC mean acquisition time, in comparison to simulated O_4 DSCDs without (c) and with aerosols (d). Ground effects (obstacles discussed in Sect. 4.1) are of course not present in the simulations.

[ground and subsequent uplifting supports the conclusion derived in Sect. 4.1 of a local emission source in the vicinity of the measurement site \(Lopik or the near-by industrial park\).](#)

4.3 Potential for Aerosol retrievals

- a) Measured and simulated almucantar scans of DSCDs in two exemplary elevation angles (4° = close to the surface, and 25° = solar almucantar), i.e. horizontal cross sections through Figs. 15b and d. b) Same data plotted as a function of the (single) scattering angle shown in c), which has been calculated for every viewing geometry of the hemispheric scan in Fig. 15. d) Correlation coefficients between measured and simulated almucantar DSCDs for all elevation angles (i.e. all data from Fig. 15). Different input parameters (asymmetry factor g and single scattering albedo SSA) have been used for the simulation of DSCDs (for simulated data in subplots a and b, $g = 0.75$ and SSA = 0.95 have been used).

In addition to NO₂, ~~slant columns of IMPACT measurements enable~~ the oxygen dimer O₄ ~~are obtained to be retrieved~~ from the same DOAS fit (Tab. 2). As O₄ is a collision complex of O₂ molecules, it depends on pressure only and is therefore a measure of the light path (e.g., Wagner et al., 2002; Wittrock et al., 2004, and references therein).

As a case study, Fig. 15 shows the measured intensity (a) and O₄ slant columns (b) from one IMPACT scan (acquisition time ~15 min) on 24 September 2016 under excellent viewing conditions. The position of the sun is clearly visible at ~125° azimuth (Solar Azimuth Angle, SAA) and ~25° elevation. O₄ slant columns close to the sun are reduced as a result of shorter average light paths due to strong forward scattering of aerosols. This is ~~demonstrated-validated~~ by simulated O₄ slant columns for the same measurement geometry without aerosols, i.e. pure Rayleigh scattering (c) and with aerosols (d). The simulations have been performed using the radiative transfer model SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2014) in its version 3.4.4. As input for the simulation, an exponential decrease (0.1/km surface value, ~~AOD=0.2~~AOD=0.2) was used as aerosol extinction profile and a Henyey-Greenstein (HG) parameterization of the aerosol phase function with an asymmetry factor of $g = 0.75$ and a single scattering albedo $SSA = 0.95$ was applied. These values were obtained from a close-by Cabauw AERONET station (AEROSOL ROBOTIC NETWORK, Holben et al. (1998); Dubovik and King (2000)).

Simulated O₄ slant columns for pure Rayleigh scattering differ strongly from measured O₄ columns, both in absolute values as well as in the azimuthal distribution. In particular, the largely reduced columns around the sun are not reproduced by the simulation showing slightly reduced columns at the SAA and SAA + 180° only as a result of the Rayleigh phase function. In contrast, simulated columns including aerosols agree much better with measured columns and cover the azimuthal distribution (Fig. 15d). Thus, the comparison between simulated and measured azimuthal distribution of O₄ columns can be used to retrieve information about the aerosol properties and in particular its phase function.

Retrievals of aerosol properties, e.g. from AERONET stations, are usually based on intensity measurements in the solar almucantar, which in this case is the azimuthal distribution in $\approx 25^\circ$ elevation. ~~However, incorporating~~ With MAX-DOAS it is also possible to incorporate O₄ measurements in the retrieval of aerosol microphysical properties and phase function ~~was already as~~ suggested by Wagner et al. (2004). Frieß et al. (2006) demonstrated a corresponding retrieval based on intensity and O₄ measurements in different azimuths and found that largest sensitivity is gained from measurements in the aureole region of the sun, therefore requiring a small FOV, protection against direct sunlight and the capability to perform automated measurements in the azimuth. While measurements very close to the sun are challenging for IMPACT due to its large FOV, two important aspects can be investigated as a result of IMPACT's capability of recording full 2D maps very rapidly around the measurement site:

1. Is there a potential for O₄ measurements in almucantars different than the solar almucantar to contribute to/support aerosol retrievals?
2. Is there a restriction, which almucantars can be used, and what is the criterion/threshold for the use or rejection?

As IMPACT is (currently) not radiometrically calibrated, we focus on exploiting O₄ measurements rather than intensity for the retrieval of aerosol properties. In addition, it should be clearly mentioned that a full aerosol retrieval is far beyond the scope of this study, which is limited to the two research questions above.

For research question (1) ~~it is important~~, it is a limitation that sky radiometers (e.g. within the AERONET network) and current state of the art MAX-DOAS instruments are measuring in only one viewing geometry at a time. A scan along the solar almucantar then provides observations at different scattering angles. In contrast to these instruments, IMPACT measures many almucantars at the same time, in the case study shown in Fig. 15 ~~both~~, both above and below the solar almucantar. The geometrical scattering angle (single scattering case) has been calculated for every viewing geometry and is plotted in Fig. 16c. Obviously, almucantars above and below the solar almucantar provide slightly different scattering angles and might therefore complement the classical retrieval.

However, not all almucantars should be used and even if exploiting the solar almucantar only, a threshold for the lowest usable elevation angle should be regarded (research question 2). The reason is that a retrieval of e.g. the aerosol phase function requires the azimuthal distribution of measured O_4 to be caused by the aerosol phase function only. In contrast, in ~~reality~~ the observations it is caused by the combined effect of 1) phase function, and 2) varying aerosol load and extinction profile in different azimuth directions as well as along the light path, i.e. in different distances from the instrument. For measurements taken at large elevations, the aerosol load and profile can be assumed to be homogeneous as the horizontal distance around the measurement site from which information is obtained (in a single scattering case this is the distance to the scattering point projected to the ground) is short. For small elevations, this horizontal extent around the measurement site is much larger ~~and thus~~ in first approximation it is scaling with $1/\tan(\text{elevation})$, if only averaging in the boundary layer is considered and the last scattering point is above the boundary layer height. Thus, for small elevations the aerosol load and profile can change substantially along the light path.

This effect is clearly present in Fig. 15b: Measured O_4 slant columns have a distinct maximum in small elevations centered around $\approx -25^\circ$ azimuth (ranging from $\approx -60^\circ$ to 25° azimuth), which is not reproduced by simulated O_4 columns. As illustrated in Fig. 16c, this is not the location of largest scattering angles (occurring at $\approx -55^\circ$ azimuth only) and therefore not related to the O_4 maximum expected in backscattering direction (due to preferred forward scattering and consequently larger light paths in backscattering direction). Furthermore, if the O_4 maximum was an effect of the phase function, a second maximum would appear close to the ground at $\approx -85^\circ$ azimuth (given that the aerosol profile would not change with the azimuth), because scattering angles in -25° and -85° azimuth are identical (see Fig. 16c). Obviously, no second O_4 maximum is present at -85° azimuth indicating that the aerosol load seen in small elevation angles changes with the viewing azimuth. In particular, the observed maximum in O_4 slant columns at -25° azimuth indicates smaller aerosol loads close to the ground (longer light paths) in this direction. As a result, almucantar scans in small elevation angles should not be used to retrieve aerosol information.

In order to quantify this finding, Fig. 16a shows two specific azimuthal distributions of measured (solid) and simulated (dashed) O_4 , i.e. two horizontal cross-sections of Fig. 15b and c, for elevation angles of 4° , and 25° (solar almucantar), respectively. While the agreement between measurement and simulation is very good in 25° elevation, differences in 4° are much larger, both in absolute values and in shape. Fig. 16b shows the same data, but plotted as a function of scattering angle. The solid line represents scattering angles counter-clockwise (left) from the position of the sun ($SAA = 125^\circ$), and the dashed line clockwise (right). For the solar almucantar, both lines agree quite well with each other as well as with the simulation

(green line) indicating that the aerosol seen in 25° elevation is rather homogeneous around the measurement site and aerosol parameters used in the simulation are realistic. In contrast, the 4° almucantar does not match the simulation and - more importantly - O₄ columns observed clockwise from the incoming direction show severe differences and another shape than those recorded counter-clockwise. This cannot be explained with the aerosol phase function, which is symmetrical. ~~It therefore~~
5 ~~proves the conclusion of~~ This supports the conclusion that inhomogeneous aerosol content around the measurement site is seen in 4° elevation-, i.e. close to the ground. This is furthermore supported by aerosol extinction profiles retrieved with BOREAS (Fig. 17) showing smaller values close to the ground between -50° and 25° azimuth. However, the BOREAS aerosol retrieval for this day is challenging due to the relatively small absolute aerosol load (AOD ≈ 0.2) and consequently Fig. 17 should not be over-interpreted (the general patterns appear to be reliable, but individual values should be regarded with care).

10 To elaborate a threshold of usable almucantars and to test their potential for aerosol retrievals, various SCIATRAN simulations have been performed based on different aerosol parameters. For each set of parameters, resulting correlation coefficients between measured and simulated O₄ azimuthal distributions are shown in Fig. 16d as a function of elevation angle. Aerosol parameters leading to largest correlations are then compared to independently measured quantities from the AERONET station.

The blue curve in Fig. 16d corresponds to the original simulation shown in the previous plots using $g = 0.75$ and $SSA = 0.95$.
15 For small elevations, correlation coefficients increase rapidly. This is due to a combination of the observed obstruction by trees discussed above and true inhomogeneities of the O₄ azimuthal variation. The steep increase is followed by a much shallower increase until a plateau is reached at ≈ 10°. For very large elevations > 30°, correlation coefficients decrease ~~again~~ slightly, most likely as an effect of smaller O₄ columns and thus poorer statistics.

~~Furthermore, it~~ It is found that changes of the SSA (red line) lead to almost the same results, i.e. the pure analysis of the
20 shape of O₄ columns at a specific almucantar is (not surprisingly) insensitive to the SSA.

The green and the magenta line were performed with the same SSA as the original simulation but larger asymmetry factors g . Resulting correlation coefficients are clearly smaller.

To conclude, the variation of O₄ columns along almucantars contain information about the asymmetry factor g . ~~Interestingly~~ As
can be seen from Fig. 16d, the value of $g = 0.75$ measured by the close-by AERONET station leads to the largest correlation
25 coefficients ~~in Fig. 16d. However,~~ However, it should be mentioned that simulations using smaller asymmetry factors (not plotted) show a similar performance unless g reaches very small values ($g < 0.5$). Consequently, the simple approach of using correlation coefficients as performed here is not a sufficient way to determine g with good precision. However, the potential of using O₄ (ideally together with intensity) in more sophisticated retrievals appears to be promising.

For the two initial research questions it can be concluded:

30 1. In general, different almucantars recorded simultaneously by IMPACT have slightly different scattering angles meaning that the information content they provide is not redundant. Consequently, these almucantars have a potential to be used in future retrievals of the aerosol phase function. In particular, use of almucantar O₄ columns turned out to contain information about the asymmetry factor g , but to be insensitive to the SSA.

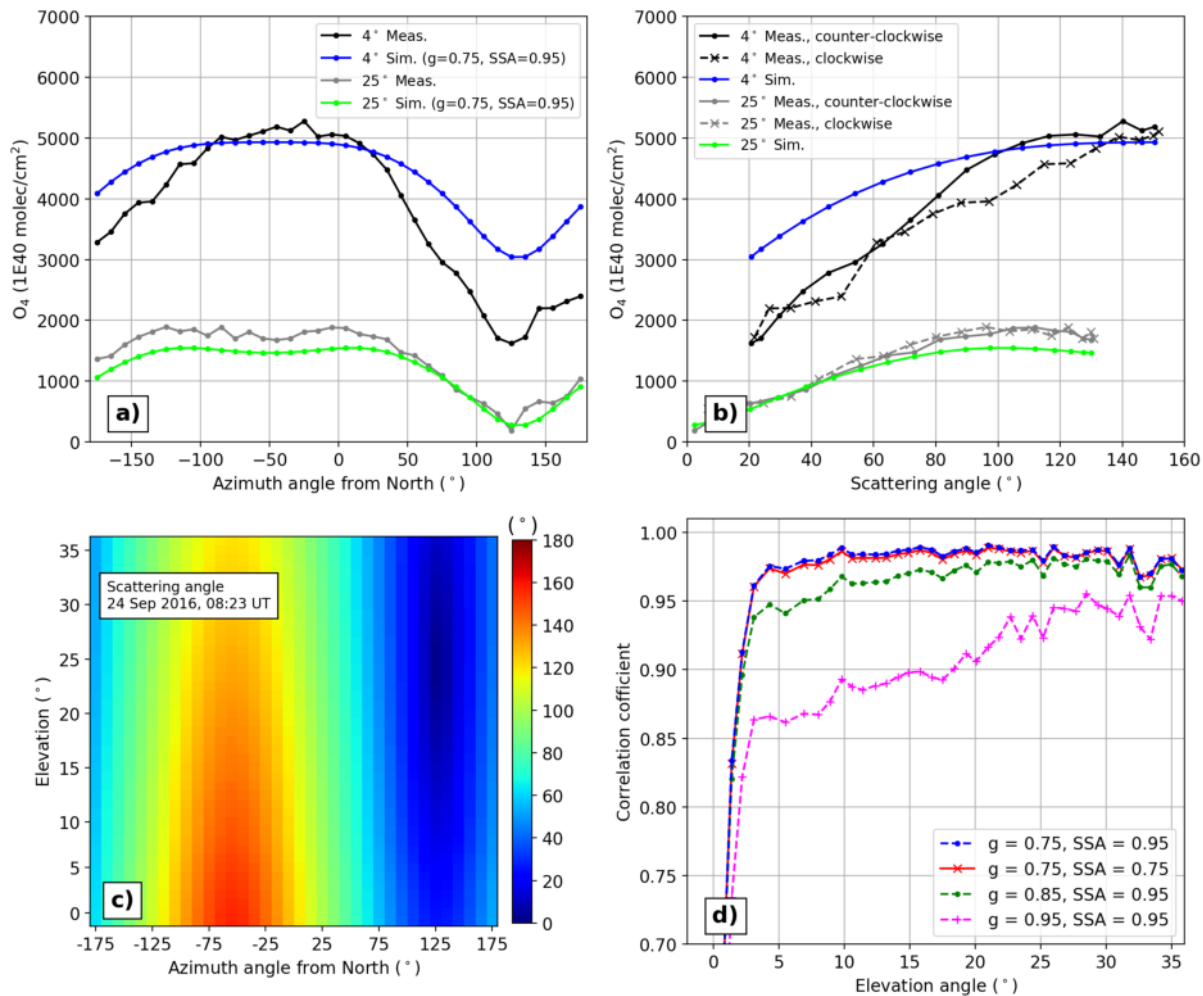


Figure 16. a) Measured and simulated almucantar scans of O_4 DSCDs on 24 September 2016 in two exemplary elevation angles ($4^\circ =$ close to the surface, and $25^\circ =$ solar almucantar), i.e. horizontal cross sections through Figs. 15b and d. b) Same data plotted as a function of the (single) scattering angle shown in c), which has been calculated for every viewing geometry of the hemispheric scan in Fig. 15. d) Correlation coefficients between measured and simulated almucantar O_4 DSCDs for all elevation angles (i.e. all data from Fig. 15). Different input parameters (asymmetry factor g and single scattering albedo SSA) have been used for the simulation of O_4 DSCDs (for simulated data in subplots a and b, $g = 0.75$ and $SSA = 0.95$ have been used).

- As a compromise, 10° elevation appears to be a reasonable threshold for deriving aerosol phase function information from almucantar O_4 measurements. Note, this threshold corresponds to the special conditions during the analysed case study (AOD, aerosol profile, weather and viewing conditions, etc.) as well as the true spatial homogeneity around the measurement location. However, results may be representative for semi-rural sites like Cabauw where the aerosol profile

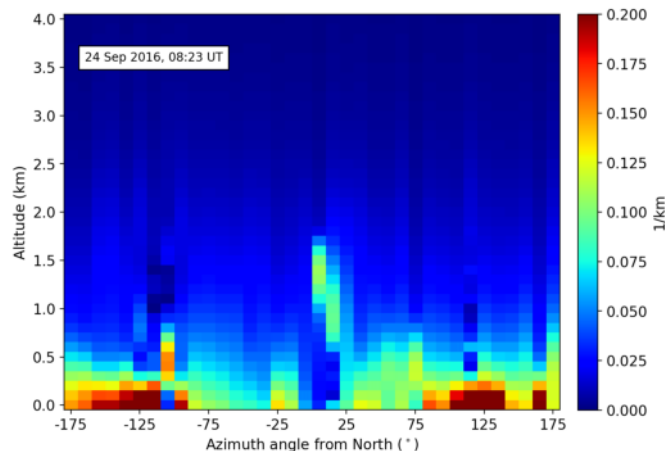


Figure 17. Retrieved aerosol extinction profiles around the measurement site for the azimuthal scan shown in Fig. 15.

is assumed to be rather spatially constant. Within cities, the spatial variability of aerosols will be much larger and therefore more of the lower almucantars would have to be excluded. As a recipe for unclear aerosol conditions, checking the agreement between measured O_4 columns obtained clockwise and counter-clockwise from the SAA (as in Fig. 16b) gives a first indication whether data from the respective elevation angle can be used or not.

5 4.4 profiling

surface concentrations (a) and profiles (b) retrieved from IMPACT's high repetition measurements in the common azimuth direction of 287° during the acquisition of one MAX-DOAS vertical scan. IMPACT and MAX-DOAS DSCDs used for the BOREAS retrieval are shown in Fig. 6.

Retrieved profiles around the measurement site during the observed transport event on 20 September 2016.

10 Retrieved aerosol extinction profiles around the measurement site for the azimuthal scan shown in Fig. 15.

As already mentioned, one of IMPACT's objectives is to enable aerosol and trace gas profile retrievals very rapidly in every direction around the measurement site. The retrieval code BOREAS (Bösch et al., 2018) used here is an IUP-Bremen in-house algorithm. Results of the profile inversion help in particular to analyze and support findings of the case studies reported in previous sections.

15 For the current study, profiles are retrieved on an altitude grid reaching from 0 to 4 km in 100 m steps. slant columns in prescribed elevation angles were used for the profile retrieval on MAX-DOAS measurements. For IMPACT, all elevations from 0.6° to 10° and 29° to 31° have been used (while other simultaneously measured elevations have been excluded in order to decrease computational time). As additional input for the retrieval, vertical profiles of pressure and temperature were created by taking the mean of 16 different sonde measurements taken during the years 2013-2015 in De Bilt, the Netherlands.

20 The retrieval is based on an Optimal Estimation Method (OEM), for which an exponentially decreasing a priori profile having

a surface concentration of $9.13 \cdot 10^{10}$ molec/cm³ and a scale height of 1 km has been used. For the aerosol profile retrieval, a surface extinction of 0.183 km^{-1} and again a scaling height of 1 km has been assumed. For the aerosol phase function and SSA, always the closest-in-time values obtained from the near-by Cabauw AERONET station were applied. Radiative transfer calculations were performed using SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2014) in its version 4.0.1. The BOREAS inversion algorithm is explained in detail in Bösch et al. (2018).

4.3.1 Temporal resolution

As demonstrated in Sect. 4.1, slant columns can change during the acquisition time of a MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence in a fixed azimuth direction ($\sim 20\%$ were observed even under good weather and viewing conditions). If this MAX-DOAS scan is input to a profile retrieval, the change of is 1) not resolved and 2) possibly interfering the results, predominantly as the retrieved profiles will not simply be a temporal average of the true profiles.

This is demonstrated in Fig. 13 showing IMPACT and MAX-DOAS surface concentrations and profiles for the case study presented above in Fig. 6. The temporal evolution of slant columns seen in Fig. 6 is reproduced by surface concentrations from IMPACT. Interestingly, the change in surface concentrations is even more pronounced and in the order of $\approx 40\%$ because aerosol concentrations were changing as well. In comparison, the surface concentration derived from the single MAX-DOAS profile is of course not reflecting the decrease, but is (in this case) close to the temporal mean. This is also shown in Fig. 13b comparing single profiles from IMPACT and their mean (solid black line) to the MAX-DOAS profile. However, apart from the surface concentrations, the MAX-DOAS profile and the mean of IMPACT profiles do not agree. Especially in lower altitudes the MAX-DOAS profile is closer to the IMPACT profiles acquired first (between 09:00 and 09:05 UTC). This is reasonable because the MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence starts with small elevations, which agree with lowest elevations of the first (simultaneous) IMPACT scans (see Fig. 6). These small elevations contain much information and have a large influence on the retrieved profile in lower altitudes. In higher altitudes, the information content is limited and the retrieved profile is predominantly determined by a priori information (as discussed in Bösch et al., 2018).

4.3.1 transport event

Full-panoramic profiles retrieved on 20 September 2016 during the observed transport event (Sect. 4.1) are plotted in Fig. 14 as a function of azimuth and elevation angle. Viewing conditions during that time were challenging (broken clouds, unstable cloud conditions), affecting the retrieval results. Nevertheless, in agreement with findings in Sect. 4.1, increased concentrations are observed between azimuths of 25° and 175° from North. As Fig. 14 (left) shows, these increasing concentrations are located close to the ground. The is then uplifted around 10 UTC (Fig. 14 right) to altitudes of 500-1000 m and in subsequent scans transported in Westerly directions (profiles not shown due to poor viewing conditions). In general, this is in agreement with findings above and in particular the appearance of high concentrations close to the ground and subsequent uplifting supports the conclusion derived in Sect. 4.1 of a local emission source in the vicinity of the measurement site (Lopik or the near-by industrial park).

4.3.1 Aerosol inhomogeneity

In Sect. 4.3, enhanced slant columns were found in small elevation angles between -50° and 25° azimuth on 24 September 2016 and it was concluded that these values are caused by smaller aerosol loads close to the ground. Indeed, aerosol extinction profiles retrieved by BOREAS (Fig. 17), show smaller values close to the ground between -50° and 25° azimuth, which supports the conclusions above. However, the BOREAS aerosol retrieval for this day is challenging due to the relatively small absolute aerosol load ($AOD \approx 0.2$) and consequently Fig. 17 should not be over-interpreted. The general pattern appear reliable, but individual values should be regarded with care.

5 Summary and conclusions

An advanced imaging-DOAS instrument (IMPACT) ~~was developed~~ has been developed at the Institute of Environmental Physics of the University of Bremen. In contrast to most imaging-DOAS instruments reported ~~so~~ thus far, IMPACT is not restricted to particular selected scenes but provides full-azimuthal coverage around the measurement site. Azimuthal pointing is performed stepwise by a motor while observations in 50 elevation angles are performed simultaneously due to the imaging capabilities. As a result, a complete panoramic scan is achieved in ~ 15 minutes allowing to retrieve tropospheric trace gas profiles around the measurement site at high temporal resolution. In terms of robustness and flexible setup, IMPACT has similar advantages as to those of the state-of-the-art MAX-DOAS instruments as a result of separating indoor (spectrometer) and outdoor (light collecting) parts.

The instrument took part in the CINDI-2 intercomparison field campaign in Cabauw, the Netherlands, in September 2016, where an overall excellent agreement with MAX-DOAS measurements was obtained (correlation $> 99\%$ for coinciding coincident observations). In contrast to MAX-DOAS, IMPACT is able to resolve the temporal variation of NO_2 slant columns in a fixed azimuth direction, which was observed to be as large as 20% during ~~the time of a~~ MAX-DOAS scan scanning sequence (10-15 minutes) in a case study under good weather and viewing conditions. This temporal variation of NO_2 is present in profiles retrieved from IMPACT measurements as well and corresponding surface concentrations of NO_2 showed even larger changes of up to 40%. This variation is missed by the MAX-DOAS profile that agrees better with IMPACT profiles acquired first, as a consequence of the scanning sequence which starts with small elevations containing most information.

The azimuthal distribution of NO_2 around the measurement site was found to be very homogeneous on a long term scale (campaign average), but highly variable on shorter timescales (snapshots). In small elevations, relative differences of NO_2 slant columns up to $\sim 120\%$ (on average 35%) were observed within one hemispheric scan. In conclusion, measurements in one direction are not enough to characterize tropospheric NO_2 , which is in particular crucial for MAX-DOAS validation of tropospheric NO_2 from satellites.

~~One reason of the observed~~ The variability of the NO_2 ~~variability are transport events~~ observed is best explained by the transport of pollution. Due to the fast data acquisition and full azimuthal coverage of IMPACT, the trajectory of an exemplary NO_2 transport event could be derived and its most probable source region was identified in the vicinity of the measurement station (near-by industrial park or village of Lopik). This is supported by BOREAS profile inversions showing increasing NO_2

concentrations close to the ground in the azimuthal direction of the trajectory's origin (the assumed source). The NO_2 plume is then uplifted and transported along the measurement site in agreement to the trajectory derived before.

The comparison of measured and simulated O_4 slant columns demonstrated the huge impact of aerosols on radiative transfer and thus the need to accurately consider them in air mass factor calculations and profile inversions. The azimuthal distribution of O_4 columns was found to be sensitive to the asymmetry factor g , and for a test case, a simple trial and error retrieval was performed reproducing the value of g from a near-by AERONET station. As a further advantage, IMPACT is not limited to the solar almucantar as many elevations and therefore several almucantars are measured simultaneously. Each recorded almucantar observes slightly different scattering angles and provides therefore complementary information. However, care must be taken as for small elevations the influence area (i.e. the spatial region around the measurement site from which information is collected) is increasing. Thus, inhomogeneities of the aerosol distribution around the measurement site were found especially for elevation angles $< 10^\circ$. Consequently, only almucantars $> 10^\circ$ elevation should be used in retrievals of aerosol phase functions. It is important to note that this holds true for specific conditions during CINDI-2 and the spatial aerosol variability at Cabauw. Nevertheless, Cabauw is believed to be representative for semi-rural environments. For use in different environments, the agreement between O_4 columns clockwise and counter-clockwise to the SAA should be checked before corresponding data is used in an aerosol phase function retrieval.

In summary, the added value of full-panoramic imaging-DOAS sensors like IMPACT, in comparison to MAX-DOAS instruments, is predominantly the ability to resolve the spatial and temporal trace gas variability around the measurement site, which has been demonstrated here for NO_2 . Thus, as a perspective for future applications, full-panoramic imaging-DOAS sensors have a large potential in particular for satellite validation activities, as for this purpose [knowledge of](#) the variability of trace gases around the measurement site (i.e. within a satellite pixel) is crucial.

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Full-azimuthal imaging-DOAS observations of NO₂ and O₄ during CINDI-2

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Abstract. A novel imaging-DOAS instrument (IMPACT) is presented combining full-azimuthal pointing (360°) with a large vertical coverage (~41°). Complete panoramic scans are acquired at a temporal resolution of ~15 minutes enabling the retrieval of NO₂ vertical profiles over the entire panorama around the measurement site.

IMPACT showed excellent agreement (correlation >99%) with coincident MAX-DOAS measurements during the CINDI-2 campaign. The temporal variability of NO₂ slant columns within a typical MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence could be resolved and was as large as 20% in a case study under good viewing conditions. The variation of corresponding profiles and surface concentrations were even larger (40%). This variability is missed when retrieving trace gas profiles based on standard MAX-DOAS measurements.

The azimuthal distribution of NO₂ around the measurement site showed inhomogeneities (relative differences) up to 120% (on average 35%) on short time scales (individual panoramic scans). This is more than expected for the semi-rural location. We explain this behaviour by the transport of pollution. Exploiting the instrument's advantages, the plume's trajectory during a prominent transport event could be reconstructed.

Finally, the potential for retrieving information about the aerosol phase function from O₄ slant columns along multiple almucantar scans of IMPACT is demonstrated, with promising results for future studies.

1 Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a prominent pollutant in the atmosphere and harmful for human health, causing damage to the respiratory system (Kampa and Castanas, 2008). It originates primarily from NO that is produced in the equilibrium between N₂ and O₂ at high temperatures in combustion processes. The emitted NO reacts with ozone (O₃) to form NO₂. The sum of NO and NO₂ is called NO_x.

The UV photolysis of NO₂ produces NO and O atoms, which react with O₂ in air to form O₃. Under certain conditions for NO_x and O₃ in the troposphere, the Leighton photo-stationary state is achieved:

$$\frac{[\text{NO}]}{[\text{NO}_2]} = \frac{J(\text{NO}_2)}{k(\text{NO} + \text{O}_3)[\text{O}_3]} \quad (1)$$

where $J(\text{NO}_2)$ is the photolysis frequency for NO₂ in an air mass and $k(\text{NO} + \text{O}_3)$ is the rate coefficient for the reaction of NO with O₃. Deviation from the Leighton photo-stationary state occurs when significant amounts of NO₂ is produced by reaction of hydroperoxyl radicals (HO₂), or organic peroxy radicals (RO₂), with NO (e.g., Shetter et al., 1983). The photolysis of this NO₂ then results in the O₃ formation, as found in photochemical smog. Thus, NO_x plays a key role in the formation of tropospheric ozone.

Emission sources of NO_x are both, anthropogenic and biogenic, and comprise e.g. the combustion of fossil fuels for domestic heating and cooking, power generation, traffic, as well as savanna and forest fires. NO_x is also released from lightning events and soil microbial processes (Lee et al., 1997).

Overall, the lifetime of NO_2 in the atmosphere is typically of the order of several hours due to photolysis or removal by OH, which leads to the formation of HNO_3 and thus contributes to acidification of precipitation, soil and water. NO_2 shows characteristic absorption bands in the UV and visible wavelength range facilitating quantification by differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) measurements.

DOAS is a well-established remote sensing technique used for atmospheric trace gas observations, which arguably reaches back to Dobson and Harrison (1926) who detected stratospheric ozone using UV measurements at distinct wavelengths. Later, Brewer et al. (1973) and Noxon (1975) used zenith-sky pointing measurements of scattered sunlight to retrieve stratospheric NO_2 abundances. Perner et al. (1976) and Platt et al. (1979), who first used the term DOAS, applied active DOAS for measurements of further trace gases in the troposphere using artificial light sources. The passive DOAS technique was continuously improved to so-called *off-axis* (1D) and 2D-pointing instruments (Hönniger et al., 2004, provide a brief historic overview about passive DOAS systems) and recently even 3D MAX-DOAS analysis techniques have been reported (Ortega et al., 2015; Seyler et al., 2018). In addition to static platforms, passive DOAS was also adopted to movable platforms, e.g. cars, ships, airplanes (e.g., Sinreich et al., 2010; Shaiganfar et al., 2011; Peters et al., 2012) as well as satellites (e.g., Burrows et al., 1999; Richter et al., 2005; Lelieveld et al., 2015).

In this study, the DOAS method has been combined with imaging capabilities. Pushbroom imaging-DOAS instruments consisting of a spectrometer equipped with a 2D CCD or CMOS camera are often used for aircraft applications (Heue et al., 2008; Popp et al., 2012; Schönhardt et al., 2015). The spectrometer's slit and thus the spatial axis of the spectrometer/CCD-system is aligned perpendicular to the flight direction while pixel size along track is determined by the integration time and aircraft speed. Imaging DOAS instruments have been also used in ground-based applications. Lohberger et al. (2004) observed the NO_2 plume emitted from a power plant stack by using an imaging spectrometer mapping different elevation angles on the vertical (spatial) axis of the CCD and a motorized mirror system for scanning in the azimuthal direction. The same instrumental setup was used by Bobrowski et al. (2006) to observe the SO_2 emission from a volcano. A scanning mirror system was also used by Lee et al. (2009) to analyze the spatial and temporal variation of NO_2 during two days in the urban environment of Beijing.

Another imaging-DOAS concept was recently described by Manago et al. (2018) consisting of a combination of horizontal slit, transmission grating and hyperspectral camera acting effectively as a line scanner to produce a $13^\circ \times 9^\circ$

image with spectral information. 87 hyperspectral images were combined during an acquisition time of ≈ 1 hour to a full-azimuthal panoramic view in order to study the two-dimensional NO_2 distribution around the measurement site.

In summary, all previously reported imaging-DOAS observations have in common that a very small angular resolution was applied resulting in a rather limited total field of view (FOV) for the entire image (e.g., $13^\circ \times 36^\circ$). While this approach is valuable for example for the observation of the trace gas emitted from a power plant or volcano, the observed scene is limited in its spatial scale. In contrast, the aim of the instrument concept presented in our study is to provide full azimuthal coverage (360°) around the measurement site with, at the same time, a large vertical coverage ($\sim 41^\circ$). Aiming at high robustness and flexibility (predominantly for separating outdoor and indoor parts), no scanning mirror system but a telescope with a sorted quartz fibre bundle pointing in several elevations at the same time, and a pan-tilt-head for scanning in the azimuthal direction, are used. This setup enables profile retrievals of the entire hemisphere around the instrument at sufficiently high temporal resolution and to study the full 2-dimensional distribution and variability. The short acquisition time (~ 15 min) of a full panoramic image ensures constant atmospheric conditions and thus, minimizes the impact of temporal changes of trace gas distributions during the observation.

The imaging DOAS instrument IMPACT (novel Imaging MaPper for AtmosphericC observaTions) took part in the CINDI-2 campaign in Summer 2016, where it participated in the semi-blind intercomparison of NO_2 . Results of the intercomparison are not a primary focus of this study and are presented in detail in (Kreher et al., 2019).

The main objective of the present study is to assess the added value of full-panoramic imaging-DOAS measurements as compared to MAX-DOAS. In particular, the change of NO_2 profiles and surface concentrations during a typical MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence could be resolved. Furthermore, assessment of the azimuthal distribution of NO_2 is a prerequisite for satellite validation, as a point measurement (in situ) or measurements in one azimuth direction only is not representative for the entire measurement's surrounding (satellite pixel) if the azimuthal distribution is inhomogeneous. In the current study, large inhomogeneities occurred on short timescales and were caused by transport events rather than persistent inhomogeneities (e.g. due to local sources). Due to the full-panoramic coverage, an exemplary transport event could be observed by investigating the temporal evolution of NO_2 profiles. The plume's trajectory could be reconstructed and its most likely emission source was identified. In addition, information with respect to the aerosol phase function was derived from the retrieved azimuthal distribution of the O_2 collision complex O_4 , which was retrieved during the DOAS fitting process in the selected

Table 1. Meteorological conditions during the example days focused on in the respective sections.

Date	Viewing conditions	Mean wind direction	Mean wind speed	Section
20 September 2016	unstable, broken clouds	75° (highly variable)	1.2 m/s	Sect. 4.2
23 September 2016	sunny, mostly clear	270°	4.8 m/s	Sect. 4.1
24 September 2016	excellent	170°	4.8 m/s	Sect. 4.4

spectral window used for NO₂. We note that IMPACT measures simultaneously multiple almucantars¹.

The paper is structured as follows: Sect. 2 briefly describes the performed DOAS measurements, instruments, and the CINDI-2 campaign. Calibration activities and FOV definition of IMPACT are explained in detail in Sect. 3. Results from different studies on IMPACT measurements (for which different days during CINDI-2 have been selected) are then presented in Sect. 4. An overview over meteorological conditions during these example days is given in Tab. 1. A comparison with MAX-DOAS data focusing on one day of reasonable viewing conditions is presented in Sect. 4.1. The spatial and temporal NO₂ variation observed during CINDI-2 is discussed in Sect. 4.2 including a detailed analysis of an observed transport event. NO₂ profiles based on the full-panoramic measurement strategy are retrieved in Sect. 4.3. Finally, Sect. 4.4 discusses the potential of retrieving aerosol phase function information from IMPACT's observations at an example day having excellent viewing conditions. The study closes with a summary and conclusion.

2 Measurements

2.1 DOAS technique

The passive DOAS technique uses measurements of scattered sunlight and the Lambert-Beer's law to yield trace gas amounts and distributions in the atmosphere. While scattering causes smooth changes in the spectrum (e.g., λ^{-4} -dependence for Rayleigh scattering), molecular absorption often has structured spectra. The total spectral attenuation is therefore split into a high-frequency part comprising the trace gas absorptions and a low-frequency part accounting for elastic scattering on molecules, aerosols, and clouds, as well as instrumental throughput. The latter part is described by a low-order polynomial. The effect of inelastic scattering known as the Ring effect (Shefov, 1959; Grainger and Ring, 1962), which is predominantly due to Rotational-Raman-Scattering and leads to a filling-in of Fraunhofer lines, is

¹Note, an *almucantar* is a circle on the celestial sphere parallel to the horizon. The almucantar containing the sun, i.e. having the sun's elevation, is the *solar almucantar*. Within the community, both terms are frequently used synonymously, but it is important to distinguish here because IMPACT measures in many elevations at the same time, i.e. records many almucantars when measuring in different azimuths.

accounted for by a pseudo cross section σ_{Ring} (e.g. Vountas et al., 1998). Similar spectral effects are caused by straylight inside the spectrometer when photons hit the detector at positions not corresponding to their wavelength. This is compensated by applying another pseudo cross section σ_{off} , for which often the inverse of the measured spectrum I is used. Further details about this so-called intensity offset correction and its similarity to spectral features produced by inelastic scattering can be found in, e.g. (Peters et al., 2014). Lambert-Beer's law can then be expressed by the DOAS equation:

$$\tau = \ln \left(\frac{I_0}{I} \right) = \sum_i \sigma_i \cdot SC_i + \sigma_{\text{Ring}} \cdot SC_{\text{Ring}} + \sigma_{\text{off}} \cdot SC_{\text{off}} + \sum_p a_p \lambda^p + r \quad (2)$$

where τ is the optical depth and the first sum is over all absorbers i having cross sections σ_i . The polynomial degree is p , and the residual term r contains the remaining (uncompensated) optical depth, for example from measurement noise.

As measurements consist of spectra I and I_0 , Eq. 2 is defined at many wavelengths and solved in a linear least-squares fit returning the fit factors SC_i and a_p . While the polynomial coefficients a_p are usually not used for further analysis, the so-called slant columns $SC_i = \int \rho_i ds$ are the integrated concentration ρ_i of absorber i along the light path s .

Recorded spectra contain almost no information about the altitude, in which the absorption occurred. Thus, the sensitivity to different altitudes depends predominantly on measurement geometry. The measurement is more sensitive to tropospheric absorbers, if the spectrum I is taken at small elevation angles above the horizon. This is due to the rather long light path through atmospheric layers close to the surface. On the other hand, the reference spectrum I_0 is usually a zenith spectrum either measured at a small solar zenith angle (SZA), or taken close in time to the measured spectrum I (sequential), as for the zenith viewing geometry the light path through the atmosphere is short. The obtained SC_i are therefore not absolute but the difference between measurement (I) and reference measurement (I_0), and thus called differential slant column density (DSCD). As only DSCDs are used within this study, both terms are used synonymously in the following for simplicity. Furthermore, sequential reference fits are used throughout this study.

More details of the DOAS method can be found for example in (Hönninger et al., 2004; Platt and Stutz, 2008).

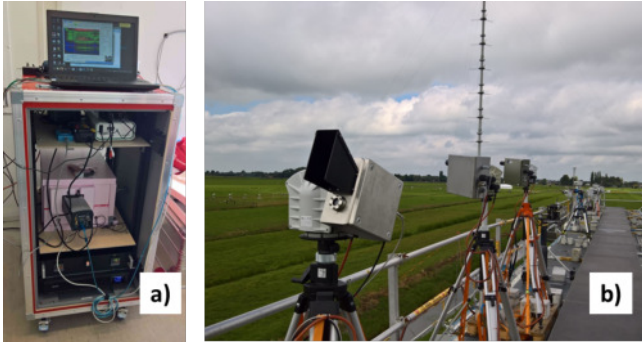


Figure 1. The IMPACT instrument installed during CINDI-2. a) Indoor parts integrated into a 19" rack. b) Telescope unit on top of the container deck (foreground). Next to IMPACT is the IUP-Bremen 2D-MAX-DOAS instrument (background) used for comparison in Sect. 4.1.

2.2 IMPACT

The IMPACT instrument, as deployed during the CINDI-2 field campaign (Sect. 2.4), is shown in Fig. 1. It consists of a Czerny-Turner type ANDOR Shamrock 303i imaging spectrometer equipped with a Newton DU940P-BU CCD camera with 2048x512 pixels covering a wavelength range from 394.5-536.4 nm. The CCD is cooled to -30°C for reducing the dark signal (thermal electrons), while the spectrometer is actively temperature stabilized to $+35^{\circ}\text{C}$ in order to avoid thermal (and therefore spectral) drifts. The spectrometer-CCD-system is installed within a 19" rack that hosts at the same time all electronics and computers for instrumental control and operation. A 15 m long light fibre bundle consisting of 69 individual fibres (0.01 mm^2 each) separates the indoor part (rack) from the telescope unit located outside. At both sides, the individual fibres are aligned vertically, i.e. stacked on top of each other (total height $\sim 9\text{ mm}$), and sorted in a way that the uppermost fibre on the entrance side is also the uppermost fibre on the spectrometer side. However, as a result of the size of the CCD and the magnification characteristics of the spectrometer, light from the upper- and lowermost fibres do not hit the detector (these fibres are imaged outside the detector area), so that only 50 individual fibres fully mapped on the CCD are used. This is a non-optimal setup as these fibres do not contribute to the used signal, but enhance straylight inside the spectrometer. Although straylight effects are compensated by the intensity offset correction in the later DOAS fit (see Sect. 2.1), light from this non-contributing fibres should be blocked in future applications to reduce potential problems with straylight.

In the telescope unit, light is collected and focused on the light fibre bundle with a commercial objective (1:1.4, focal length 8 mm). The instantaneous FOV of an individual fibre is determined by its dimension (active area) and the focal length of the objective and is about 0.8° , both in the horizontal (azimuth) as well as in the vertical (elevation) direction.

As the single fibres are stacked in the vertical dimension, the resulting hypothetical vertical FOV of the entire fibre bundle is $\sim 58^{\circ}$, i.e. all 69 stacked single fibres. The part of the measurements used for the analysis yields a vertical FOV of $\sim 41^{\circ}$ (50 individual fibres mapped on the CCD). The use of an objective instead of a single lens is necessary for overcoming spherical aberration and thus keeping the FOV constant for each individual fibre as the entrance slit has a considerable height (9 mm). This is different to usual MAX-DOAS instruments where the light is focused on a very small spot-sized fibre entrance located on the optical axis and therefore using a single lens is usually sufficient.

The vertical alignment of the sorted light fibres in combination with an imaging spectrometer - each fibre is mapped onto different CCD lines - allows to take measurements in multiple elevation angles simultaneously (see Sect. 3 for the calibration procedure of the elevation angle). Furthermore, the telescope hosts a visual camera taking snapshots for scene documentation with each measurement. The telescope unit is installed on an ENEO VPT-501 pan-tilt head, which allows pointing in any direction. However, as a result of the sufficiently large instantaneous vertical FOV, movements are performed in azimuthal direction only while the vertical tilt is kept constant (covering the elevation angles from -5° to $+36^{\circ}$) with the exception of zenith-pointing for taking reference measurements.

Figure 2 shows an example image of the CCD for a typical off-axis measurement. The image quality (separation of single fibres) is best in the center of the CCD and blurred towards the edges. This is because the horizontal (spectrometric axis) and vertical (spatial axis) foci do not coincide everywhere in the focal plane (coincidence is optimized for the center of the CCD). The CCD can be placed in different positions, resulting either in good imaging or good spectrometric quality. Here, an intermediate flange was used placing the CCD in a position that is a compromise between imaging and spectroscopic performance. As a result, the slit function changes vertically across the detector from $\approx 1\text{ nm}$ FWHM in the center of the CCD to $\approx 1.5\text{ nm}$ FWHM towards bottom and top rows. This was compensated for in the DOAS analysis by measuring and applying separate slit functions for different vertical binning ranges on the CCD associated to individual light fibres as defined in Sect. 3.

Ideally, an imaging instrument should be operated with a shutter or a frame transfer CCD in order to minimize the impact of illumination of the detector during readout. As the Newton DU940P-BU is not a frame transfer CCD and long-term operation of a shutter is limited by shutter lifetime, IMPACT measurements are taken without a shutter. As a result, the detector continues to be illuminated during the sequential CCD-readout, leading to larger signals in those rows which are read out later. As the vertical position on the CCD corresponds to different elevation angles, this leads to a smearing of the CCD image and the corresponding viewing directions.

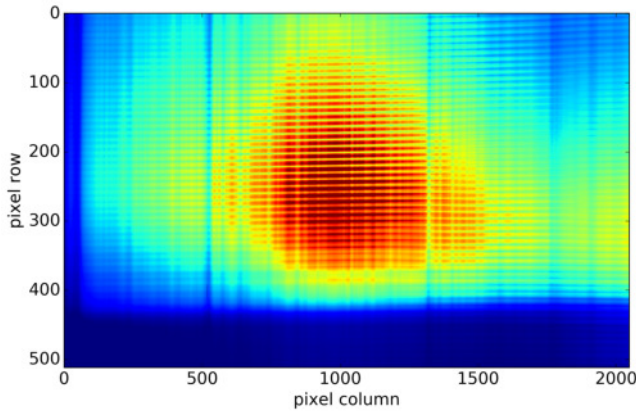


Figure 2. Typical CCD image as recorded during CINDI-2. The x-axis is the spectral direction while the y-axis represents the viewing elevation. The illumination is color-coded (blue = dark, red = large illumination). The x-axis covers 394.5–536.4 nm, i.e. for the DOAS fit of 425–490 nm only the inner part is used. On the y-axis, single fibres observing different elevation angles are separated and distinguishable. Fraunhofer lines are visible in each fibre at the same spectral position. The horizon causes a sharp transition between illuminated and non-illuminated fibres in the lower part of the image.

If illumination is assumed to be constant during measurements, a simple correction can be applied to the measured data. Starting from the very first line for which there is no smear effect, the original signal can be computed for each line successively by subtracting the additional illumination occurring during readout:

$$I_j = I_j^{meas} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} I_k \cdot \frac{t_{readout}}{t_{exposure}} \quad (3)$$

where I_j is the signal of row j without smear, I_j^{meas} is the intensity with smear, and $t_{readout}$ and $t_{exposure}$ are the length of the duration of the readout of one line and the exposure time, respectively. While this correction works well in most cases, it can fail in situations where illumination changes rapidly, for example during measurements with broken clouds and high wind speeds.

Problems regarding the smear effect generally decrease with the ratio of exposure time to readout time because the relative contribution of illumination during readout then decreases. In other words, I_j approaches I_j^{meas} for $t_{readout}/t_{exposure} \rightarrow 0$ (see Eq. 3). To take advantage of this, an optical filter blocking parts of the sunlight was installed in the telescope unit. This allowed to increase exposure times (typical IMPACT exposure times were then in the order of a few seconds) while avoiding saturation of the CCD. For every applied exposure time, dark images were recorded routinely and used to correct for dark current in the measurements prior to the DOAS analysis.

2.3 MAX-DOAS instrument (IMPACT validation)

Data of the IUP-Bremen MAX-DOAS instrument is used to validate corresponding IMPACT measurements (see Sect. 4.1). Both instruments were set-up side by side (~ 2 m distance, see Fig. 1). The MAX-DOAS instrument consists of a telescope unit (outdoor) and two CCD-spectrometer systems measuring in the UV and visible (indoor), respectively. For validation of IMPACT observations (measuring in the visible), only data collected by the visible spectrometer is used, which is an ACTON-500 covering a spectral range from 406–579 nm at a resolution of ≈ 0.85 nm. The spectrometer was actively temperature stabilized to $+35^\circ\text{C}$. A Princeton NTE/CCD 1340/100-EMB with 1340x100 pixels was used for recording spectra leading to a spectral sampling of 7–8 pixels/nm. The CCD was cooled to -30°C to reduce dark signal.

Light was collected by a telescope unit mounted (similar to IMPACT) on a commercial ENEO VPT-501 pan-tilt head allowing pointing in any viewing direction. The instrument's FOV ($\approx 1.1^\circ$) was determined by a lens focusing incoming light on an optical fiber bundle (length ≈ 20 m), which was Y-shaped and connected the telescope with both spectrometers. It consists of $2 \times 38 = 76$ single fibres. An in-telescope shutter and HgCd line lamp allow dark and wavelength-calibration measurements, which were routinely performed. A very similar instrumental set up has been used in previous campaigns, e.g. CINDI and TransBrom (Roscoe et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2012).

2.4 The CINDI-2 field campaign

The Second Cabauw Intercomparison of Nitrogen Dioxide measuring Instruments (CINDI-2) field campaign was carried out at the Cabauw Experimental Site for Atmospheric Research (CESAR), close to the villages of Cabauw and Lopik, the Netherlands, from 25 August to 7 October 2016. It was a successor of the first CINDI campaign in 2009 (Roscoe et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2012). CINDI-2 aimed at characterizing the differences between measurement approaches and systems and to progress towards harmonization of settings and methods (Hendrick et al., 2016). One key activity was a semi blind intercomparison (Kreher et al., 2019) of participating DOAS-type instruments from different international research groups. This intensive phase was scheduled for the time period 12–25 September 2016.

The measurement test site is located in a semi-rural environment, i.e. without strong local sources (except for a regional traffic road in the South potentially causing enhanced NO_x levels during rush hour) but within the polluted region between Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Utrecht.

In total, 23 groups and 31 DOAS-type instruments participated in CINDI-2. The instruments were mainly deployed at two container decks. At the lower level, 1D MAX-DOAS instruments were pointing permanently in a common azimuth

Table 2. DOAS fit settings for NO₂ and O₄.

Parameter	Value
Reference (I_0)	sequential (performed after each panoramic scan)
Fit window	425-490 nm
Polynomial	degree 5
Intensity offset correction	Offset (zeroth order)
Cross-section	Reference
O ₃	(Serdyuchenko et al., 2014) at 223 K with I_0 -correction (SC of 10^{20} molec/cm ²)
NO ₂	(Vandaele et al., 1996) at 298 K and 220 K (orthogonalised to 298 K) with I_0 -correction (SC of 10^{17} molec/cm ²)
O ₄	(Thalman and Volkamer, 2013)
H ₂ O	HITEMP (Rothman et al., 2010)
Ring	QDOAS (provided during CINDI-2)

direction of 287° (clock-wise from North) and performed vertical scanning sequences in this azimuth. 2D MAX-DOAS systems installed at the upper container deck (see Fig. 1) providing a free view around the measurement site were following a rather complex measurement protocol pre- scribing the observation geometry on a 1-minute timebase. However, for comparison with 1D instruments, a vertical scanning sequence was performed in the common azimuthal direction every hour.

The IMPACT instrument fulfilled two purposes during CINDI-2:

1. To participate in the semi-blind intercomparison. For this reason, measurements were performed in the common azimuth direction of 287° every hour for 15 minutes, together with the 1D- and 2D-instruments.
2. To study the added value of full-panoramic imaging measurements at high repetition rate, in particular for estimating the spatial distribution and its temporal variability around the measurement site. Therefore, between hourly intercomparison measurements, full-azimuthal scans in 10° steps were taken. For each azimuth direction, a complete set of elevation angles was observed simultaneously due to the imaging capability of the system. As a result, a full panoramic view was recorded every 15 minutes (in the azimuth: 36 consecutively performed measurements between -175° to 175° in 10° steps with an azimuthal FOV of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ for each measurement; in the vertical: 50 simultaneous measurements of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ vertical FOV each, covering in total $\approx -5^\circ$ to 36° elevation angle due to the vertical alignment of the single fibres as explained in Sect. 2.2). After each azimuthal scan, zenith reference spectra were recorded for every simultaneous measurement (elevation), to ensure that in the later DOAS analysis every region of the CCD (corresponding to different single fibres and thus different elevations, as explained in Sect. 3), can be evaluated with a corresponding zenith

reference measurement (which is important to eliminate biases caused by instrumental effects).

In addition to the observation geometry, also DOAS fit settings were prescribed for the CINDI-2 semi-blind inter-comparison (Tab. 2). These fit parameters have been used as well for the analysis of NO₂ and O₄ distributions within this study.

3 Calibration activities

The calibration of the elevation angles in which IMPACT is taking measurements simultaneously was performed on-site during CINDI-2 as part of a pointing calibration exercise that was organized by the Max-Planck Institute for Chemistry (MPIC), Mainz, who operated a Xenon lamp positioned in a distance of ≈ 1 km from the measurement site. Details about the exercise can be found in (Donner et al., 2019).

Fig. 3 shows a sketch of the experimental setup. IMPACT's telescope was moved in elevation steps of 0.2° vertically across the Xenon lamp. It is important to note that changing the elevation angle moves the image of the lamp across the fibre entrances in the telescope while the imaging of individual fibres on the CCD is independent of the telescope elevation. For each measurement, only one individual fibre was illuminated meaning that the spot of the Xenon lamp at the light fibre entrance was smaller than the diameter of a single fibre (Fig. 3b). Furthermore, each fibre was illuminated for ≈ 4 steps before the signal was switching into the neighbouring fibre in the following measurement. This indicates an instantaneous FOV of $\approx 0.8^\circ$ for single fibres (in agreement to Sect. 2.2).

In Fig. 4, the intensity of each CCD row (averaged in the spectral fitting region between 425-490 nm) is shown as a function of telescope elevation angle. As can be seen from this calibration matrix, the (vertical) extent of a single fibre mapped onto the CCD is typically ≈ 19 CCD rows (x-axis in Fig. 4) with the tendency of smaller extents in the center

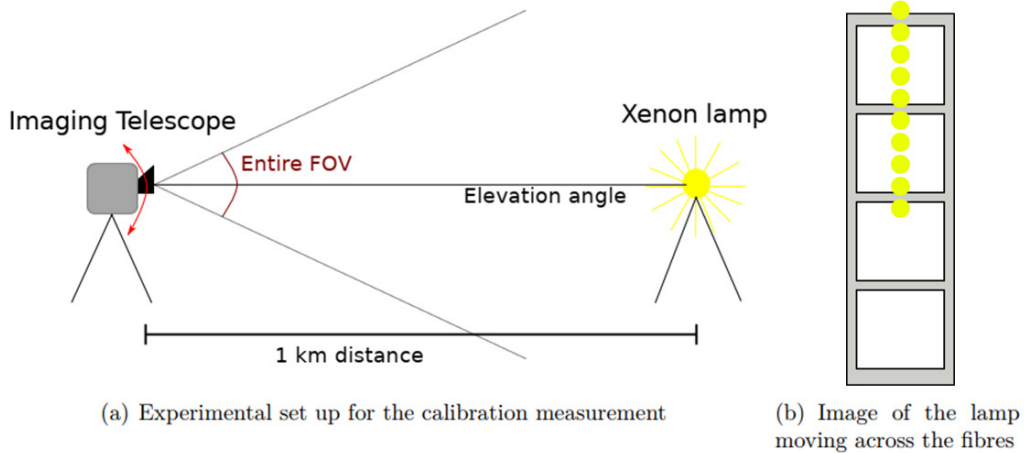


Figure 3. Scheme of calibration measurement procedure (Ostendorf, 2017).

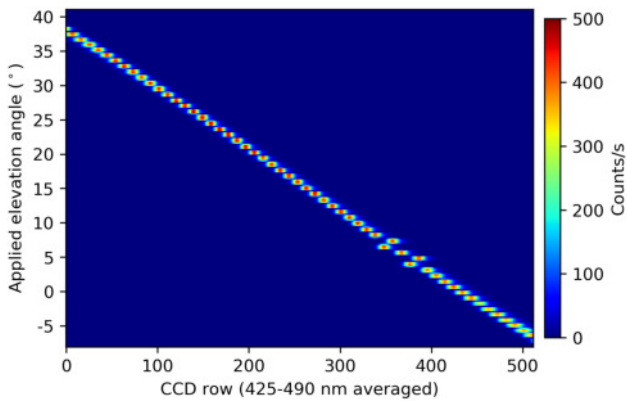


Figure 4. Elevation angle calibration matrix: The intensity in the fitting range is displayed as function of the CCD row (x-axis) and telescope elevation angle (y-axis).

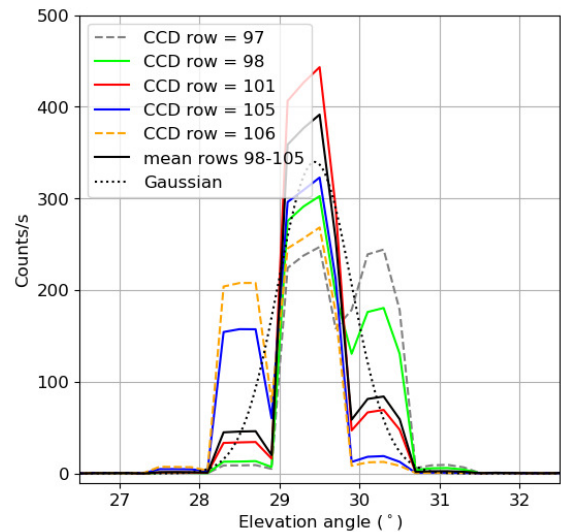


Figure 5. Cross sections through the calibration matrix. The defined binning range comprises rows 98-105 which all show a clear maximum in the same fibre, most pronounced in row 101. CCD rows 97 and 106 are rejected as their intensity distribution cannot be clearly assigned to one fibre. The mean of the binning range is plotted in black together with the corresponding Gaussian curve (same standard deviation) in order to estimate the effective FOV.

and larger extents towards the edges. This is caused by better imaging quality in the center of the CCD as mentioned before. However, the spacing between intensity maxima is only ≈ 9 CCD rows meaning that images of different individual fibres overlap each other (due to the limited imaging quality of the spectrometer). The overlapping is larger towards the edges and smaller in the center.

The pointing calibration procedure consists of 3 steps:

1. CCD rows corresponding to the same fibre were identified and binned. For this, each vertical cross section of the calibration matrix (i.e. each CCD row) was analyzed as shown in Fig. 5. CCD rows having a distinct maximum in the same fibre were binned while CCD rows having no clear maximum were rejected (as a criterion for a distinct maximum, a ratio of at least 1.5 between the intensity in different fibres was used). However, the assignment between CCD row and elevation angle is

still not unique due to the overlapping of fibre images on the CCD. This results in an effective FOV which is larger than 0.8° (see below).

2. An intensity-weighted elevation angle is calculated for each CCD row:

$$\text{Weighted elevation}_i = \frac{\sum_i \text{intensity}_i \cdot \text{elevation}_i}{\sum_i \text{intensity}_i} \quad (4)$$

where i is varied over all applied elevation angles.

3. The weighted elevations are then averaged according to the binning intervals.

In this way, 50 binning ranges and corresponding elevation angles were defined in which measurements are performed simultaneously.

The effective FOV (per binning range) was estimated by the FWHM (full width at half maximum) of Gaussians having the same standard deviation as the weighted elevation angles (calculated in step 2) within the respective binning range. For the example shown in Fig. 5, an effective elevation of 29.4° and a FOV of 1.1° is obtained.

A prominent feature in Fig. 4 are two pairs of permuted individual fibres. This was discovered on-site only and is a defect of the fibre bundle used which was corrected by the manufacturer after the campaign. However, as a result of the performed calibration procedure, the effective elevation assigned to the twisted fibres is correct. The effective FOV is approximately twice as large as for the other viewing directions because fibres which are next to each other at the spectrometer entrance and contribute due to the overlap are not properly ordered on the telescope side and therefore not pointing in adjacent elevation angles.

4 Results

4.1 Intercomparison to MAX-DOAS measurements

Figure 6 shows NO_2 DSCDs from an example MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence on 23 September 2016 under good weather and viewing conditions in comparison to IMPACT results. Note that due to instrumental restrictions, the elevation angles of IMPACT deviate slightly from the angles prescribed for the semi-blind intercomparison, while the MAX-DOAS instrument follows exactly the prescribed angles. As a result, the column for the 1° MAX-DOAS elevation (blue triangle) should be slightly larger than the IMPACT slant column (blue circles) taken at the same time because the effective elevation of IMPACT is 1.4° . Interestingly, this is not seen here (the NO_2 slant columns of both instruments agree quite well). The reason might be small misalignments between both instruments, either in elevation or azimuth, or the NO_2 profile shape (potentially in combination with differences in the FOV of both instruments).

Fig. 6 demonstrates a striking advantage of imaging-DOAS as measured NO_2 slant columns reveal a short-term temporal variation, which is resolved by IMPACT but not by the MAX-DOAS instrument. As mentioned, the 1° MAX-DOAS observation matches the IMPACT observation taken at the same time, but then MAX-DOAS continues with the next elevation (2°) while IMPACT repeats measurements of the complete elevation angle range. In the case of 1° (1.4°) elevation, the NO_2 slant columns change from $\sim 1.75 \cdot 10^{17}$ molec cm^{-2} to $\sim 1.40 \cdot 10^{17}$ molec cm^{-2} , which is about 20%. This temporal variation is not captured by the MAX-

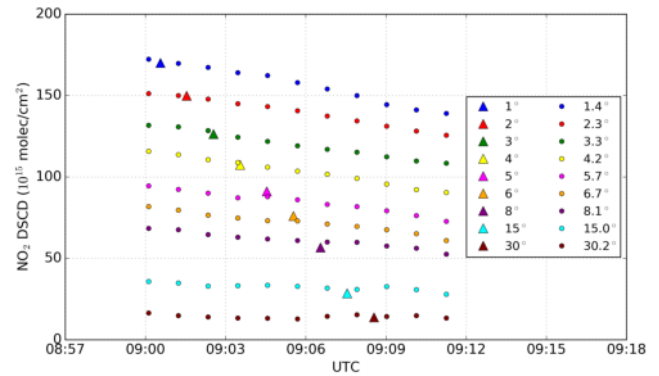


Figure 6. NO_2 DSCDs from an exemplary MAX-DOAS vertical scan (triangles) on 23 September 2016 compared to IMPACT (circles). For these intercomparison measurements, both instruments were pointing in the same fixed azimuth direction of 287° (from North) as explained in Sect. 2.4 (bullet point 1). While different prescribed elevation angles were applied consecutively by MAX-DOAS, IMPACT measures the complete vertical scanning sequence simultaneously as a result of its imaging capabilities. However, note that IMPACT's elevations deviate slightly from prescribed MAX-DOAS elevations.

DOAS instrument, with clear consequences for any profile retrieval on these data which assumes that measurements at different elevation angles probe the same atmosphere. This is further investigated in Sect. 4.3.

Figure 7 shows a correlation plot between MAX-DOAS and IMPACT NO_2 slant columns for several days within the semi-blind intercomparison phase. For each MAX-DOAS elevation angle (color-coded) the closest IMPACT vertical scan (measured simultaneously) was selected. As a quality criterion, data was rejected if no IMPACT scan was found ± 2 minutes around the MAX-DOAS measurement time (e.g. due to instrumental failures or saturated data). In addition, NO_2 slant columns from IMPACT's simultaneous elevations were interpolated to the MAX-DOAS elevation angle.

Statistical values for the correlation plot are summarized in Tab. 3. In general, an excellent agreement is found with correlation coefficients of $\approx 98\%$ for 30° elevation angle and even $> 99\%$ for elevation angles $\leq 15^\circ$. The slope is close to 1 (within 8%) and the offset is $< 1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm^{-2} with the exception of the 2° elevation, for which it is slightly larger.

In general, these intercomparison results agree well with the much more detailed (and official) intercomparison study from Kreher et al. (2019) comprising all instruments participating at CINDI-2, although values are not identical. However, this is expected as the considered time periods are different. In addition, the comparison here is between IMPACT and a single MAX-DOAS instrument only, while in the official intercomparison exercise performed by Kreher et al. (2019) a reference data set consisting of several instruments is used.

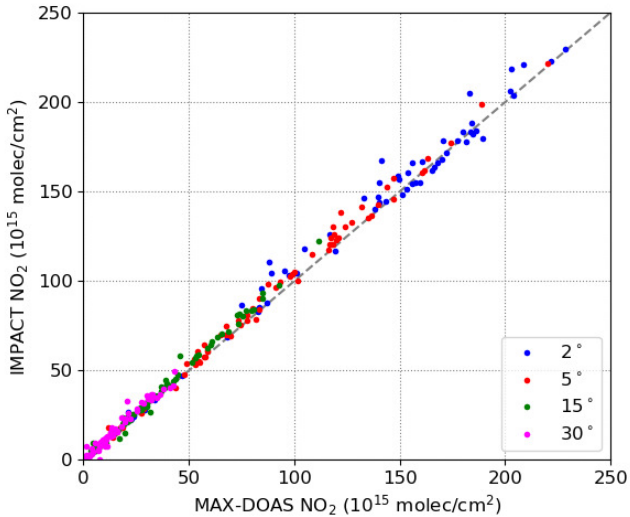


Figure 7. Correlation plot of NO_2 DSCDs from MAX-DOAS and IMPACT instrument for 17-23 September 2016 during CINDI-2. The elevation angle is color-coded, the 1:1 line is dashed.

Table 3. Statistics (correlation coefficient, slope and offset) between IMPACT and MAX-DOAS NO_2 slant columns from Fig. 7.

Elevation	Correlation	Slope	Offset (10^{15} molec/cm 2)
2°	0.995	0.99	4.76
5°	0.998	1.03	0.59
15°	0.997	1.08	-0.53
30°	0.979	1.07	0.42

4.2 Azimuthal NO_2 distribution and transport events

Figure 8 shows the campaign average of NO_2 slant columns observed from IMPACT in all azimuths and elevation angles around the measurement site (note, due to instrument problems not the entire semi-blind intercomparison period is captured here, but only 16-24 September 2016). For better visibility, the 5 lowermost CCD bins (corresponding to single fibres) pointing towards the ground have been removed as well as 2 CCD bins pointing effectively in almost the same direction as a result of the twisted fibres discussed in Sect. 3. Consequently, the panoramic view in Fig. 8 consists of 43 elevation angles on the vertical axis and 36 azimuth directions (-175° to +175° in 10° steps) on the horizontal axis. In addition, the fractional IMPACT elevation angles on the vertical axis have been rounded for better readability. We note that this has been done in subsequent figures and in the following discussion as well.

Obviously, the campaign mean NO_2 distribution around the measurement site is rather homogeneous with a slight tendency to larger values in the South-West (between -165° and -75°) which is most likely linked to a close-by local traf-

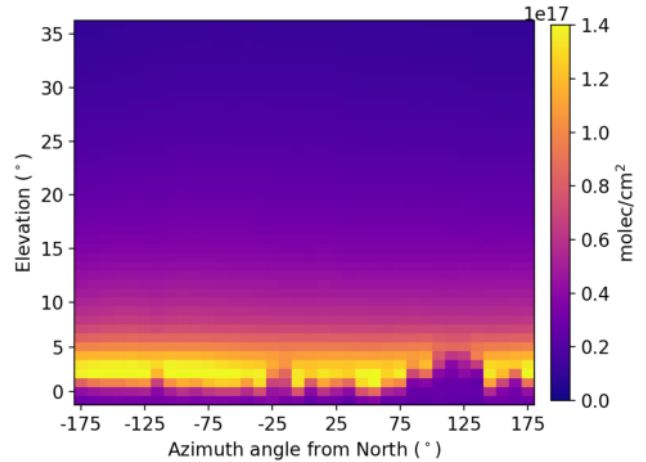


Figure 8. Color-coded NO_2 DSCDs (average of 16-24 September 2016) as a function of azimuth angle on the x-axis (N = 0°, E = 90°, S = 180°, resp. -180°, W = -90°) and elevation angle on the y-axis.

fic road (in this azimuthal regime, the light path is almost along the road, which can be seen in Fig. 12). Furthermore, the light path was obstructed by trees in $\approx 75^\circ$ to 135° azimuth and elevation angles $< 5^\circ$ which can be clearly seen by reduced NO_2 slant columns in these directions - i.e. these small values are an effect of obstacles and the resulting short light path. In addition, obstruction by other instruments occurred in -25° and by a single tree in -115° . In general, largest NO_2 slant columns are found not in 0° or 1° but $\approx 2^\circ$ elevation, which is an effect of the instrument's FOV, i.e. surface effects are present in the 0° and (to a lesser extent) in 1° elevation angle as a result of the overlap of adjacent fibres mapped onto the CCD (see Sect. 3 and Fig. 5).

The homogeneous long-term averaged NO_2 distribution around the measurement site is supporting the assumption of the absence of persisting strong local pollutants. However, much more variability is present on shorter time scales. This is demonstrated by Fig. 9a where the range of NO_2 slant columns recorded on 20 September 2016 (maximum and minimum values) as well as the average of all applied azimuths in 4° elevation angle is shown (one data point for each panoramic image). Maximum values differ from the azimuthal mean by up to a factor of 2. This is quantitatively analyzed for the whole campaign in Fig. 9b showing the maximum relative difference, i.e. the ratio between maximum NO_2 observed in any azimuth to the NO_2 averaged over all azimuths. The maximum relative differences range from 10% to 120% for individual panoramic views and are $\approx 35\%$ on average. This is an unexpectedly high value indicating large spatial inhomogeneity on short time scales even for semi-rural measurement sites like Cabauw with no large local sources and very homogeneous long-term trace gas distributions. As a result, care has to be taken if ground-based

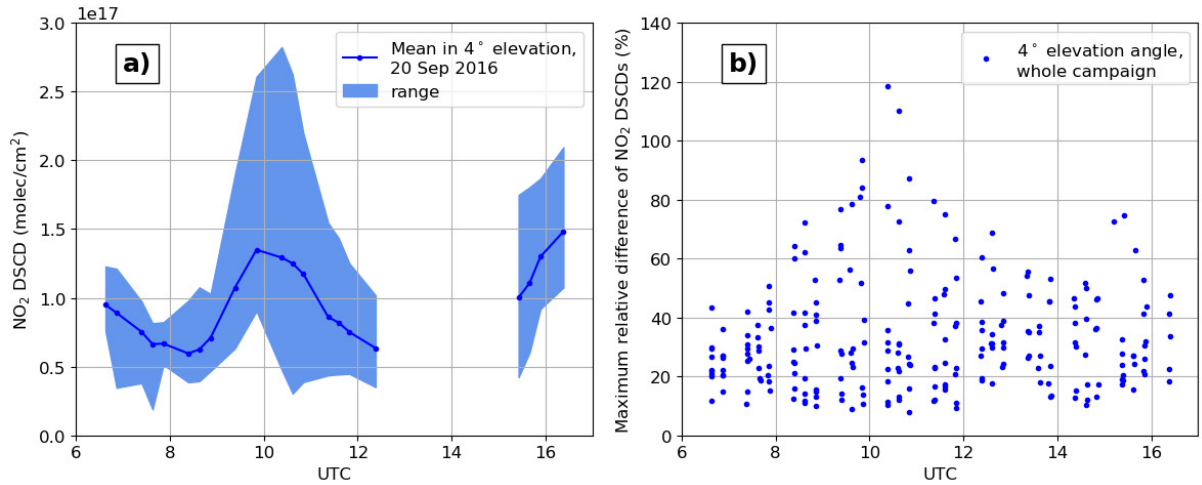


Figure 9. a) Range and mean of NO₂ DSCDs in different azimuths and 4° elevation angle on 20 September 2016 during CINDI-2. b) Maximum relative differences w.r.t. mean (azimuthal inhomogeneities within individual scans) for the whole campaign, as a function of UTC.

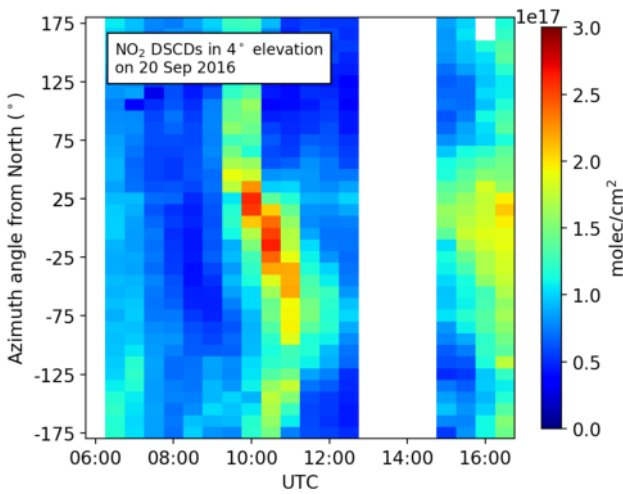


Figure 10. NO₂ DSCDs in 4° elevation angle (binned every 30 minutes) on 20 September 2016. A transport event occurred between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC.

(MAX-DOAS) measurements are used for satellite validation as a single viewing direction does not necessarily provide a good estimate of the NO₂ columns within a satellite pixel. In this case, observations in many azimuths should be taken and averaged to reduce variability present in satellite ground pixels. This is often done when validating satellite observations in urban areas where spatial gradients are expected, e.g. a validation of OMI satellite pixels in an urban, polluted area taking into account not only the azimuthal inhomogeneity around the measurement site but also changes of the NO₂ concentration along the light path (using 3D

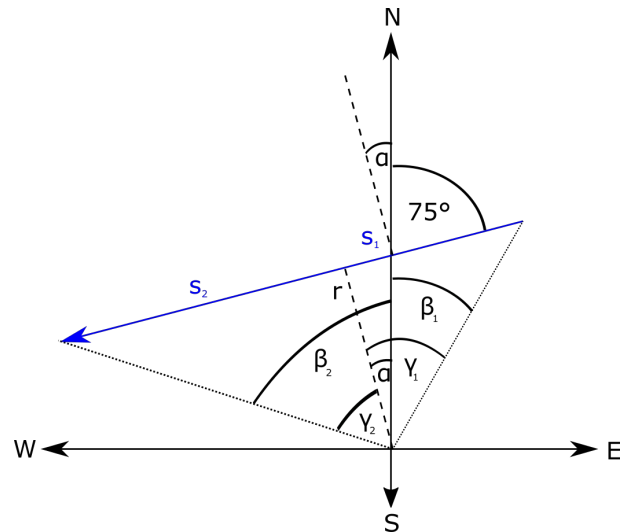


Figure 11. Geometry of transport event. The blue arrow indicates the plume's trajectory s . 75° is the mean wind direction on 20 September 2016. The black dashed line is the closest distance r between the instrument (in the origin of the coordinate system) and the trajectory, which is perpendicular to the trajectory and dividing it into s_1 and s_2 . The plume appears at 10:00 h under the azimuth angle β_1 and at 11:00 h under β_2 (w.r.t. North). γ_1 and γ_2 are the respective angles relative to the direction of closest distance (r) instead of North.

DOAS) was presented by Ortega et al. (2015). The findings derived from IMPACT measurements suggest that similar efforts are necessary when validating satellite results even in semi-rural locations like Cabauw.



Figure 12. Map of the area around the measurement site. The transport event's trajectory on 20 September 2016 is indicated by a blue arrow (source: Google maps).

One reason for the observed spatial inhomogeneity of NO_2 is the transport and passing of polluted air masses. Fig. 10 shows the temporal evolution of NO_2 slant columns in all applied azimuth directions (vertical axis) and 4° elevation angle on 20 September 2016. The data gap around 14:00 UTC is due to an instrumental failure. Besides moderately enhanced NO_2 towards the evening, a clear transport event occurred around 10:00 UTC. Between 9:00 and 10:00 UTC, increased NO_2 slant columns appear in all azimuth directions between 25° and $\sim 175^\circ$ (South). Between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC, the maximum of NO_2 is then traveling from an azimuth angle of $\beta_1 \approx 30^\circ$ to $\beta_2 \approx -70^\circ$ (see geometrical considerations in Fig. 11).

The wind direction on 20 September 2016 was quite variable with low absolute wind speeds. However, the mean wind direction was $\approx 75^\circ$ (see Tab. 1 for meteorological conditions). If the plume is transported by the wind, the direction of smallest distance r to the measurement site is $\alpha \approx -15^\circ$ (see Fig. 11). The assumption here is a straight trajectory s (blue arrow) of the plume and thus the smallest distance r (dashed line) to the measurement site is perpendicular to it. As can be seen from Fig. 10, this coincides roughly with the direction of largest NO_2 although slant columns have not necessarily to be largest at smallest distance r as the magnitude depends also for example on the (unknown) plume's shape and relative contribution of the light path through it.

The spatial distance traveled in $\Delta t = 1$ hour (10:00 to 11:00 UTC) can be estimated from wind speed:

$$s = v_{wind} \cdot \Delta t \quad (5)$$

The angles between r and the trajectory's start/end points (i.e. plumes's positions at 10:00 and 11:00 UTC) are $\gamma_1 = |\beta_1| + |\alpha|$ and $\gamma_2 = |\beta_2| - |\alpha|$ (Fig. 11). The distances s_1 , s_2 , and s are then given by (omitting the sign of γ_1 and

γ_2):

$$s_1 = r \cdot \tan(\gamma_1) \quad (6)$$

$$s_2 = r \cdot \tan(\gamma_2) \quad (7)$$

$$s = s_1 + s_2 = r(\tan(\gamma_1) + \tan(\gamma_2)) \quad (8)$$

As a result, the smallest distance r to the measurement site is:

$$r = \frac{v_{wind} \cdot \Delta t}{\tan(\gamma_1) + \tan(\gamma_2)} \quad (9)$$

Note that this calculation is in principle true for 0° elevation angle only, whereas measurements in 4° were used here. However, this was neglected for simplicity as the effect is small and below the uncertainty introduced by the variety of assumptions made. For a mean wind speed of 1.2 m/s measured at the Cabauw meteorological tower, a smallest distance of $r \approx 1.8$ km is obtained ($s \approx 4.3$ km, $s_1 \approx 1.8$ km, $s_2 \approx 2.5$ km).

Fig. 12 shows the measurement site's surrounding with smallest distance r and plume's trajectory between 10:00 and 11:00 UTC indicated as blue arrow. Obviously, the origin of the transport event can not be precisely identified, but it could be linked to a regional industrial park that is close to the starting point of the plume's trajectory. This speculation is supported by the fact that increased values of NO_2 are already found slightly earlier ($\approx 9:30$ UTC) in North-Eastern directions (see Fig. 9). In addition, increased NO_2 slant columns are seen in the zenith direction as well (not shown). This indicates that parts of the plume were overpassing the measurement site and thus a large spatial extent of the plume perpendicular to the direction of propagation, most likely as a result of the unstable wind direction. Finally, the fact that the 4° elevation angle is clearly enhanced although the plume was overpassing the instrument as well means that the plume is close to the ground which is usually an indication for a close-by origin. This is supported by vertical NO_2 profiles retrieved in Sect. 4.3.

4.3 NO_2 profiling

As already mentioned, one of IMPACT's objectives is to enable aerosol and trace gas profile retrievals rapidly in every direction around the measurement site.

4.3.1 BOREAS

The retrieval code BOREAS (Bösch et al., 2018) used here is an IUP-Bremen in-house algorithm. For the current study, profiles are retrieved on an altitude grid reaching from 0 to 4 km in 100 m steps. For MAX-DOAS profiles, NO_2 slant columns in prescribed elevation angles were used as input to BOREAS. For IMPACT profiles, all elevations from 0.6° to 10° and 29° to 31° have been used (while other simultaneously measured elevations have been excluded in order to decrease computational time).

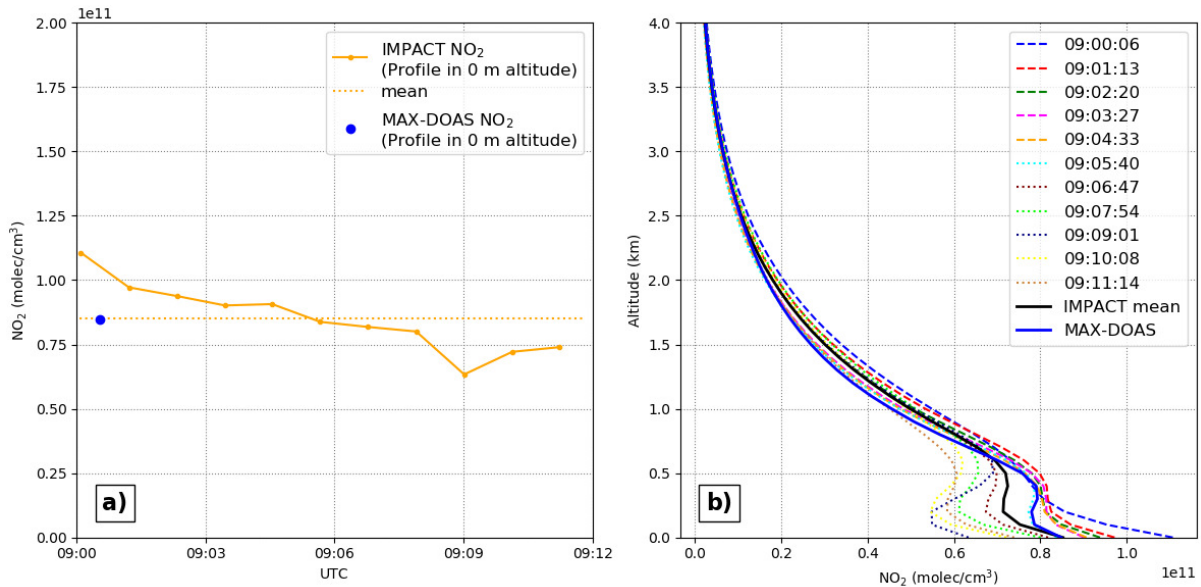


Figure 13. NO_2 surface concentrations (a) and profiles (b) retrieved from IMPACT’s high-repetition measurements in the common azimuth direction of 287° during the acquisition of one MAX-DOAS vertical scan at 23 September 2016. Corresponding NO_2 DSCDs used as input for the profile retrieval are shown in Fig. 6.

As additional input, vertical profiles of pressure and temperature were created by taking the mean of 16 different sonde measurements taken during the years 2013-2015 in De Bilt, the Netherlands. The retrieval is based on an Optimal Estimation Method (OEM), for which an exponentially decreasing a priori profile having a surface concentration of $9.13 \cdot 10^{10}$ molec/cm³ and a scaling height of 1 km has been used. For the aerosol profile retrieval, a surface extinction of 0.183 km^{-1} and again a scaling height of 1 km has been assumed. For the aerosol phase function and single scattering albedo (SSA), always the closest-in-time values obtained from the near-by Cabauw AERONET station were applied. Radiative transfer calculations were performed using SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2014) in its version 4.0.1. The BOREAS inversion algorithm is explained in detail in Bösch et al. (2018).

4.3.2 Temporal resolution

NO_2 slant columns were found to change during the acquisition time of a MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence (~ 12 min) in a fixed azimuth direction in Sect. 4.1 ($\sim 20\%$ variation was observed even under good weather and viewing conditions). If this MAX-DOAS scan is input to a profile retrieval, the change of NO_2 is 1) not resolved and 2) possibly interfering with the results, predominantly as the retrieved profiles will not simply be a temporal average of the true profiles.

This is demonstrated in Fig. 13 showing IMPACT and MAX-DOAS surface concentrations and profiles for the case

study presented above in Fig. 6. The temporal evolution of NO_2 slant columns seen in Fig. 6 is reproduced by NO_2 surface concentrations from IMPACT. Interestingly, the change in surface concentrations is even more pronounced and in the order of $\approx 40\%$ because aerosol concentrations were changing as well. In comparison, the NO_2 surface concentration derived from the single MAX-DOAS profile is of course not reflecting the NO_2 decrease, but is (in this case) close to the temporal mean. This is also shown in Fig. 13b comparing single profiles from IMPACT and their mean (solid black line) to the MAX-DOAS profile. However, apart from the surface concentrations, the MAX-DOAS profile and the mean of the IMPACT profiles do not agree. Especially in lower altitudes the MAX-DOAS profile is closer to the IMPACT profiles acquired first (between 09:00 and 09:05 UTC). This is reasonable because the MAX-DOAS vertical scanning sequence starts with small elevations, which agree with lowest elevations of the first (simultaneous) IMPACT scans (see Fig. 6). These small elevations contain much information and have a large influence on the retrieved profile in lower altitudes. In higher altitudes, the information content is limited and the retrieved profile is predominantly determined by a priori information (as discussed in Bösch et al., 2018).

4.3.3 NO_2 transport event

Full-panoramic NO_2 profiles retrieved on 20 September 2016 during the observed transport event (Sect. 4.2) are plotted in Fig. 14 as a function of azimuth and elevation angle. Viewing conditions during that time were challenging

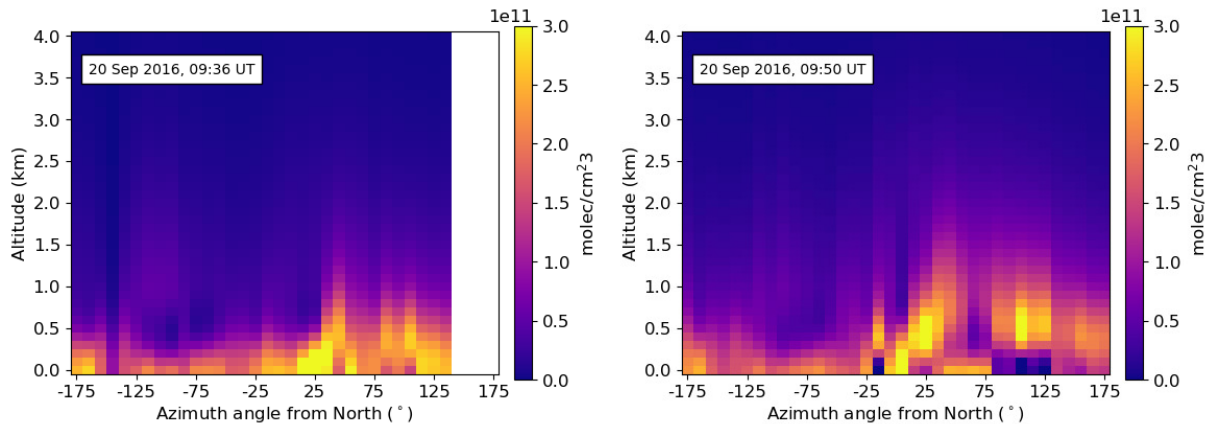


Figure 14. Retrieved NO_2 profiles around the measurement site during the observed transport event on 20 September 2016.

(broken clouds, unstable cloud conditions), affecting the retrieval results. Nevertheless, in agreement with findings in Sect. 4.2, increased NO_2 concentrations are observed between azimuths of 25° and 175° from North. As Fig. 14 (left) shows, these increasing concentrations are located close to the ground. The NO_2 is then uplifted around 10 UTC (Fig. 14 right) to altitudes of 500-1000 m and in subsequent scans transported in Westerly directions (profiles not shown due to poor viewing conditions). In general, this is in agreement with findings above and in particular the appearance of high NO_2 concentrations close to the ground and subsequent uplifting supports the conclusion derived in Sect. 4.2 of a local emission source in the vicinity of the measurement site (Lopik or the near-by industrial park).

4.4 Potential for Aerosol retrievals

In addition to NO_2 , IMPACT measurements enable the oxygen dimer O_4 to be retrieved from the same DOAS fit (Tab. 2). As O_4 is a collision complex of O_2 molecules, it depends on pressure only and is therefore a measure of the light path (e.g., Wagner et al., 2002; Wittrock et al., 2004, and references therein).

As a case study, Fig. 15 shows the measured intensity (a) and O_4 slant columns (b) from one IMPACT scan (acquisition time ~ 15 min) on 24 September 2016 under excellent viewing conditions. The position of the sun is clearly visible at $\sim 125^\circ$ azimuth (Solar Azimuth Angle, SAA) and $\sim 25^\circ$ elevation. O_4 slant columns close to the sun are reduced as a result of shorter average light paths due to strong forward scattering of aerosols. This is validated by simulated O_4 slant columns for the same measurement geometry without aerosols, i.e. pure Rayleigh scattering (c) and with aerosols (d). The simulations have been performed using the radiative transfer model SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2014) in its version 3.4.4. As input for the simulation, an exponential decrease (0.1/km surface value, AOD = 0.2) was

used as aerosol extinction profile and a Henyey-Greenstein (HG) parameterization of the aerosol phase function with an asymmetry factor of $g = 0.75$ and a single scattering albedo $SSA = 0.95$ was applied. These values were obtained from a close-by Cabauw AERONET station (AEROSOL ROBOTIC NETWORK, Holben et al. (1998); Dubovik and King (2000)).

Simulated O_4 slant columns for pure Rayleigh scattering differ strongly from measured O_4 columns, both in absolute values as well as in the azimuthal distribution. In particular, the largely reduced columns around the sun are not reproduced by the simulation showing slightly reduced columns at the SAA and SAA + 180° only as a result of the Rayleigh phase function. In contrast, simulated columns including aerosols agree much better with measured columns and cover the azimuthal distribution (Fig. 15d). Thus, the comparison between simulated and measured azimuthal distribution of O_4 columns can be used to retrieve information about the aerosol properties and in particular its phase function.

Retrievals of aerosol properties, e.g. from AERONET stations, are usually based on intensity measurements in the solar almucantar, which in this case is the azimuthal distribution in $\approx 25^\circ$ elevation. With MAX-DOAS it is also possible to incorporate O_4 measurements in the retrieval of aerosol microphysical properties and phase function as suggested by Wagner et al. (2004). Frieß et al. (2006) demonstrated a corresponding retrieval based on intensity and O_4 measurements in different azimuths and found that largest sensitivity is gained from measurements in the aureole region of the sun, therefore requiring a small FOV, protection against direct sunlight and the capability to perform automated measurements in the azimuth. While measurements very close to the sun are challenging for IMPACT due to its large FOV, two important aspects can be investigated as a result of IMPACT's capability of recording full 2D maps very rapidly around the measurement site:

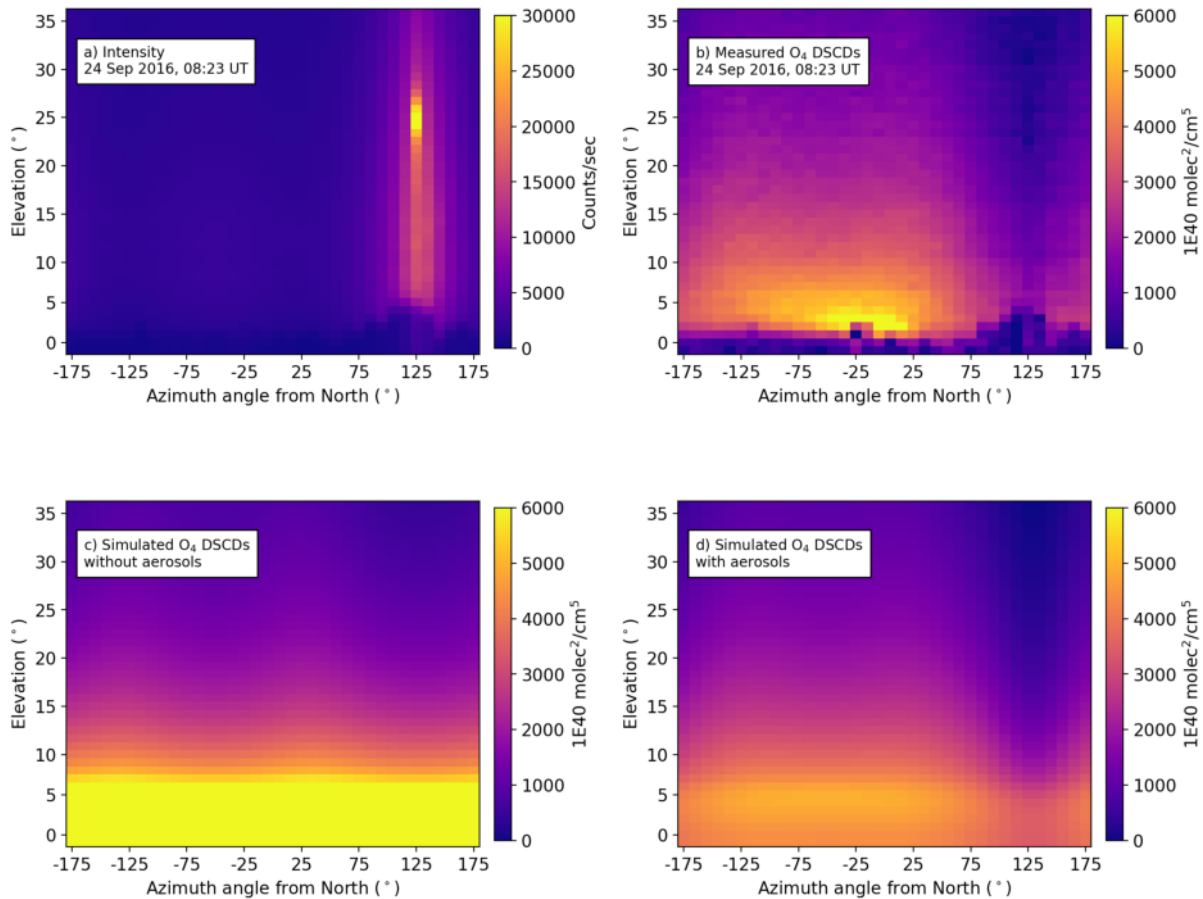


Figure 15. Intensity (a) and measured O₄ DSCDs (b) from one IMPACT panoramic scan on 24 September 2016, at 08:23 UTC mean acquisition time, in comparison to simulated O₄ DSCDs without (c) and with aerosols (d). Ground effects (obstacles discussed in Sect. 4.2) are of course not present in the simulations.

1. Is there a potential for O₄ measurements in almucantars different than the solar almucantar to contribute to/support aerosol retrievals?
2. Is there a restriction, which almucantars can be used, and what is the criterion/threshold for the use or rejection?

As IMPACT is (currently) not radiometrically calibrated, we focus on exploiting O₄ measurements rather than intensity for the retrieval of aerosol properties. In addition, it should be clearly mentioned that a full aerosol retrieval is far beyond the scope of this study, which is limited to the two research questions above.

For research question (1), it is a limitation that sky radiometers (e.g. within the AERONET network) and current state of the art MAX-DOAS instruments are measuring in only one viewing geometry at a time. A scan along the solar almucantar then provides observations at different scattering angles. In contrast to these instruments, IMPACT measures many almucantars at the same time, in the case study

shown in Fig. 15, both above and below the solar almucantar. The geometrical scattering angle (single scattering case) has been calculated for every viewing geometry and is plotted in Fig. 16c. Obviously, almucantars above and below the solar almucantar provide slightly different scattering angles and might therefore complement the classical retrieval.

However, not all almucantars should be used and even if exploiting the solar almucantar only, a threshold for the lowest usable elevation angle should be regarded (research question 2). The reason is that a retrieval of e.g. the aerosol phase function requires the azimuthal distribution of measured O₄ to be caused by the aerosol phase function only. In contrast, in the observations it is caused by the combined effect of 1) phase function, and 2) varying aerosol load and extinction profile in different azimuth directions as well as along the light path, i.e. in different distances from the instrument. For measurements taken at large elevations, the aerosol load and profile can be assumed to be homogeneous as the horizontal distance around the measurement site from which information is obtained (in a single scattering case this is the distance

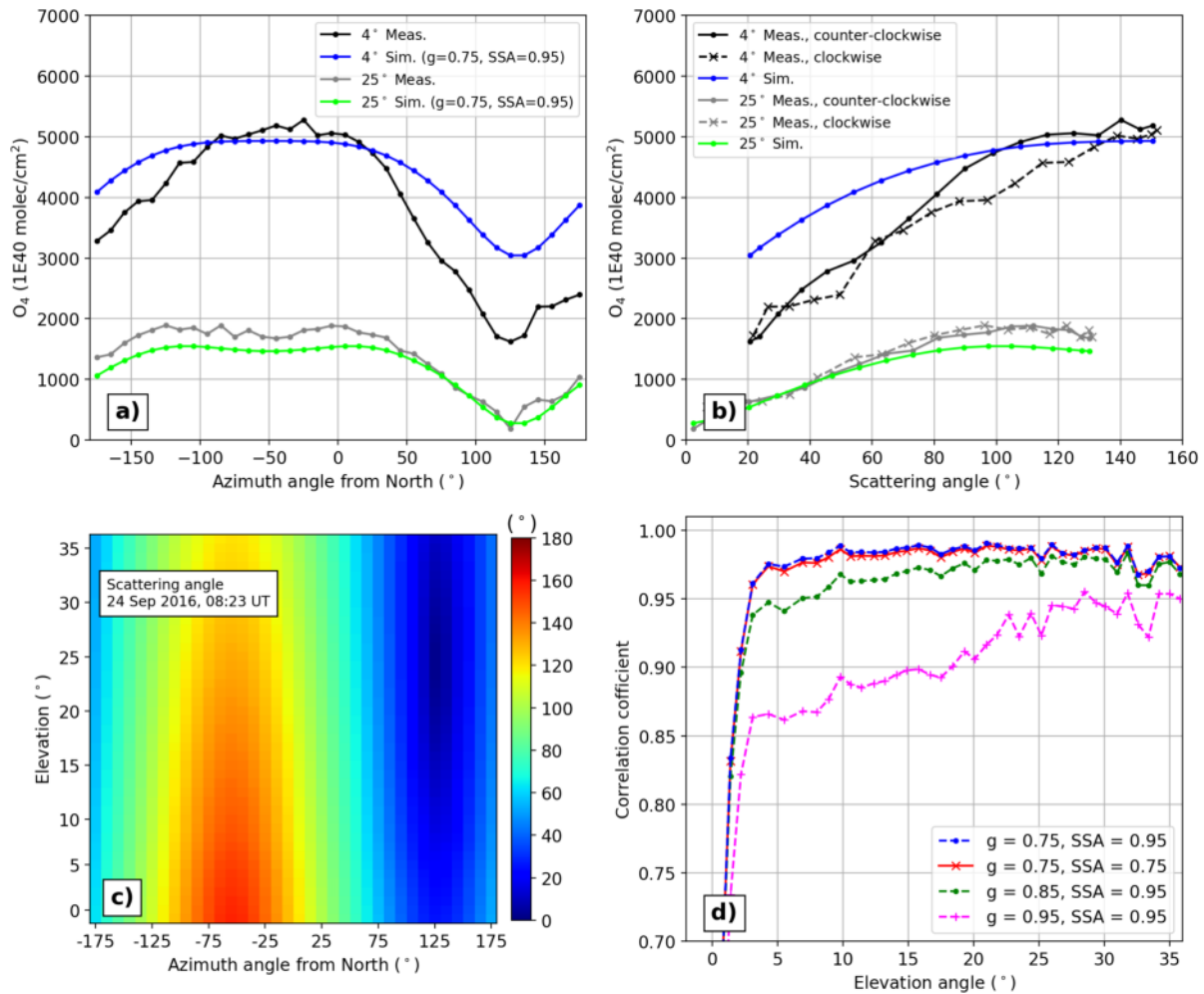


Figure 16. a) Measured and simulated almicantar scans of O_4 DSCDs on 24 September 2016 in two exemplary elevation angles (4° = close to the surface, and 25° = solar almicantar), i.e. horizontal cross sections through Figs. 15b and d. b) Same data plotted as a function of the (single) scattering angle shown in c), which has been calculated for every viewing geometry of the hemispheric scan in Fig. 15. d) Correlation coefficients between measured and simulated almicantar O_4 DSCDs for all elevation angles (i.e. all data from Fig. 15). Different input parameters (asymmetry factor g and single scattering albedo SSA) have been used for the simulation of O_4 DSCDs (for simulated data in subplots a and b, $g = 0.75$ and $SSA = 0.95$ have been used).

to the scattering point projected to the ground) is short. For small elevations, this horizontal extent around the measurement site is much larger - in first approximation it is scaling with $1/\tan(\text{elevation})$, if only averaging in the boundary layer is considered and the last scattering point is above the boundary layer height. Thus, for small elevations the aerosol load and profile can change substantially along the light path.

This effect is clearly present in Fig. 15b: Measured O_4 slant columns have a distinct maximum in small elevations centered around $\approx -25^\circ$ azimuth (ranging from $\approx -60^\circ$ to 25° azimuth), which is not reproduced by simulated O_4 columns. As illustrated in Fig. 16c, this is not the location of largest scattering angles (occurring at $\approx -55^\circ$ azimuth) and therefore not related to the O_4 maximum expected in

backscattering direction (due to preferred forward scattering and consequently larger light paths in backscattering direction). Furthermore, if the O_4 maximum was an effect of the phase function, a second maximum would appear close to the ground at $\approx -85^\circ$ azimuth (given that the aerosol profile would not change with the azimuth), because scattering angles in -25° and -85° azimuth are identical (see Fig. 16c). Obviously, no second O_4 maximum is present at -85° azimuth indicating that the aerosol load seen in small elevation angles changes with the viewing azimuth. In particular, the observed maximum in O_4 slant columns at -25° azimuth indicates smaller aerosol loads close to the ground (longer light paths) in this direction. As a result, almicantar scans in

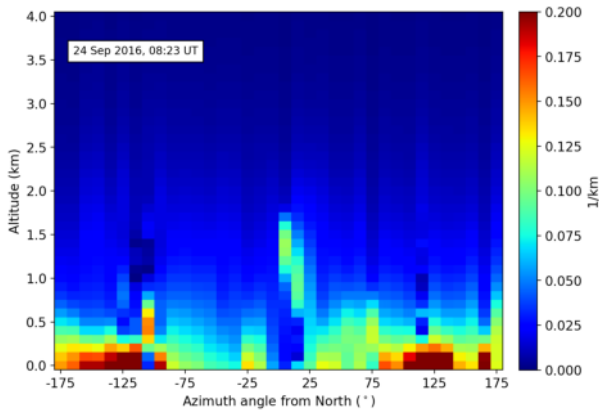


Figure 17. Retrieved aerosol extinction profiles around the measurement site for the azimuthal scan shown in Fig. 15.

small elevation angles should not be used to retrieve aerosol information.

In order to quantify this finding, Fig. 16a shows two specific azimuthal distributions of measured (solid) and simulated (dashed) O_4 , i.e. two horizontal cross-sections of Fig. 15b and c, for elevation angles of 4° , and 25° (solar almucantar), respectively. While the agreement between measurement and simulation is very good in 25° elevation, differences in 4° are much larger, both in absolute values and in shape. Fig. 16b shows the same data, but plotted as a function of scattering angle. The solid line represents scattering angles counter-clockwise (left) from the position of the sun (SAA = 125°), and the dashed line clockwise (right). For the solar almucantar, both lines agree quite well with each other as well as with the simulation (green line) indicating that the aerosol seen in 25° elevation is rather homogeneous around the measurement site and aerosol parameters used in the simulation are realistic. In contrast, the 4° almucantar does not match the simulation and - more importantly - O_4 columns observed clockwise from the incoming direction show severe differences and another shape than those recorded counter-clockwise. This cannot be explained with the aerosol phase function, which is symmetrical. This supports the conclusion that inhomogeneous aerosol content around the measurement site is seen in 4° elevation, i.e. close to the ground. This is furthermore supported by aerosol extinction profiles retrieved with BOREAS (Fig. 17) showing smaller values close to the ground between -50° and 25° azimuth. However, the BOREAS aerosol retrieval for this day is challenging due to the relatively small absolute aerosol load (AOD ≈ 0.2) and consequently Fig. 17 should not be over-interpreted (the general patterns appear to be reliable, but individual values should be regarded with care).

To elaborate a threshold of usable almucantars and to test their potential for aerosol retrievals, various SCIATRAN simulations have been performed based on different aerosol parameters. For each set of parameters, resulting correlation

coefficients between measured and simulated O_4 azimuthal distributions are shown in Fig. 16d as a function of elevation angle. Aerosol parameters leading to largest correlations are then compared to independently measured quantities from the AERONET station.

The blue curve in Fig. 16d corresponds to the original simulation shown in the previous plots using $g = 0.75$ and $SSA = 0.95$. For small elevations, correlation coefficients increase rapidly. This is due to a combination of the observed obstruction by trees discussed above and true inhomogeneities of the O_4 azimuthal variation. The steep increase is followed by a much shallower increase until a plateau is reached at $\approx 10^\circ$. For very large elevations $> 30^\circ$, correlation coefficients decrease slightly, most likely as an effect of smaller O_4 columns and thus poorer statistics.

It is found that changes of the SSA (red line) lead to almost the same results, i.e. the pure analysis of the shape of O_4 columns at a specific almucantar is (not surprisingly) insensitive to the SSA.

The green and the magenta line were performed with the same SSA as the original simulation but larger asymmetry factors g . Resulting correlation coefficients are clearly smaller.

To conclude, the variation of O_4 columns along almucantars contain information about the asymmetry factor g . As can be seen from Fig. 16d, the value of $g = 0.75$ measured by the close-by AERONET station leads to the largest correlation coefficients. However, it should be mentioned that simulations using smaller asymmetry factors (not plotted) show a similar performance unless g reaches very small values ($g < 0.5$). Consequently, the simple approach of using correlation coefficients as performed here is not a sufficient way to determine g with good precision. However, the potential of using O_4 (ideally together with intensity) in more sophisticated retrievals appears to be promising.

For the two initial research questions it can be concluded:

1. In general, different almucantars recorded simultaneously by IMPACT have slightly different scattering angles meaning that the information content they provide is not redundant. Consequently, these almucantars have a potential to be used in future retrievals of the aerosol phase function. In particular, use of almucantar O_4 columns turned out to contain information about the asymmetry factor g , but to be insensitive to the SSA.
2. As a compromise, 10° elevation appears to be a reasonable threshold for deriving aerosol phase function information from almucantar O_4 measurements. Note, this threshold corresponds to the special conditions during the analysed case study (AOD, aerosol profile, weather and viewing conditions, etc.) as well as the true spatial homogeneity around the measurement location. However, results may be representative for semi-rural sites like Cabauw where the aerosol profile is assumed to be rather spatially constant. Within cities, the spatial

variability of aerosols will be much larger and therefore more of the lower almucantars would have to be excluded. As a recipe for unclear aerosol conditions, checking the agreement between measured O_4 columns obtained clockwise and counter-clockwise from the SAA (as in Fig. 16b) gives a first indication whether data from the respective elevation angle can be used or not.

5 Summary and conclusions

An advanced imaging-DOAS instrument (IMPACT) has been developed at the Institute of Environmental Physics of the University of Bremen. In contrast to most imaging-DOAS instruments reported thus far, IMPACT is not restricted to selected scenes but provides full-azimuthal coverage around the measurement site. Azimuthal pointing is performed stepwise by a motor while observations in 50 elevation angles are performed simultaneously due to the imaging capabilities. As a result, a complete panoramic scan is achieved in ~ 15 minutes allowing to retrieve tropospheric trace gas profiles around the measurement site at high temporal resolution. In terms of robustness and flexible setup, IMPACT has similar advantages to those of the state-of-the-art MAX-DOAS instruments as a result of separating indoor (spectrometer) and outdoor (light collecting) parts.

The instrument took part in the CINDI-2 intercomparison field campaign in Cabauw, the Netherlands, in September 2016, where an overall excellent agreement with MAX-DOAS measurements was obtained (correlation $> 99\%$ for coincident observations). In contrast to MAX-DOAS, IMPACT is able to resolve the temporal variation of NO_2 slant columns in a fixed azimuth direction, which was observed to be as large as 20% during a MAX-DOAS scanning sequence (10-15 minutes) in a case study under good weather and viewing conditions. This temporal variation of NO_2 is present in profiles retrieved from IMPACT measurements as well and corresponding surface concentrations of NO_2 showed even larger changes of up to 40%. This variation is missed by the MAX-DOAS profile that agrees better with IMPACT profiles acquired first, as a consequence of the scanning sequence which starts with small elevations containing most information.

The azimuthal distribution of NO_2 around the measurement site was found to be very homogeneous on a long term scale (campaign average), but highly variable on shorter timescales (snapshots). In small elevations, relative differences of NO_2 slant columns up to $\sim 120\%$ (on average 35%) were observed within one hemispheric scan. In conclusion, measurements in one direction are not enough to characterize tropospheric NO_2 , which is in particular crucial for MAX-DOAS validation of tropospheric NO_2 from satellites.

The variability of the NO_2 observed is best explained by the transport of pollution. Due to the fast data acquisition

and full azimuthal coverage of IMPACT, the trajectory of an exemplary NO_2 transport event could be derived and its most probable source region was identified in the vicinity of the measurement station (near-by industrial park or village of Lopik). This is supported by BOREAS profile inversions showing increasing NO_2 concentrations close to the ground in the azimuthal direction of the trajectory's origin (the assumed source). The NO_2 plume is then uplifted and transported along the measurement site in agreement to the trajectory derived before.

The comparison of measured and simulated O_4 slant columns demonstrated the huge impact of aerosols on radiative transfer and thus the need to accurately consider them in air mass factor calculations and profile inversions. The azimuthal distribution of O_4 columns was found to be sensitive to the asymmetry factor g , and for a test case, a simple trial and error retrieval was performed reproducing the value of g from a near-by AERONET station. As a further advantage, IMPACT is not limited to the solar almucantar as many elevations and therefore several almucantars are measured simultaneously. Each recorded almucantar observes slightly different scattering angles and provides therefore complementary information. However, care must be taken as for small elevations the influence area (i.e. the spatial region around the measurement site from which information is collected) is increasing. Thus, inhomogeneities of the aerosol distribution around the measurement site were found especially for elevation angles $< 10^\circ$. Consequently, only almucantars $> 10^\circ$ elevation should be used in retrievals of aerosol phase functions. It is important to note that this holds true for specific conditions during CINDI-2 and the spatial aerosol variability at Cabauw. Nevertheless, Cabauw is believed to be representative for semi-rural environments. For use in different environments, the agreement between O_4 columns clockwise and counter-clockwise to the SAA should be checked before corresponding data is used in an aerosol phase function retrieval.

In summary, the added value of full-panoramic imaging-DOAS sensors like IMPACT, in comparison to MAX-DOAS instruments, is predominantly the ability to resolve the spatial and temporal trace gas variability around the measurement site, which has been demonstrated here for NO_2 . Thus, as a perspective for future applications, full-panoramic imaging-DOAS sensors have a large potential in particular for satellite validation activities, as for this purpose knowledge of the variability of trace gases around the measurement site (i.e. within a satellite pixel) is crucial.

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