



1 EVALUATION OF UV AEROSOL RETRIEVALS FROM AN OZONE LIDAR

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17

18 Abstract

19 Aerosol retrieval using ozone lidars in the ultraviolet (UV) band is challenging but necessary for correcting aerosol
20 interference in ozone retrieval and for studying the ozone-aerosol correlations. This study describes the aerosol
21 retrieval algorithm for a tropospheric ozone lidar, quantifies the retrieval error budget, and intercompares the aerosol
22 retrieval products at 299 nm with those at 532 nm from a high spectral resolution lidar (HSRL). After the cloud-
23 contaminated data is filtered out, the aerosol backscatter or extinction coefficients at a 30-m and 10-min resolution
24 retrieved by the ozone lidar are highly correlated with the HSRL products, with a coefficient of 0.95 suggesting that
25 the ozone lidar can reliably measure aerosol structures with high spatio-temporal resolution when the signal-to-noise
26 ratio is sufficient. The actual uncertainties of the aerosol retrieval from the ozone lidar generally agree with our
27 theoretical analysis. The backscatter color ratio (backscatter-related exponent of wavelength dependence) linking the
28 coincident data measured by the two instruments at 299 and 532 nm is 1.34 ± 0.11 while the Ångström (extinction-
29 related) exponent is 1.49 ± 0.16 for a mixture of urban and fire smoke aerosols within the troposphere above Huntsville,
30 AL, USA.

31 1. Introduction

32 A tropospheric ozone differential absorption lidar (DIAL) makes measurements of vertical ozone profiles, typically
33 at two wavelengths chosen between 277 and 300 nm with a separation less than 12 nm, by weighing several parameters
34 such as the ozone absorption cross sections, solar background, dynamic range of the detection system, and interference
35 from aerosols and other species (e.g., Alvarez et al., 2011; De Young et al., 2017; Fukuchi et al., 2001; Kempfer et
36 al., 1994; McDermid et al., 2002; Proffitt and Langford, 1997; Strawbridge et al., 2018; Sullivan et al., 2014). Vertical



37 aerosol profiles are of high interest not only because they are needed for aerosol correction in ozone lidar retrievals,
38 but also because simultaneous ozone and aerosol vertical profile measurements provide unique information on their
39 interactions and sources of pollutant transport (Browell et al., 1994; Newell et al., 1999). However, there is currently
40 no consensus on the reliability of the aerosol retrievals produced by ozone lidars due to the difficulty of solving the
41 three-component lidar equation and the large variability in aerosol optical properties associated with the multiplicity
42 of aerosol types and size distributions.

43 The most widely used solution for the elastic single-wavelength aerosol lidar equation is the analytic method
44 developed by Klett (1981). The inversion method then inspired Fernald (1984) to publish a computer algorithm scheme
45 to solve the more general two-component (aerosol and molecular) atmospheric lidar equation. The Klett (1981)
46 inversion requires *a priori* for the lidar ratio (i.e., aerosol extinction-to-backscatter ratio, represented by “*S*” thereafter)
47 to link the aerosol backscatter with its extinction for solving the lidar equation. Lasers used for aerosol lidars are
48 preferred in the visible and infrared bands, typically 532 or 1064 nm, where the ozone absorption is negligible
49 compared to molecular and Mie scattering. In the UV band for an ozone lidar, the ozone absorption may not be trivial.
50 Some ozone lidars have an aerosol channel available, either independently or sharing receiving optics with the ozone
51 channel (e.g., Browell et al., 1994; De Young et al., 2017; Gronoff et al., 2019; Kovalev and McElroy, 1994; Uchino
52 and Tabata, 1991). For most of the traditional two-wavelength ozone lidars without an aerosol channel, although the
53 aerosol retrieval algorithm has been discussed in a few literatures (e.g., Eisele and Trickl, 2005; Langford et al., 2019;
54 Papayannis et al., 1999; Sullivan et al., 2014), the evaluation of the aerosol retrieval product and its error budget have
55 rarely been addressed. Due to a significant wavelength difference with aerosol lidars, several aspects of the aerosol
56 retrieval using an ozone lidar are worth noting. Firstly, the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) for ozone lidars decays quicker
57 with altitude due to more significant UV molecular (i.e., Rayleigh) scattering and ozone absorption resulting in a lower
58 retrievable altitude than aerosol lidars. Secondly, because the molecular and ozone components become more
59 important for a UV wavelength compared to visible and infrared wavelengths, the uncertainties in aerosol retrieval
60 propagated from the calculation of these two components are expected to be larger for an ozone lidar than aerosol
61 lidars. Thirdly, *S* and the wavelength dependence used for the ozone lidar wavelengths may be different from those
62 used for the longer aerosol lidar wavelengths (Ackermann 1998; Eck et al., 1999).

63 The primary objectives of this article are to investigate the performance of our aerosol retrieval algorithm
64 and quantify its error budget for the ozone lidar. The secondary goal is to seek the overall wavelength dependence
65 between the aerosol optical properties measured by the ozone lidar at 299 nm and by a high spectral resolution lidar
66 (HSRL) at 532 nm.

67 **2. Instruments and Data Processing**

68 **2.1. Ozone Lidar**

69 The Rocket-city Ozone (O₃) Quality Evaluation in the Troposphere (RO₃QET) lidar is located on the campus of the
70 University of Alabama in Huntsville (UAH) at 34.725 °N and 86.645 °W at 206 m asl and is one of the six systems of
71 the Tropospheric Ozone Lidar Network (TOLNet) (<http://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/TOLNet>). This system
72 measures ozone from 0.1 km up to about 12 km during nighttime and up to about 6 km during daytime with a temporal



73 resolution of 2 min. The vertical resolution of the lidar retrievals varies from 150 m in the lower troposphere to 750
74 m in the upper troposphere in order to keep the measurement uncertainty within $\pm 10\%$ (Kuang et al., 2013).

75 The transmitter comprises two Raman-shifted lasers at 289 and 299 nm. Two 30-Hz, 266-nm Nd:YAG lasers
76 pump two 1.8-m Raman cells, respectively, with mixtures of active gas and buffer gas to generate 289 and 299-nm
77 lasers with an average pulse energy of about 5 mJ. The receiving system consists of three receivers with diameters of
78 2.5 cm, 10 cm, and 40 cm, respectively, and four photomultipliers (PMTs) similar to that described by Kuang et al.
79 (2013) except that the solar filters have been replaced by 300-nm short-pass filters for all telescopes. Channels -1, 2,
80 3, 4 represent the 2.5-cm, 10% of the 10-cm, 90% of the 10-cm, and the 40-cm telescope channels, respectively. Since
81 the modification of Channel-4 through the addition of narrow-band solar filters was not completed before the time
82 period of this study, data from this channel was not used in this work, resulting in that the uncertainties for ozone
83 retrievals above 6 km during daytime were often too large due to strong solar background. Lidar signal counting was
84 accomplished by four Licel transient recorders (Licel company, Germany) with both analog and photoncounting (PC)
85 modes, with a sampling rate of 40 MHz corresponding to a 3.75-m fundamental resolution. Derivatives of the off-line
86 analog signal serve to label clouds by setting an appropriate threshold. The cloud filtering process should be conducted
87 carefully because an elastic lidar without a polarization channel is not capable of accurately distinguishing aerosols
88 and clouds solely by their backscatter properties. Therefore, the data with clouds lower than 2 km was discarded. Five
89 2-min lidar data intervals were combined to give a 10-min lidar-signal integration time to improve the SNR. Further,
90 six of the 3.75-m fundamental bins were integrated for all channels. In addition, dead-time correction (for PC signal
91 only), background correction, analog-PC signal merging, and signal-induced noise correction were performed.

92 **2.2. Introduction of the Aerosol Retrieval Algorithm and Uncertainty Estimation**

93 The aerosol profiles were retrieved with an iterative DIAL algorithm. A brief description of this algorithm is
94 provided in this section, with further details in Appendix A. A first-order Savitzky-Golay differentiation filter with a
95 second-degree polynomial was applied to the logarithm of the signal ratios to compute the first-cut ozone profile. This
96 initial ozone profile was substituted back into the three-component lidar equation to derive the profile of aerosol
97 backscatter coefficients at 299 nm by assuming a constant S of 60 sr and boundary value of the aerosol backscatter
98 coefficient at a far-range reference altitude, about 10 km. During the daytime, the ozone retrieval was limited by the
99 lower SNR of the 289-nm channel, but the 299-nm channel had much better SNR due to lower atmospheric extinction
100 and was able to measure aerosol up to higher altitudes. S is highly variable with aerosol characteristics, humidity, and
101 wavelength (Ackermann, 1998; Strawbridge et al., 2018; Mishchenko et al., 1997). The *S a priori* value assumed for
102 this study represents a mix of urban and smoke aerosols during the lidar observations (Ackermann, 1998; Burton et
103 al., 2012; Catrall et al., 2005; Groß et al., 2013; Müller et al., 2007). The *a priori* is application dependent. In the
104 aerosol retrieval uncertainty discussion in Appendix B, we assume a $\pm 20\%$ uncertainty for S based on an average
105 standard deviation obtained from prior observations (Müller et al., 2007).

106 Molecular backscatter and extinction profiles were computed from local radiosonde data. Then, the aerosol
107 profile was substituted into the lidar equation again to obtain a stable solution, usually within three iterations. This
108 aerosol profile was further employed to calculate the aerosol correction for ozone retrievals using the first-order Taylor
109 approximation (Browell et al., 1985) by assuming a power law wavelength dependence for the aerosol extinction and



110 choosing an appropriate Ångström exponent. Since this paper focuses only on aerosol retrieval, details of the ozone
111 correction will be described in a future article. Finally, the aerosol profiles derived by the three altitude channels were
112 merged to a single profile in the overlapping altitude zones, i.e., 0.5–1 km for Channels 1 and 2 and 1.5–2 km for
113 Channels 2 and 3.

114 The primary uncertainty sources for the aerosol lidar retrievals are the uncertainties in lidar signal
115 measurement, boundary value assumption for aerosol backscatter coefficient, air density measurement, *S a priori*, and
116 ozone profile input. The relative importance of these sources are altitude dependent. In the planetary boundary layer
117 (PBL) where the air is typically turbid, the *S* uncertainty is dominant while other sources are minor (only few percent).
118 The uncertainty of *S* influences the uncertainty of the aerosol backscatter through a complicated relationship. However,
119 the magnitude of the above two uncertainties can be approximately seen to be close. At the far range (higher than 7
120 km), lidar signal detection noise and inaccurate boundary value assumption are important. Influence from both of the
121 above sources, especially the boundary value, on the aerosol retrieval quickly decreases as you go towards the ground
122 from the far range. In the middle range (PBL top – 7 km), both the air density measurement error and lidar signal
123 detection noise are essential. Uncertainty due to ozone profile input is relatively unimportant and is only few percent
124 at most altitudes. Figure B1 presents an example of the aerosol backscatter uncertainty calculated from 10-min
125 nighttime RO₃QET lidar data. The error budget estimate generally justifies the choice of using 6 km as the maximum
126 altitude for RO₃QET-HSRL comparison since the total uncertainty for the RO₃QET aerosol retrieval could be
127 unacceptably large (i.e., persistently larger than 100%).

128 **2.3. HSRL**

129 The University of Wisconsin HSRL (Eloranta, 2005) was deployed in Huntsville, AL from 19 June to 4 November
130 2013 and operated almost 24 hours every day to support the Studies of Emissions and Atmospheric Composition,
131 Clouds and Climate Coupling by Regional Surveys SEAC⁴RS campaign (Kuang et al., 2017). The HSRL transmitter
132 was a diode-pumped Nd:YAG laser at 532 nm with a pulse energy of about 50 μJ and a pulse repetition frequency of
133 4 kHz. The expanded laser beam was transmitted coaxially with a 40-cm telescope with a tiny field of view of 100
134 μrad to reduce solar background. The HSRL spectral filtering can separate the molecular backscatter from the aerosol
135 backscatter due to the molecular Doppler broadening effect while the particulate backscatter remains spectrally
136 unbroadened. Aerosol backscatter coefficients can then be calculated as the difference between the total return and
137 the molecular component (Grund and Eloranta, 1991). We intercompare the backscatter coefficients measured by the
138 two instruments to avoid the extra uncertainty due to the *S* assumption for the HSRL. The HSRL provides aerosol
139 products with a 30-m vertical resolution and 1-min temporal resolution from near the surface to 15 km. To achieve
140 sufficient SNR for both HSRL and ozone lidar and to reduce the uncertainty arising from the clock bias of the
141 controlling computers, we adopt 10-min temporal average and 30-m spatial average for both HSRL and ozone lidar
142 in the intercomparison study. The HSRL has a backscatter measurement precision better than 10⁻⁷ (m sr)⁻¹ for a 1-min
143 signal average (Reid et al., 2017), which represents an estimated precision for the extinction coefficient of better than
144 2×10⁻⁶ m⁻¹ for a 10-min average.

145 **3. Intercomparison Results**



146 We select four time periods 21–23 June, 14–15 August, 27–28 August, and 5–6 September 2013 to investigate the
147 ozone lidar capability for measuring aerosol column and range-resolved profiles. All four cases have coincident ozone
148 lidar and HSRL observation periods longer than 24 hours, fully covering the convective mixing layer development
149 and collapse processes (Klein et al., 2019) and having significant smoke layers in the free troposphere. Due to the
150 significant extinction and potential multiple scattering caused by clouds, the ozone lidar is incapable of measuring
151 either ozone or aerosol accurately above clouds, especially thick clouds. Therefore, data contaminated by clouds is
152 filtered out. At this time, the narrow-band interference filters had not been incorporated into the receiving system and
153 the wide-band filter resulted in substantial solar background during the daytime; hence, we set 6 km asl as the
154 maximum altitude for intercomparison. The uncertainty of the aerosol retrieval owing to lidar signal measurement
155 error is dominant at far range and is determined by lidar SNR as shown in Appendix B.2. The solar background is an
156 important noise resulting in the lidar signal measurement error during daytime and is partly responsible for the high
157 aerosol retrieval uncertainty above 6 km as shown by the example in Figure B1. The 10-min HSRL profiles are
158 interpolated to the times of the ozone lidar data.

159 First, we investigate the correlation of the integrated (or column) aerosol backscatter between the ozone lidar
160 and HSRL to obtain a general relationship between their averages. Figure 1 shows that the RO₃QET- and HSRL-
161 derived integrated backscatter coefficients for all four cases are highly correlated, with a Pearson correlation
162 coefficient of 0.99. The 493 sampling profiles cover 82 hours of coincident ozone lidar and HSRL observations. We
163 define the aerosol backscatter color ratio ($\hat{\alpha}_\beta$) as (Burton et al., 2012):

$$164 \quad \hat{\alpha}_\beta = -\frac{d(\ln\beta_A)}{d(\ln\lambda)} = -\frac{\ln\left(\frac{\beta_A^{299}}{\beta_A^{532}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{299}{532}\right)}, \quad (1)$$

165 where β_A^{299} and β_A^{532} represent the aerosol backscatter coefficient at 299 and 532 nm, respectively. The subscript “A”
166 represents the “aerosol” component to be distinguished with the “molecular” contribution which is represented by
167 subscript “M” in the Appendix. $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ is an exponent denoting backscatter-related wavelength dependence, to be
168 distinguished from the commonly-used Ångström exponent (Ångström, 1929) that refers to the wavelength
169 dependence of optical thickness or extinction coefficient. $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ is also different from another often-used concept, “color
170 ratio of the lidar ratios” which refers to the ratio of S at two different wavelengths. The slope of the regression (2.16)
171 results in the best least-square fit value of 1.34 for $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ at 299 and 532 nm. The uncertainty of the column β_A^{299} is
172 expected to be smaller than the uncertainty for β_A^{299} at a particular altitude and for a 10-min integration time (in Figure
173 B1) since the average over longer time and altitude range greatly reduces the random noise. If the uncertainty of the
174 column β_A^{299} measurements is estimated to be 20% which is primarily due to the uncertainty of the S a priori (a
175 systematic error), we can estimate the corresponding uncertainty for $\hat{\alpha}_\beta=1.34$ to be ± 0.11 by error propagation from
176 Eq. (1). $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ has important applications in aerosol type classification from (spectral) aerosol lidar measurements (e.g.,
177 Cattrall et al., 2005; Hair et al., 2008; Müller et al., 2007). There is significant variation in $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ for 532–1064 nm
178 reported in different studies, with numbers ranging from negative values to 2.3 (Burton et al., 2012; Cattrall et al.,
179 2005; Müller et al., 2007). However, all of these studies show $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ for smoke and urban aerosols was larger than



180 maritime and dust aerosols. Since most previous studies report $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ for wavelengths longer than 355 nm, $\hat{\alpha}_\beta$ calculated
181 in this study for 299–532 nm could provide valuable data for UV wavelengths.

182 In practice, aerosol extinction is a more meaningful parameter and more relevant for several applications than
183 backscatter. For the HSRL, the extinction coefficients are linearly converted from the backscatter coefficients by
184 assuming a constant $S=55$ sr with 20% uncertainty, in the same manner as Reid et al. (2017). The estimated Ångström
185 exponent for 299 and 532 nm is 1.49 ± 0.16 , using the data in Figure 1 after considering uncertainties in S for both
186 lidars. The Ångström exponent from this study (1.49 ± 0.16) is within a reasonable range compared to previous studies.
187 For example, Ångström exponent was measured by Raman lidar to be between 1.35 ± 0.2 and 1.56 ± 0.2 at 355 nm for
188 smoke aerosols in Canada (Strawbridge et al., 2018). Ångström exponent for urban aerosols was measured to be
189 1.4 ± 0.5 in Europe and 1.7 ± 0.5 in North America for 355 and 532-nm wavelengths (Müller et al., 2007).

190 Figure 2 presents the intercomparison of the aerosol backscatter retrieved by the HSRL and the RO₃QET
191 lidar for the four cases in 2013. The HSRL-derived aerosol backscatter coefficients are scaled to 299 nm (represented
192 by “HSRL-converted” thereafter) using the best-fit exponent value $\hat{\alpha}_\beta=1.34$. Some clouds lower than 2 km show up
193 in the HSRL curtains but not in the RO₃QET curtains (e. g., 1500–2100 on 15 August and 1500–2100 on 28 August).
194 These low-cloud-contaminated data were discarded in the RO₃QET lidar pre-processing program because the
195 retrievable range was not long enough. The profiles with clouds higher than 2 km measured by the RO₃QET were
196 retained and the aerosol retrievals below the clouds were used for the range-resolving intercomparisons.

197 In terms of the aerosol measurement evaluation, we pay attention to the RO₃QET lidar’s two capabilities:
198 measuring the PBL diurnal evolution and measuring free-tropospheric smoke layers. In Figure 2, the PBL heights
199 measured by the two lidars, which are identified by large aerosol gradients, are highly consistent for all cases. The
200 development of the convective mixing layer in the early morning, an important process responsible for surface ozone
201 increase, can be visually identified in most RO₃QET curtains (e.g., 1400–1700 UTC or 0900–1200 local time in Figure
202 2-h). The aerosol structures and evolutions in the free troposphere measured by the RO₃QET lidar are highly similar
203 to those measured by the HSRL. For example, the RO₃QET lidar captured an extremely thin aerosol layer ~5 km on
204 27–28 August (Figure 2-g), which probably originated from the Pacific Northwest fire and has been discussed by Reid
205 et al. (2017). The large aerosol uncertainties for the RO₃QET lidar at far ranges are consistent with expectation. As
206 demonstrated in Appendix B, aerosol retrieval uncertainties due to lidar signal measurement error and the boundary
207 value chosen at the reference altitude, two of the most important sources of uncertainty, increase with altitude and
208 may exceed 100% at ~7 km.

209 To evaluate the ozone lidar’s range-resolving capability for aerosol retrieval, we intercompared the aerosol
210 backscatter coefficients, for all cases, from the two instruments with a 10-min temporal resolution and a 30-m vertical
211 resolution after filtering out cloud-contaminated data as shown in Figure 3. The high correlation coefficient of 0.95
212 suggests that the RO₃QET lidar can capture the aerosol variability with high spatio-temporal resolutions. The
213 correlation coefficient for the high vertical resolution retrievals is slightly less than that for the column average (0.99
214 in Figure 1) due to less average with respect to range.

215 Figure 4 presents the mean and 1- σ standard deviations of the relative differences between RO₃QET and
216 HSRL, $(\text{RO}_3\text{QET}-\text{HSRL})/\text{HSRL}$, to be compared with the theoretical 1- σ error calculated as outlined in Appendix B.



217 The HSRL measurements are considered as the “true” values to be compared with the RO₃QET measurements. Both
218 the theoretical and actual 1- σ values generally increase with altitude. The actual differences between RO₃QET and
219 HSRL measurements are mostly within or comparable to the theoretical calculation of the RO₃QET measurement
220 uncertainties. The structures of the theoretical uncertainties are consistent with the actual differences at most altitudes,
221 with few exceptions. For example, the large discrepancies (red lines compared to blue lines in Figure 4) occurring at
222 ~4.5 km in Figure 4 (c) and ~1.5 km in Figure 4 (d) are primarily because of small number division effects for the
223 extremely clean atmospheric layers (also see Figure 2). Aerosol backscatter of clean air probably can be accurately
224 measured by the HSRL, but, may be beyond the measurement sensitivity of RO₃QET.

225 In Figure 4, the RO₃QET-measured aerosols are generally higher than the HSRL-measured aerosols between
226 5 and 6 km so that the RO₃QET-HSRL differences deflect to the right side with altitude. There were both clean air
227 and smoke layers between 5 and 6 km for the four cases; therefore, the positive differences cannot be explained solely
228 by the lower capability of RO₃QET for measuring clean air. We hypothesize that another reason causing these
229 differences is the underestimated backscatter color ratio for the smoke aerosols. We converted the HSRL backscatter
230 from 532 to 299 nm using a constant backscatter color ratio, 1.34, which represents an average for the column-
231 integrated backscatter. The most considerable contribution to integrated backscatter comes from PBL aerosols, which
232 are mostly urban aerosols with a lower backscatter color ratio than either fresh or aged smoke (Burton et al., 2012;
233 Catrall et al., 2005). The uncertainty of the backscatter color ratio was not considered in the error budget of the aerosol
234 retrieval. In addition, we ignored the measurement uncertainty of the HSRL. Therefore, the general agreement of the
235 theoretical estimate of the aerosol retrieval uncertainties and the actual errors suggests that our analysis of the
236 uncertainty sources in Appendix B is reasonable.

237 4. Conclusions

238 We have evaluated the aerosol retrievals at 299 nm from the RO₃QET ozone lidar using aerosol retrievals at 532 nm
239 from the highly precise University of Wisconsin HSRL from the coincident observations at Huntsville, AL in 2013.
240 The integrated backscatter coefficients between 0.4 and 6 km asl (0.2 and 5.8 km agl) from the two instruments are
241 highly correlated, with a coefficient of 0.99 after excluding cloud-contaminated data. Since the ozone lidar is not able
242 to accurately measure either ozone or aerosol above clouds, cloud-contaminated data can significantly distort the
243 relationship between the products from the two instruments. The aerosol profiles of backscatter coefficients at 30-m
244 vertical and 10-min temporal resolution retrieved by the RO₃QET are also highly correlated with those from the HSRL
245 with a coefficient of 0.95 suggesting that the ozone lidar is capable of producing reliable aerosol structure information
246 at high spatio-temporal resolution. Intercomparison of the backscatter product was chosen to avoid additional
247 uncertainty caused by the lidar ratio (S) assumption needed for the HSRL aerosol extinction retrieval.

248 The aerosol retrieval algorithm and its error budget are shown in the Appendix. The primary uncertainty
249 sources for the aerosol lidar retrieval are errors in lidar signal measurement, boundary value assumption, air density
250 calculation, *S a priori*, and ozone profile input. The uncertainty in S assumption is a dominant source at near range
251 while the lidar signal measurement and boundary value errors dominate at far range, as shown in Figure B1 for an
252 example. Within the middle range (PBL top – about 7 km), the air density calculation error is essential and is larger
253 or comparable to the lidar signal measurement error. The total uncertainty generally increases with altitude from about



254 15% in the PBL to consistently higher than 100% above 7 km. Theoretical estimates of the error budget are generally
 255 consistent with the RO₃QET-HSRL measurement differences.

256 By assuming a constant S of 60 sr for the ozone lidar, the backscatter coefficients measured by the two
 257 instruments are related by a backscatter color ratio (backscatter-related exponent) of 1.34 ± 0.11 for 299 and 532 nm.
 258 The extinction-related Ångström exponent that is more relevant for various applications is estimated to be 1.49 ± 0.16
 259 by assuming $S = 55$ sr for the HSRL at 532 nm. These exponents represent a summertime average for a mixture of
 260 urban pollution and fire smoke. We did not separate the aerosol types, although we understand that S and Ångström
 261 exponent vary with the aerosol phase function and size distribution. The aerosol correction in the ozone lidar retrieval
 262 will be described in a subsequent paper.

263

264 **Appendix A. Aerosol retrieval algorithm**

265 The ozone DIAL solution can be written as follows:

$$266 \quad n_{(r)} = \frac{-1}{2\Delta\sigma} \times \frac{d}{dr} \left[\ln \frac{P_{\text{on}(r)}}{P_{\text{off}(r)}} \right] + [B] + [E], \quad (\text{A1})$$

267 where $n_{(r)}$ is the ozone number density at range r , $\Delta\sigma$ is the differential ozone absorption cross section, $P_{\text{on}(r)}$ and $P_{\text{off}(r)}$
 268 are the backscattered on-line and off-line lidar returns, and $[B]$ and $[E]$ represent the differential backscatter and
 269 extinction terms (Browell et al., 1985), respectively, including both molecular and aerosol components. The first term
 270 of the right side of Eq. (A1) is often called the signal term. The subscripts “on” and “off” represent 289 and 299 nm
 271 for this study. The aerosol extinction coefficients at 299 nm are calculated using the following procedure.

272 1) A first-order Savitzky-Golay differentiation filter with a second-degree polynomial and variable fitting
 273 window widths are applied on $\ln \frac{P_{\text{on}(r)}}{P_{\text{off}(r)}}$ to compute the signal term. This smoothing method can accommodate the
 274 rapid decay of the lidar signal with altitude to provide sufficient SNR for ozone retrievals by appropriate selection of
 275 smoothing window widths (Leblanc et al., 2016a).

276 2) By canceling the lidar constant using the two lidar equations at range r and $r + \Delta r$ for 299 nm, the aerosol
 277 backscatter coefficients at range r can be expressed as:

$$278 \quad \beta_A(r) = -\beta_M(r) + \frac{Z(r)}{Z(r+\Delta r)} [\beta_A(r+\Delta r) + \beta_M(r+\Delta r)] \exp \left\{ -2\Delta r \left[\alpha_A \left(r + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right) + \alpha_M \left(r + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right) + \alpha_{O_3} \left(r + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right) \right] \right\}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

280 where $\beta_A(r)$ and $\beta_M(r)$ are aerosol and molecular backscatter coefficients at range r , respectively; $Z(r) = P_{\text{off}} r^2$ is
 281 the range-corrected lidar signal at 299 nm; $\alpha_A(r+\Delta r/2)$, $\alpha_M(r+\Delta r/2)$, and $\alpha_{O_3}(r+\Delta r/2)$ represent the average aerosol,
 282 molecular, and ozone extinction coefficients between range r and $r+\Delta r$, respectively. Assuming the 299-nm lidar ratio,
 283 $S = \alpha_A/\beta_A$, is constant with the range at 60 sr for this study and further assuming:

$$284 \quad \alpha_A \left(r + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right) \approx \alpha_A(r+\Delta r) = S\beta_A(r+\Delta r), \quad (\text{A3})$$

285 Eq. (A2) contains only two unknown variables: the aerosol backscatter coefficient $\beta_A(r+\Delta r)$ and ozone extinction
 286 coefficient $\alpha_{O_3}(r+\Delta r/2)$, which requires knowledge of the ozone number density $n_{(r+\Delta r/2)}$. Molecular backscatter and
 287 extinction can be computed from nearby radiosonde data or a model with acceptable accuracy. For the first iteration
 288 step, $n_{(r+\Delta r/2)}$ can be computed from the signal term in Eq. (A1). By assuming a start value $\beta_A(\text{ref})$ at a reference



289 range and a constant S with range, $\beta_A(r)$ can be solved by Equation (A2). Then, the first $\beta_A(r)$ profile is substituted
 290 back into (A2) to compute the second estimate by using a more accurate form for $\alpha_A(r+\Delta r/2)$ as:

$$291 \quad \alpha_A\left(r + \frac{\Delta r}{2}\right) = S[\beta_A(r + \Delta r) + \beta'_A(r)]/2, \quad (\text{A4})$$

292 where $\beta'_A(r)$ represents the value from the first estimate. Typically, a stable solution for $\beta_A(r)$, which does not change
 293 significantly from one iteration step to the next, can be obtained with only three iterations of Eq. (A2) and (A4).

294 3) The correction terms, $[B]$ and $[E]$, in Eq. (A1) are calculated by the Browell et al. (1985) approximation,
 295 assuming a power law dependence with wavelength for the aerosol extinction and choosing an appropriate Ångström
 296 exponent. Since this paper focuses only on aerosol retrievals, the details of the ozone corrections will be described in
 297 a future article.

298 4) Aerosol profiles computed for the three altitude channels are finally merged to a single profile in their
 299 overlapping altitude zones, 0.5–1 km for Channels 1 and 2, 1.5–2 km for Channels 2 and 3.

300

301 **Appendix B. Error budget of the aerosol retrieval**

302 Now we investigate five primary error sources affecting each term on the right side of Eq. (A2). In the following
 303 section, we use the notation Δ to represent the absolute uncertainty and δ to represent the relative uncertainty. For a
 304 function Y , derived from several measurement variables x_1, x_2, \dots , the uncertainty in Y can be estimated by the
 305 following expression using the first-order Taylor expansion approximation when these variables are independent:

$$306 \quad \Delta Y^2 = (\Delta x_1 \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x_1})^2 + (\Delta x_2 \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x_2})^2 + \dots \quad (\text{B1})$$

307 **B.1 Lidar signal measurement error**

308 The error source to determine the normalized lidar signal ratio term $\frac{Z(r)}{Z(r+\Delta r)}$ is the lidar signal measurement error, ΔP .

309 Although ΔP may be due to various processes such as inaccurate dead-time correction, inaccurate background
 310 subtraction, and signal-induced noise, its dominant component is the lidar signal statistical uncertainty (often called
 311 lidar signal detection noise) and is typically assumed to obey a Poisson distribution. Assuming no error in deciding r ,
 312 by using Eq. (A2) and (B1) we obtain the uncertainty of the aerosol backscatter owing to lidar signal measurement
 313 error relative to the total backscatter as:

$$314 \quad \frac{\Delta \beta_A^{sig}(r)}{\beta_A(r) + \beta_M(r)} = \sqrt{[\delta P(r)]^2 + [\delta P(r + \Delta r)]^2}, \quad (\text{B2})$$

315 where $P(r)$ represents lidar signal counts at r after omitting the wavelength subscript (i.e., 299 nm) and $\delta P(r)$ is just
 316 the inverse of SNR. This means that the uncertainty of the aerosol backscatter coefficient due to lidar signal
 317 measurement is determined by the lidar SNR similarly to other remote sensing detection techniques. Consequently,
 318 its relative uncertainty can be written as:

$$319 \quad \delta \beta_A^{sig}(r) = \left(\frac{1}{B(r)} + 1\right) \sqrt{[\delta P(r)]^2 + [\delta P(r + \Delta r)]^2}, \quad (\text{B3})$$

320 where $B(r) = \beta_A(r)/\beta_M(r)$ is the aerosol-to-molecular backscatter ratio. As expected, $\delta \beta_A^{sig}(r)$ has a reverse relationship
 321 with $\beta_A(r)$ since it is a relative uncertainty. Figure B1 shows an example of the uncertainty budget for a 10-min lidar
 322 data profile. The aerosol retrieval uncertainty due to the lidar signal measurement error generally increases with
 323 altitude primarily because of the rapidly decaying lidar SNR.



324 B.2 Boundary value error

325 According to Eq. (A2), the uncertainty of the aerosol backscatter at r , $\beta_A(r)$, can be induced by the uncertainty of the
 326 backscatter at $r + \Delta r$, $\beta_A(r + \Delta r)$, due to the iterative computation method. The error propagation between the
 327 adjacent altitudes can be determined by their partial differential relationship. Using the traditional far-end solution by
 328 assuming that the air is clean at a reference altitude, the aerosol uncertainty due to the inaccurate boundary value
 329 assumption propagates downward based on the following equation:

$$330 \quad \delta\beta_A^{BV}(r) = \delta\beta_A(r + \Delta r) \left[\frac{1 + \frac{1}{B(r)}}{1 + \frac{1}{B(r + \Delta r)}} \right] \left\{ 1 - 2S\Delta r\beta_A(r + \Delta r) \left[1 + \frac{1}{B(r + \Delta r)} \right] \right\}. \quad (B4)$$

331 The yellow line in Figure B1 represents the relative uncertainty of backscatter retrieval due to the boundary value
 332 assumption, $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$, when $\delta\beta_A(r_b) = 1000\%$ (i.e., 10 times overestimate at $r_b = 10$ km). Despite a large
 333 overestimate at the reference altitude, $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ decreases toward the ground, to less than 10% below 5.5 km and less
 334 than 1% below 3.5 km. Simulations demonstrate that $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ for an underestimation of $\delta\beta_A(r_b)$ (not shown) is better
 335 than that for an overestimation, indicating that the boundary value is preferred at a smaller value. As suggested by Eq.
 336 (B4), $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ is affected by both S and B . Larger S (if it is correct) results in smaller $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ and, therefore, aerosol
 337 retrieval errors converge to zero faster. In other words, the smaller the value of S is, the more sensitive the aerosol
 338 retrieval is to the boundary value error. $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ decreases with an increase of $B(r)$. This means that $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ is less
 339 affected by the assumed value of $\beta_A(r_b)$ when the aerosol backscatter becomes more important relative to molecular
 340 backscatter, which occurs at longer wavelengths or under turbid air conditions. It is to be noted that $\delta\beta_A(r_b)$ is
 341 between -1 and $+\infty$ so that the distribution of $\delta\beta_A^{BV}(r)$ is asymmetric with the zero axis.

342 In terms of the influence of the boundary value error, we have compared our calculation with an analytical
 343 solution proposed by Kovalev and Moosmüller (1994) (not shown); the results are almost identical. Aerosol retrieval
 344 uncertainty due to incorrect boundary value assumption tends to converge to zero towards the lidar. It is negligible at
 345 lower altitudes, especially in the PBL, when the air is turbid.

346 B.3 Air density error

347 According to Eq. (A2), the air density profile affects $\beta_M(r)$, $\beta_M(r + \Delta r)$, and the optical depth (or transmittance).
 348 Similarly, we can derive the relative uncertainty in aerosol backscatter owing to the uncertainty in the air density
 349 profile as:

$$350 \quad \delta\beta_A^{AD}(r) = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\delta\beta_M(r)}{B(r)} [1 + S_m\Delta r\beta_A(r) + S_m\Delta r\beta_M(r)] \right\}^2 + \left\{ \frac{\delta\beta_M(r + \Delta r) \left[\frac{1}{B(r)} + 1 \right]}{B(r + \Delta r) + 1} [1 - S_m\Delta r\beta_A(r + \Delta r) - S_m\Delta r\beta_M(r + \Delta r)] \right\}^2}$$

352 . (B5)

353 S_m represents the molecular extinction-to-backscatter ratio, which is a constant ($8\pi/3$). The two parts in the square root
 354 are the components due to the uncertainties at r and $r + \Delta r$, respectively. Each component includes the influences from
 355 both molecular backscatter and optical depth. When Δr is small, the contribution of the optical depth error is much
 356 smaller than that of the molecular backscatter error so that (B4) can be approximated as:

$$357 \quad \delta\beta_A^{AD}(r) \approx \sqrt{2} \frac{\delta\beta_M(r)}{B(r)}. \quad (B6)$$



358 It is to be noted that $\Delta\beta_M(r)$ and $\Delta\beta_M(r+\Delta r)$ are independent errors as assumed in Eq. (B1). If they are correlated, Eq.
359 (B5) will partly cancel out with their covariance term, which is not shown in (B1). Due to the nature of the iterative
360 computation method, $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r+\Delta r)$ affects $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r)$ as noted in Eq. (B4), so that the aerosol retrieval uncertainty due
361 to air density error will propagate downward. However, model simulation suggests that the systematic error of the air
362 density calculation has little impact on the aerosol retrieval because of the cancelation of the effect at r and $r+\Delta r$. Eq.
363 (B6) means the uncertainty in the calculation of molecular backscatter will mostly linearly propagate to aerosol
364 backscatter. If the $2\text{-}\sigma$ precision of a radiosonde is 0.3 K and 0.5 hPa for temperature and pressure measurements
365 (Hurst et al., 2011), the propagated uncertainty onto molecular backscatter is only about 0.1%. However, the real
366 disturbance of an atmosphere deviating from the actual air density profile may be more significant since there are
367 usually only a few radiosonde profiles available every day. Hence, we assume $\delta\beta_M(r)$ to be 1% and the resulting
368 aerosol retrieval uncertainty is represented by the green line in Figure B1. $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r)$ can be tens of percent in the free
369 troposphere and is an important error source for aerosol retrievals (Russell et al., 1979). $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r)$ is less than 10% in
370 the PBL because of more turbid air in that region. Since $\delta\beta_M(r)$ is assumed to be a constant in this example, the
371 variation of $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r)$ is mostly a result of varying $B(r)$, the aerosol-to-molecular backscatter ratio. Since $B(r)$ generally
372 increases with an increase in wavelength, $\delta\beta_A^{AD}(r)$ is expected to be smaller at longer wavelengths. Therefore, the
373 aerosol retrieval is less sensitive to the air density error at longer wavelengths.

374 **B.4 Lidar ratio error**

375 By using Eqn. (A2) and (B1), the relative uncertainty in aerosol backscatter due to incorrect lidar ratio (S) assumption
376 can be calculated as follows:

377

$$378 \quad \delta\beta_A^S(r) = 2 \left[\frac{1}{B(r)} + 1 \right] \Delta S \beta_A(r) \Delta r. \quad (B7)$$

379 $\delta\beta_A^S(r)$ due to ΔS at only range r appears to be small, about 1%, when Δr is specified at 22.5 m. However, ΔS varying
380 with altitude is mostly systematic and, therefore, $\delta\beta_A^S(r)$ at every altitude will propagate downward and these effects
381 will accumulate. The error accumulation is not straightforward to compute as an analytical solution. However, these
382 effects can be simulated numerically. S is highly variable and it is difficult to estimate its actual uncertainty range. In
383 this study, we assume that $\delta S = 20\%$ (or $\Delta S = 12$ sr) according to a previous study (Müller et al., 2007). The light-
384 blue line in Figure B1 shows that the accumulative uncertainties in the aerosol backscatter due to ΔS using Eq. (B7)
385 and (B4) are close to the assumed 20% uncertainty for δS . $\delta\beta_A^S(r)$ is the largest error source in the PBL which is the
386 near range of the lidar. $\delta\beta_A^S(r)$ decreases with an increase in wavelength because of increasing $B(r)$. In other words,
387 $\delta\beta_A^S(r)$ is less sensitive to ΔS at longer wavelengths.

388 **B.5 Ozone error**

389 Similar to S , the ozone uncertainty affects only the transmittance term in Eqn. (A2) and its error propagation on aerosol
390 backscatter retrieval can be expressed as:

$$391 \quad \delta\beta_A^{O_3}(r) = 2 \left[\frac{1}{B(r)} + 1 \right] \Delta\alpha_{O_3}(r) \Delta r. \quad (B8)$$

392 $\delta\beta_A^{O_3}(r)$ is proportional to the $\left[\frac{1}{B(r)} + 1 \right]$ factor and ozone absorption uncertainty, meaning that $\delta\beta_A^{O_3}(r)$ is smaller at
393 longer wavelengths due to larger aerosol scattering ratio and smaller ozone absorption. When Δr is specified at 22.5



394 m, $\delta\beta_A^{O_3}(r)$ is less than 0.3%. We still simulate the vertical accumulation of $\delta\beta_A^{O_3}(r)$ using Eq. (B4). As noted earlier,
395 the systematic errors of the DIAL ozone measurement tend to accumulate while the random errors tend to cancel out.
396 The dominant error source for lidar measurements at the far range is typically the lidar signal detection noise, a type
397 of random error. Therefore, for purposes of estimation, we assume a 5% constant DIAL retrieval uncertainty primarily
398 covering the uncertainties due to ozone absorption cross section, non-ozone gas interference, and signal saturation
399 effect (Leblanc et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017). As shown in Figure B1, the simulated aerosol retrieval uncertainty
400 due to ozone is relatively minor and is less than 5% at most altitudes.

401 In summary, the uncertainties in aerosol backscatter retrieval for the ozone lidar are controlled by ΔS at near
402 ranges (i. e., in the PBL) where the air is most turbid and are determined by both the lidar signal detection error and
403 inaccurate boundary value assumption at far ranges (higher than 7 km) where the air is typically clear. In the middle
404 range of the lidar measurement (PBL top – 7 km), the air density calculation error may become a significant error
405 source for aerosol retrieval and may have a comparable influence on the aerosol retrieval as the lidar signal
406 measurement error. Relative to the above four uncertainty sources, ozone DIAL retrieval error is relatively
407 unimportant especially in the lower altitudes where lidar SNR is large enough. All the uncertainty terms are affected
408 by the aerosol-to-molecular backscatter ratio, $B(r)$, which represents the relative importance of the aerosol component
409 in both extinction and backscatter processes. Based on the above uncertainty budget analysis, we conclude that the
410 RO₃QET lidar is capable of measuring aerosol profile reliably below 6 km with the current laser output power.

411

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419

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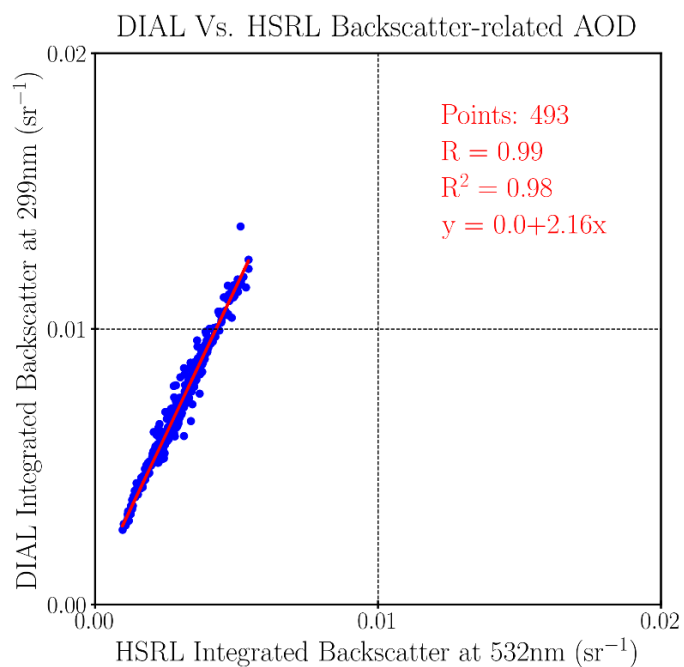
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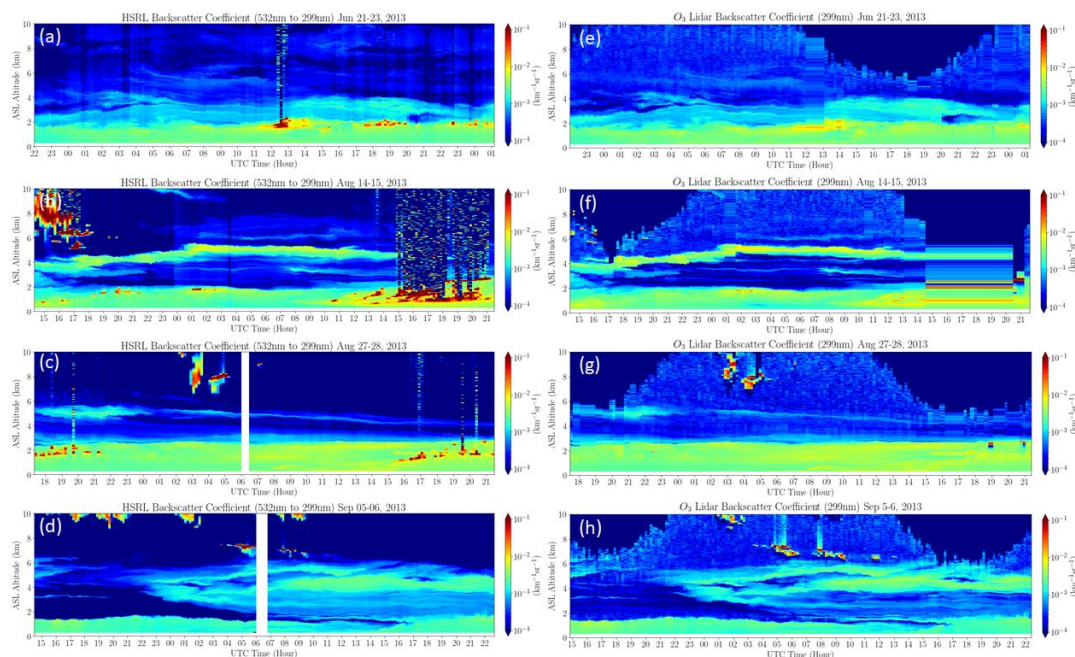
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- 536



537

538 Figure 1. Regression of the ozone lidar and HSRL derived integrated aerosol backscatter between 0.4 and 6 km asl
539 using the best least-square fit resulting in a backscatter color ratio of 1.34 for 299–532-nm for four cases in 2013. All
540 data was taken at Huntsville, AL, USA, during the summertime 2013.

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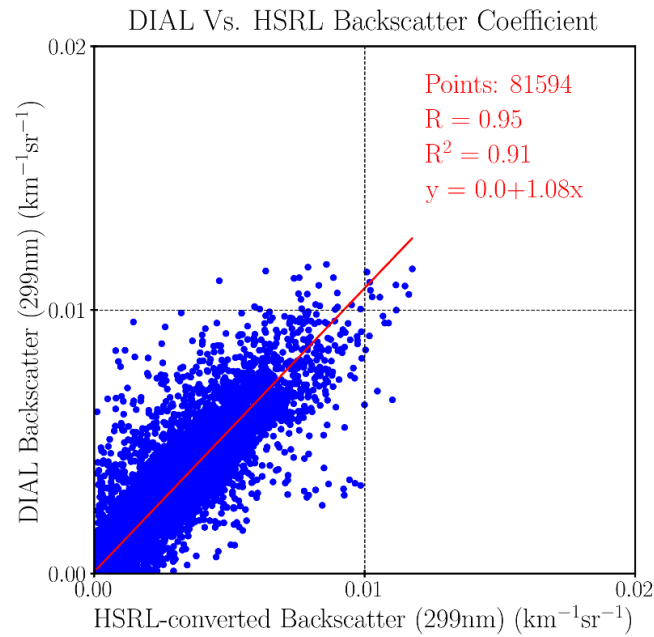
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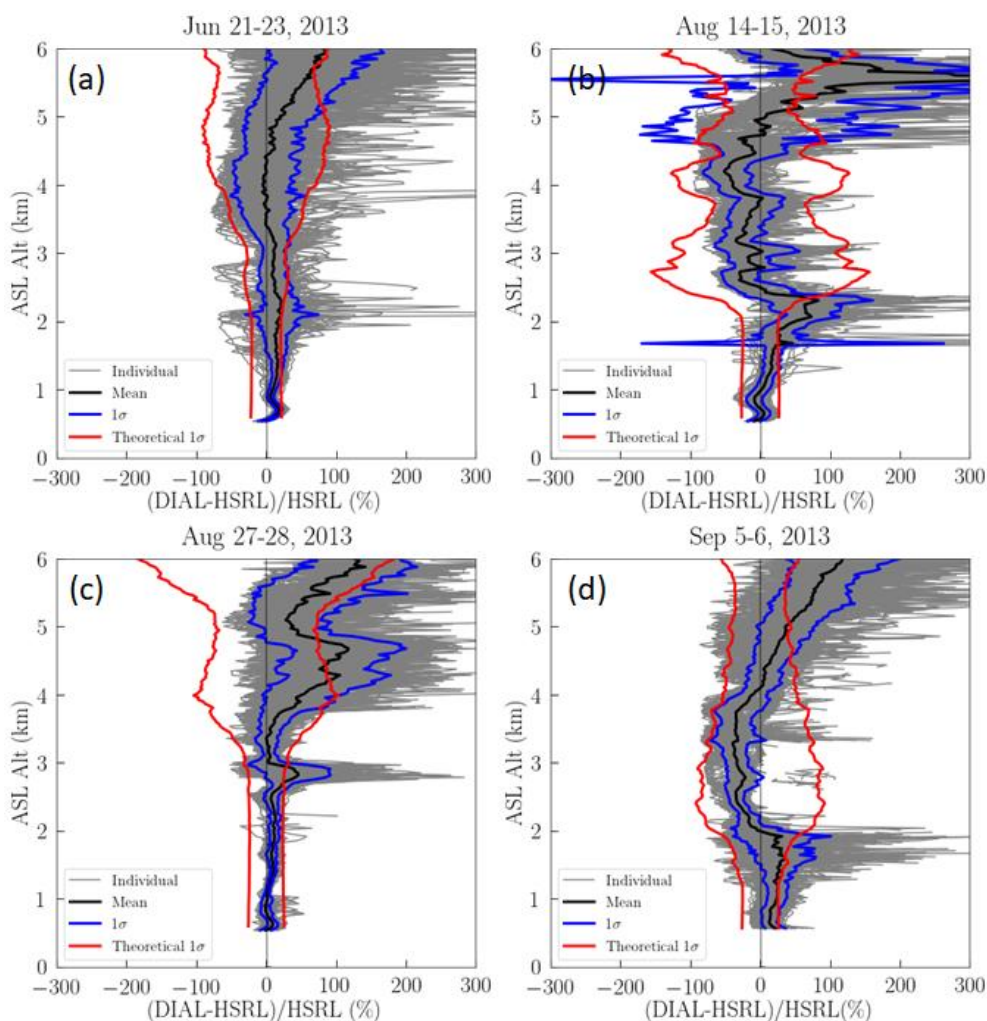
Figure 2. HSRL-converted aerosol backscatter coefficients (a, b, c, d) compared to the RO₃QET lidar derived aerosol backscatter coefficients at 299 nm (e, f, g, h), with 10-min temporal resolution and 30-m vertical resolution. The data was taken from 21–23 June (a, e), 14–15 August (b, f), 27–28 August (c, g), and 5–6 September (d, h) 2013. The HSRL-converted aerosol backscatter coefficients are scaled from the original retrievals at 532 nm to 299 nm using Eq. (1) and $\hat{\alpha}_\beta=1.34$.



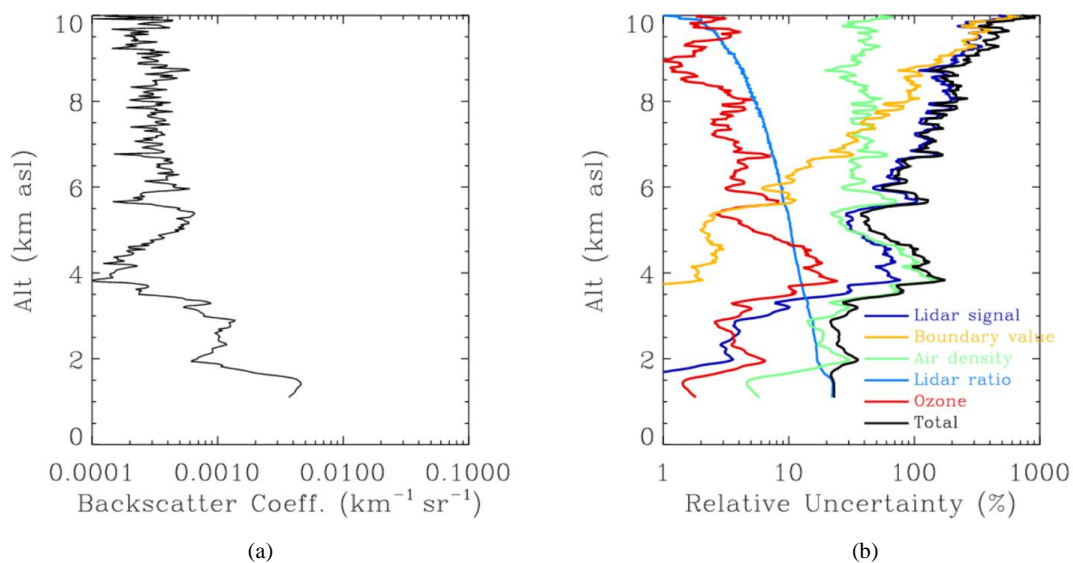
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550 Figure 3. Regression of the ozone lidar measured and HSRL-converted aerosol backscatter coefficients (interpolated
551 at 299 nm with $\hat{\alpha}_\beta=1.34$) with 30-m vertical resolution and 10-min temporal resolution.

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554 Figure 4. Relative differences between the RO₃QET and HSRL-converted aerosol backscatter measurements,
555 (RO₃QET-HSRL)/HSRL, made from (a) 21–23 June, (b) 14–15 August, (c) 27–28 August, and (d) 5–6 September,
556 2013. The gray and black lines represent the differences for the 10-min individual aerosol backscatter profiles and their
557 mean, respectively. The blue lines represent the actual 1 σ of the differences compared to the theoretical 1 σ (red lines)
558 of the RO₃QET lidar aerosol measurement.
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562 Figure B1. An example of (a) aerosol backscatter profile retrieved from a 10-min ozone lidar data at about 8:30 UTC
563 on 22 June 2013 and (b) its retrieval error budget for different uncertainty sources. The lidar data was from the
564 Channel-3 receiving system which covers most of the measurement altitude range and was arbitrarily chosen for a
565 cloud-free condition.

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