

SO₂ DATA FROM THE OZONE MONITORING INSTRUMENT

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ABSTRACT

We discuss collection 2 SO₂ data from the Dutch-Finnish Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on board NASA EOS/Aura spacecraft and show examples of detected volcanic and anthropogenic SO₂ emissions. Quantification of anthropogenic SO₂ emissions requires collection 3 reprocessing available in the fall 2007.

1. INTRODUCTION

Sulfur Dioxide (SO₂) is a short-lived gas primarily produced by volcanoes, power plants, refineries, metal smelting and burning of fossil fuels. Where SO₂ remains near the Earth's surface, it is toxic, causes acid rain, and degrades air quality. SO₂ that moves into the free troposphere forms aerosols that can alter cloud reflectivity and precipitation. In the stratosphere, volcanic SO₂ forms long-lived sulfate aerosols that can result in climate change. The first quantitative data on the mass of SO₂ in a major eruption (El Chichon, 1982) was obtained from the six-UV band NASA Nimbus-7 Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) [1]. All significant eruptions since 1978 have now been measured by the series of TOMS instruments (Figure 1) [1-4]. The SO₂ detection sensitivity was limited to large volcanic clouds by the discrete TOMS wavelengths that were designed for total ozone measurements [1,4]. Greatly improved sensitivity was demonstrated through detection of volcanic and anthropogenic SO₂ in Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) [5,6] and Scanning Imaging Spectrometer for Atmospheric Cartography (SCIAMACHY) [7] full spectrum UV data. However, these sensors need several days to acquire a contiguous global map and hence could miss short-lived pollution events. The NASA EOS Aura platform [8], launched on July 15, 2004, carries the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), a hyperspectral UV/Visible spectrometer with a 2600 km swath for daily, global contiguous mapping that was provided by the Netherlands Agency for Aerospace Programs (NIVR) in collaboration with the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI) to the NASA EOS Aura mission for continued monitoring of ozone and other trace gases [9]. KNMI (Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute) is the Principal Investigator institute. Reflected sunlight in a fan-shaped narrow field

of view is dispersed by a spectrometer and imaged in spatial–spectral dimensions on two-dimensional Charge Coupled Device (CCD) detectors, one for UV and one for visible bands [10]. OMI SO₂ algorithm uses data from the 310–365 nm UV-2 band with spectral resolution of ~0.45 nm [10]. Data are collected from the pushbroom swath in 2-sec intervals corresponding to 13 km along-track resolution. Pixels are binned in 60 cross-track positions to provide a nadir resolution of 24 km. The OMI Level-2 SO₂ Product, 'OMSO2,' is publicly available from the NASA's GSFC Earth Sciences (GES) Data and Information Services Center (DISC) at <http://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/Aura/OMI/omso2.shtml> and examples and documentation at <http://so2.umbc.edu/omi>

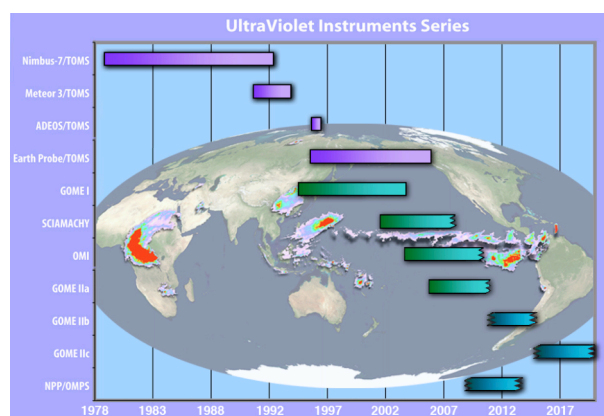


Figure 1. Timeline of past (purple), present (green), and planned (blue) mapping UV instrument datasets available for a 40+ year record of SO₂ emissions, superimposed on a global map of sulfur dioxide clouds detected with OMI in 2005/2006. US instruments include TOMS on Nimbus-7 (1978-1993), Meteor-3 (1991-1994), ADEOS (1996-1997) and Earth Probe (1996-2005) (<http://toms.umbc.edu>), and the future OMPS on NPOESS Preparatory Project (NPP, <http://jointmission.gsfc.nasa.gov/>), to be followed by operational flights on NPOESS satellites. European instruments include GOME flying on ESA's ERS-2 satellite since July 1995 [5], OMI on EOS Aura (2004 – current) [9,10], SCIAMACHY operated from ESA's ENVISAT satellite since August 2002 [7] and GOME-2 flying on a series of EUMETSAT MetOp satellites since October 2006.

2. ALGORITHM

In the OMSO2 product the three reported total SO₂ values correspond to the SO₂ in the Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL, below 2 km) from anthropogenic sources, SO₂ distributed between 5 and 10 km emitted by passive volcanic degassing in the free troposphere, and SO₂ distributed between 15 and 20 km representing injection from explosive volcanic eruptions. All PBL data are processed with the Band Residual Difference (BRD) algorithm [11], while all 5 km and 15 km data are processed with the Linear Fit (LF) algorithm [12]. Both algorithms use the OMI TOMS -like total ozone retrieval, 'OMTO3' [13] as a linearization step to derive initial estimate of total ozone (assuming zero SO₂) and the wavelength independent Lambertian effective surface reflectivity (LER). The OMTO3 algorithm accomplishes this by matching the calculated radiances to the measured radiances at a pair of wavelengths (317.5 nm and 331.2 nm under most conditions). The residuals at the 10 other wavelengths (Figure 2) are then calculated as the difference between the measured and the computed N-values ($N = -100 * \log_{10}(I/F)$, I is Earth radiance and F is solar irradiance) that account for the effects of multiple Rayleigh scattering, ozone absorption, Ring effect, and surface reflectivity. In the presence of SO₂, the residuals contain wavelength structures that correlate with the SO₂ absorption cross sections [11]. The residuals also have contributions from other error sources. To reduce this interference, the empirical correction to the residuals is performed before retrieval of the final state is attempted [12]. Both the BRD and LF algorithms use the corrected residuals as their inputs to derive SO₂ column amount. The BRD uses differential residuals at the three most SO₂ sensitive pairs [11], while the LF minimizes different

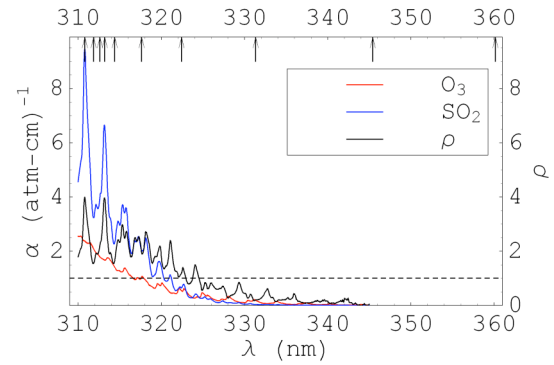


Figure 2. Absorption coefficients of SO₂ and O₃ and their ratio as a function of wavelength. The arrows indicate the central wavelengths used in the algorithm.

subsets of residuals by simultaneously adjusting SO₂, ozone and quadratic polynomial coefficients of the LER spectral dependence. The subsets are determined by the process of dropping the shortest wavelength bands one at a time until the 322nm band is reached. The largest SO₂ retrieval is reported as the final estimate. Figure 3 compares SO₂ retrievals from LF (5km) and BRD (AMF for 5km) algorithms for OMI observation (on October 23, 2005) of the Sierra Negra volcanic plume. Both algorithms show the same spatial extent but very different dynamic range in the total SO₂ distributions. The LF retrieval produces much higher SO₂ concentrations near the vent of the volcano, and the concentrations drop off quickly as this plume is dispersing. The BRD image is quite similar to that of the LF, particularly in the area with low LF SO₂ concentrations, but the obvious difference is the complete lack of high SO₂ concentrations in the BRD image. Therefore, all operational volcanic data (5km and 15km) are processed with the LF algorithm [12].

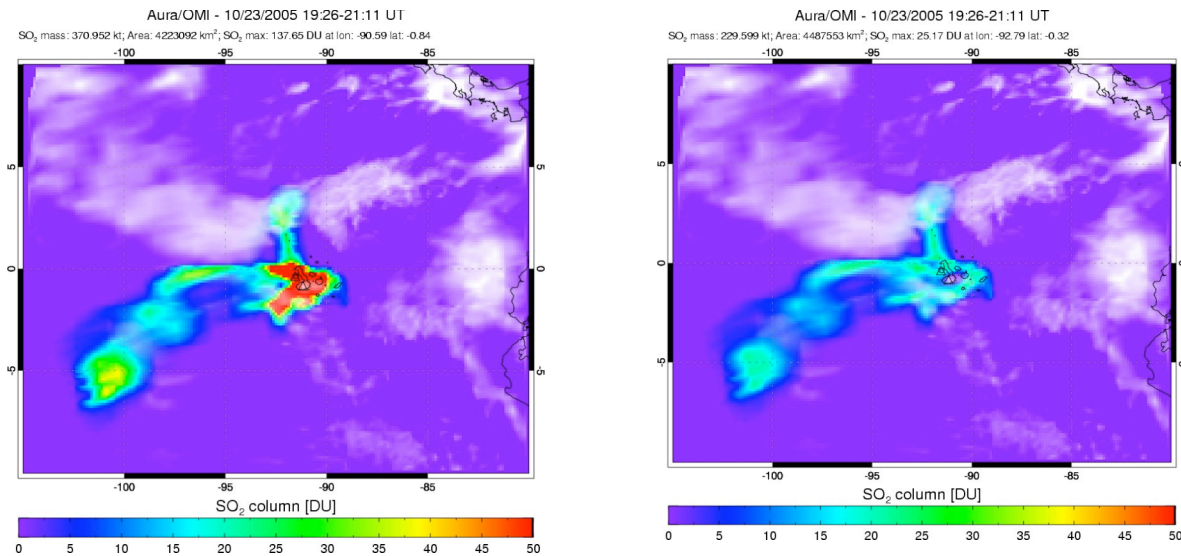


Figure 3. OMI observations of the volcanic plume on 23 October 2005, emitted from Sierra Negra Volcano (summit elevation of 1124 km) in the Galapagos Islands. (Left) 5 KM retrievals from LF algorithm [11]. (Right) 5 KM retrievals from BRD algorithm [12]. White regions are meteorological clouds (OMI reflectivity [13]).

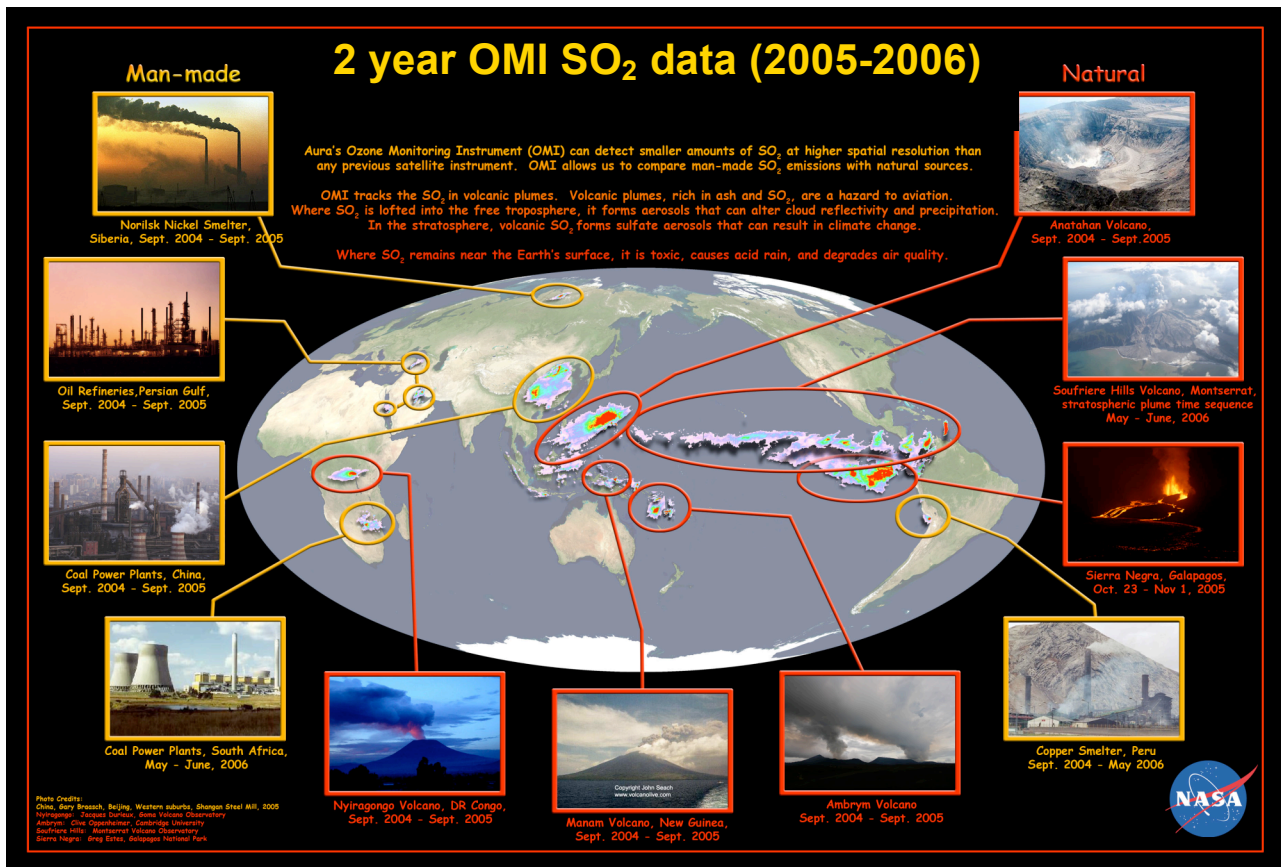


Figure 4. Two-year overview of OMI SO₂ data (2005-2006).

3. OMI SO₂ DATA OVERVIEW

Assessment of OMI data quality is difficult as minimal SO₂ validation data are currently available. Errors will not necessarily be randomly distributed over the globe, but will typically increase with solar zenith angle, large ozone or SO₂ column amounts and in the presence of clouds and heavy aerosol loading.

3.1 Volcanic SO₂ emissions

The OMI SO₂ volcanic data set continues the TOMS SO₂ record, which covers a quarter-century [1-4] (<http://toms.umbc.edu>), but the improved sensitivity and smaller footprint of OMI will extend the range of detection to smaller eruptions and older clouds, and to degassing volcanoes. The LF algorithm provides good retrievals for small to moderate SO₂ loading (up to ~30 DU), but underestimates the true SO₂ amount for higher loadings [12]. The noise in background areas is less than 0.3 DU (1 standard deviation) and bias <0.4DU at low and mid-latitudes. Both the bias and noise increase for solar zenith angles greater than 70° and in the region of South Atlantic Anomaly.

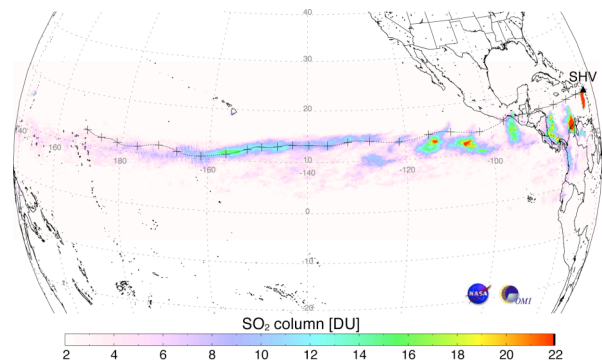


Figure 5. Cumulative SO₂ measured by OMI in the Soufriere Hills volcano (SHV Montserrat, Lesser Antilles) volcanic cloud from 20 May - 6 June 2006 as the cloud crossed the Pacific Ocean. The dotted line is a HYSPLIT forward trajectory for a cloud at 20 km altitude, initialized at 11UT on 20 May at SHV, with crosses plotted every 12 hours. The trajectory covers 315 hours (~13 days) of cloud transport [14].

Visualization of daily OMI SO₂ data allowed rapid appraisal of the most significant volcanic SO₂ emitters, which in 2006 included Merapi (Indonesia), Tungurahua (Ecuador), Soufriere Hills (Montserrat), Aoba (Vanuatu), Nyiragongo (DR Congo) and Ubinas (Peru). These measurements highlight the deficiencies of previous compilations of volcanic SO₂ emissions, which were biased towards accessible, frequently monitored volcanoes. The eruption of Soufriere Hills volcano (Montserrat) on May 20, 2006 resulted in a stratospheric injection of ~0.2 Tg of SO₂ [14]. Despite the modest size of the SO₂ cloud (2 orders of magnitude lower in mass than Pinatubo [3]), OMI was able to track it for over 3 weeks and ~16,000 miles as it traveled westwards from the volcano (Figure 5). The Soufriere Hills eruption and one of similar magnitude at Rabaul (Papua New Guinea) in October 2006 were the largest volcanic SO₂ injections of 2006.

3.2 Anthropogenic SO₂ pollution

Heavy anthropogenic emissions were detected on a daily basis. For example, emissions from two Peruvian smelters (La Oroya and Ilo) were detected in up to 80% of OMI overpasses (Figure 6). SO₂ production by each smelter in this period was quantified and compared with contemporaneous emissions from active volcanoes in Ecuador and Colombia [15].

A first OMI SO₂ validation study was conducted using aircraft in-situ SO₂ data collected over Shenyang in NE China as part of EAST-AIRE field campaign in April 2005 [16, 17]. Between April 5 and April 7 a cold front traveled across continental China on to the Sea of Japan

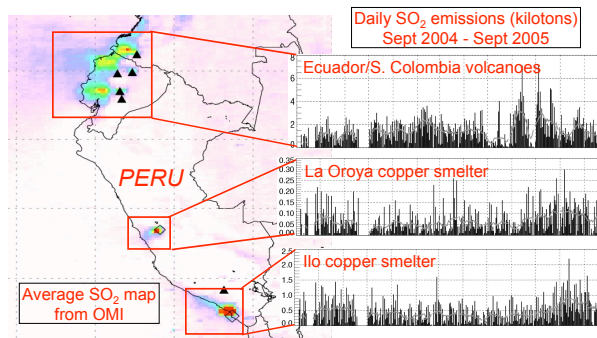


Figure 6. Left: Average OMI SO₂ vertical column over southern Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, Sep 2004 – June 2005. Image is scaled from low (white) to high (red) values of average SO₂ vertical column amount. Weak SO₂ plume continuing off Ecuador is due to higher altitude, longer lifetime and greater dispersion of the volcanic S emissions. Average concentrations are higher close to the smelters due to lower dispersion of these boundary layer emissions. (Right): Daily SO₂ burdens for 3 main source regions measured by OMI. Note that the vertical scale varies on the SO₂ burden plots [15].

[16]. The OMI measurements of SO₂ agree with the aircraft in situ observations of high concentrations of SO₂ (ca ~2 DU) ahead of the cold front and lower concentrations behind it (Figure 7 [17]). This comparison demonstrates that OMI can distinguish between background SO₂ conditions and heavy

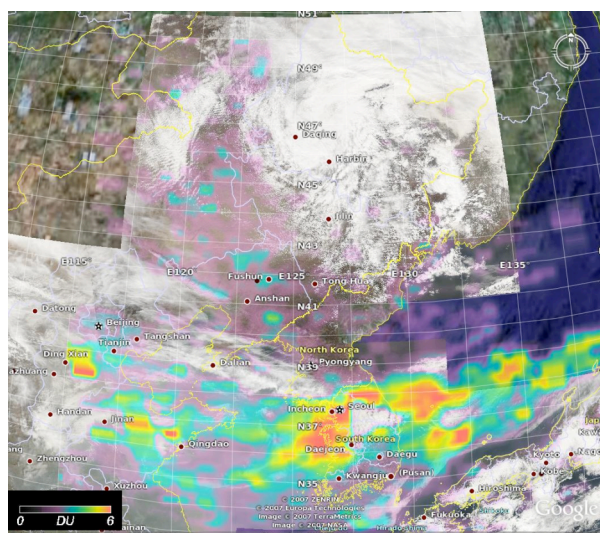
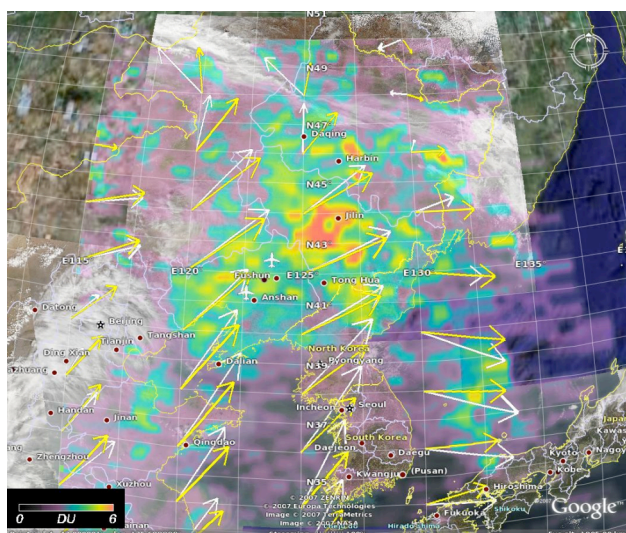


Figure 7. OMI SO₂ (color) and AQUA/MODIS RGB composites during East-AIRE aircraft campaign (flight region is shown with aircraft symbols) ahead of cold front on April 5 (left) and behind cold front on April 7 (right) 2005. Arrows show NCEP winds at surface and 800hpa. Apparent high SO₂ concentrations (~5DU) provide evidence of SO₂ plume lofting above the PBL and/or underlying clouds. Both effects increase OMI sensitivity, so the operational PBL SO₂ data should be corrected for both effects [17].

pollutions on a daily basis. The regional plume of SO₂, detected on 5 April over Shenyang area, was tracked for 4 days by OMI providing evidence for pollution lofting from the PBL and a large-scale impact of Chinese pollutant emissions.

The noise in OMI PBL data (with operational air mass factor, AMF of 0.36) is 1 to 1.5DU and almost independent on the region or season. Therefore, spatial averaging of OMI data reduces the noise as square root of the number of individual Field-of-view (IFOV) data averaged.

Comparisons with aircraft allowed quantifying the OMI bias (up to 2.5DU, OMI being higher). Averaging OMI data over flight region (2°x2°) reduces the biases to ~1DU. The smallest bias ~0.4DU was detected on the clean day over China, while zero bias was determined over pristine ocean region [17]. Both noise and bias are affected by OMI radiance/irradiance calibration. A preliminary comparison with collection 3 test data has shown that improved stray light correction substantially reduces positive OMI bias on polluted days over EAST-AIRE region. Therefore, we recommend using collection 3 reprocessed data that will be available in the fall 2007

For quantifying anthropogenic SO₂ emissions the operational AMF should be corrected to account for effects of observational geometry, total ozone, surface reflectivity, SO₂ vertical distribution, aerosols and clouds. AMF corrections can be performed off-line using AMF regressions parameterizations [17]. The corrections for absorbing aerosols over China (typical single scattering albedo ~0.9) using OMI industrial aerosol model [18] resulted in almost unchanged bias. However, dust and organic carbon aerosols (absorption increases at short UV wavelengths) would have much larger effect. Therefore quantifying spectral dependence of aerosol absorption at SO₂ wavelengths (310nm-330nm) is critical for the accurate estimate of the SO₂ mass using satellite UV measurements.

Using weekly, monthly or annual average SO₂ maps even weaker degassing and pollution stationary sources can be detected. SO₂ emissions have been measured by OMI over known sources of air pollution, such as the Ohio valley in the USA, eastern China, and Eastern Europe (e.g., Fig.8). We note that the SO₂ enhancements detected by OMI from sources in S. E. Europe (chiefly in Romania and Bulgaria (Fig. 8, middle)) correspond in both location and approximate column amount to GOME observations from February 1998 reported in [6]. These SO₂ emissions are sourced from lignite-burning power plants in the Balkan region [6].

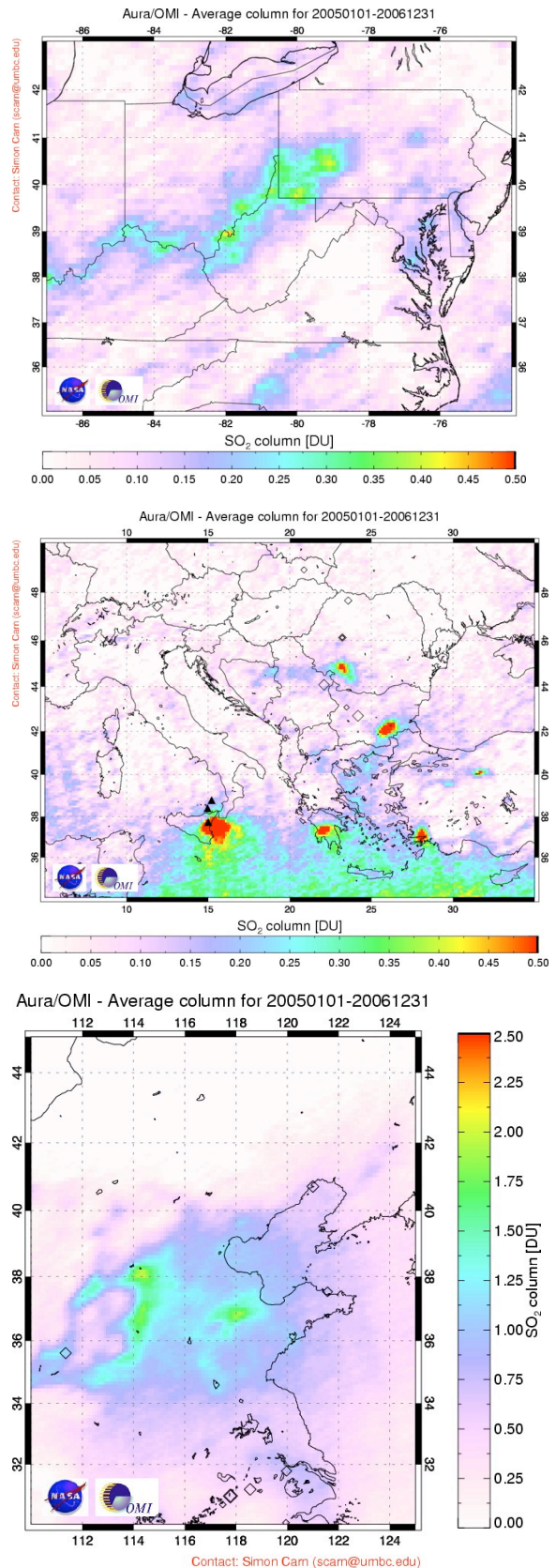


Figure 8. 2 year average SO₂ burdens over Ohio valley (US, top), SE Europe (middle) and China (bottom).

4. CONCLUSION

Using OMI data, users can directly compare daily global SO₂ emissions from anthropogenic and volcanic sources for the first time, and thus provide important new constraints on the relative magnitude of these fluxes. Such measurements are essential given the growing concern over the effects of anthropogenically-forced climate change and intercontinental transport of air pollution. The fast operational OMI SO₂ retrieval is also amenable to operational SO₂ alarm development, and near real-time application for aviation hazards and volcanic eruption warnings.

The operational (version 1) algorithm sensitivity does not represent the maximum sensitivity theoretically achievable with OMI, and hence future algorithm improvements (i.e. spectral fitting) as well as improvements in instrument calibrations (i.e. collection 3 data) should allow even weaker SO₂ sources to be monitored routinely. These measurements are expected to produce the best estimates to date of the volcanic contribution to global atmospheric SO₂ abundances.

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