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Constraints on PSC particle microphysics derived from lidar observations

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Abstract

Based on extensive T -matrix computations of light scattering by polydispersions of randomly oriented, rotationally symmetric nonspherical particles, we analyze existing lidar observations of polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) and derive several constraints on PSC particle microphysical properties. We show that sharp-edged nonspherical particles (finite circular cylinders) exhibit less variability of lidar backscattering characteristics with particle size and aspect ratio than particles with smooth surfaces (spheroids). For PSC particles significantly smaller than the wavelength, the backscatter color index α and the depolarization color index β are essentially shape independent. Observations for type Ia PSCs can be reproduced by spheroids with aspect ratios larger than 1.2, oblate cylinders with diameter-to-length ratios greater than 1.6, and prolate cylinders with length-to-diameter ratios greater than 1.4. The effective equal-volume-sphere radius for type Ia PSCs is about 0.8 μm or larger. Type Ib PSCs are likely to be composed of spheres or nearly spherical particles with effective radii smaller than 0.8 μm . Observations for type II PSCs are consistent with large ice crystals (effective radius greater than 1 μm) modeled as cylinders or prolate spheroids. Published by Elsevier Science Ltd.

Keywords: Scattering; Depolarization; Polar stratospheric clouds; Remote sensing; Nonspherical particles

1. Introduction

Although polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) are unlikely to cause a significant direct radiative forcing of climate, their critical role in chemical ozone depletion is now well recognized (e.g., [1] and references therein). A detailed review of PSC studies has recently been published by Toon et al. [2]. The traditional classification of PSC types is based on lidar observations [3]. Type Ia PSCs are characterized by low backscattering but strong depolarization, whereas

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type Ib PSCs exhibit the opposite behavior. Type II PSCs demonstrate both strong backscatter and large depolarization ratios. Type Ib clouds are believed to consist of droplets of supercooled ternary solutions (STSs) of water, nitric acid, and sulfuric acid [4], whereas type Ia PSCs are thought to form by condensation of nitric acid tri- or dihydrate (NAT or NAD). Type II PSCs are thought to consist of water ice crystals. Although more recent observations indicate the occurrence of other types of PSCs (e.g., [5–9]), the traditional classification covers the majority of PSC observations (e.g., [10]) and is, therefore, the focus of this paper.

Our aim is to derive certain constraints on PSC particle microphysics based solely on remote-sensing lidar observations. Although these constraints may not always provide a definitive identification of the shape, size, and composition of PSC particles, they can significantly narrow down the plausible range of particle microphysical parameters and can be useful in analyses of in situ physical and chemical measurements as well as in modeling PSC particle formation and evolution.

Analyzing lidar observations of PSCs is a challenging problem because many PSCs are likely to consist of nonspherical solid particles with sizes comparable to the wavelength of the lidar light (at least for lidars operating in the visible and near-infrared spectral ranges). Theoretical computations of lidar backscatter and depolarization by wavelength-sized nonspherical particles may not rely on the geometrical optics approximation [11,12] but must be based on directly solving the Maxwell equations using an exact numerical technique [13]. Although techniques such as the finite difference time domain method (FDTD; [14,15]) and the discrete dipole approximation (DDA; [16]) have no restrictions on the particle shape, their relatively low efficiency and limited size parameter range make their application to polydispersions of randomly oriented PSC particles problematic. Therefore, we base our analysis on the *T*-matrix code [17] specifically designed for polydisperse, randomly oriented, rotationally symmetric particles such as spheroids and finite circular cylinders. The code takes advantage of the analytical procedure for averaging scattering and absorption characteristics over the uniform distribution of particle orientations [18,19], uses the matrix inversion scheme based on a special form of the LU-factorization method [20], and extends the range of particle size parameters by employing extended-precision floating-point FORTRAN variables [21]. Although the code is limited to rotationally symmetric particle shapes, it is much faster and is applicable to significantly larger size parameters than FDTD and DDA. Furthermore, by changing the aspect ratio of spheroids and the length-to-diameter ratio of circular cylinders one can model a wide variety of oblate and prolate shapes with either smooth or sharp-edged surfaces.

2. *T*-matrix computations

Assuming that the laser light is linearly polarized, we define the linear backscattering depolarization ratio $\delta(\lambda)$ at the lidar wavelength λ as the ratio of the aerosol backscatter returns in the perpendicular, $\beta_{a\perp}(\lambda)$, and parallel, $\beta_{a\parallel}(\lambda)$, planes relative to the emitted polarization plane [22–24]:

$$\delta(\lambda) = \frac{\beta_{a\perp}(\lambda)}{\beta_{a\parallel}(\lambda)}. \quad (1)$$

The backscatter ratio $R(\lambda)$ is defined as the ratio of the total molecular, $\beta_m(\lambda)$, and aerosol, $\beta_a(\lambda)$, backscatter returns to the molecular backscatter return [3]:

$$R(\lambda) = \frac{\beta_m(\lambda) + \beta_a(\lambda)}{\beta_m(\lambda)}. \quad (2)$$

Similarly, the aerosol backscatter ratio is given by

$$R_a(\lambda) = \frac{\beta_a(\lambda)}{\beta_m(\lambda)} = R(\lambda) - 1. \quad (3)$$

The color ratio $S(\lambda_2, \lambda_1)$ is defined as the ratio of the aerosol backscatter ratios at wavelengths λ_2 and λ_1 :

$$S(\lambda_2, \lambda_1) = \frac{R_a(\lambda_2)}{R_a(\lambda_1)}. \quad (4)$$

The wavelength dependence of the aerosol backscatter is often characterized by the backscatter color index

$$\alpha = 4 - \frac{\ln S(\lambda_2, \lambda_1)}{\ln(\lambda_2/\lambda_1)}. \quad (5)$$

Analogously, the wavelength dependence of the depolarization ratio is described by the depolarization color index

$$\beta = -\frac{\ln [\delta(\lambda_2)/\delta(\lambda_1)]}{\ln(\lambda_2/\lambda_1)}. \quad (6)$$

It is thus assumed that the aerosol backscatter β_a is proportional to $\lambda^{-\alpha}$ (given the λ^{-4} dependence of the molecular backscatter) and the depolarization ratio δ is proportional to $\lambda^{-\beta}$. A positive α (β) indicates that the aerosol backscatter (depolarization ratio) decreases with increasing wavelength [25]. A large α indicates the abundance of particles with radii smaller than the lidar wavelengths, whereas a small α indicates the predominance of large particles [2,6]. The depolarization ratio vanishes for molecular scattering and spherical particles. A nonzero δ usually indicates the presence of nonspherical particles provided that the contribution of multiple scattering to the detected signal is negligible [23,24,26]. (Note, however, that wavelength-sized needlelike and platelike particles can generate depolarization ratios close to zero [27].)

The lidar scattering properties of particles depend upon the lidar wavelengths as well as on the particle size distribution, shape, and refractive index. We model the shape of nonspherical PSC particles using smooth spheroids with varying aspect ratios and sharp-edged circular cylinders with varying length-to-diameter ratios. Previous analyses of PSC observations assumed different analytical representations of the particle size distribution, including gamma and log normal distributions. However, it has been demonstrated by Hansen and Travis [28] that many size distributions can be well represented by just two parameters, the effective radius r_{eff} and effective variance v_{eff} . Specifically, they have shown that different size distributions but with the same r_{eff} and v_{eff} can be expected to have similar scattering properties. In this study, we have adopted

a simple power law distribution given by

$$n(r) = \begin{cases} C & \text{for } r \leq r_1, \\ C(r_1/r)^3 & \text{for } r_1 \leq r \leq r_2, \\ 0 & \text{for } r > r_2, \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where C is a normalization constant and r is the radius of the volume-equivalent sphere. The parameters r_1 and r_2 are chosen such that the effective variance is fixed at 0.1, representing a moderately wide distribution. An important advantage of the power law distribution is that for the same v_{eff} , it has a (much) smaller value of the maximal radius r_2 than optically equivalent gamma and log normal distributions, thereby significantly accelerating theoretical computations [29].

Most of our theoretical computations pertain to two typical lidar wavelengths of 603 and 1064 nm and assume a spectrally independent refractive index. Measurements by Deshler et al. [30] showed that the refractive index of PSC particles at visible and near-infrared wavelengths was close to 1.47 ± 0.01 in the lower nondepolarizing layer of the cloud and $1.52\text{--}1.56 \pm 0.04$ in the upper depolarizing layer. These values are in reasonable agreement with those reported by Middlebrook et al. [31] and Berland et al. [32]. A typical value of the refractive index of water ice at visible and near-infrared wavelengths is 1.308 [33]. Based on this evidence, we chose the refractive indices 1.5 and 1.308 as typical of type I and II PSC particles, respectively. We thus used the same refractive index for type Ia and Ib PSCs, the reason being that their refractive indices appear to be close and that their chemical composition remains to be somewhat uncertain. The computations have been performed for the range 0–3 μm of effective radii for prolate and oblate spheroids with aspect ratios from 1 to 2, prolate cylinders with length-to-diameter ratios from 1 to 2, and oblate cylinders with diameter-to-length ratios from 1 to 2.

3. Observational data

Table 1 summarizes the results of lidar observations of PSCs at $\lambda_1 = 603$ nm and $\lambda_2 = 1064$ nm performed by Browell et al. [3] during the NASA/NOAA Airborne Arctic Stratospheric Expedition in the winter of 1988–1989. Larsen et al. [34] performed extensive balloon-borne backscatter sonde observations of type I PSCs during the winters of 1989, 1990, 1995, and 1996 and concluded that the color ratio $S(940, 480 \text{ nm})$ was greater than 10 for type Ia PSCs

Table 1
Typical backscattering characteristics of PSCs observed by Browell et al. [3]

Cloud type	R		α	δ (%)		β
	$\lambda_1 = 603$ nm	$\lambda_2 = 1064$ nm		$\lambda_1 = 603$ nm	$\lambda_2 = 1064$ nm	
Ia	1.2–1.5	2–5	0.4	30–50	30–50	~ 0
Ib	3–8	5–20	2–3	0.5–2.5	<4	No data
II	>10	>20	<0.8	>10	>10	~ 0

Table 2
Ranges of backscattering characteristics for different PSC types used in this study

Cloud type	α	$\delta(603 \text{ nm})(\%)$	β
Ia	0–0.8	30–50	–0.4–0.4
Ib	1–3	0.5–2.5	No data
II	–0.2–0.8	> 10	–0.4–0.4

and was in the range 5–8 for type Ib PSCs. The range of the color ratio $S(940, 490 \text{ nm})$ observed by Vömel et al. [35] for type II PSCs was 11–15.

The backscatter ratio defined by Eq. (2) depends on the PSC particle number concentration. Since the latter cannot be directly retrieved from lidar measurements and is a priori unknown, we have not used the measurements of the backscatter ratio in our analysis. Unlike R , the backscatter color index, the depolarization ratio, and the depolarization color index are independent of the particle number concentration and can be directly used to infer particle microphysical characteristics. We have converted the color ratio values measured by Larsen et al. [34] and Vömel et al. [35] into the respective backscatter color index values and combined the latter with the measurements by Browell et al. [3]. Table 2 summarizes the ranges of the lidar quantities α , δ , and β used in our analysis. Note that instead of using a constant β value equal to zero for type Ia and II PSCs, we allowed it to vary within a narrow range $[-0.4, 0.4]$, which seems to be a reasonable assumption given the natural variability of PSC particles. The same approach was used to define the plausible range of variability of the backscatter color index for type Ia PSCs.

4. Analysis results

Figs. 1–4 summarize the results of the T -matrix computations. In general, the curves of all backscattering characteristics versus effective equivalent-sphere radius are (much) less aspect-ratio dependent for cylinders than for spheroids. This is not surprising since spheroids with an aspect ratio of one are perfect spheres, whereas cylinders with a length-to-diameter ratio of one are already distinctly nonspherical particles. There is a rapid increase of the depolarization ratio with increasing effective radius from 0 to about $0.5 \mu\text{m}$. Maximal δ values for most nonspherical particles are observed at effective equal-volume-sphere radii between 0.5 and $1.5 \mu\text{m}$. The most notable exception are nearly spherical spheroids, whose depolarization ratio increases with particle size rather monotonically. It is obvious that there is no definitive relationship between the magnitude of depolarization and the degree of particle asphericity [36]. For example, prolate spheroids with as small an aspect ratio as 1.05 (Fig. 1) produce depolarization ratios exceeding 65%. The maximal depolarization value ($\sim 70\%$) is produced by prolate ice spheroid with an aspect ratio of 1.2 (Fig. 3). The fact that this maximal value is caused by wavelength-sized particles indicates that multiple internal reflections in very large particles as discussed by Liou and Lahore [37] are not the only mechanism generating strong depolarization and not necessarily the mechanism producing maximal depolarization values [22].

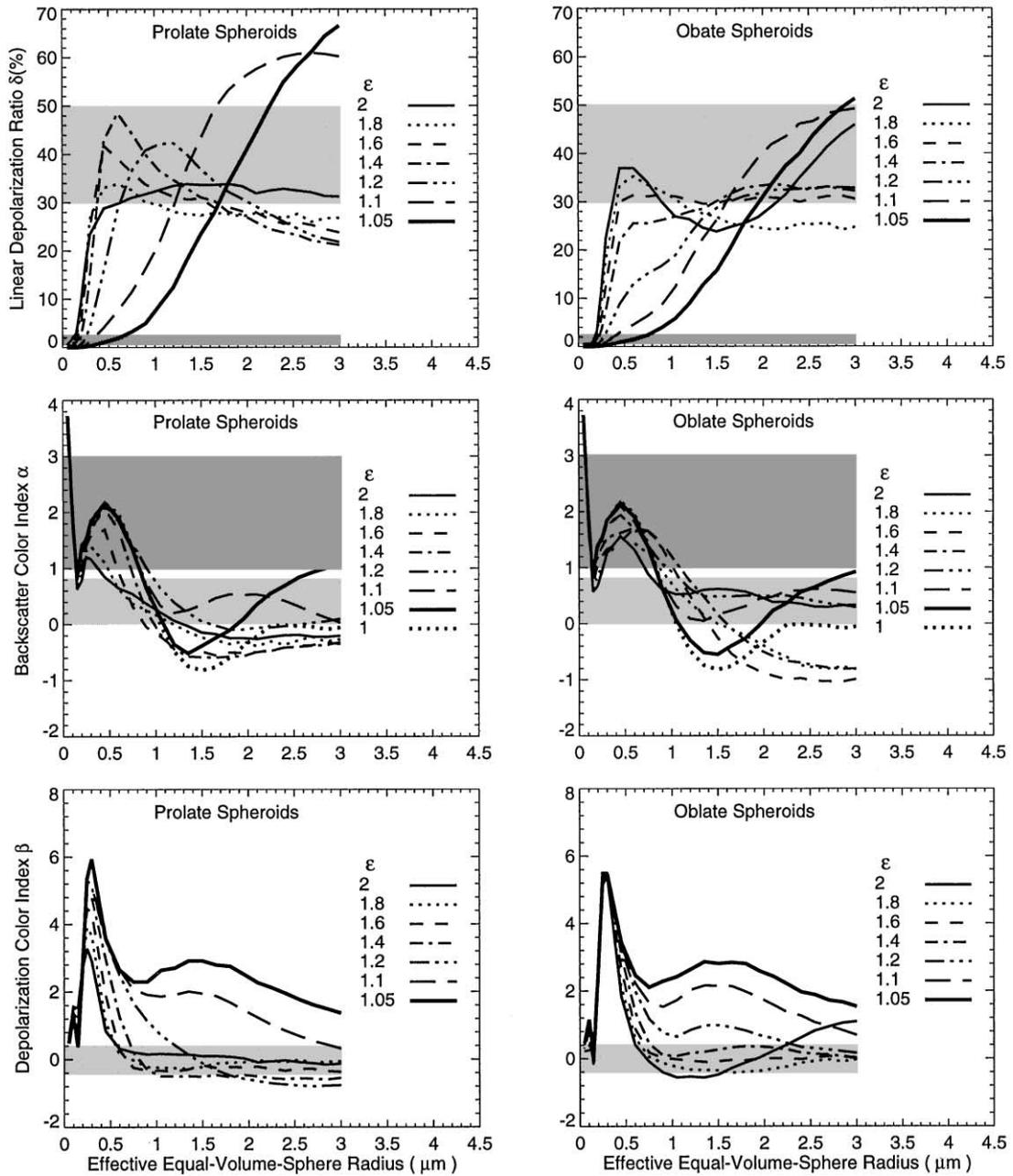


Fig. 1. Linear depolarization ratio $\delta(603 \text{ nm})$, backscatter color index α , and depolarization color index β versus effective equal-volume-sphere radius r_{eff} for polydisperse, randomly oriented spheroids with a refractive index of $m = 1.5$. ϵ is the ratio of the largest to the smallest semi-axes of a spheroid. The light and dark shaded areas show the observed ranges of these parameters for type Ia and Ib PSCs, respectively.

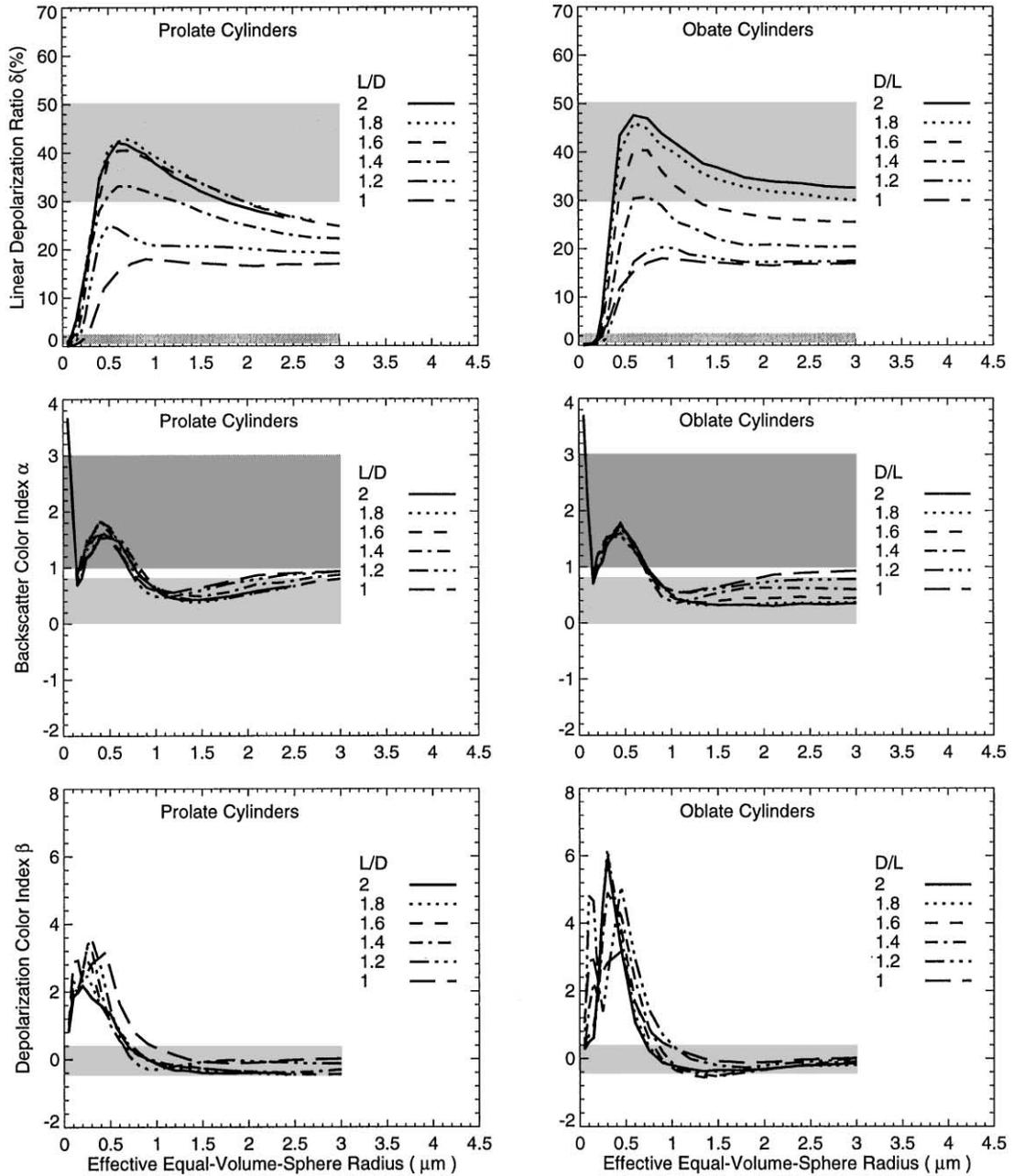


Fig. 2. As in Fig. 1, but for polydisperse, randomly oriented cylinders. The shapes of prolate and oblate cylinders are specified by length-to-diameter and diameter-to-length ratios, respectively.

In the large-particle limit, both α and β are expected to tend to zero for nonabsorbing scatterers. This trend is more visible for cylinders than for spheroids. However, both color indices exhibit a significant degree of variability in the range of sizes studied for

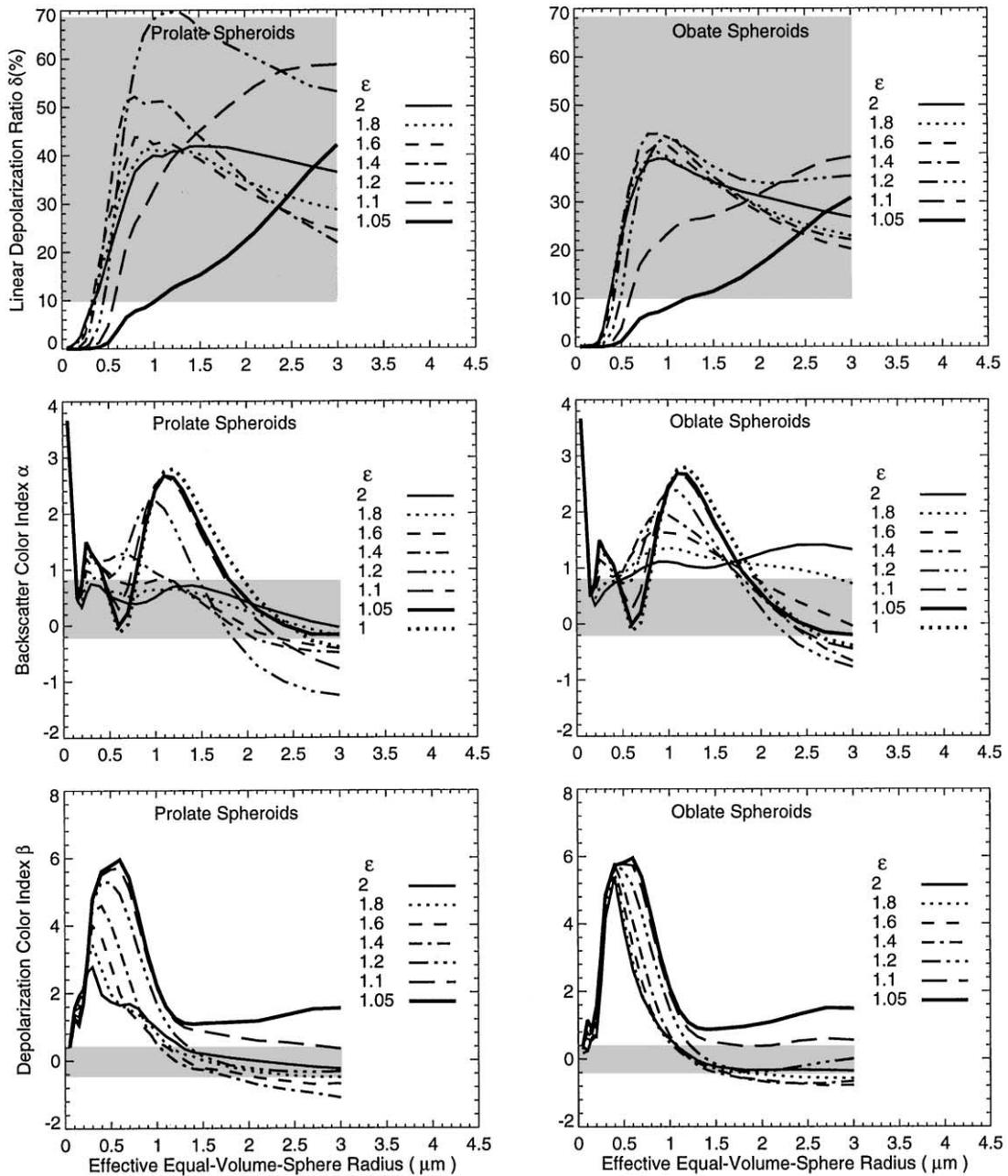


Fig. 3. As in Fig. 1, but for the refractive index $m = 1.308$ typical of water ice at visible wavelengths. The shaded areas show the respective ranges of the backscattering characteristics observed for type II PSCs.

cylinders as well as for spheroids. In the Rayleigh limit, α must tend to 4 and β must tend to zero. This theoretical behavior is indeed well reproduced by our T -matrix computations.

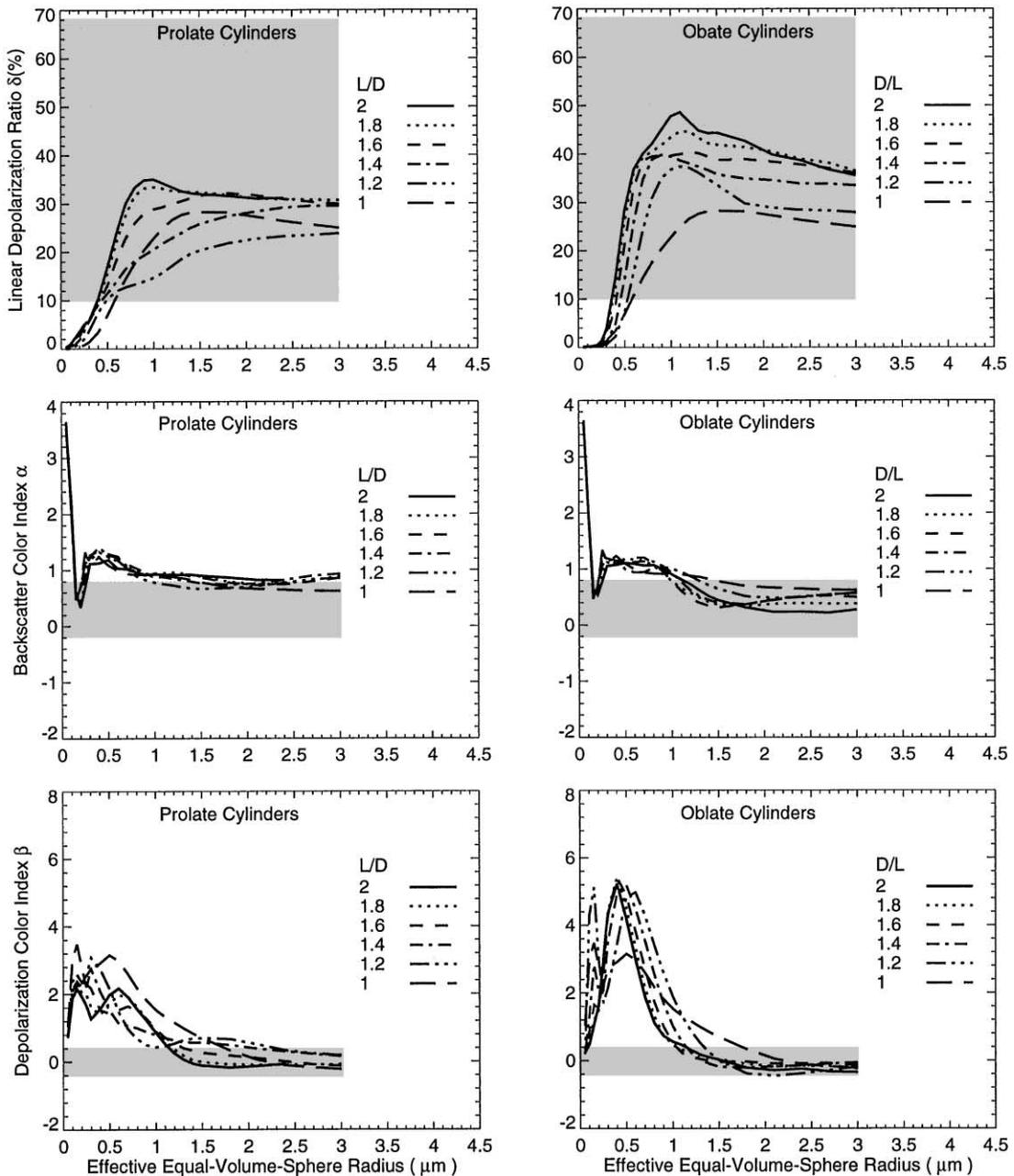


Fig. 4. As in Fig. 3, but for polydisperse, randomly oriented circular cylinders.

Figs. 5–7 show the ranges of the effective equivalent-sphere radius that reproduce the observed values of the respective backscattering characteristics for different particle shapes and refractive indices. To represent a plausible PSC particle, a combination of model size, shape, and refractive index must simultaneously reproduce all observed lidar characteristics.

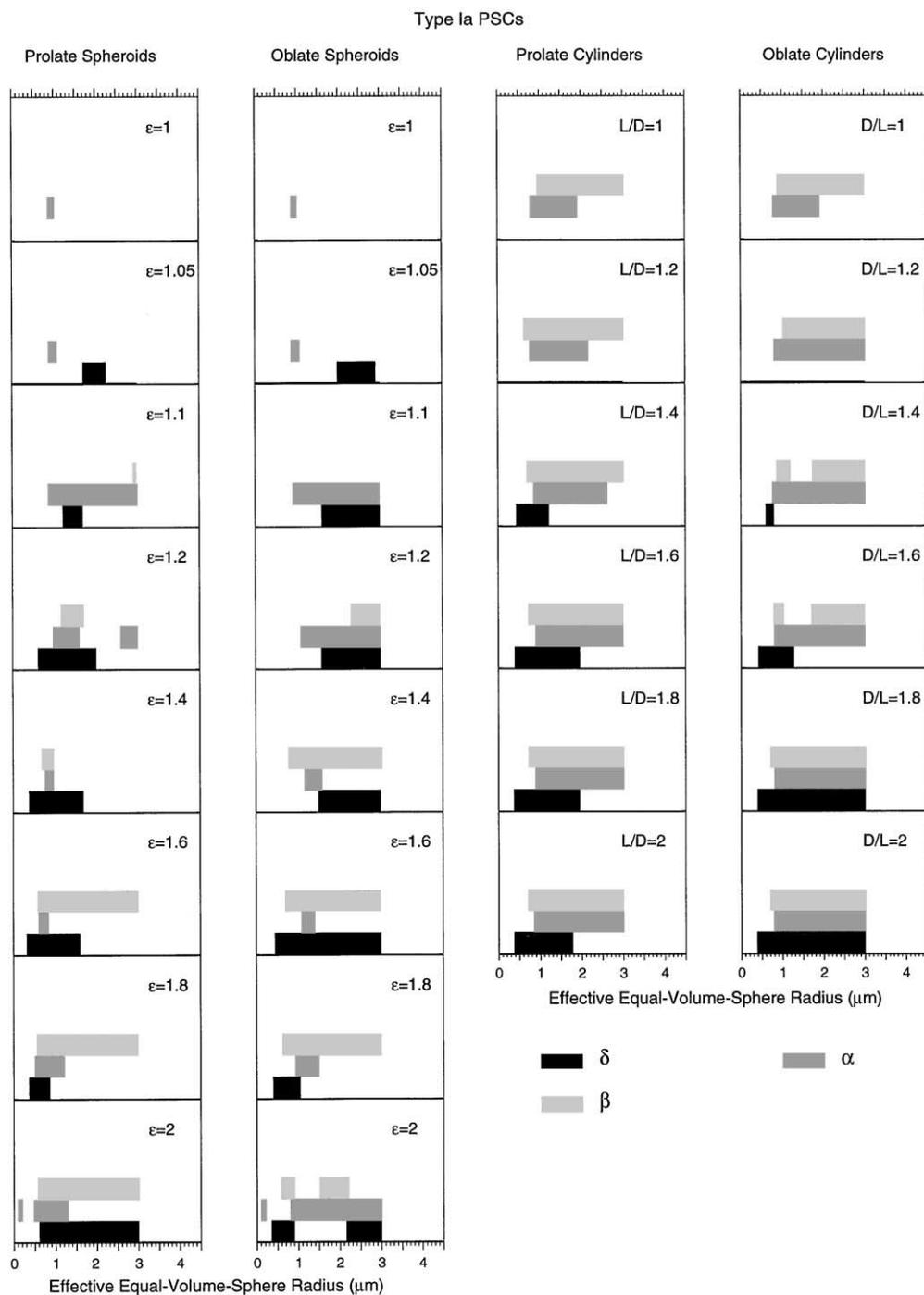


Fig. 5. The bars depict the respective ranges of the effective radius that reproduce the values of δ , α , and β observed for type Ia PSCs, as shown in Figs. 1 and 2.

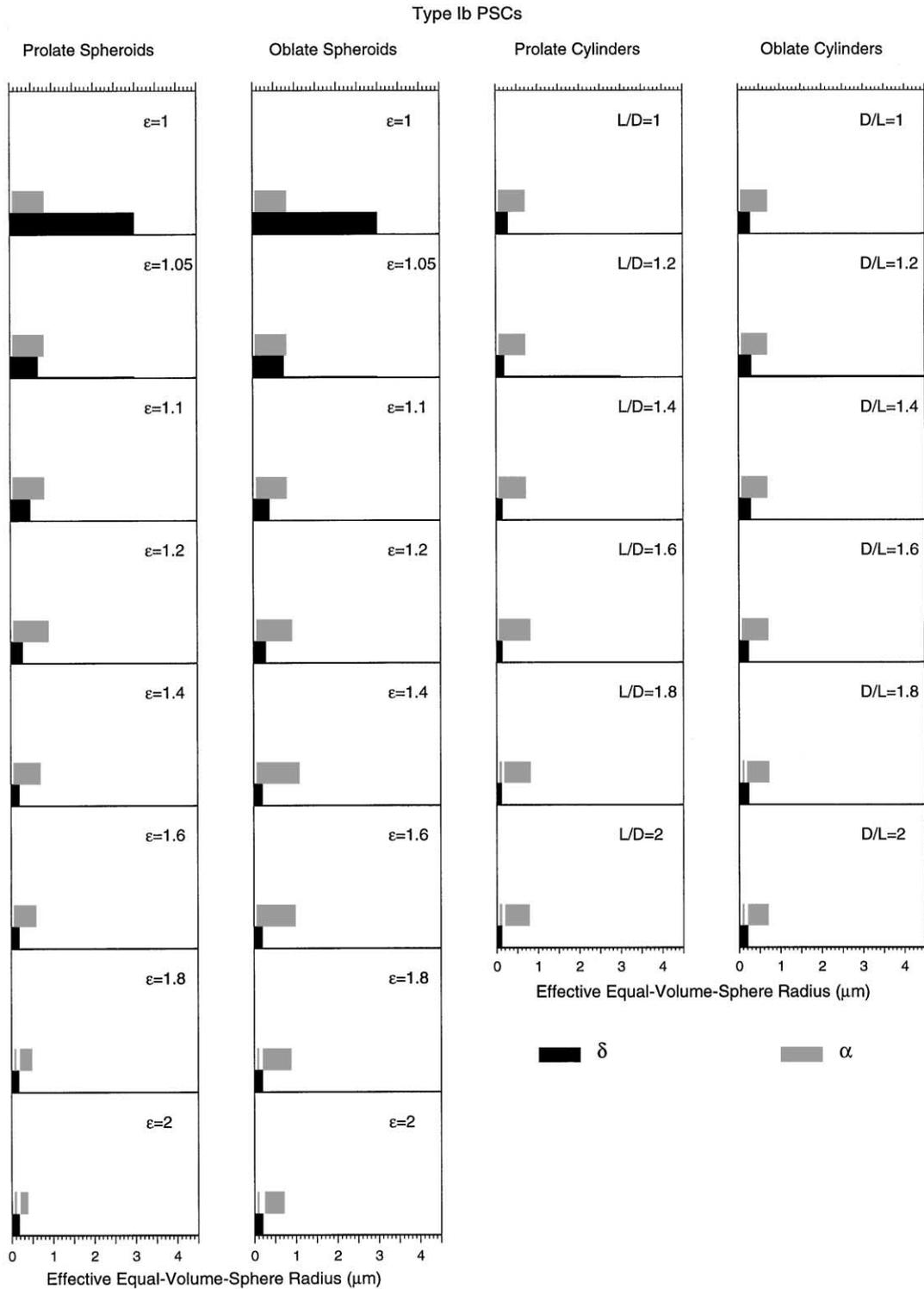


Fig. 6. The bars depict the respective ranges of the effective radius that reproduce the values of δ and α observed for type Ib PSCs, as shown in Figs. 1 and 2.

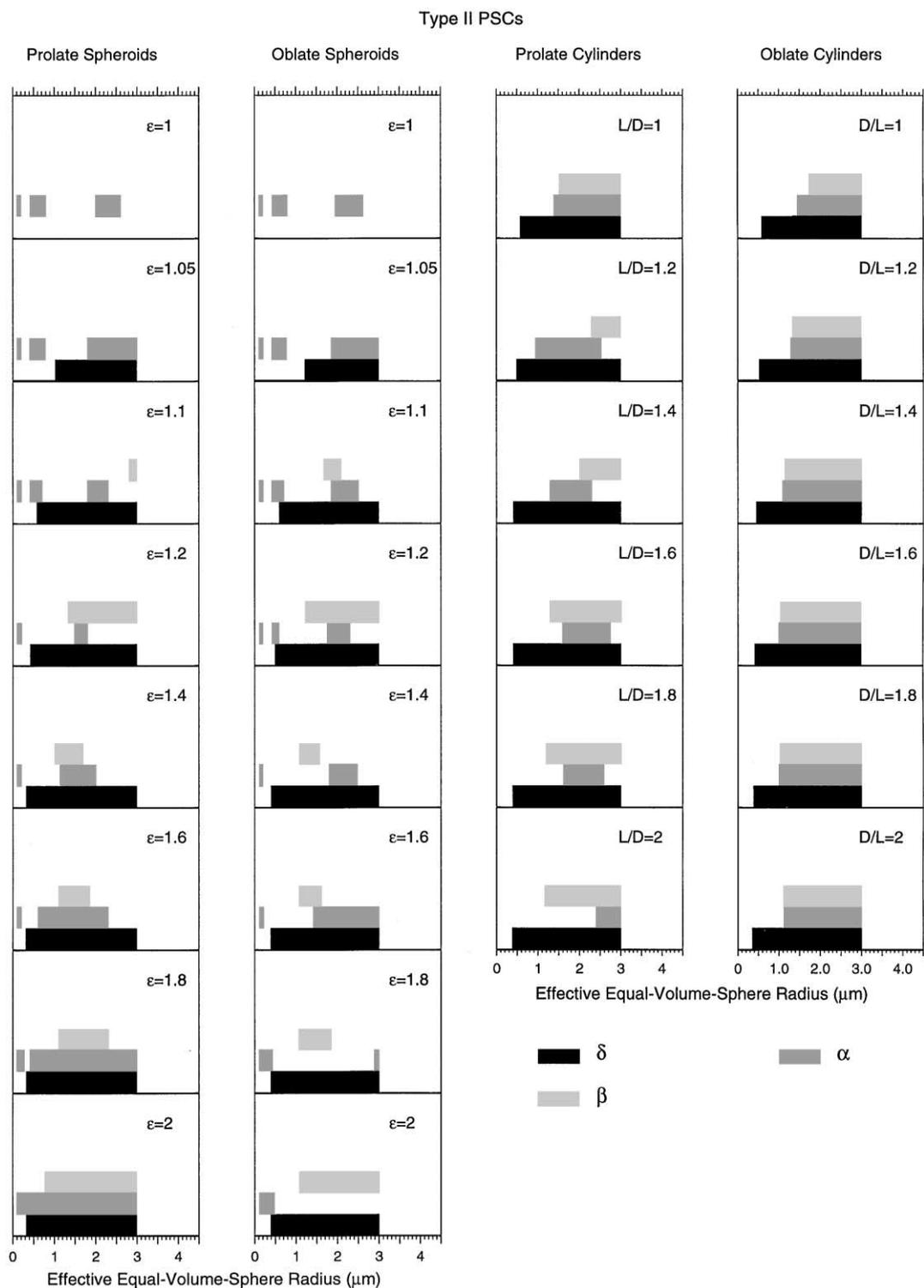


Fig. 7. The bars depict the respective ranges of the effective radius that reproduce the values of δ , α , and β observed for type II PSCs, as shown in Figs. 3 and 4.

Fig. 5 shows that cylinders with diameter-to-length and length-to-diameter ratios larger than about 1.5 and effective equivalent-sphere radii larger than about $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ are the likely model representatives of type Ia PSC particles. Prolate and oblate spheroids with aspect ratios 1.2 and larger are also acceptable solutions, although the ranges of the effective radius that reproduce all three lidar observables may be narrower than those for the cylinders and may be too shape-dependent to be realistic.

Fig. 6 suggests that type Ib PSC particles are likely to have effective radii less than $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ and are best represented by spheres or spheroids with very small aspect ratios. Spheroids with aspect ratios larger than 1.1 and cylinders may also qualify, but must have radii smaller than a few tenths of a micrometer. Note, however, that choosing the narrower range [2,3] of α values observed by Browell et al. [3] would constrain type Ib PSC particles to spheres or nearly spherical spheroids with effective radii close to $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ (cf. [2]).

According to Fig. 7, type II PSC particles are well represented by ice cylinders and prolate spheroids ($\varepsilon \geq 1.2$) with effective equivalent-sphere radii exceeding $1 \mu\text{m}$. Although oblate ice spheroids with $\varepsilon = 1.1, 1.2$, and 1.6 are also potential candidates, the respective effective radius ranges appear to be too narrow to be realistic.

5. Concluding remarks

We have used the current advanced version of the T -matrix method to perform massive computations of backscattering lidar characteristics for polydisperse, randomly oriented spheroids and circular cylinders and analyzed the existing lidar measurements of three predominant types of PSCs. Our analysis is an extension of that previously published by Toon et al. [2] and determines the likely ranges of particle physical parameters that reproduce the existing lidar data. We have not discussed the plausibility of our results from the standpoint of the physics and chemistry of PSC formation and evolution and hope that such a discussion will be the subject of further research.

An obvious limitation of our analysis is the use of simple, rotationally symmetric shapes and a restricted range of particle sizes. Although our model shapes and the range of effective radii from 0 to $3 \mu\text{m}$ may be relevant to many real PSCs, further effort is obviously warranted in order to include particles with larger sizes (e.g., [38]) and more irregular shapes (e.g., [14]). Another desirable extension would be an analysis of less frequently encountered types of PSCs potentially composed of a mixture of different particle species [2].

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