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Song Guo

Michigan Technological University

Gregg J. S. Bluth

Michigan Technological University

William I. Rose

Michigan Technological University

M. I. Watson

Michigan Technological University

A. J. Prata

CSIRO Atmospheric Research

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Recommended Citation

Guo, S., Bluth, G. J., Rose, W. I., Watson, M. I., & Prata, A. J. (2004). Re-evaluation of SO₂ release of the 15 June 1991 Pinatubo eruption using ultraviolet and infrared satellite sensors. *AGU Publications*, 5(4).

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1029/2003GC000654>

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Re-evaluation of SO₂ release of the 15 June 1991 Pinatubo eruption using ultraviolet and infrared satellite sensors

Song Guo

Department of Geological Engineering and Sciences, Michigan Technological University, Houghton, Michigan 49931, USA

Now at Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, McGill University, 805 Sherbrooke Street West, Montreal, Quebec H3A 2K6, Canada (songguo@zephyr.meteo.mcgill.ca)

Gregg J. S. Bluth, William I. Rose, and I. Matthew Watson

Department of Geological Engineering and Sciences, Michigan Technological University, Houghton, Michigan 49931, USA

A. J. Prata

CSIRO Atmospheric Research, PB 1 Aspendale, Victoria, Australia

[1] In this study, ultraviolet TOMS (Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer) satellite data for SO₂ are re-evaluated for the first 15 days following the 15 June 1991 Pinatubo eruption to reflect new data retrieval and reduction methods. Infrared satellite SO₂ data from the TOVS/HIRS/2 (TIROS (Television Infrared Observation Satellite) Optical Vertical Sounder/High Resolution Infrared Radiation Sounder/2) sensor, whose data sets have a higher temporal resolution, are also analyzed for the first time for Pinatubo. Extrapolation of SO₂ masses calculated from TOMS and TOVS satellite measurements 19–118 hours after the eruption suggest initial SO₂ releases of 15 ± 3 Mt for TOMS and 19 ± 4 Mt for TOVS, including SO₂ sequestered by ice in the early Pinatubo cloud. TOVS estimates are higher in part because of the effects of early formed sulfate. The TOMS SO₂ method is not sensitive to sulfate, but can be corrected for the existence of this additional emitted sulfur. The mass of early formed sulfate in the Pinatubo cloud can be estimated with infrared remote sensing at about 4 Mt, equivalent to 3 Mt SO₂. Thus the total S release by Pinatubo, calculated as SO₂, is 18 ± 4 Mt based on TOMS and 19 ± 4 Mt based on TOVS. The SO₂ removal from the volcanic cloud during 19–374 hours of atmospheric residence describes overall e-folding times of 25 ± 5 days for TOMS and 23 ± 5 days for TOVS. These removal rates are faster in the first 118 hours after eruption when ice and ash catalyze the reaction, and then slow after heavy ash and ice fallout. SO₂ mass increases in the volcanic cloud are observed by both TOMS and TOVS during the first 70 hours after eruption, most probably caused by the gas-phase SO₂ release from sublimating stratospheric ice-ash-gas mixtures. This result suggests that ice-sequestered SO₂ exists in all tropical volcanic clouds, and at least partially explains SO₂ mass increases observed in other volcanic clouds in the first day or two after eruption.

Components: 10,614 words, 7 figures, 5 tables, 2 videos.

Keywords: Satellite remote sensing; Pinatubo eruption; SO₂ release; volcanic eruptions.

Index Terms: 0370 Atmospheric Composition and Structure: Volcanic effects (8409); 1640 Global Change: Remote sensing; 0320 Atmospheric Composition and Structure: Cloud physics and chemistry.

Received 25 October 2003; **Revised** 6 January 2004; **Accepted** 20 January 2004; **Published** 3 April 2004.



Guo, S., G. J. S. Bluth, W. I. Rose, I. M. Watson, and A. J. Prata (2004), Re-evaluation of SO₂ release of the 15 June 1991 Pinatubo eruption using ultraviolet and infrared satellite sensors, *Geochem. Geophys. Geosyst.*, 5, Q04001, doi:10.1029/2003GC000654.

1. Introduction

[2] Mount Pinatubo is located at 15°08'N, 120°21'E in western Luzon, Philippines. After weeks of precursory activity, the largest eruption of the past 25 years occurred around 13:42 (local time) on 15 June 1991 and lasted for more than 9 hours [Wolfe and Hoblitt, 1996]. In this paper we examine ultraviolet and infrared satellite data for 15 days following the eruption.

[3] Satellite-based studies of volcanic gases have largely relied on ultraviolet sensing of sulfur dioxide. Krueger [1983] used the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) on NASA's Nimbus-7 satellite to map the volcanic SO₂ cloud from the 1982 El Chichón eruption. Since then, TOMS has been routinely used to trace the development and movement of volcanic clouds, and quantify volcanic SO₂ releases [Krueger, 1983; Bluth et al., 1993; Krueger et al., 1995, 2000; Carn et al., 2003].

[4] The SO₂ volcanic clouds from the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo eruption were first studied using TOMS by Bluth et al. [1992]. Results include: (1) Total SO₂ mass released was estimated to be 20 Mt with an uncertainty of 30%; (2) An SO₂ removal/conversion rate (e-folding time) was estimated to be 35 days; and (3) The SO₂ cloud, moving westerly, encircled the Earth in about 22 days.

[5] The SO₂ budget for the 1991 Pinatubo eruption was also studied using the Nimbus-7 Solar Backscatter Ultraviolet Spectrometer (SBUV/2) data from 1 July and 17 July by McPeters [1993], who concluded: (1) An estimated total SO₂ mass release of 12–15 Mt (the accuracy was reported as 10–20%, but Schnetzler et al. [1995] pointed out that this referred to individual measurements, and that the uncertainty in the SBUV-derived cloud mass estimate, based on only two data points, must

be significantly higher.) (2) An estimate of SO₂ e-folding time of 24 days.

[6] Reed et al. [1993] used data 100–170 days after the eruption from the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) experiment on the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS) to infer that the initially erupted SO₂ mass was 17 Mt and the SO₂ e-folding time was 33 days (no uncertainties were estimated).

[7] This paper is a re-evaluation of the Pinatubo SO₂ emission using TOMS, and includes new analyses using infrared satellite data. This new study is important because: (1) Pinatubo was the largest and most atmospherically significant event of the satellite era and the data have been widely cited and used with climate models [e.g., Bekki and Pyle, 1994; Timmreck et al., 1999; Liu and Penner, 2002; Robock, 2002]. (2) TOMS data have been re-processed for an improved accuracy [McPeters et al., 1996]. (3) A new TOMS algorithm has been developed for providing more accurate SO₂ results [Krueger et al., 2000]. (4) Analytical techniques are available to help resolve problems of missing data and incomplete or redundant coverage from orbital and swath characteristics (this paper). (5) A new infrared SO₂ retrieval algorithm, using measurements from the High-resolution Infrared Radiation Sounder/2 (HIRS/2) on NOAA's TIROS Operational Vertical Sounder (TOVS) platform, has been demonstrated by A. J. Prata, W. I. Rose, S. Self, and D. M. O'Brien (Global, long-term sulphur dioxide measurements from TOVS data: A new tool for studying explosive volcanism and climate, manuscript submitted to *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 2004, hereinafter referred to as Prata et al., submitted manuscript, 2004) (TOVS/HIRS/2 sensor is referred as TOVS sensor in this paper). The use of TOVS data provides higher spatial (17.5 km versus 50 km at nadir) and temporal resolution volcanic SO₂ cloud images (several times a day compared to once per day

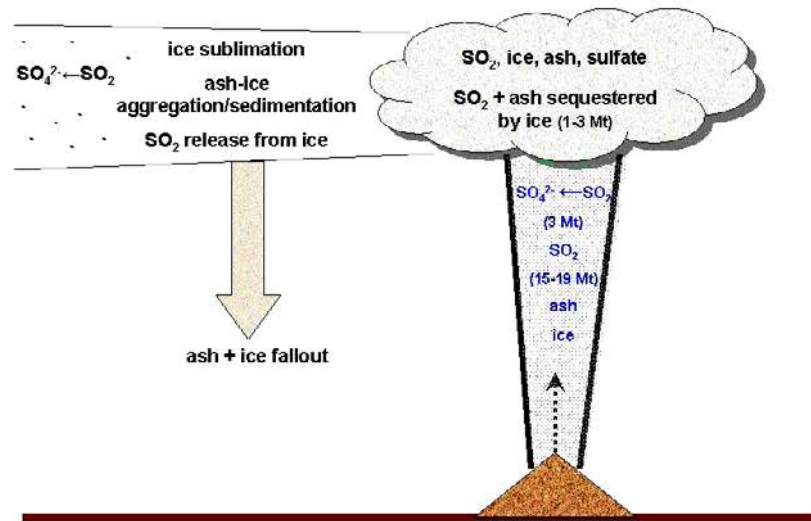


Figure 1. Schematic figure showing how ice, ash, sulfate are distributed in Pinatubo's rising plume and drifting volcanic cloud.

for TOMS). Together with TOMS SO₂ cloud images, a better understanding of the development of the Pinatubo volcanic SO₂ cloud and a better estimate of the fate of SO₂ within the volcanic cloud is achieved.

[8] Huge masses of volcanic ash and gas, mixed with hydrometeors, were directly emitted into the stratosphere by Pinatubo and this resulted in global environmental, atmospheric, and climatic effects for up to several years. The most significant atmospheric effects included: (1) Large stratospheric sulfate aerosol loading with chemical and dynamic perturbations affecting stratospheric NO₂, reactive chlorine, and ozone concentrations and increasing stratospheric opacity [McCormick *et al.*, 1995]; (2) Cooling effects in the troposphere (more solar radiation scattering back to space) and warming effects in the stratosphere (infrared absorptivity of stratospheric aerosols) [McCormick *et al.*, 1995]. Summer surface cooling (average -3°C) and winter surface warming (average $+3^{\circ}\text{C}$) were found in the northern hemisphere 1–2 years after eruption [Robock, 2002]; (3) Destruction of stratospheric ozone after the eruption due to both heterogeneous reactions occurring on the surface of sulfate aerosol (similar to heterogeneous reactions that occur within polar stratospheric clouds responsible for the Antarctic Ozone Hole [Solomon *et al.*, 1993]), and circulation changes after the eruption [Kinne

et al., 1992]; and (4) Climatic effects worldwide which lasted for up to several years after eruption [Robock, 2002]. Because Pinatubo was the largest and most climatically significant eruption in recent years it is important that the stratospheric loading be illuminated so that we can learn how to scale the atmospheric effects of eruptions (Figure 1). There are also important volcanological questions concerning the nature of the eruption that may be tested by the data we report on the volcanic cloud, such as the importance of co-ignimbrite cloud processes [Darteville *et al.*, 2002] and the excess of sulfur in the eruption [Gerlach *et al.*, 1996; Wallace *et al.*, 2003].

2. Methods Used for SO₂ Retrieval

[9] The characteristics of the TOMS and TOVS satellite sensors are summarized in Table 1. One daily TOMS SO₂ measurement around local solar noon and 6 TOVS measurements each day for the first 15 days after eruption are available for this study (2 images from each NOAA-n satellite), though some days only 5 measurements are usable.

2.1. TOMS

[10] The Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) was mainly designed and used to monitor



Table 1. Characteristics of TOMS and TOVS Satellite Sensors^a

TOMS ^b			TOVS ^c		
Channel	Wavelength, μm	Application	Channel	Wavelength, μm	Application
1	312.3	SO ₂	5	13.97	sulfate
2	317.3	SO ₂	6	13.64	sulfate
3	331.1	SO ₂ , AI	7	13.35	sulfate
4	339.7	SO ₂	8	11.11	sulfate
5	359.9	SO ₂ , AI	9	9.71	sulfate
6	380.0		10	8.16	sulfate
			11	7.33	SO ₂ ^d

^a AI (Aerosol Index), which is the difference of the measured spectral contrast between the 331.1 nm and 359.9 nm radiances and the spectral contrast between the 331.1 nm and 359.9 nm radiances, is an index representing the ash and aerosol within the volcanic cloud qualitatively [Seftor *et al.*, 1997; Krotkov *et al.*, 1999].

^b McPeters *et al.* [1996]. Spatial resolution is 50 km (nadir).

^c Yu and Rose [2000]. Spatial resolution is 17.5 km (nadir).

^d Prata *et al.* [2004].

the total column amount of ozone (O₃) globally. However, because SO₂ absorbs similarly to O₃ in the wavelengths used by TOMS, Krueger *et al.* [1983] developed a method to discriminate, and quantify, SO₂. Since then, TOMS has been routinely used to trace the development and movement of volcanic clouds, quantify volcanic SO₂ amounts, and obtain information on ash particles in volcanic clouds [Krueger *et al.*, 1983; Bluth *et al.*, 1993; Krueger *et al.*, 1995, 2000]. The TOMS wavelengths used for SO₂ retrieval are summarized in Table 1.

[11] The TOMS Matrix Inversion algorithm [Krueger *et al.*, 1995] was used in the initial estimate of Pinatubo's SO₂ emission by Bluth *et al.* [1992]. This method uses a linear model of scattering and absorption and a matrix inversion technique to simultaneously determine the total column amounts of ozone and sulfur dioxide. Here we use an updated algorithm ("Iterative" algorithm) described in Krueger *et al.* [2000]. The Iterative algorithm is based on the Matrix Inversion algorithm except an effective optical path determined from a radiative transfer model is used instead of a geometric optical path. The Matrix Inversion uncertainty is estimated at $\pm 10\%$ for most central scan angles, and $\pm 30\%$ at large solar zenith angles near the swath edges [Krueger *et al.*, 1995]. We use Krueger *et al.*'s $\pm 10\%$ uncertainty because the Matrix Inversion and Iterative algorithms have basically the same considerations, and because the large (multiorbit) geographic areas

covered by the Pinatubo gas cloud ensures that central scan angles will dominate. At moderate optical depths (0.3), volcanic ash and sulfate aerosol in the volcanic plume produced a 15–25% overestimation of sulfur dioxide for the Matrix Inversion algorithm [Krueger *et al.*, 1995]. In this paper the possibility of overestimation of SO₂ in early ash-rich and ice-rich Pinatubo volcanic clouds was reduced, because the emitted mass estimate was generated from 15 days of observations; thus, most of the sulfur dioxide mass data were unbiased by ash and ice interferences.

[12] TOMS SO₂ results have also been validated by ground measurement of SO₂ using a Brewer Spectrophotometer (Mount Spurr plume passing over Toronto on 19 September 1992) [Krueger *et al.*, 1995] and a correlation spectrometer (COSPEC) (Galunggung cloud in Indonesia from 19 August to 19 September 1982) [Bluth *et al.*, 1994]. The differences between Matrix Inversion algorithm and ground measurements were estimated to be less than 20–30% [Krueger *et al.*, 1995, 2000]. Because of the scanning and zenith angles of the volcanic cloud at the time of the Brewer measurements, errors of up to 30% were calculated for the Spurr case (owing to its relatively small geographic cloud area) but the average geometry during TOMS Pinatubo cloud measurements is much more favorable.

2.2. TOVS

[13] SO₂ retrieval with TOVS is based on the anti-symmetric stretch of the SO₂ molecule centered at

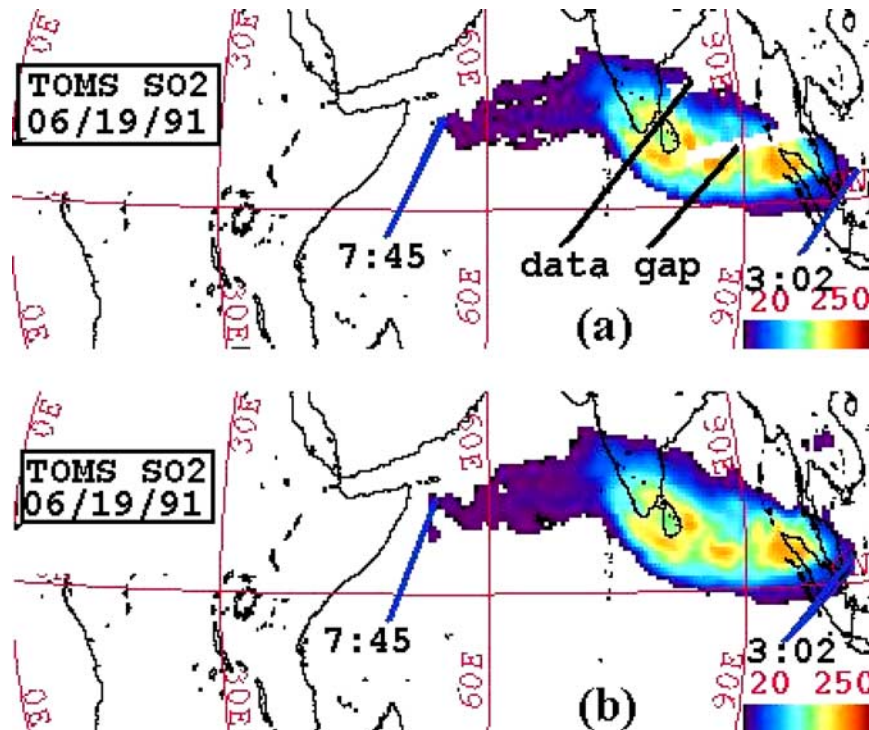


Figure 2. (a) TOMS SO₂ image with two data gaps sampled in Terascan™ (an image displaying software). (b) Reconstructed TOMS SO₂ image through Kriging method, showing reconstructed data. Latitude and longitude grid spacing is 30°. Linear bar scales have SO₂ values represented in Dobson Units (DU). The times (in GMT) represent the sensor observation times of the volcanic cloud. The solid blue lines point to an intersection of the orbital swath's central scan position with the volcanic cloud.

7.3 μm (Prata et al., submitted manuscript, 2004). The 7.3 μm channel of the TOVS instrument measures the absorption of both SO₂ and water vapor. The water vapor absorption for the 7.3 μm channel can be estimated by linearly interpolating the radiance of 6.7 μm and 11.1 μm channels. The difference between interpolated and measured radiance is assumed to be due to SO₂ absorption. Little silicate ash absorption exists in the 7.3 μm channel; therefore, no silicate ash effect needs to be considered in the calculation of SO₂ (Prata et al., submitted manuscript, 2004). The TOVS SO₂ retrieval algorithm is based on the radiative transfer model by Pierluissi and Tomiyama [1980]. The parameters that are critical to determine the retrieved SO₂ amount and total SO₂ mass within the whole volcanic cloud are: (1) an estimated SO₂ cloud height; (2) the atmospheric temperature profile; (3) the background “cutoff” value. The errors of the TOVS SO₂ retrieval are estimated to be 5–10% by Prata et al. (submitted manuscript, 2004).

[14] The maximum plume altitude of the main 1991 Pinatubo eruption is estimated to be ~ 39 km [Holasek et al., 1996]. The neutral buoyant regions of the volcanic SO₂ and ash cloud are estimated to be 25 km and 22 km, respectively, using cloud positions derived from satellite sensors (TOMS, TOVS, AVHRR) and NASA isentropic wind trajectory model [Guo et al., 2004]. Reed et al. [1993] also estimated that the SO₂ peak layer was around 26 km. The Pinatubo volcanic clouds are assumed to mainly travel in the neutral buoyant region several hours after the eruption stops. The estimated ranges of the neutral buoyant regions are consistent with other measurements: 17–26 km (lidar) by DeFoor et al. [1992], 20–23 km (balloon) by Deshler et al. [1992], 17–28 km (lidar) by Jaeger [1992], and 17–25 km (lidar) by Avdyushin et al. [1993]. In this study, an altitude of 25 km is used for all TOVS SO₂ retrievals. If the TOVS altitudes were assumed to be lower, for example

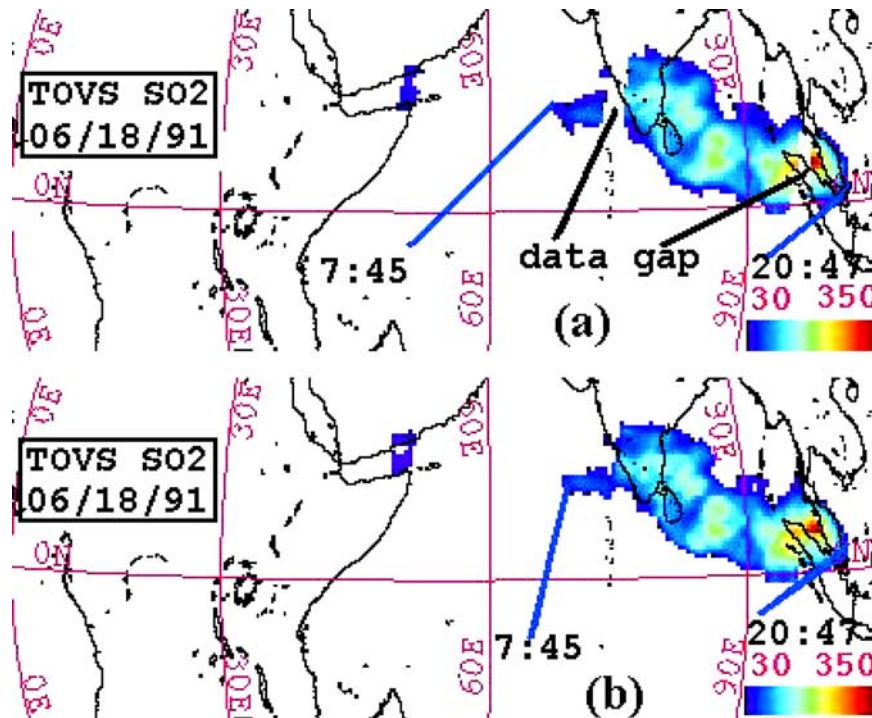


Figure 3. (a) TOVS SO₂ images with two orbit data gaps sampled in Terascan. (b) Reconstructed TOVS SO₂ image through nearest neighbor method, showing reconstructed orbit data. Latitude and longitude grid spacing is 30°. Linear bar scales have SO₂ values represented in Dobson Units (DU). The times (in GMT) represent the sensor observation times of the volcanic cloud. The solid blue lines point to an intersection of the orbital swath's central scan position with the volcanic cloud.

at 23 km, the SO₂ burdens would change by about 2–5%.

2.3. Enhancing Incomplete Satellite Coverage of Volcanic Cloud Masses

[15] Both systematic and random data gaps exist in the TOMS and TOVS data sets (Figures 2a and 3a). Past studies [e.g., Bluth *et al.*, 1992] have not attempted to correct for these chronic losses, and here we employ some image processing methods to produce contiguous two-dimensional (2-D) maps of volcanic SO₂ clouds which bridge data gaps.

[16] Although designed as a mapper, the curvature of the Earth as well as the TOMS sensor scanning produce small areas (up to 20% of the pixel area) in each scan line where the adjacent pixels overlap, as well as small areas which are not covered [McPeters *et al.*, 1996]. Random data gaps also occur, due to both sensor malfunctions and data losses during recording and transmission. In these cases, the typical losses consist of sequences of several missing scan lines (the missing part typically

comprises 2°–3° in latitude and 24°–26° in longitude). For Pinatubo, random data gaps occur in almost every image, and often within the volcanic SO₂ cloud region (approximately 10% of the data are missing from the SO₂ cloud in days 2, 4, 5, and 7 after eruption).

[17] In the TOVS data set, systematic gaps occur owing to frequent calibration (3 scan lines after every 40, or every 256 seconds). Also, one or more large (2°–5° in longitude and within the whole latitude range) gaps exist between neighboring orbits, in all volcanic cloud images used in this study. Slight gaps also exist between scan lines. Overall for the TOVS Pinatubo data set, 10–30% of the data are missing in every image studied.

[18] Two methods of satellite image reconstruction are applied in this paper, which resample irregular satellite data to a regular grid. The TOMS data sets are resampled using a Punctual Kriging statistical analysis. However, owing to the relatively large gaps in the TOVS data sets [Kidwell, 1998], these were resampled using a nearest-neighbor interpola-



tion. These two resampling schemes are standard features available in Interactive Data Analysis (IDL)[™] (<http://www.rsinc.com/idl>) software package we used to process and analyze the TOMS and TOVS data. In Figures 2a and 3a, TOMS and TOVS images are presented for 18 and 19 June 1991, respectively. These demonstrate both systematic (TOVS) and random (TOMS) gaps in coverage. Figures 2b and 3b show the reconstructed images using the above processing techniques.

[19] Visual inspection of the images suggests the reconstructions have not introduced any unreasonable values. In addition, each method was quantitatively tested by reconstructing gaps that were arbitrarily imposed (the imposed gap areas are the same as the actual gaps in the TOMS and TOVS data sets) in complete portions of TOMS and TOVS SO₂ cloud images. The Kriging method used for TOMS resulted in less than 2% error in total cloud mass; the nearest neighbor resampling for TOVS reproduced SO₂ masses to within 15% error. The larger error reflects the larger gaps in the data which occur in the TOVS data sets.

[20] If the edge of the volcanic cloud happens to be within the TOVS data gaps or data gaps occupy >30% of the whole cloud in area, the image reconstruction methods cannot provide a reliable total SO₂ tonnage. Therefore these images are not used in the estimation of initially erupted SO₂ or e-folding time in this paper. The image reconstruction method is also not applied to the TOVS SO₂ images for the first 19 hours after eruption as unmappable portions exist in the cloud due to the high opacity [Guo *et al.*, 2004].

3. Results

3.1. 2-D Mapping of Pinatubo Volcanic SO₂ Clouds

[21] TOMS and TOVS SO₂ maps are used to study the 2-D distribution of the volcanic SO₂ cloud

(Figure 4, Animations 1 and 2; animations available in the HTML version of the article at <http://www.g-cubed.org>). The volcanic SO₂ cloud travels westerly along the same latitude, with slight dispersion to the south. Its leading edge from the 15 June main eruption (the high burden part of the cloud) reached the Indian mainland 3 days (06/18/91) after the eruption, and passed over Africa 5–10 days (06/20/91–06/25/91) after the eruption (Figure 4). The SO₂ clouds are well distinguished and easily identified from the background values for 15 days. The SO₂ cloud circled the earth about 21 days after the eruption. Note however, that the trailing edge of the cloud remained over the Indian Ocean and India. The detection and movement of the Pinatubo volcanic ash and aerosol masses, and their comparison with the SO₂ cloud, are detailed in Guo *et al.* [2004].

[22] The 2 dimensional volcanic cloud areas mapped by TOMS and TOVS increased from about $3\text{--}4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ after 1 day to about $30 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ after 15 days (Figure 5a). The maximum SO₂ pixel value (column amount of SO₂) is about 530 Dobson Units (DU) 24 hours after eruption, ~ 100 DU one week after eruption, <50 DU two weeks after the eruption, and <10 DU three weeks after eruption, a value which is difficult to distinguish from the background pixel values (Figure 5a and Tables 2 and 3).

3.2. Comparison of the TOMS and TOVS Pinatubo Volcanic Cloud Images

[23] Sequential TOMS and TOVS images generally record similar SO₂ spatial patterns (Figure 4). This consistency can also be verified by the cloud burden (tonnage/area) data shown in Figure 5 and Tables 2 and 3. In the first 4–5 days, there appear to be two overlapping clouds: a weaker SO₂ cloud (pixel values <60 DU) to the west is likely due to precursory activity that started on 12 June 1991, while a region with higher burdens of SO₂ (max-

Figure 4. Sequence of TOMS and TOVS (NOAA-10, NOAA-11, NOAA-12) SO₂ cloud images for 15 days after eruption, showing the development and spatial pattern of the Pinatubo volcanic SO₂ cloud. The images are displayed in the order of sensing time (GMT). Latitude and longitude grid spacing is 30°. Linear bar scales have SO₂ values represented in Dobson Units (DU). The times (in GMT) represent the sensor observation times of the volcanic cloud. The solid blue lines point to an intersection of the orbital swath's central scan position with the volcanic cloud. Where no lines are used, the time represents the observation time of the cloud's centroid.

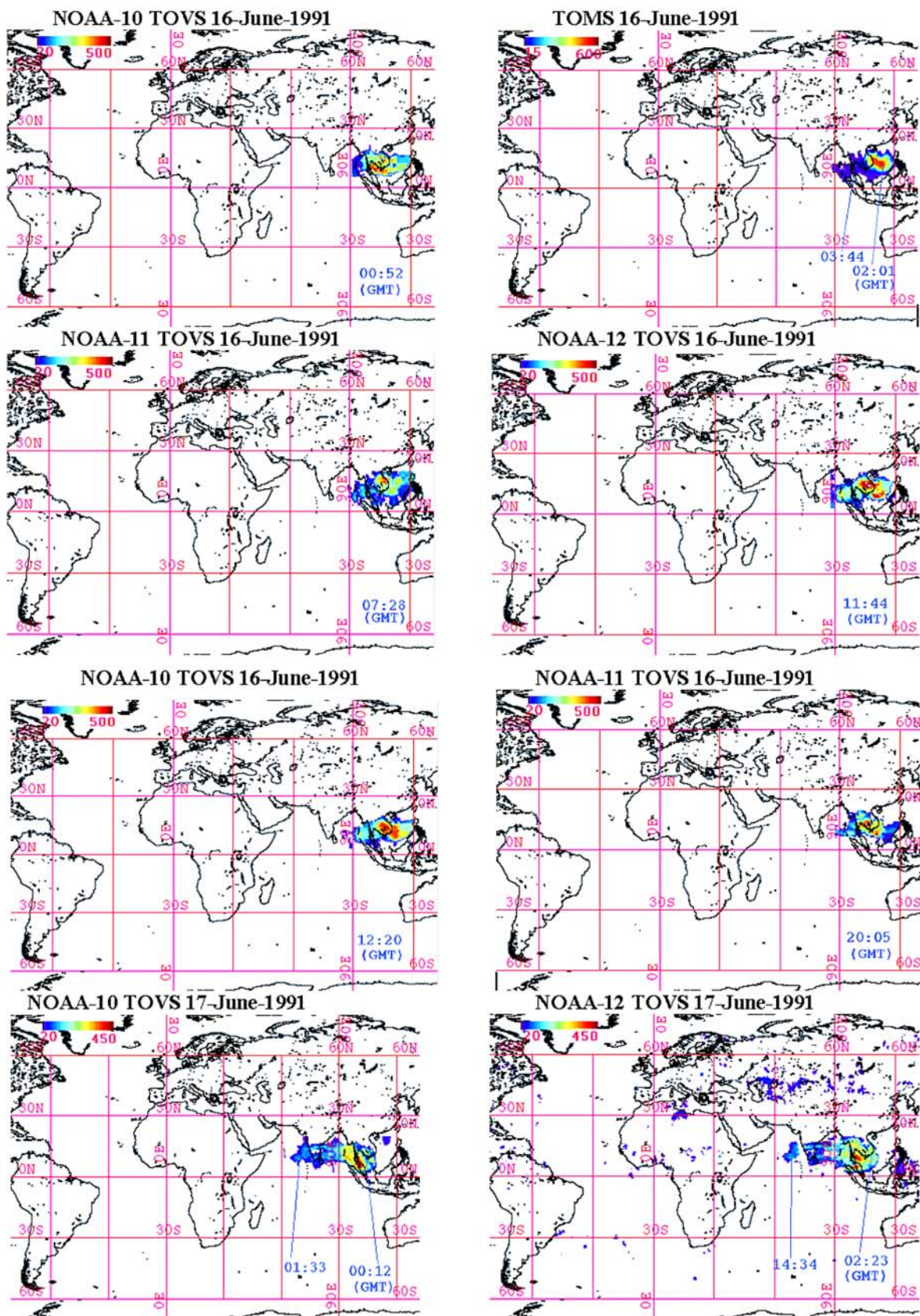


Figure 4.

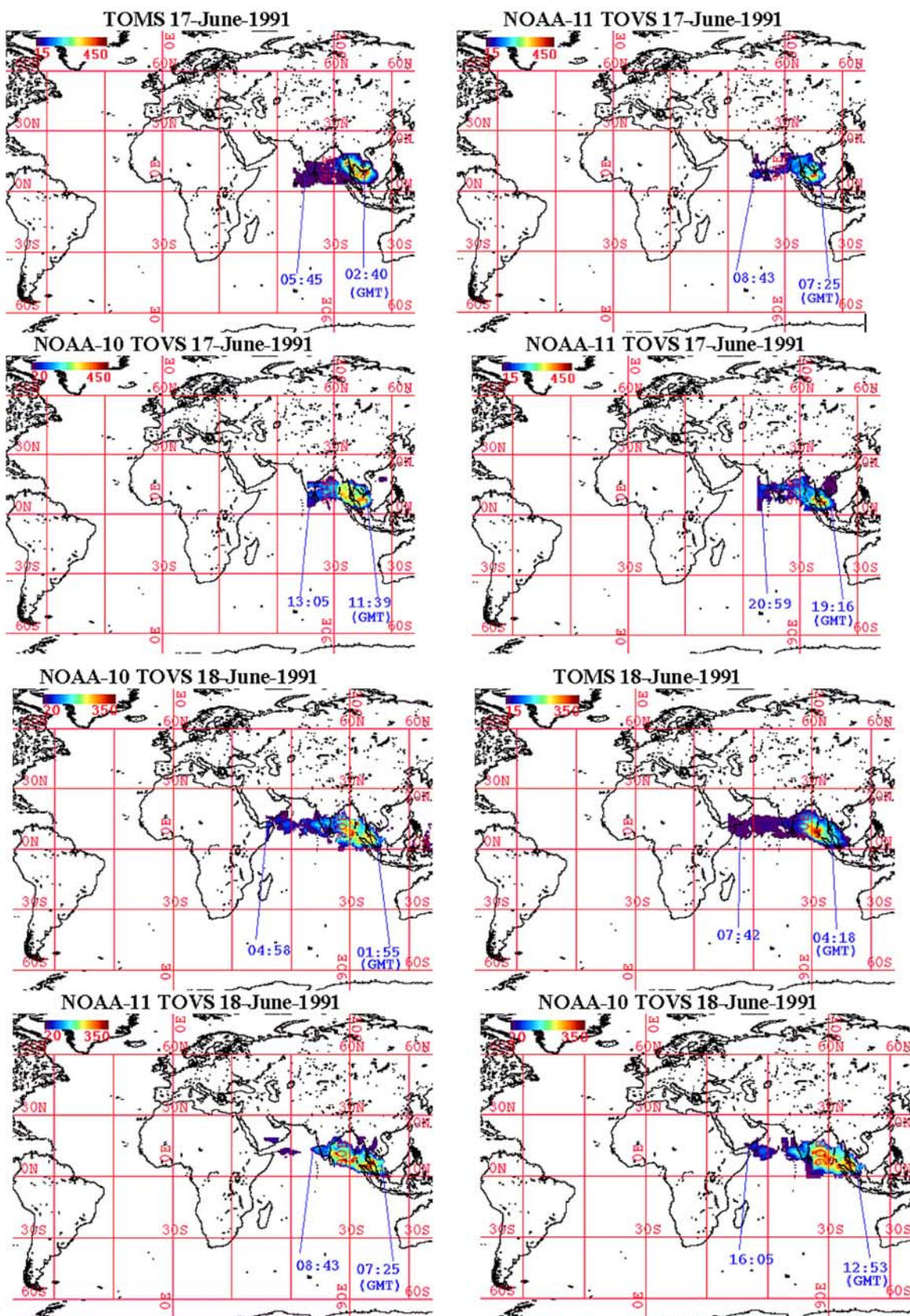


Figure 4. (continued)

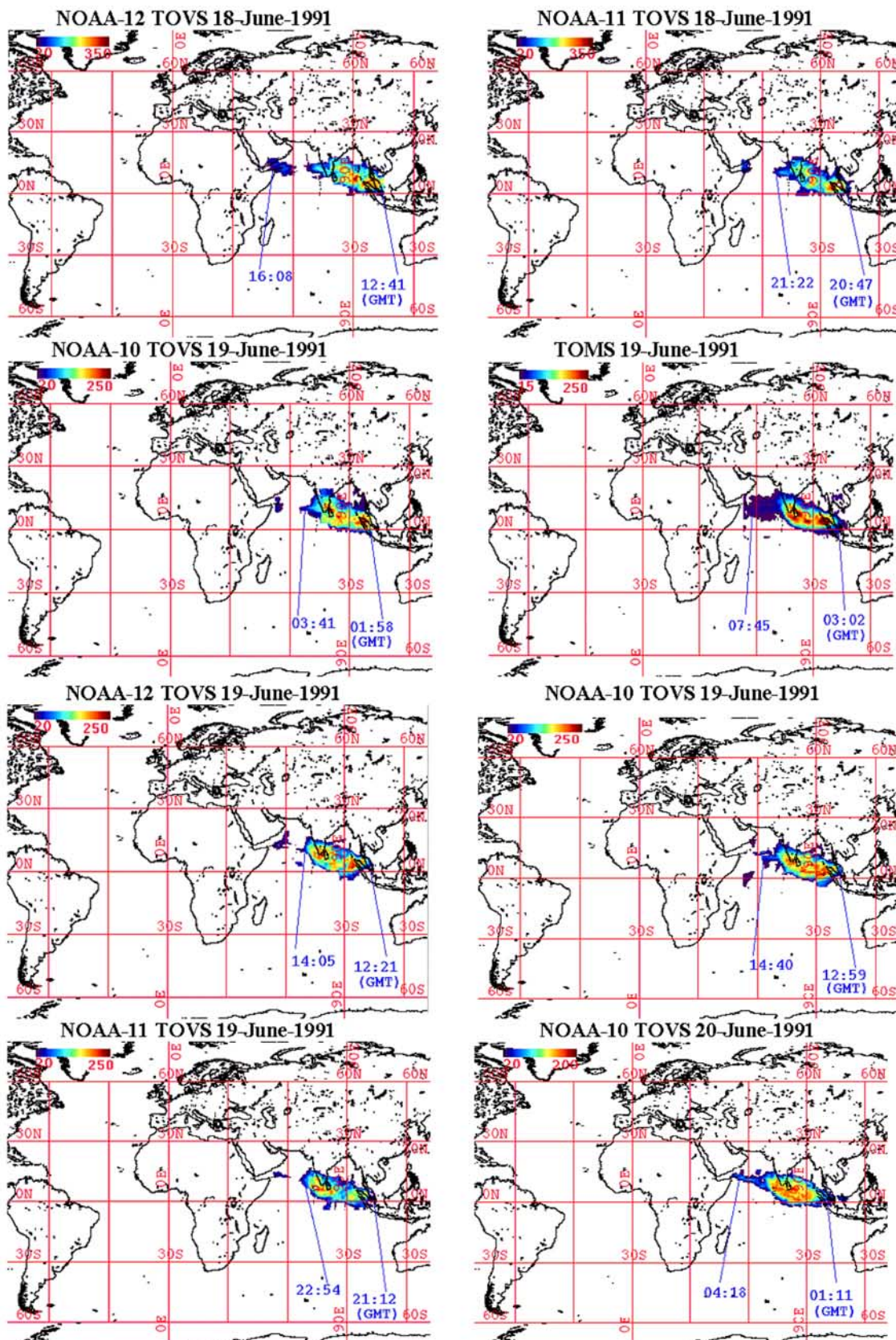


Figure 4. (continued)

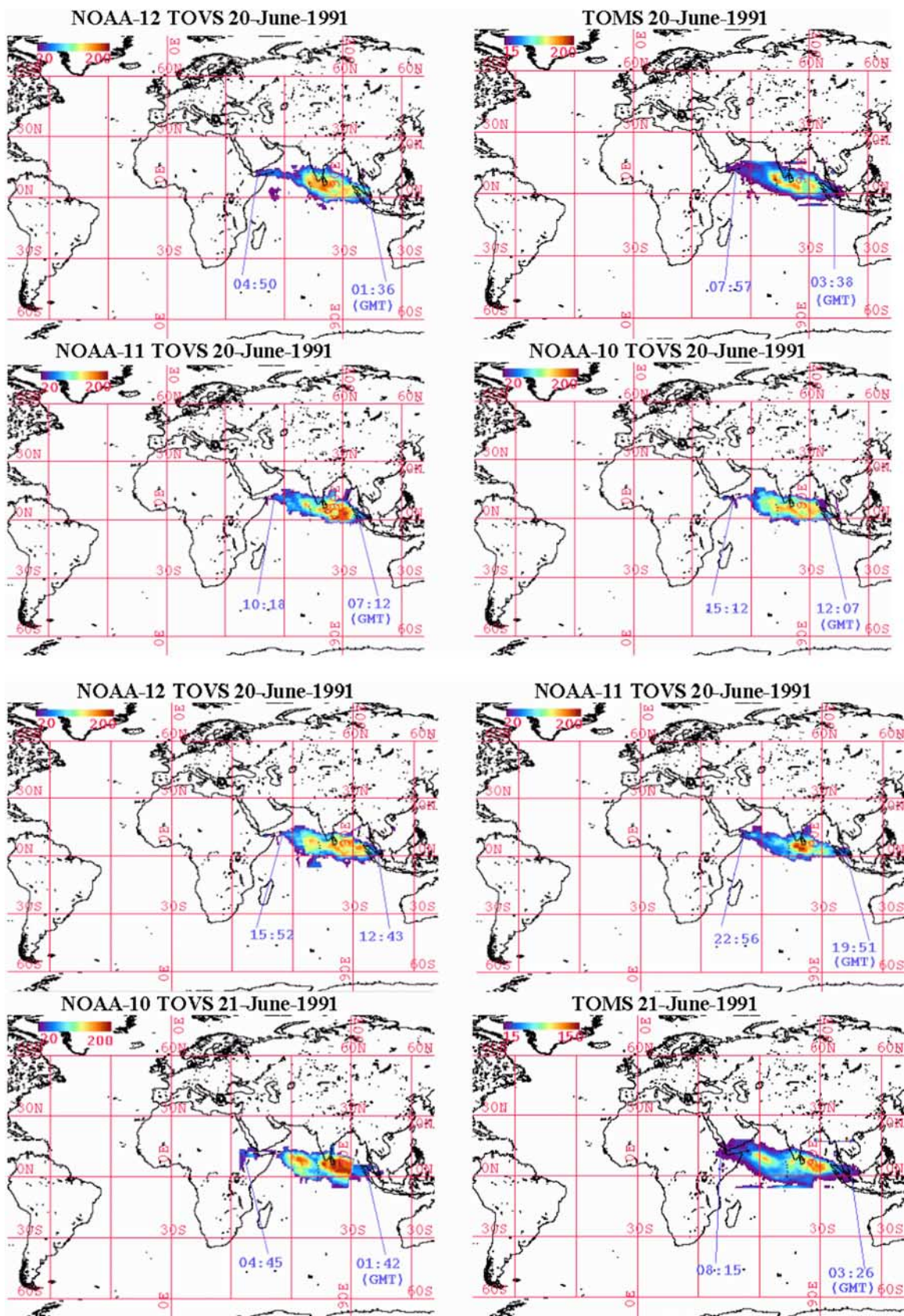


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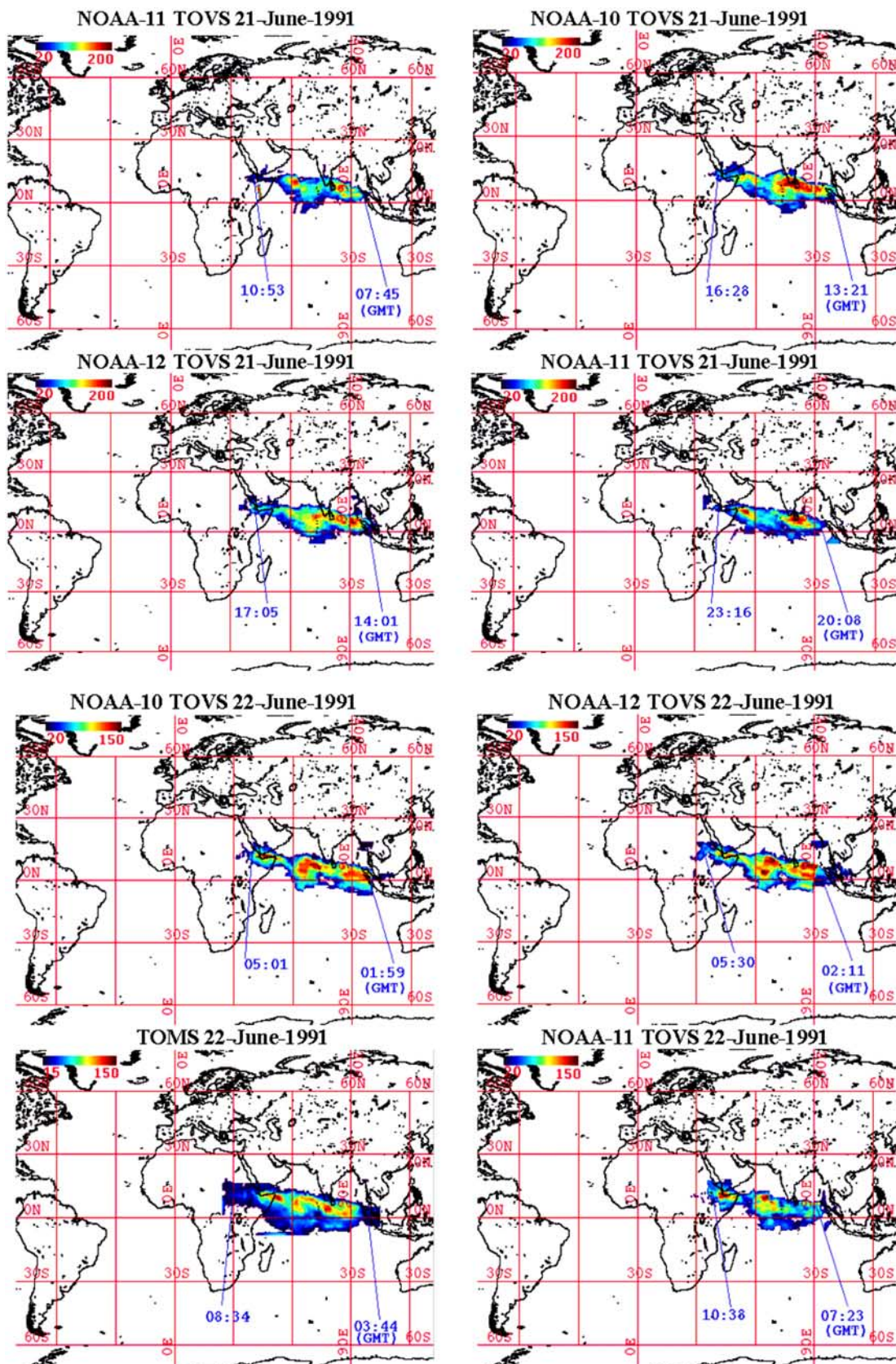


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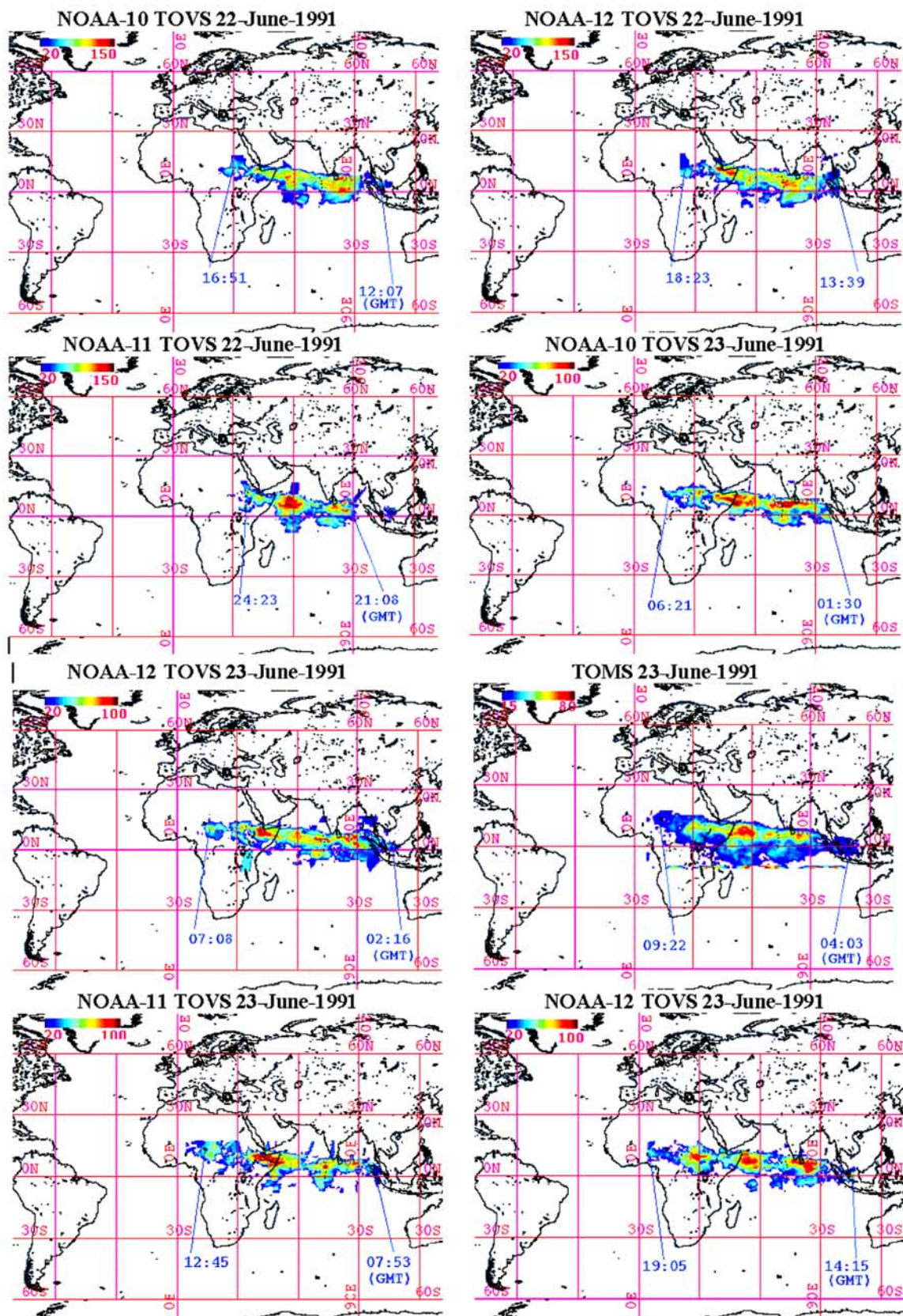


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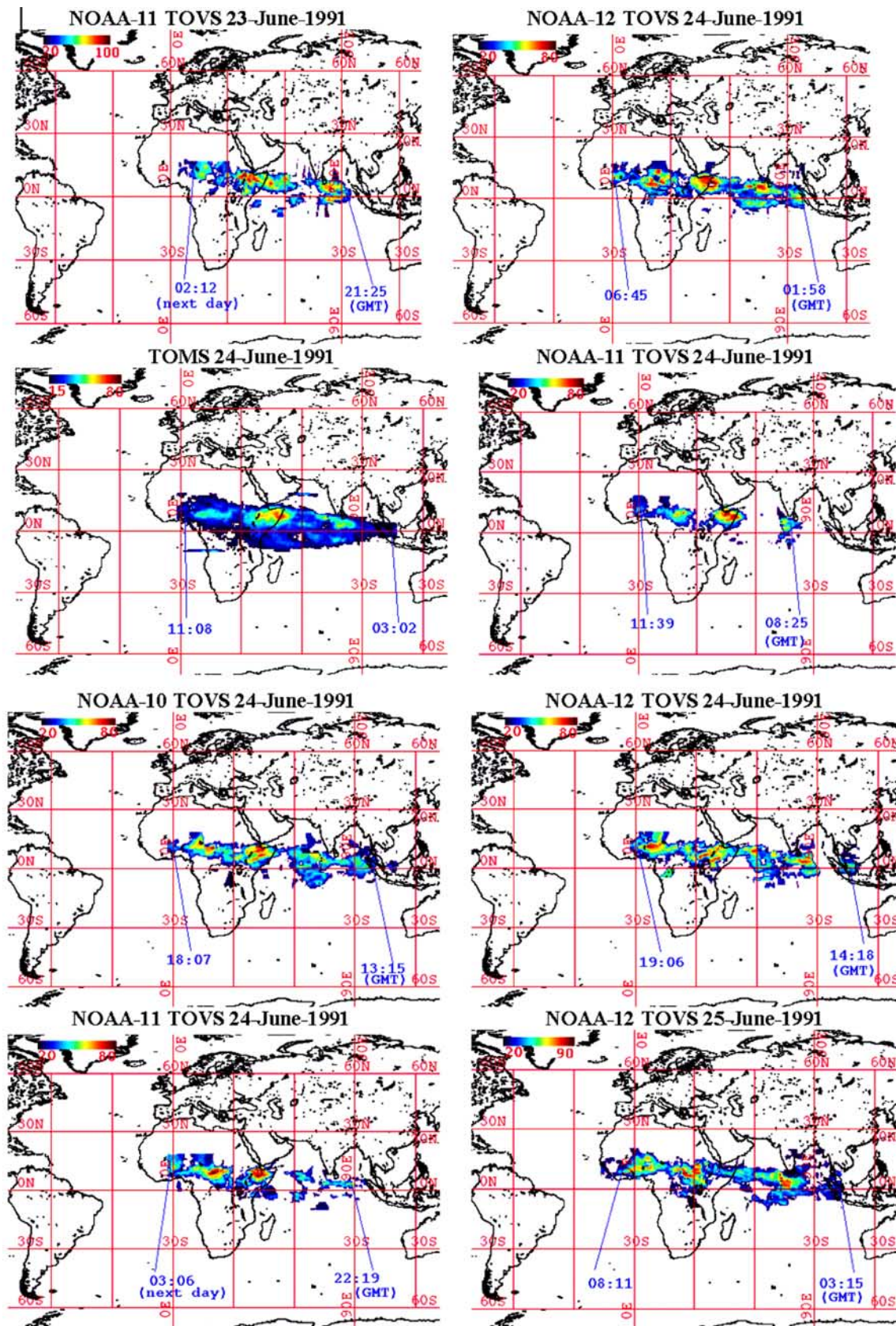


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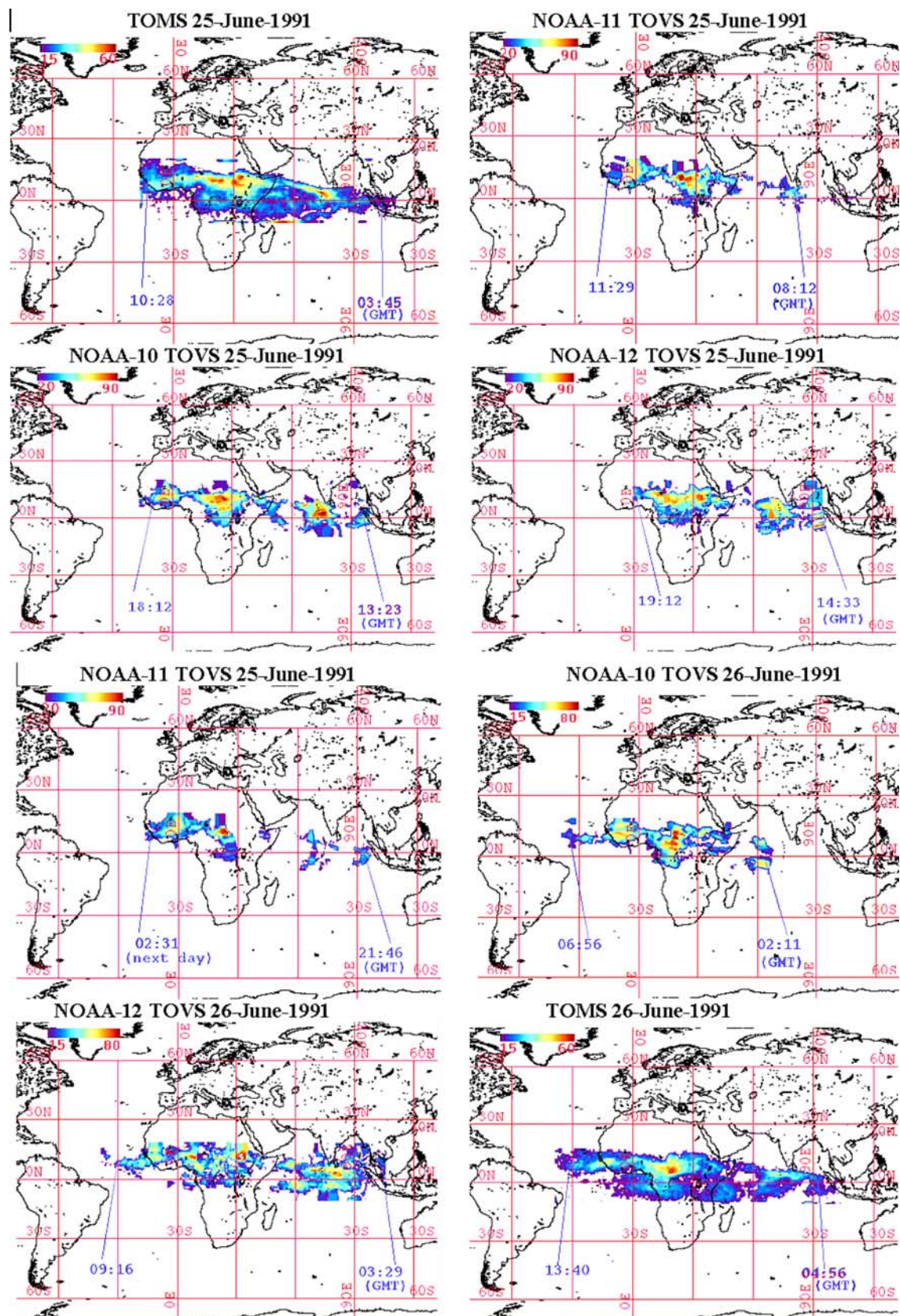


Figure 4. (continued)

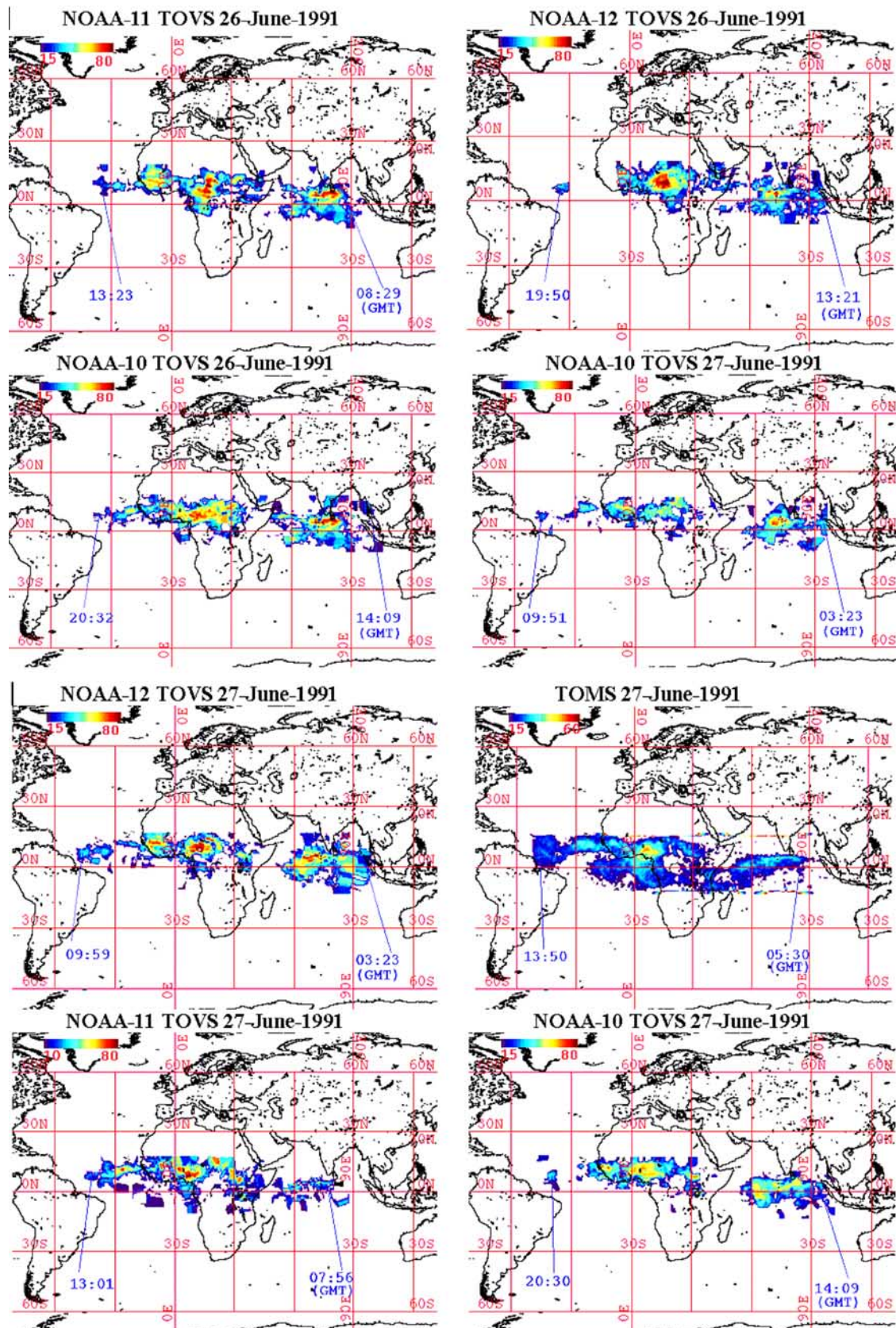
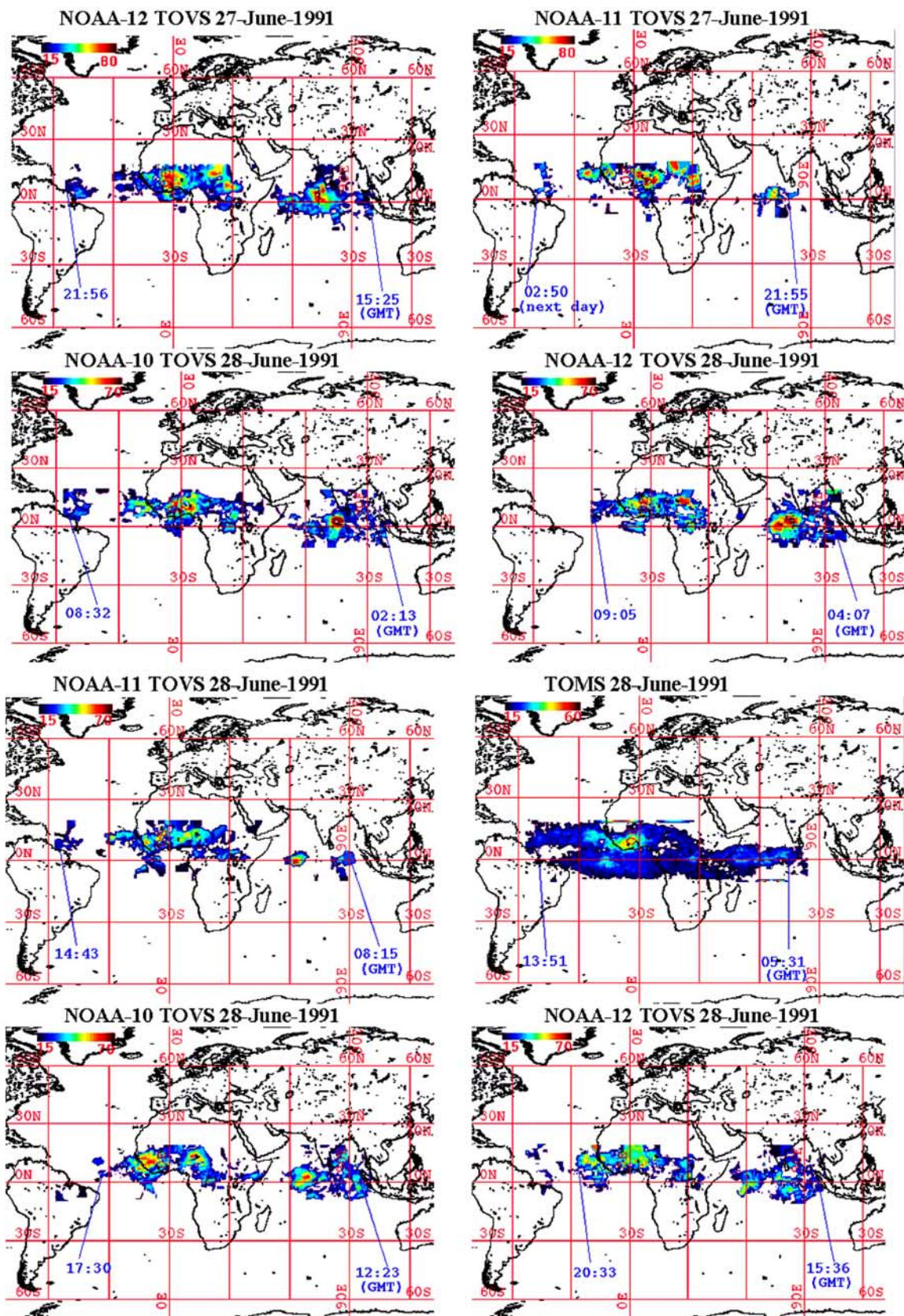


Figure 4. (continued)



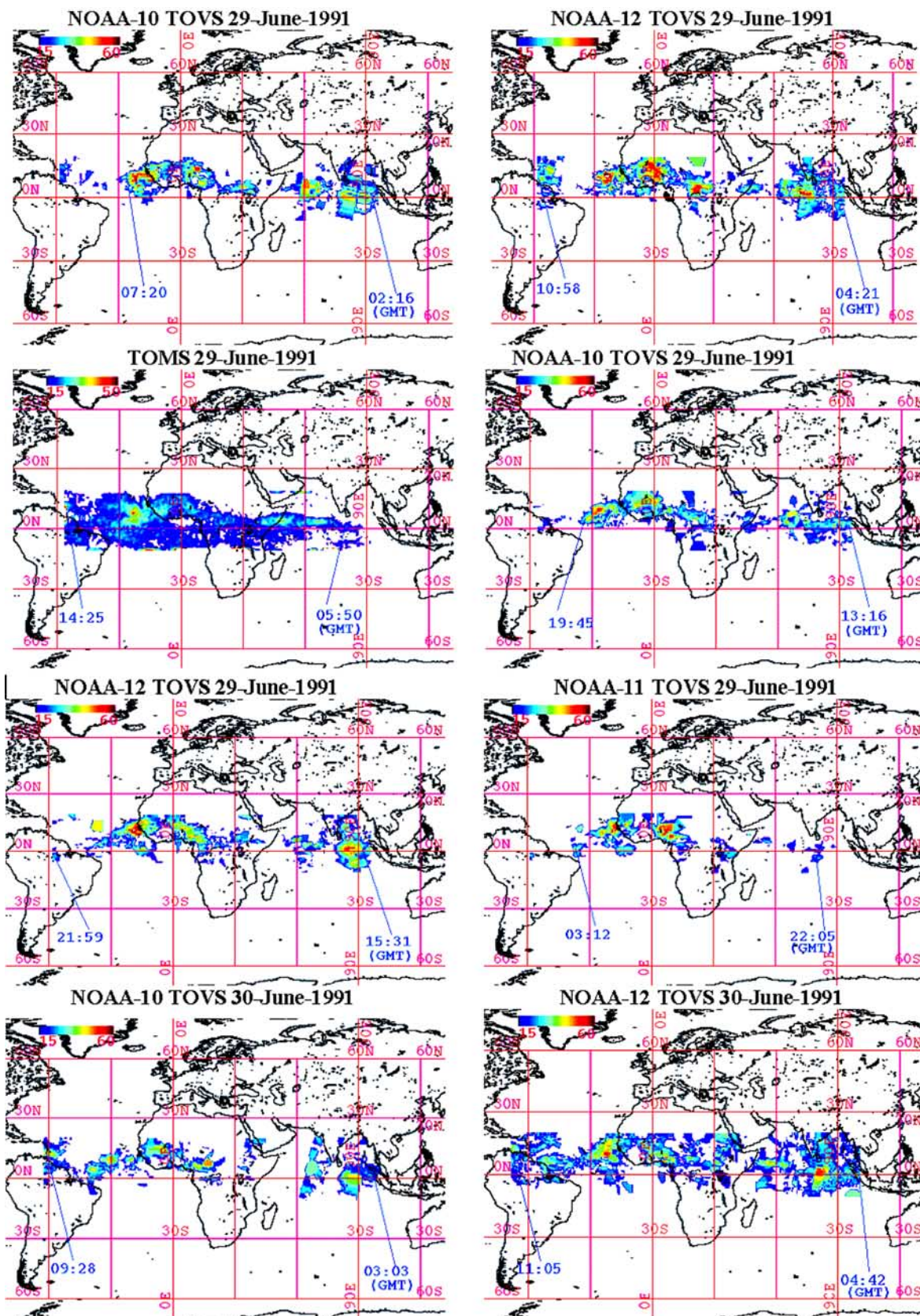


Figure 4. (continued)

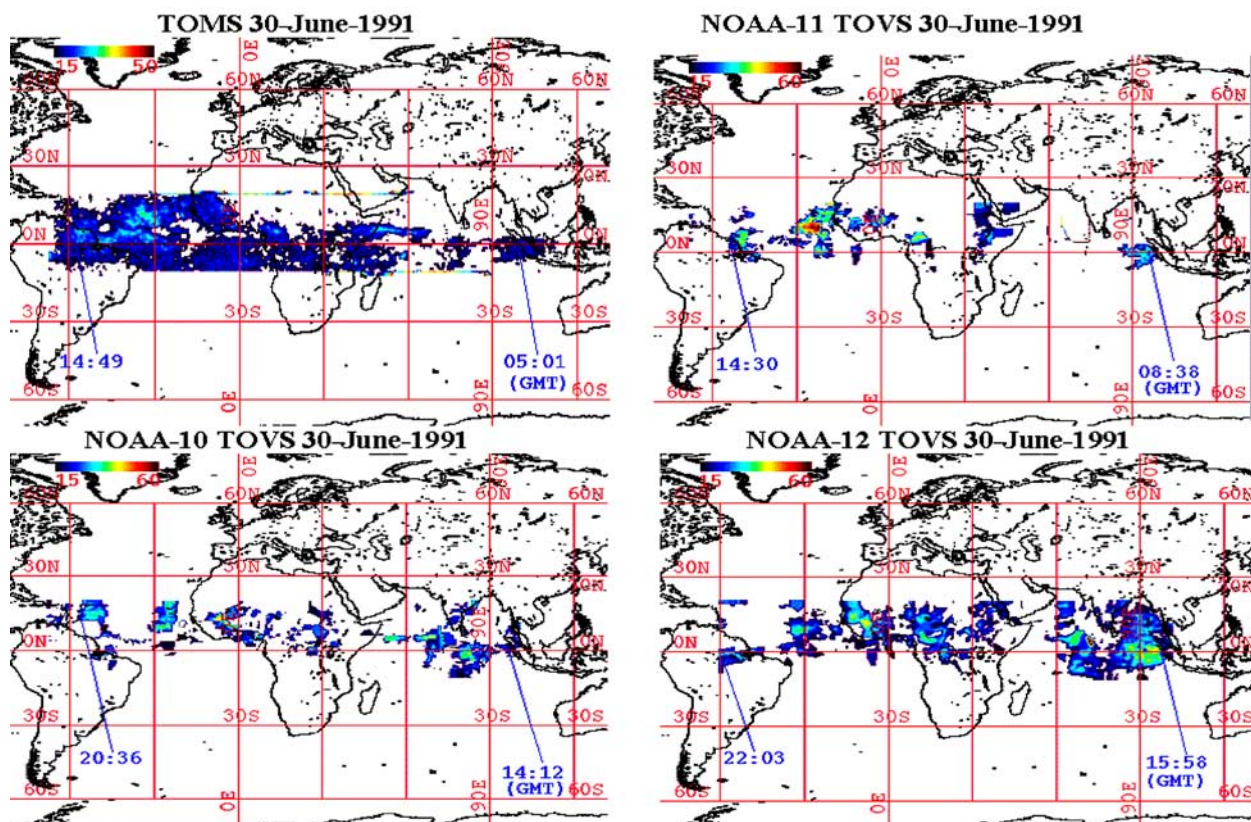


Figure 4. (continued)

imum pixel value >500 DU) to the east is from the main eruption. Both TOMS and TOVS sensors map the weaker cloud to the west for the first 3 days after eruption. On the fourth day (06/19/91), the lower burden areas to the west disappear in TOVS while still visible in the TOMS SO₂ map. TOMS cloud areas are generally larger than TOVS cloud areas, especially one week after eruption. The TOVS cloud is also not as contiguous as TOMS cloud one week after eruption. The reason for these discrepancies is probably water vapor interference of the TOVS sensor from the meteorological cloud below the SO₂ clouds. Prata et al. (submitted manuscript, 2004) point out that SO₂ will not be detected by TOVS if elevated water vapor occurs in the troposphere just below the SO₂ cloud, and the effect will be worse if the SO₂ cloud is thin (i.e., SO₂ values <30 DU). The high water vapor within the tropical troposphere affects the TOVS SO₂ detection, especially for the low value regions, making

these regions undetectable. This means the higher water vapor below SO₂ cloud actually results in a higher detection limit for the TOVS SO₂ retrieval (Prata et al., submitted manuscript, 2004). Water vapor in the stratosphere is explicitly not considered here. It is likely that substantial stratospheric water vapor would lead to an overestimate of SO₂ by TOVS.

[24] TOVS SO₂ total cloud masses are 5–30% higher than TOMS values (Tables 2 and 3 and Figure 5a). The percent difference of maximum SO₂ pixel values from TOVS and TOMS ((TOVS-TOMS)/TOMS) increases over time and the maximum pixel values from TOVS get up to 40–50% higher than those from TOMS 370 hours after eruption (Figure 6). The opposing trends of cloud areas from the two sensors (Figure 5a) tend to balance the calculated cloud SO₂ masses, especially one week after eruption. The reasons for the higher TOVS values are likely due to effects of

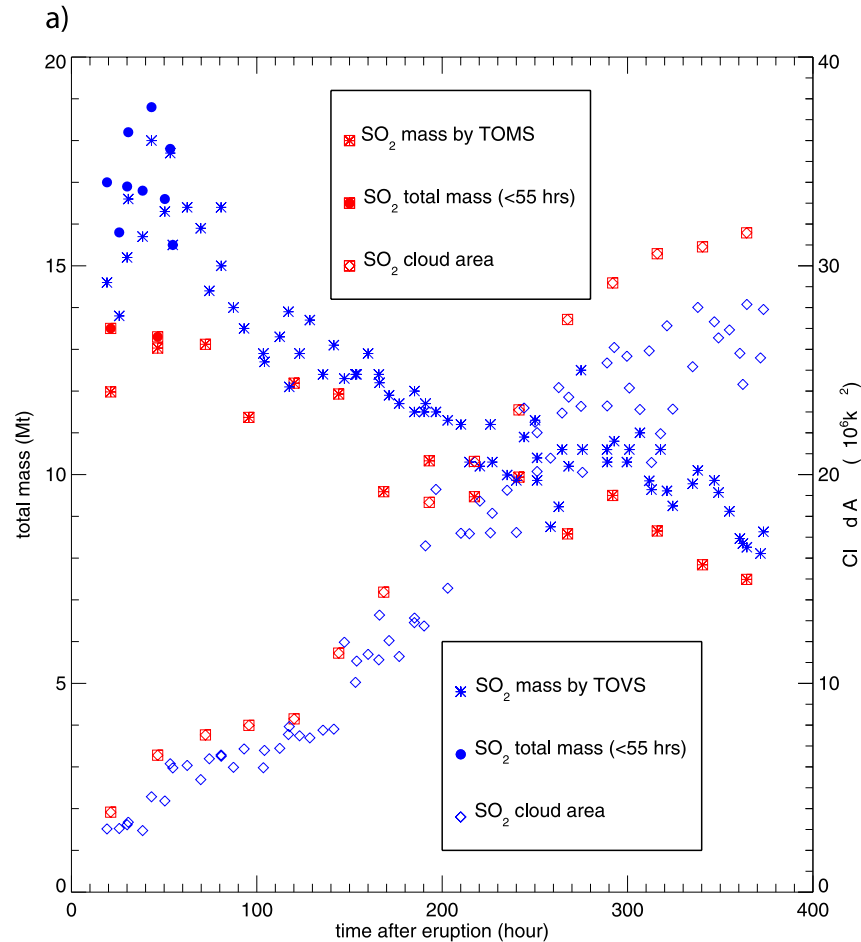


Figure 5. (a) SO₂ mass in Pinatubo cloud and cloud areas as a function of time after eruption, using TOMS and TOVS data (Table 2). SO₂ total masses represented by blue solid dots are the sum of SO₂ mass sensed by TOMS plus SO₂ mass sequestered by ice. (b) Burden of cloud (average mass/area) as a function of time after eruption using TOMS and TOVS data (Table 2).

sulfate (see discussion below) and possibly also partly reflect stratospheric water vapor within the volcanic cloud.

4. Discussion

4.1. Total SO₂ Mass Increase After Eruption

[25] Figure 7 plots the mass of SO₂ in the Pinatubo cloud with time. Early estimates are not plotted (0–19 hrs) because of high cloud density (some cloud areas are invisible to TOVS sensor). No TOMS SO₂ map exists in the first 19 hours after eruption. The increasing trend between 20 and 55–70 hours after eruption is indicated by the TOMS and TOVS data in Figure 6. This increasing trend has also been

noted in several other eruptions based on TOMS data (but not TOVS data) [Bluth *et al.*, 1995; Constantine *et al.*, 2000]. In the case of Pinatubo, we would have difficulty demonstrating this result without the higher temporal resolution of TOVS sensing. The average cloud burdens (tonnage/area) from the TOVS (Table 2) also show an increasing trend for ~38 hours after eruption (Figure 5b).

[26] Potential reasons suggested for SO₂ mass increase in other eruptions include: (1) oxidation of co-erupted H₂S to SO₂ [Bluth *et al.*, 1995]; (2) ultraviolet (UV) light scattering by ash which may have partially masked detection of SO₂ [Bluth *et al.*, 1995]; (3) Uncertainty in the mass determinations of SO₂ (10–30%) [Krueger *et al.*, 1995]; and (4) release of gas-phase SO₂ from SO₂ - ice -

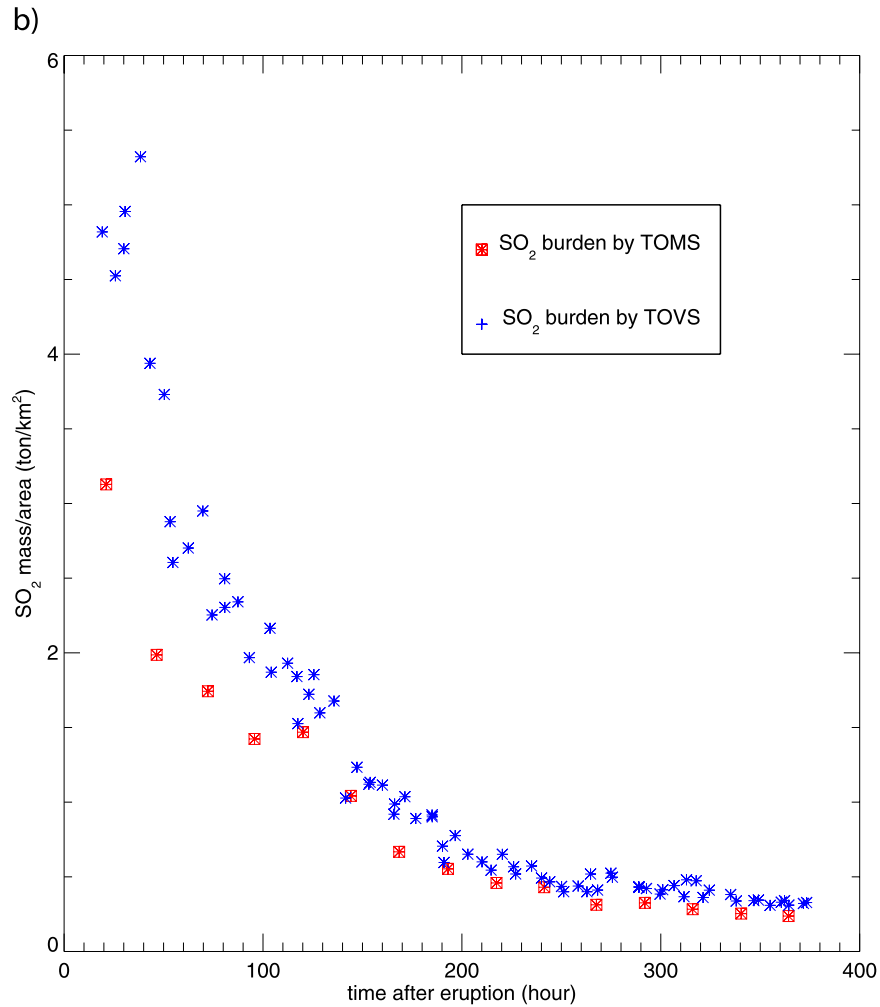


Figure 5. (continued)

Table 2. Summary of TOMS SO₂ Cloud Tonnages and Areas^a

Date	Time, GMT	Hours After Eruption	SO ₂ mass, Mt	Cloud Area (×10 ⁶ km ²)	SO ₂ Burden, ton/km ²	Maximum SO ₂ , DU
06/16/91	2:01–3:44	21.2	12.0	3.83	3.13	537
06/17/91	2:40–5:45	46.5	13.0	6.56	1.99	423
06/18/91	4:14–7:42	72.3	13.1	7.53	1.74	350
06/19/91	3:02–7:45	95.7	11.4	7.99	1.42	207
06/20/91	3:38–7:57	120.1	12.2	8.30	1.47	180
06/21/91	3:26–8:15	144.2	11.9	11.45	1.04	137
06/22/91	3:44–8:34	168.5	9.6	14.37	0.67	101
06/23/91	4:03–9:22	193.0	10.3	18.67	0.55	78
06/24/91	3:02–11:08	217.4	9.5	20.63	0.46	67
06/25/91	3:45–10:28	241.4	9.9	23.10	0.43	62
06/26/91	4:56–13:40	267.6	8.6	27.43	0.31	59
06/27/91	5:30–13:50	292.0	9.5	29.18	0.33	55
06/28/91	5:31–13:51	316.0	8.7	30.58	0.28	51
06/29/91	5:50–14:25	340.4	7.8	30.91	0.25	45
06/30/91	5:01–14:49	364.2	7.5	31.58	0.24	39

^a “Hours after eruption” is the time from the start of the eruption to the average of the sensing time in column 2, in hours.



Table 3. Summary of TOVS SO₂ Cloud Tonnages and Area^a

Date	Time, GMT	Hours After Eruption	SO ₂ Mass, Mt	Cloud Area (×10 ⁶ km ²)	SO ₂ Burden, ton/km ²	Maximum SO ₂ , DU
06/16/91	0:52	19.2	14.6	3.03	4.82	433
	07:28	25.8	13.8	3.05	4.52	441
	11:44	30.1	15.2	3.35	4.54	415
	12:20	30.7	16.6	3.23	5.14	432
	20:05	38.4	15.7	2.95	5.32	456
06/17/91	0:12–1:33	43.2	18.0	4.57	3.94	443
	7:25–8:43	50.4	17.7	6.15	2.88	412
	7:23–14:34	53.3	16.3	4.37	3.73	398
	11:39–13:05	54.7	15.5	5.95	2.61	370
06/18/91	19:16–20:59	62.4	16.4	6.07	2.70	364
	1:55–4:58	69.8	15.9	5.39	2.95	341
	7:25–8:43	74.4	14.4	6.39	2.25	325
	12:41–16:08	80.7	16.4	6.57	2.50	335
	12:53–16:05	80.8	15.0	6.51	2.30	317
06/19/91	20:47–21:22	87.4	14.0	5.98	2.34	325
	1:58–3:41	93.1	13.5	6.86	1.97	236
	12:21–14:05	103.5	12.9	5.96	2.16	223
	12:59–14:40	104.1	12.7	6.79	1.87	222
	21:12–22:54	112.4	13.3	6.89	1.93	205
06/20/91	1:11–4:18	117.1	13.9	7.55	1.84	198
	1:36–4:50	117.5	12.1	7.93	1.52	183
	7:12–10:18	123.1	12.9	7.49	1.72	191
	12:07–15:12	125.6	13.7	7.39	1.85	176
	12:43–15:52	128.6	12.4	7.76	1.60	169
06/21/91	19:51–22:56	135.7	13.1	7.81	1.68	179
	1:42–4:45	141.5	12.3	11.97	1.03	171
	7:45–10:05	147.2	12.4	10.05	1.23	169
	13:21–16:28	153.2	12.4	11.07	1.12	163
	14:01–17:05	153.9	12.9	11.39	1.13	156
06/22/91	20:08–23:16	160.0	12.4	11.13	1.11	143
	1:59–5:01	165.8	12.2	13.27	0.92	135
	2:11–5:30	166.2	11.9	12.05	0.99	128
	7:23–10:38	171.3	11.7	11.29	1.04	124
	12:07–16:51	176.8	11.5	12.91	0.89	111
06/23/91	21:08–24:13	185.0	12.0	13.13	0.91	91
	21:08–24:23	185.1	11.5	12.75	0.90	105
	1:30–6:21	190.2	11.7	16.59	0.71	85
	2:16–7:06	191.0	11.5	19.29	0.60	86
	7:53–12:45	196.6	11.3	14.56	0.78	89
06/24/91	14:15–19:05	203.0	11.2	17.19	0.65	85
	21:25–2:12	210.1	10.3	17.17	0.60	87
	1:58–6:45	214.7	10.2	18.73	0.55	77
	8:25–11:39	220.4	11.2	17.21	0.65	76
	13:15–18:07	226.0	10.3	18.15	0.57	75
06/25/91	14:18–19:06	227.0	10.0	19.25	0.52	73
	22:19–3:06	235.0	9.9	17.23	0.57	77
	3:15–8:11	240.0	10.9	23.19	0.47	79
	8:12–11:29	244.2	11.3	22.51	0.50	80
	13:23–18:12	250.1	10.4	22.01	0.47	82
06/26/91	14:33–19:12	251.2	9.9	20.15	0.49	76
	21:46–2:31	258.5	8.8	20.79	0.42	80
	2:11–6:56	262.9	9.2	24.17	0.38	66
	3:29–9:16	264.7	10.6	22.95	0.46	69
	6:29–13:23	268.3	10.2	23.71	0.43	72
	13:21–19:50	274.9	12.5	23.27	0.53	70
	14:09–20:32	275.7	10.6	20.11	0.52	71



Table 3. (continued)

Date	Time, GMT	Hours After Eruption	SO ₂ Mass, Mt	Cloud Area (×10 ⁶ km ²)	SO ₂ Burden, ton/km ²	Maximum SO ₂ , DU
06/27/91	3:23–9:51	288.9	10.6	25.35	0.41	72
	3:23–9:59	289.0	10.3	23.29	0.44	73
	7:56–13:01	292.8	10.8	26.09	0.41	69
	14:09–20:30	299.6	10.3	25.67	0.40	66
	15:25–21:56	301.0	10.6	24.15	0.44	72
	21:55–2:50	306.7	11.0	23.12	0.48	75
06/28/91	2:13–8:32	311.7	9.9	25.93	0.38	70
	4:07–9:05	312.9	9.6	20.58	0.47	69
	8:15–14:43	317.8	10.6	21.96	0.48	67
	12:23–17:30	321.3	9.6	27.13	0.35	65
	15:36–20:33	324.4	9.3	23.14	0.40	62
	06/29/91	2:16–7:20	335.1	9.8	25.17	0.39
06/29/91	4:21–10:50	337.9	10.1	28.01	0.36	60
	13:16–19:45	346.8	9.9	27.32	0.36	57
	15:31–21:59	349.1	9.6	26.55	0.36	59
	22:05–3:12	355.0	9.1	26.93	0.34	60
06/30/91	3:03–9:28	360.6	8.5	25.81	0.33	53
	4:42–11:05	362.2	8.4	24.32	0.34	57
	5:35–14:30	364.4	8.3	28.15	0.29	54
	14:12–20:36	371.7	8.1	25.59	0.31	52
	15:58–22:03	373.3	8.6	27.91	0.31	58

^a“Hours after eruption” is the time from the start of the eruption to the average of the sensing time in column 2, in hours.

ash mixtures (incorporation, sticking, etc) [Textor et al., 2003].

[27] If the cause of the Pinatubo SO₂ mass increase were mainly due to the oxidation of the co-erupted H₂S to SO₂, then 2–4 Mt H₂S would have to be co-erupted, representing about 10–25% of the total S. Rutherford and Devine [1996] calculate that the Pinatubo magma, which includes Fe-Ti oxides, was at 780 ± 10°C just prior to eruption and had an oxygen fugacity of three log units above the nickel-nickel oxygen buffer, or log(*f*_{O₂}) of –11.5, based on iron-titanium oxide geothermometry for the white pumice from the 1991 Pinatubo eruption. Under these conditions, little H₂S would be produced during eruption. Gerlach et al. [1996] indicate that Pinatubo’s equilibrium SO₂/H₂S fugacity ratio was >55 during eruption and this oxidized condition precludes significant H₂S contribution. Therefore it is unlikely that 2–4 Mt H₂S could have been co-erupted with 17–20 Mt SO₂ from the Pinatubo eruption.

[28] Krotkov et al. [1997] suggest that TOMS SO₂ can be overestimated by 15–25% when significant ash is present in the SO₂ cloud. Guo et al. (submitted manuscript, 2004) concluded that ash fell

out very rapidly, so this overestimate would be expected to be strongest on the first day. Overestimation of SO₂ mass for the first day SO₂ mass would thus cause TOMS mass estimates to be higher than the second day, therefore, the presence of ash cannot explain an SO₂ increase 55 hours (2.3 days) after eruption.

[29] It is also unlikely that the second day SO₂ increase was caused by simple uncertainty in retrieval. A 30% uncertainty of TOMS retrieval is a maximum, occurring for large solar zenith angles near swath edges. Under most circumstances the uncertainty is nearer to 10% as stated by Bluth et al. [1995]. The accuracy of the retrieved TOVS SO₂ is also estimated to be 5–10% for SO₂ column amounts in the range of 10–800 DU (Prata et al., submitted manuscript, 2004). The SO₂ mass increase trend is independently confirmed by both TOMS (three data points) and TOVS data (9 data points), and it is unlikely uncertainty can explain agreement of two independent methods and is unlikely to produce a systematic (positive only) bias.

[30] Ice is an important component of many volcanic clouds [Rose et al., 1995; Mayberry et al.,

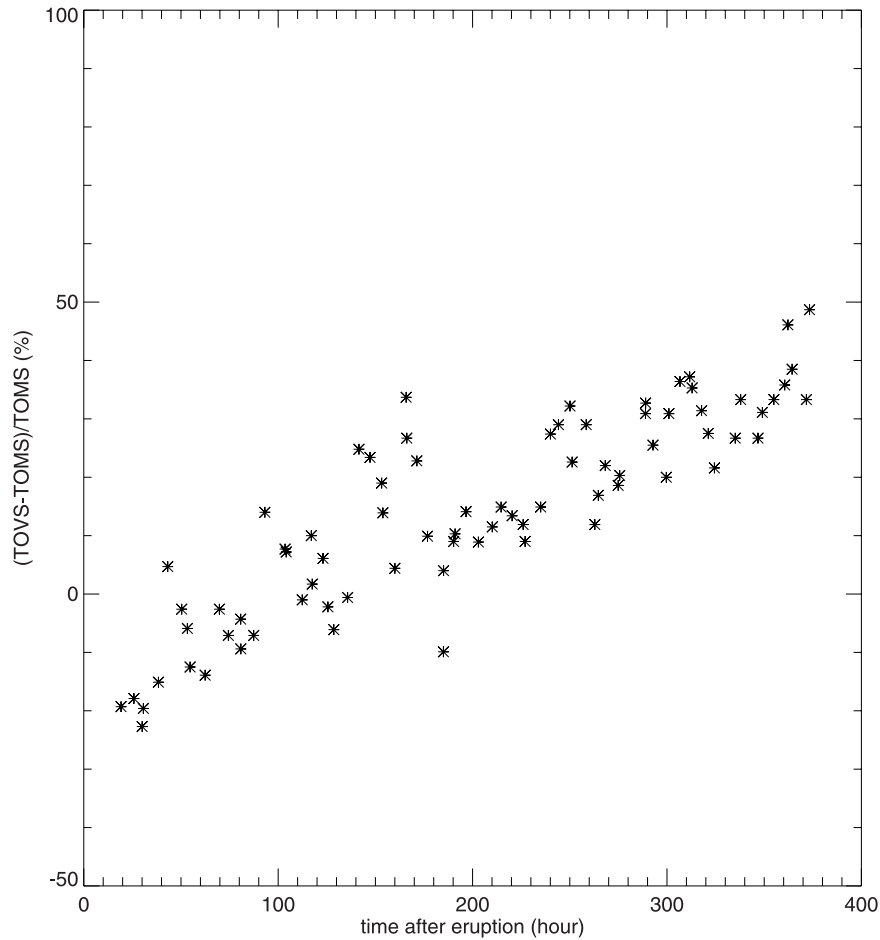


Figure 6. The percent difference of maximum SO₂ pixel values in Dobson Units ((TOVS-TOMS)/TOMS) as a function of time after eruption (data from Tables 2 and 3).

2002; Rose *et al.*, 2003]. Gerlach *et al.* [1996] previously suggests the potential for significant SO₂ adsorption on particle surfaces. Textor *et al.* [2003] have explained how ice can scavenge SO₂ in volcanic clouds. The Pinatubo volcanic cloud entrained H₂O from a very moist tropical atmosphere [Herzog *et al.*, 1998; Guo *et al.*, 2000] and also contained at least 5.1–6.4% of magmatic water vapor [Rutherford and Devine, 1996; Gerlach *et al.*, 1996]. The Pinatubo volcanic cloud was subject to co-ignimbrite cloud formation which can further enhance entrainment [Darteville *et al.*, 2002]. In addition, there was an active tropical cyclone, Typhoon Yunya, passing the Pinatubo area during the eruption period. Thus significant amounts of water vapor were convected with the volcanic cloud which likely led to significant ice formation. In Pinatubo's case, we speculate that gas scavenging occurring within ice

crystals in the stratosphere could release SO₂ again during a period of sublimation or ice/ash aggregation and sedimentation lasting 2–3 days after eruption. The mechanism we envision has several stages: (1) Initial rapid growth of ice on ash nuclei during ascent of the eruption column in which SO₂ is sequestered. (2) Gradual sublimation of ice would be expected after some cloud expansion and drifting through the extremely dry stratosphere, releasing sequestered SO₂. (3) Possibly simultaneously with 2, aggregation of icy ash and fallout within the stratosphere, so that sublimation could release SO₂ at a lower level than some of the other volcanic SO₂. (4) After a few days, most of the ice is gone, sublimated completely or possibly partly fallen out of the stratosphere completely. Ice mass decreases in a stratospheric volcanic ice cloud were described by Rose *et al.* [2003] in the case of the 2000 eruption of Hekla, Iceland. A maximum

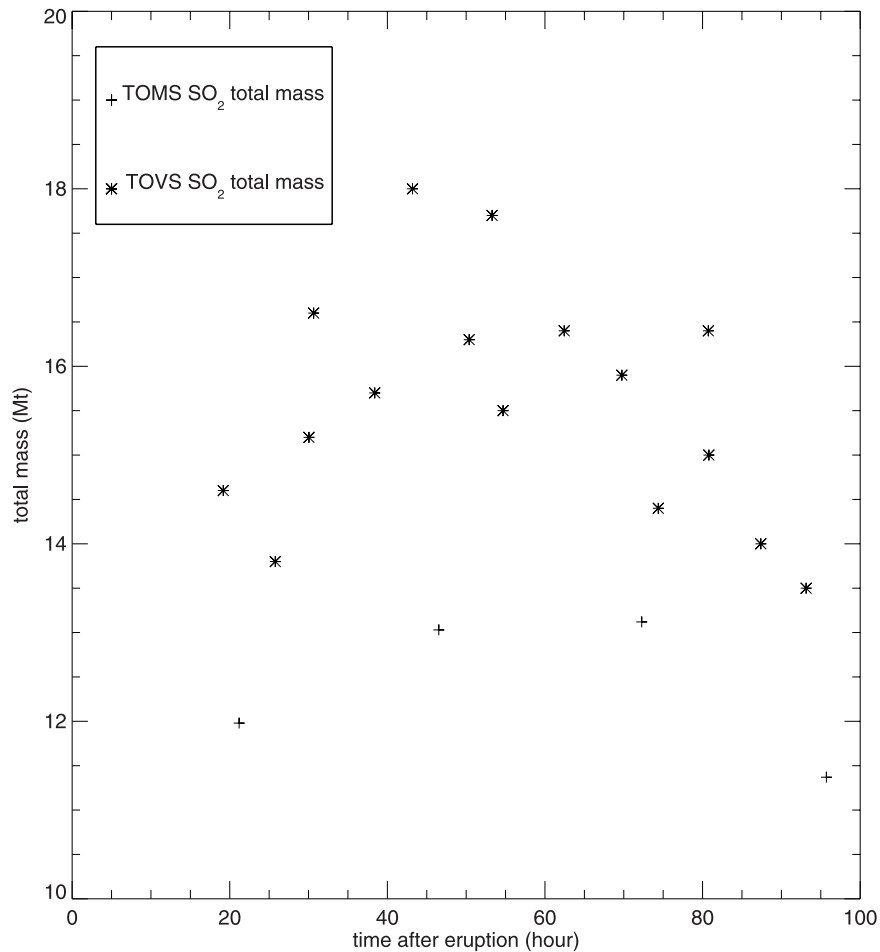


Figure 7. SO₂ mass estimates (Tables 1 and 2) with time for the first 100 hours after eruption. Both TOMS and TOVS data show increase in SO₂ mass after eruption during the period from 20 to about 50 hours.

mass of ~ 80 Mt of ice or ice-ash mixtures in the range of $1\text{--}30\ \mu\text{m}$ in the Pinatubo ash cloud is suggested from AVHRR and HIRS/2 data [Guo *et al.*, 2004]. Therefore SO₂ could be incorporated with ice-ash mixtures as inclusions [Textor *et al.*, 2003] or adsorbed on the surface of ice-ash mixtures. Later SO₂ is released from these mixtures when ice sublimates in the dry stratosphere or alternatively, ice-ash aggregation and sedimentation processes can also cause gas-phase SO₂ release from the gas-ash-ice mixture [Textor, 1999]. Only a second day SO₂ mass increase was found for other eruptions [Bluth *et al.*, 1995]. The most reasonable cause for the longer duration of SO₂ mass increase (55–70 hours after eruption) in the 1991 Pinatubo erupted volcanic clouds could be that more ice exists in the Pinatubo volcanic clouds than any other smaller eruptions. The existence of the large

amount of ice in the clouds requires a longer time to release gas phase SO₂ from the ash-ice mixture.

[31] In summary, the SO₂ mass increase within the Pinatubo clouds after the start of the eruption is most probably caused by the gas-phase SO₂ release from the ice-ash-gas mixtures. The released gas-phase SO₂ is estimated at about 1 and 3 Mt by TOMS and TOVS data, respectively (Figure 6), using the best fit exponential curve for the data during the period of 20–55 hours after eruption. The use of exponential curve is based on the mechanism of gas release from ice used in the numerical model ATHAM [Diehl *et al.*, 1998; Textor, 1999].

[32] Another interesting observation from the imagery (Figure 3) shows the trailing portion of the Pinatubo cloud drifting at a vastly slower rate than



the leading edge. In fact, by June 30, the trailing edge has only drifted as far as western Indonesia (about 3000 km). This could result from the vertical distribution of the erupted sulfur dioxide mass and a vertical (regional) wind gradient, or an effect of subliming ice releasing SO₂ over a period of days. The “tail-end” cloud dynamics from large eruptions could well be a focus for future studies, as they can produce unexpected, but persistent impacts on regional aviation.

[33] The process of ice sequestration as suggested in this paper is of potential importance in other tropical eruptions as well. The mass of H₂O which is carried to the stratosphere is controlled by inputs of magmatic H₂O, entrainment of atmospheric moisture, and by processes that occur as the volcanic plume rises to the stratosphere. It is possible that there could be contributions of water from near surface as well (ocean water, lakes, glaciers, hydrothermal systems), depending on the environment of the volcano. The 1994 eruption of Rabaul had substantial seawater contribution, which explains in part the large ice content of the stratospheric cloud that resulted [Rose *et al.*, 1994]. The 26 December 1997 eruption at Montserrat also caused a large transfer of oceanic water to the upper troposphere and stratosphere [Mayberry *et al.*, 2002].

[34] At Pinatubo, seawater was not a major contributor as the ocean is far (35 km) from the active vent. The minimum mass of water vapor released as part of the magmatic eruption was estimated at 95 Mt by Gerlach *et al.* [1996]. In the tropical atmosphere, the masses of water vapor in the lower (0–3 km) troposphere is much higher than at high latitudes, so entrainment of air could result in an order of magnitude or more entrained water in the eruption column than would be found in high latitude eruptions [Textor *et al.*, 2003]. The amounts of entrained water vapor could be even more enhanced in co-ignimbrite clouds such as those that occurred at Pinatubo [Darteville *et al.*, 2002]. During convective vertical transport in the eruption column, water vapor will have phase changes which influence dynamics and which could result in substantial H₂O loss [Herzog *et al.*, 1998]. Although these issues represent unde-

finied and underinvestigated uncertainties, we suggest that many tropical eruptions have substantial similarity to Pinatubo, especially with respect to high ambient lower tropospheric moisture that could be entrained. It is likely that most tropical eruptions that reach the stratosphere could carry enough H₂O in the form of ice that sequestration of SO₂ could occur in an analogous way. Therefore the SO₂ mass increases after eruption detected in other eruptions using remote sensing could at least be partially explained by the abundance of stratospheric ice.

4.2. Estimate of the Initially Released SO₂ Mass and Its e-Folding Time

[35] The initial mass of SO₂ and its conversion/removal rate can be estimated by using best fit exponential curves assuming first order chemical reaction rates [McKeen *et al.*, 1984; Krueger *et al.*, 1995]. Decay of SO₂ masses in the Pinatubo clouds show curved trends (Figure 5a). The total SO₂ (filled circles) masses include SO₂ that was sequestered by ice in the early Pinatubo cloud (Figure 5a). The sequestered SO₂ masses were calculated assuming an exponential release of SO₂ from ice [Diehl *et al.*, 1998; Textor, 1999].

[36] Analysis of e-folding times using different time periods (Table 4) indicates that the SO₂ removal rate was much faster in the first 118 hours after eruption (20 days for TOMS and 12 days for TOVS), then slows to a relatively constant rate after 118 hours (25 days e-folding for both TOMS and TOVS). We assert that the change in rate is caused by the decreasing catalysis of ice and ash with time. Early on, the cloud contains a high surface area from numerous ice and ash particles but this is quickly reduced by both sublimation and fallout. 99% of ash and ice were removed from atmosphere 112 hours after eruption [Guo *et al.*, 2004]. It is known that the volcanic SO₂ will be oxidized to sulfate aerosol in the atmosphere [Turco *et al.*, 1983; Tabazadeh and Turco, 1993]. The conversion rate of SO₂ may vary with environmental conditions, such as the amount of ash or sulfate aerosol within the volcanic SO₂ cloud, the intensity of solar radiation, the temperature of the cloud, and the amount of ice and ash within the volcanic cloud.



Table 4. SO₂ Initial Masses and Its e-Folding Times With Different Time Period Data Used^a

Satellite Sensor	Time Period Used (Hours After Eruption)	Exponential Fitting Curve	e-Folding Time, days
TOMS	19–118	$Y = 14.5e^{-0.0021x}$	20
TOMS	118–374	$Y = 14.5e^{-0.0017x}$	25
TOMS	19–374	$Y = 14.2e^{-0.0017x}$	25
TOVS	19–118	$Y = 19.4e^{-0.0034x}$	12
TOVS	118–170	$Y = 16.1e^{-0.0017x}$	25
TOVS	170–251	$Y = 15.8e^{-0.0017x}$	25
TOVS	251–374	$Y = 15.9e^{-0.0017x}$	25
TOVS	19–374	$Y = 17.0e^{-0.002x}$	23

^aSO₂ sequestered by ice in the early cloud stage are included in total SO₂ masses in TOVS fittings because sulfate produces a positive interference.

[37] Considering the potential oxidants (OH and O₃) in the atmosphere, the factors that might influence the SO₂ oxidation rate are even more complicated. For example, the sublimation of ice in the stratospheric volcanic cloud due to the extremely low relative humidity in the stratosphere will increase the gas phase H₂O. Photolysis of H₂O in the stratosphere (high UV intensity) will increase the OH concentration in the stratosphere, which will result in a higher oxidation rate for SO₂ in the stratospheric volcanic cloud. The increase of OH concentration in the stratosphere after larger volcanic eruptions has been reported by *McKeen et al.* [1984]. They observed that the column OH concentrations increased 30% above the previous 5 years following the 1992 El Chichón eruption. For Pinatubo case, more SO₂ might be oxidized in the first 4–5 days after eruption, during the period when ice sublimation was also occurring.

[38] We use data from clouds which have been in the atmosphere between 19 and 118 hours after eruption onset (the total SO₂ masses include SO₂ masses sequestered by ice in the early cloud) to estimate initially released SO₂ mass. Data within this fast SO₂ conversion period can provide a more accurate estimation of initially released SO₂ mass. Data <19 hours are excluded because of the existence of unmapped cloud areas due to the cloud opacity. The equation of the best fit exponential curve for TOMS data is $y = 14.5e^{-0.0021x}$. Considering the maximum uncertainty of 10% for TOMS SO₂ retrieval, uncertainty of 2% for TOMS SO₂ image reconstruction, 3% uncertainty for cloud height estimation, and uncertainty of 15% for exponential curve fitting, the total uncertainty for

TOMS method is estimated to be 20%. The initial cloud mass of SO₂ is thus 15 ± 3 Mt. Using TOVS data for the same time period, the equation of the best fitting exponential curve is $y = 19.4e^{-0.0034x}$. Considering the maximum uncertainty of 10% for TOVS SO₂ retrieval, uncertainty of 10% for TOVS SO₂ image reconstruction, 3% uncertainty for cloud height estimation, and uncertainty of 14% for exponential curve fitting, the total uncertainty for TOVS method is estimated to be 20%. Therefore the TOVS initial cloud mass of SO₂ is estimated at 19 ± 4 Mt. If a best fit linear curve (which represents a zero order oxidation process) is used, identical masses are estimated using linear and exponential best fittings for both TOMS and TOVS data (15 Mt and 19 Mt, respectively). The data within the whole time period are used to estimate the e-folding time as they can provide a more accurate estimation of the overall e-folding time with the changing removal rate. In this way, the best fit exponential curves are $y = 14.2e^{-0.0017x}$ and $y = 17.0e^{-0.0018x}$ for TOMS and TOVS, respectively. The e-folding times are thus 25 ± 5 days for TOMS and 23 ± 5 days for TOVS. These calculations assume a single exponential rate occurs throughout the removal process. However, it appears that the rate is even faster during the first few days when ice and ash are abundant and are catalyzing removal reactions (see above).

[39] These estimates of initial SO₂ based on extrapolation of time based decay trends do not include another part of the “initial SO₂” in the Pinatubo eruption: SO₂ which was apparently rapidly catalyzed to sulfate aerosol during or very shortly after eruption.



Table 5. Summary of Results From This Paper and Previous Work

Sensor	This Paper		Previous Work		
	TOMS	TOVS	TOMS ^a	SBUV ^b	MLS ^c
Initial SO ₂ mass (Mt)	18 ± 4 ^d	19 ± 4 ^d	20 ± 6	12–15	17 ^c
SO ₂ e-folding time (days)	25 ± 5	23 ± 5	35 ± 11	24 ± 5	33 ^c

^aBluth *et al.* [1992].

^bMcPeters [1993].

^cReed *et al.* [1993], uncertainty unknown.

^dInitially released SO₂ mass includes SO₂ sequestered in ice and SO₂ converted to sulfate during the rise of volcanic plume.

[40] Sulfate aerosol masses in the earliest Pinatubo volcanic cloud were estimated at 4 Mt by multispectral IR retrievals [Guo *et al.*, 2004]. This sulfate would be equivalent to about 3 Mt SO₂ if we assume all such sulfate (75% SO₄²⁻ + 25% H₂O) came from erupted SO₂. The sulfate has absorption in IR similar to SO₂ so it will produce an enhanced SO₂ result, but nothing like this happens in the UV range. Therefore the effects of sulfate in the volcanic cloud are reflected in retrieved TOVS SO₂ mass, but not in retrieved TOMS SO₂ mass. Thus the total initial SO₂ mass is 18 ± 4 Mt (15 SO₂ + 3 SO₂ as sulfate) Mt for TOMS, and 19 ± 4 Mt for TOVS. Table 5 compares these estimates with previously published ones.

[41] The variation of the SO₂ oxidation rate with time (Table 4) is consistent with a catalytic effect of abundant volcanic ash/ice mixtures in young (1–2 day old) volcanic clouds. In the case of Pinatubo the source of the ice in the volcanic cloud is both magmatic H₂O and entrained lower tropospheric air which is very moist in the tropics. It is likely that the same conditions exist in most tropical volcanic clouds, and thus they too should contain abundant ice as well as ash in their first days of atmospheric residence. Thus SO₂ conversion rates could be accelerated similarly for a few days after most tropical eruptions, until the stratospheric ice sublimates. Laboratory experiments or tests to study the catalytic effects more quantitatively might be of interest.

4.3. Why do TOMS and TOVS Retrievals Differ?

[42] Although data from both sensors display the same trends in SO₂ sequestration to ice, and

removal patterns, the TOVS retrievals are consistently higher than TOMS. Figure 6 shows an increasing trend of maximum pixel value from TOVS compared to TOMS. The reason could be due to the gradual increase of sulfate mass due to continuous oxidation of SO₂ within the whole volcanic cloud. This is because sulfate aerosol will absorb at 7.34 μm and not in the UV wavelengths used for the TOMS retrievals. No correction for sulfate absorption is used in the TOVS retrieval model. Gradual sulfate mass increase over time after eruption was found in multispectral IR retrievals, consistent with the decrease of SO₂ mass within the Pinatubo volcanic cloud [Guo *et al.*, 2004]. Therefore SO₂ must be overestimated by the TOVS sensor by an increasing factor as the cloud ages. This effect is partially counteracted by the smaller cloud area detected by TOVS (Tables 2 and 3).

[43] The difference between TOMS and TOVS retrievals suggest the importance of sulfate absorption in the IR range to TOVS (IR) retrieval. Therefore the effects of sulfate absorption need to be considered in IR retrievals. Although the trend is in the right direction and the magnitude is approximately right, the differences between TOMS and TOVS retrievals might not be only due to sulfate interference. Other factors, such as water vapor within and perhaps below the volcanic cloud, need also to be investigated.

5. Conclusions

[44] In this study we analyzed 77 TOVS (infrared) images and re-analyzed 16 TOMS (ultraviolet) images of the Pinatubo SO₂ cloud during its first 15 days of atmospheric residence. Similar SO₂ cloud maps were delineated by TOMS and TOVS



sensors during this period. TOVS SO₂ mass estimates are typically higher than TOMS SO₂ mass estimates by 5–30%. This is most noticeable when comparing individual pixel retrievals. The percent difference between TOVS and TOMS maximum pixel values increases with time, and thus the TOVS maximum pixel values are up to 40–50% higher than TOMS maximum pixel values 370 hours after eruption. We suspect that these differences are at least partly caused by sulfate aerosols in the SO₂ cloud, which elevate TOVS SO₂ burdens, but not the TOMS. This effect is not as noticeable in overall cloud masses, because the SO₂ cloud areas using TOVS data are smaller than those using TOMS data, especially one week after eruption. The smaller TOVS areas are probably caused by water vapor (below the SO₂ cloud) interference in TOVS which is more severe when SO₂ cloud is thin.

[45] Together with other data, our SO₂ remote sensing results allow us to visualize the distribution of species in the Pinatubo cloud (Figure 1). TOMS and TOVS results show an increase in SO₂ mass after the start of the eruption for about two days, which we speculate may be caused by ice, which initially forms within the stratospheric umbrella cloud and captures some SO₂. The increase in SO₂ results from release by ice during sublimation and transport in the stratospheric volcanic cloud during the first two days of residence. Mass estimates of initially released SO₂ based on extrapolation of remote sensing SO₂ volcanic cloud data are 15 ± 3 Mt for TOMS and 19 ± 4 Mt for TOVS. To estimate the total S released in the eruption SO₂ which was rapidly converted to sulfate aerosol during eruption must also be included. This sulfate mass, estimated at about 3 Mt, causes a proportional overestimate in retrieved TOVS SO₂, but not in TOMS SO₂ mass. Thus the total S release by Pinatubo, calculated as SO₂, is 18 ± 4 Mt based on TOMS and 19 ± 4 Mt based on TOVS. Thus the results from the two detectors agree within expected error ranges when the effects of sulfate interference are considered. After 55 hours residence, SO₂ decreases in the volcanic cloud describe overall e-folding times of 25 ± 5 days for TOMS and 23 ± 5 days for TOVS. The data from

both detectors show faster SO₂ removal rates during the first 118 hours of stratospheric residence, an effect that is consistent with catalytic effects of ice and ash which is abundant in the early volcanic cloud, but which falls out quickly. SO₂ mass increases in the volcanic cloud during the first two days after eruption is most probably caused by the gas-phase SO₂ release from the ice-ash-gas mixtures. This result indicates ice-sequestered SO₂ probably exists in all tropical volcanic clouds, and could at least partially explain SO₂ mass increases after eruption observed in many other eruptions.

Acknowledgments

[46] Support for this work came from the National Science Foundation (NSF EAR01-06875) and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NAG5-11062), and Song Guo was supported by a NASA Graduate Student Fellowship. We also benefited from comments by Arlin Krueger and an anonymous reviewer.

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