



# IOCCG Summer Lecture Series



## Principles of lidar

**Davide Dionisi**

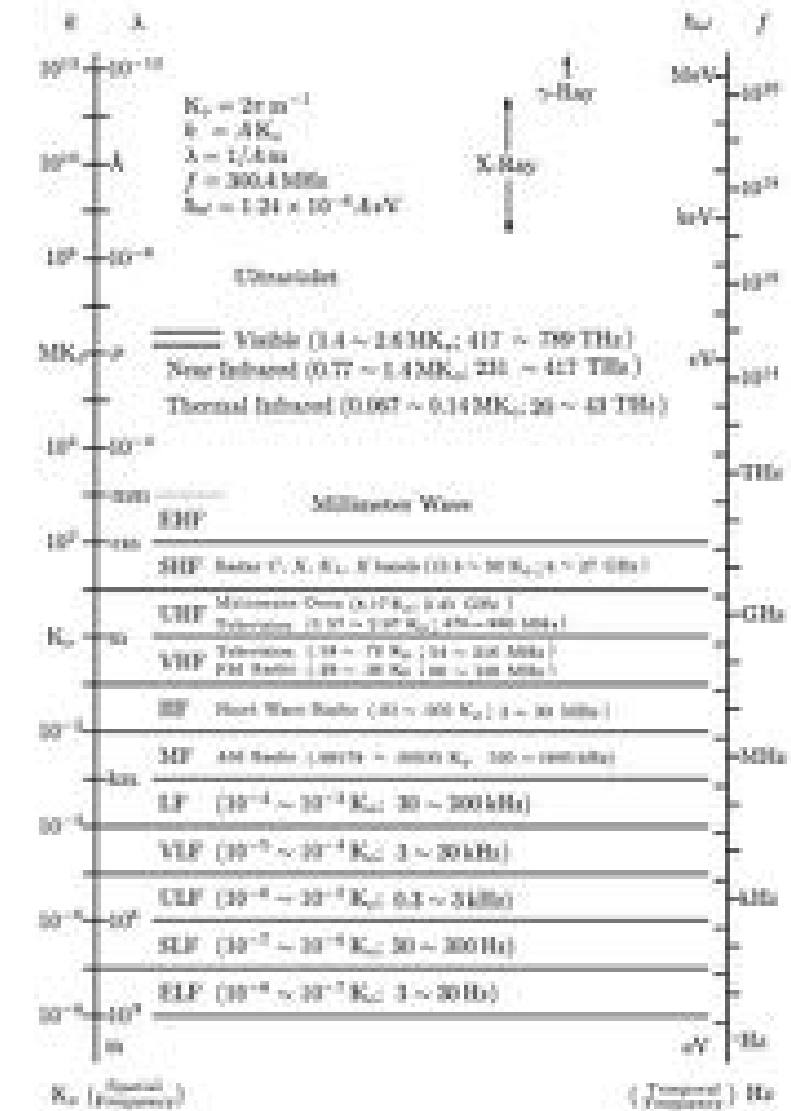
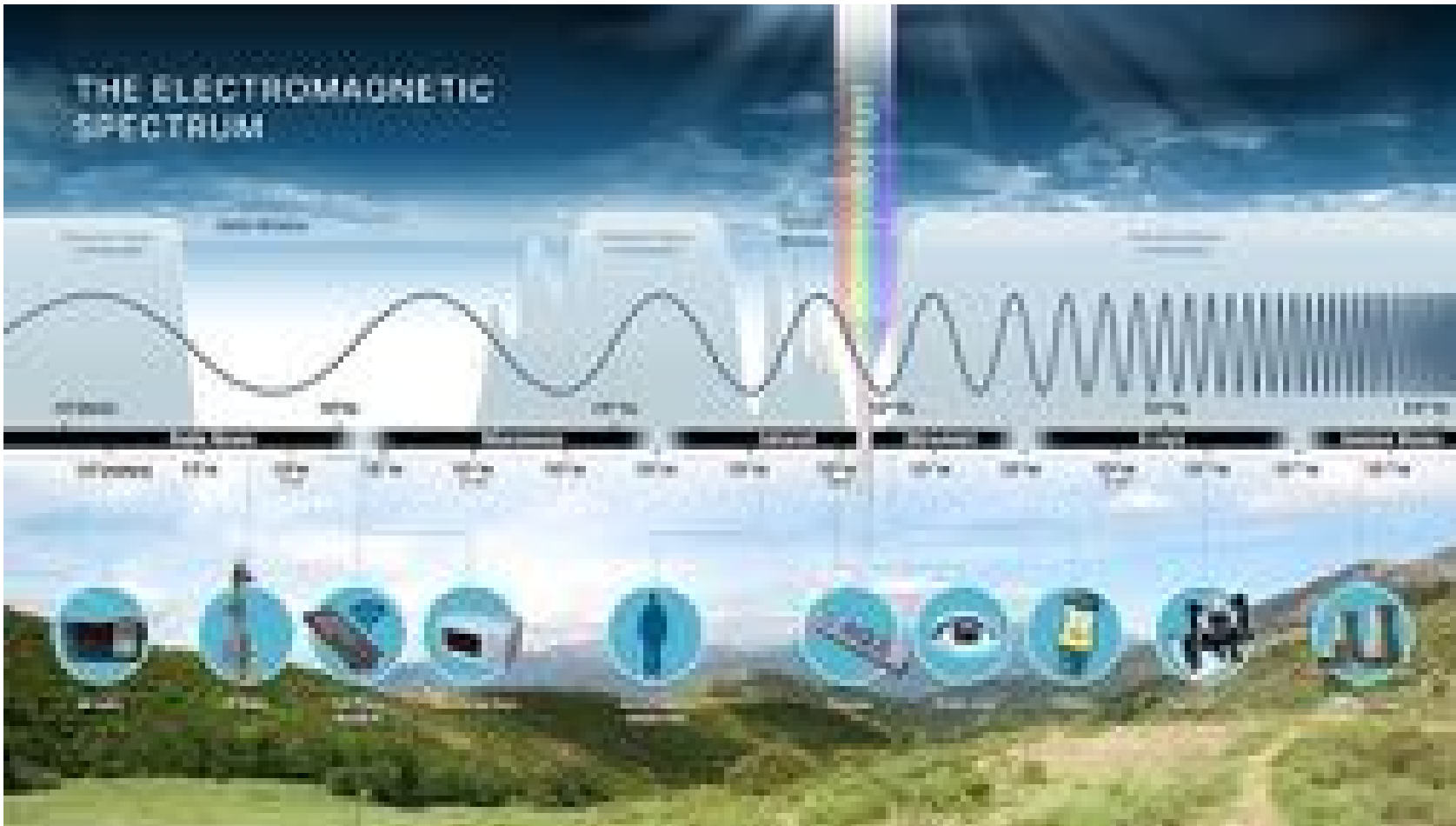
Italian National Research Council- Institute Marine Sciences (CNR – ISMAR), Rome, Italy

14 July 2026



- Introduction
  - What is a lidar
  - Historical overview
- Lidar basics
  - Description of the instrument
  - Lidar equation
- Optical Interactions of Relevance to Lidar and oceanic lidar algorithms
  - Elastic: Rayleigh/Mie/Polarization;
  - Inelastic: Raman/Fluorescence/Brillouin;
- Lidar variables and OC products
- Uncertainties
  - Precision and Accuracy
  - Signal-to-noise ratio and calibration

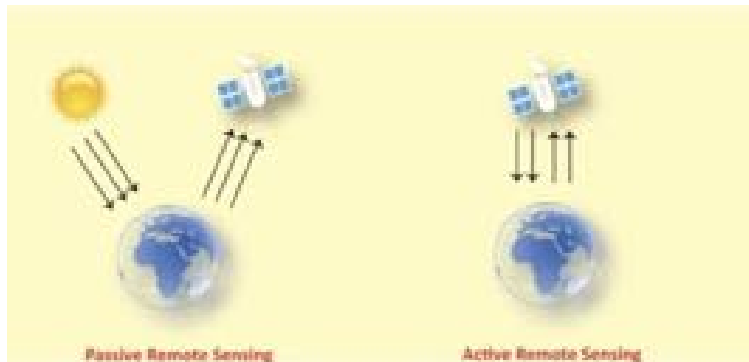
# Introduction – Electromagnetic spectrum



# Introduction – What is a lidar

**Lidar** is an optical sensing technology that can measure the **distance to, or other properties of a target** by illuminating the target with pulsed **light** produced by a laser.

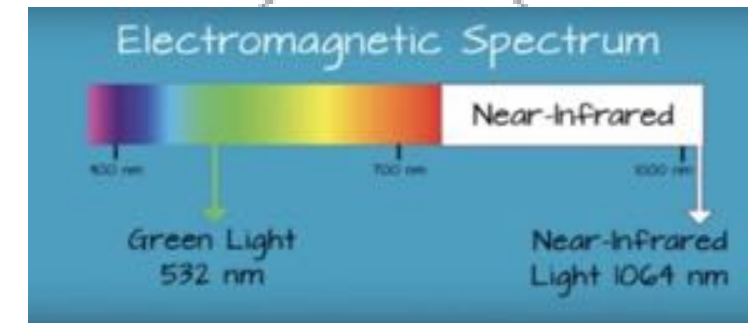
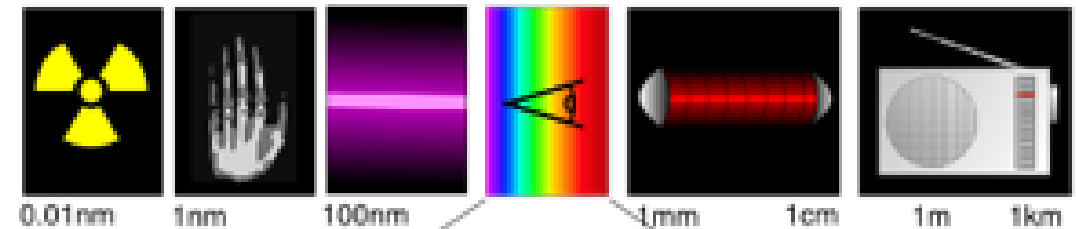
## Active remote sensing technique



RADAR : Radio Detection and Ranging  
LIDAR : Light Detection and Ranging

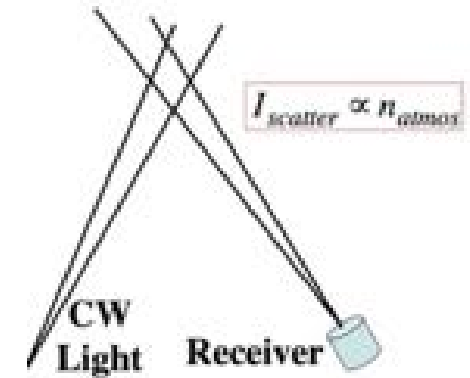
=> Same physical principle,  
except the wavelength.

Lidar mainly operates using electromagnetic (EM) waves in the optical and infrared spectrum



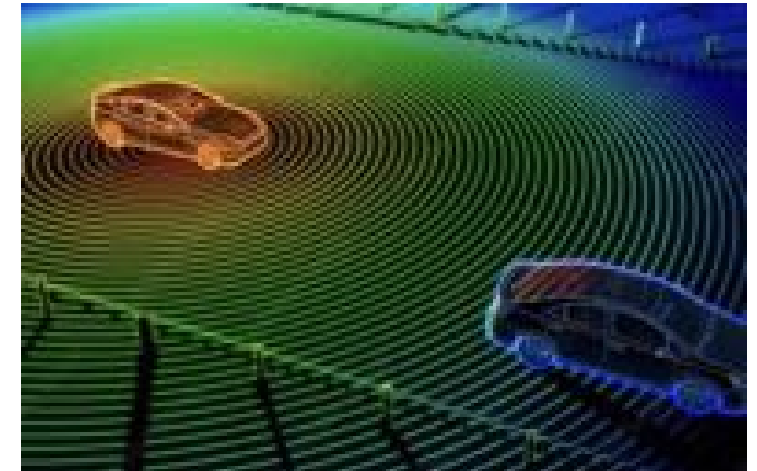
# Introduction – Historical Overview

- 1930: E.H. Synge suggests to probe the atmospheric density using light source, « Searchlight» principle.
- 1946: First monostatic lidar system with pulsed light source to determine the base clouds altitude by R. Bureau.
- 1959: Laser invention by G. Gould (principle given by A. Einstein in 1917).
- 1962,63: First use of laser as lidar source to measure the distance from the moon and for stratospheric measurements by L.D. Smullins and G. Fiocco.
- 1980: First airborne lidars by E.V. Browell
- 1994: Lidar In-space Technology Experiment (LITE). First Earth-orbiting atmospheric lidar.



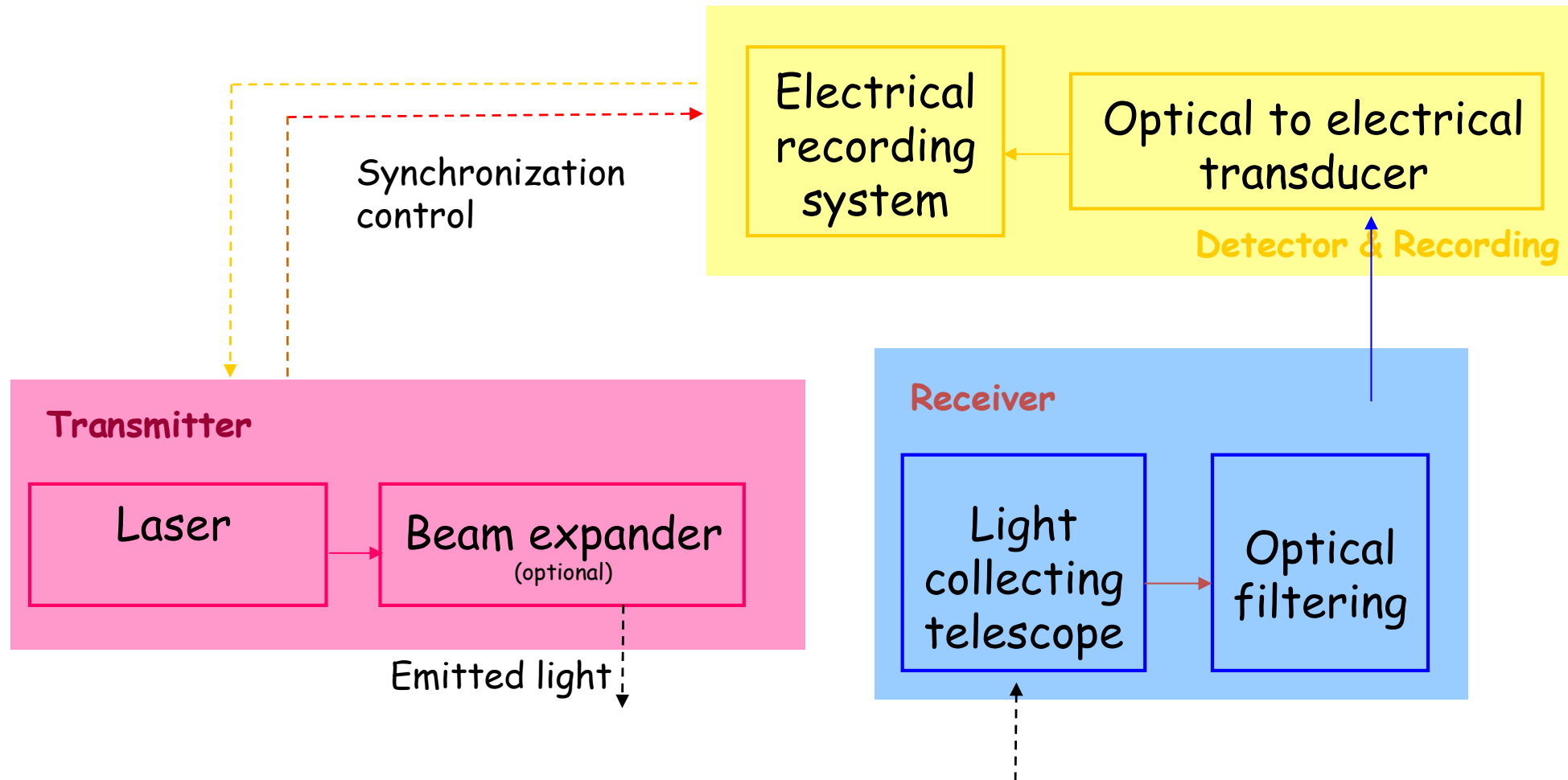
## Lidar supports a wide range of applications

- Archaeology (uncovering hidden landscapes)
- Construction (high-resolution 3D models of construction sites and existing structures)
- Forestry and agriculture (forest structure and health; land's surface and soil conditions)
- Mapping and Surveying
- Transport (autonomous vehicles, aviation)
- Military and defense
- Urban Planning and risk assessment
- Energy (wind, bathymetry)
- Geology
- Environmental Monitoring (Land, Coastal, Atmosphere, Marine)



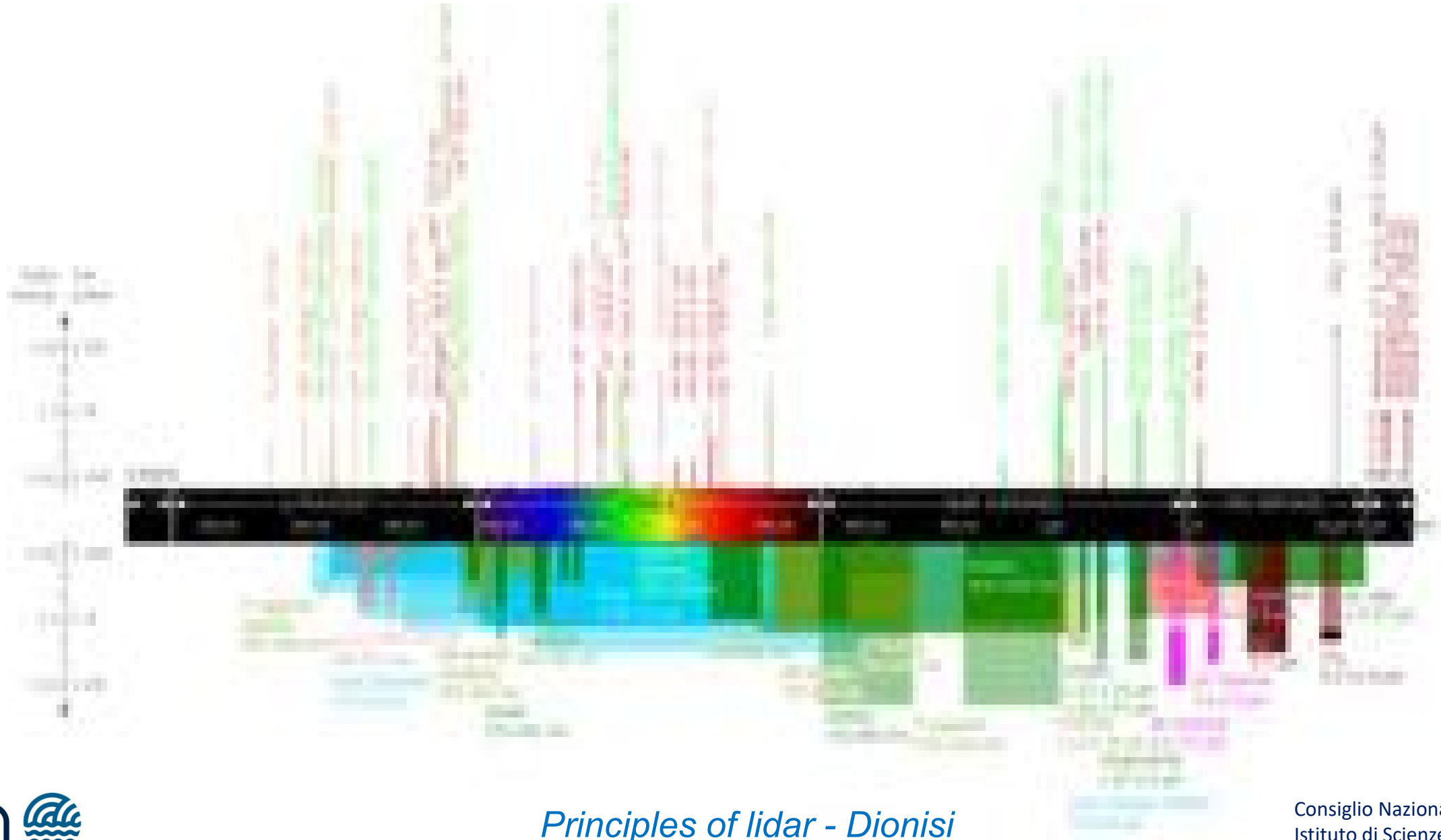
# Lidar Basics

## *Block diagram of a generic lidar system*



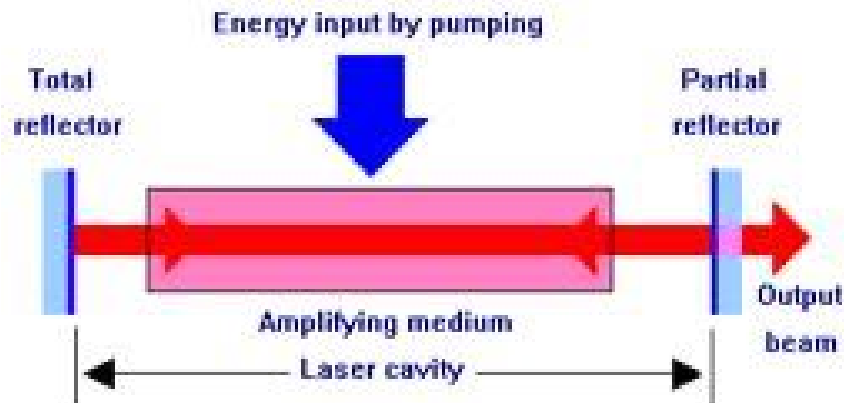
# Lidar Basics – Transmitter

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# Lidar Basics – Transmitter

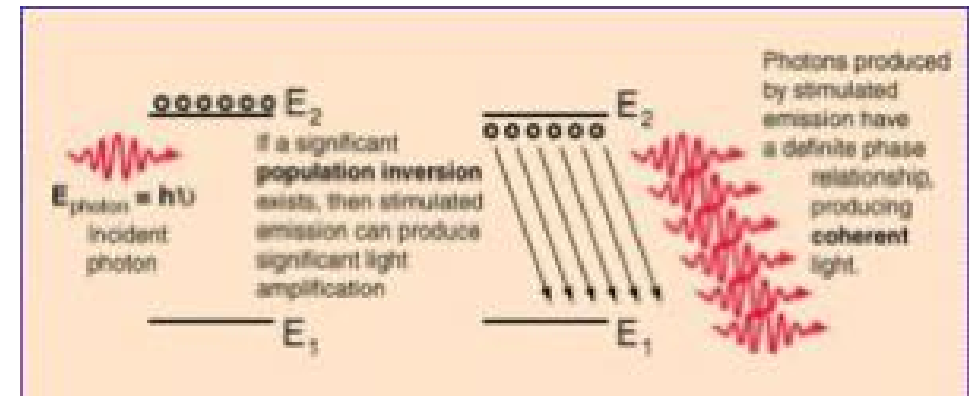
Laser = Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation



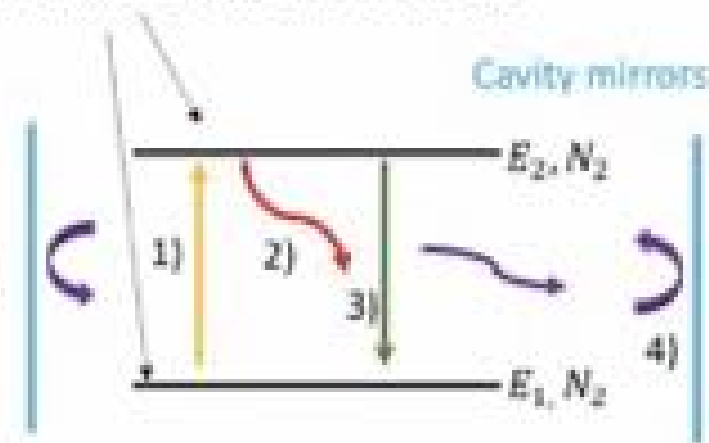
How does lasing work?

## Two-level system

- 1) **Pumping** electron into higher energetic level (flashlamp, diodes)
  - 2) **Spontaneous** emission of a photon
  - 3) Spontaneously emitted photon **stimulates next emission**
  - 4) **Simulation** of further emissions by photons reflected at cavity mirrors
- > exponential increase of number of photons in cavity  
-> light amplification by stimulated emission

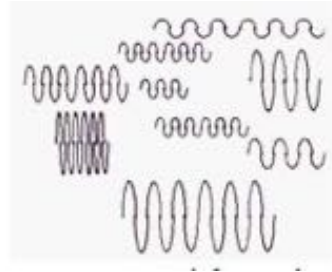


Upper and lower electronic LASER level

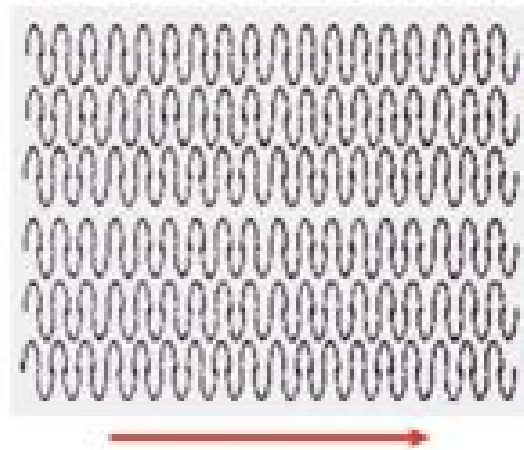


# Lidar Basics – Transmitter

**Incoherent emission:** photons are emitted randomly, at different times and with different phases



**Coherent emission:** photons are emitted simultaneously and with the same phase



**Spatial coherence:** waves have the same phase at all points across the cross-section of the beam.

**Temporal coherence:** waves maintain the same phase over time.

**High directivity**

Laser emits a collimated beam. Related to spatial coherence. Intrinsic divergence due to the diffraction limit

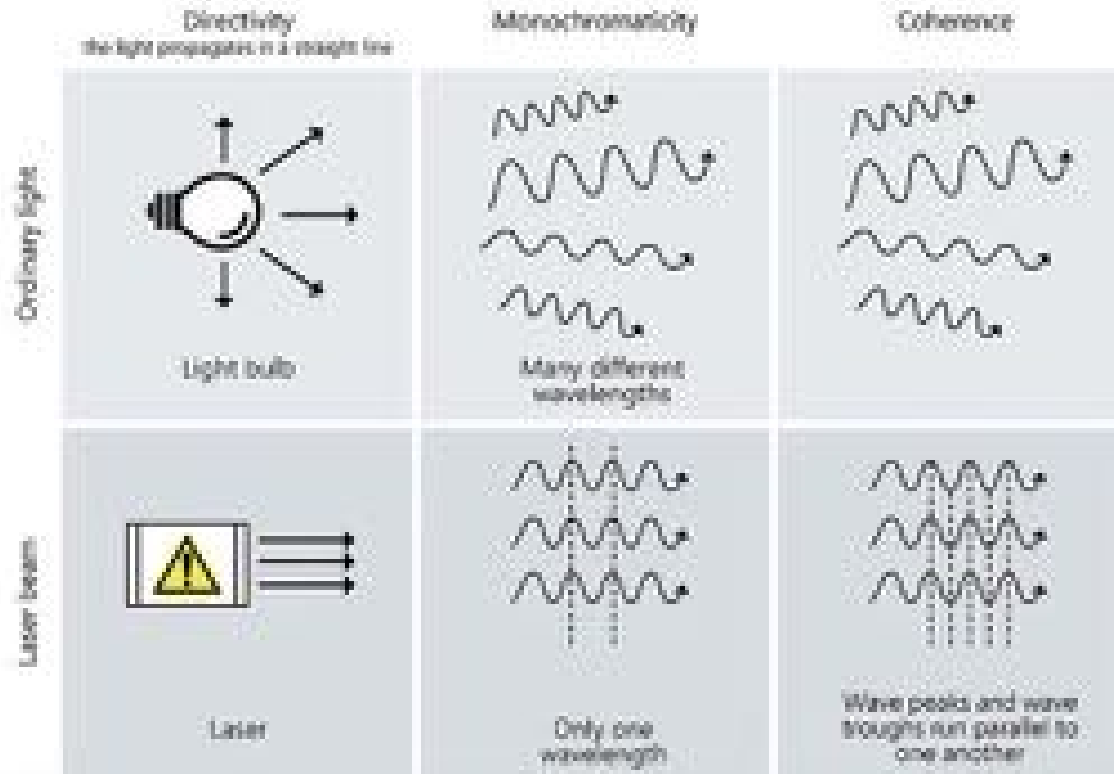
**Monochromaticity:** capability of laser to emit radiation beams in a narrow spectral range

$$\Delta t_c = \frac{l}{\Delta v}$$

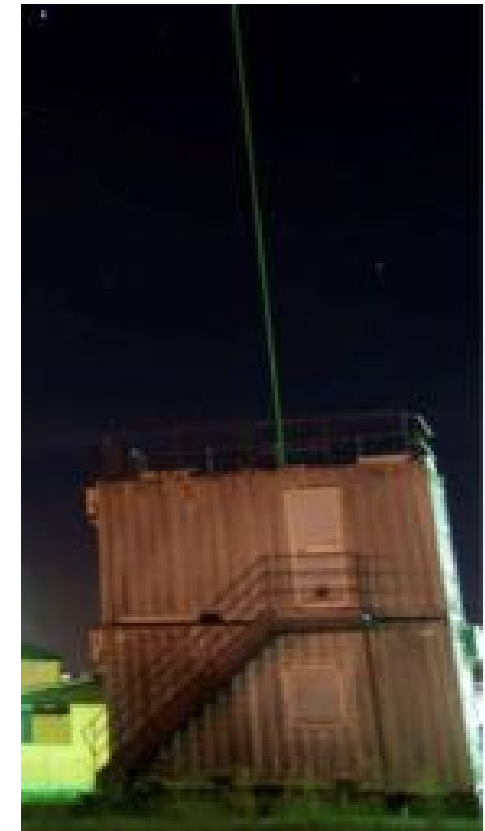
$$\Delta v = \frac{c}{\lambda^2} \Delta \lambda$$

$$l_c = \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta \lambda} = \frac{c}{\Delta v}$$

# Lidar Basics – Transmitter



- Monochromaticity
- High directivity
- High coherence
- High energy density



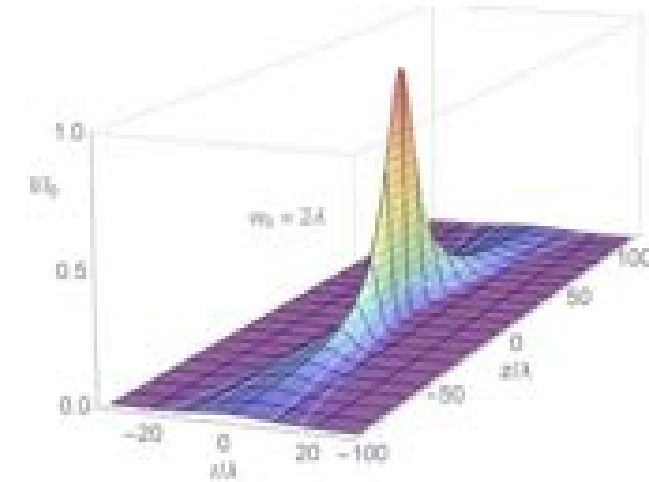
# Lidar Basics – Transmitter

## Laser Properties

**Irradiance ( $I$ ) or power density [ $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ ]** is a consequence of the directivity

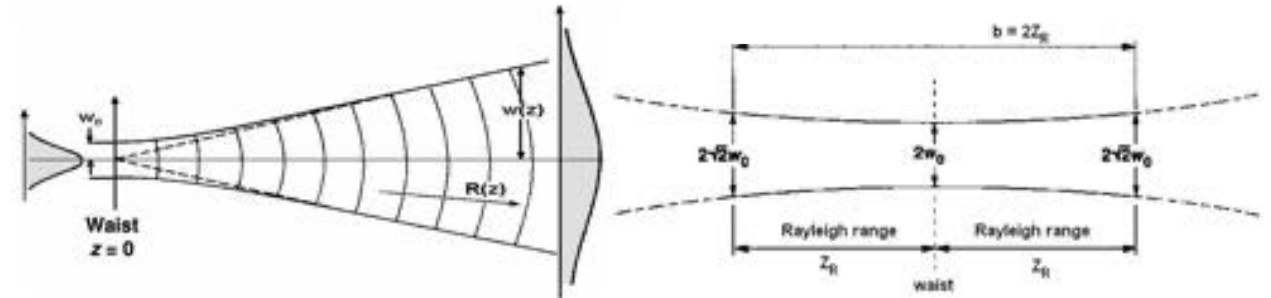
□ For a gaussian beam (simmetric on x and y axes), the irradiance is:

$$I(x, y, z) = I_0 \exp \left[ \frac{-2(x^2 + y^2)}{w^2} \right] \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} I_0 = \text{max irradiance} \\ w(z) = \text{radius of the laser beam} \\ z = \text{coordinate for the beam direction} \end{array} \right.$$



## Propagation of a Gaussian beam

$$w^2(z) = w_0^2 + \left( \frac{w_0}{z_R} \right)^2 z^2 = w_0^2 + \left( \frac{\lambda}{\pi w_0} \right)^2 z^2 \rightarrow \sigma^2(z) = \sigma_0^2 + \theta^2 z^2.$$



$$z_R = \frac{\pi w_0^2}{\lambda}$$

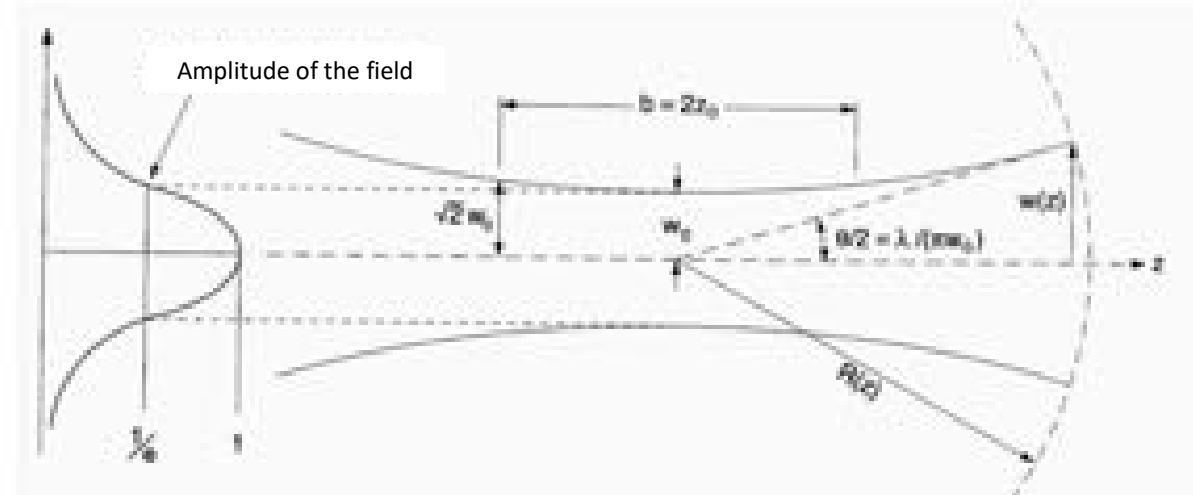
$z_R$  = Rayleigh distance = distance at which the beam is considered collimated

# Lidar Basics – Transmitter

## Laser Properties

### Divergence of a Gaussian beam

For  $z > z_R$  the divergence angle is given by the asymptotes of the hyperbole



$$\theta = 2 \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{w(z)}{z} = 2 \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{w_0^2}{z^2} + \left( \frac{w_0}{z_R} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\theta = \frac{2w_0}{z_R} = \frac{2\lambda}{\pi w_0} = 0,64 \frac{\lambda}{w_0} \quad \rightarrow \quad w_0 \theta = 0,64 \lambda$$

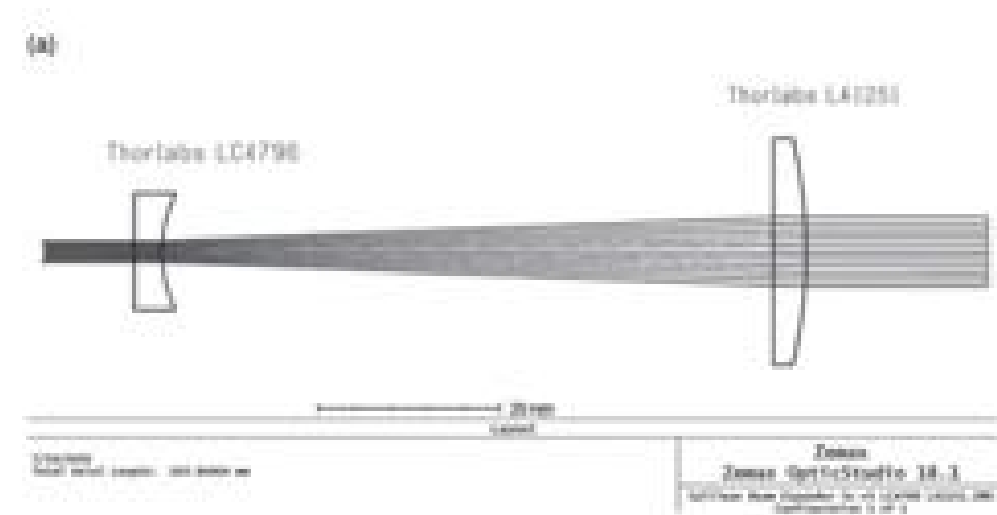
## Beam expander

Beam quality quantified by the beam parameter product (BPP, conservative parameter):

$$BPP = w_0 \cdot \frac{\theta}{2}$$

By enlarging the beam size, the transmitting beam divergence angle is accordingly reduced due to conservation of BPP.

Beam expander = a small telescope with the placement of its objective and image lenses reversed.



# Lidar Basics – reception

## Telescope

Collection of the scattered return and deliver to a photon-counting detector.

Principal elements:

- mirror size
- Reflectivity
- f-number
- Field of view

$$f = \frac{f_l}{d_a}$$

$$FOV = \frac{r}{f_l}$$

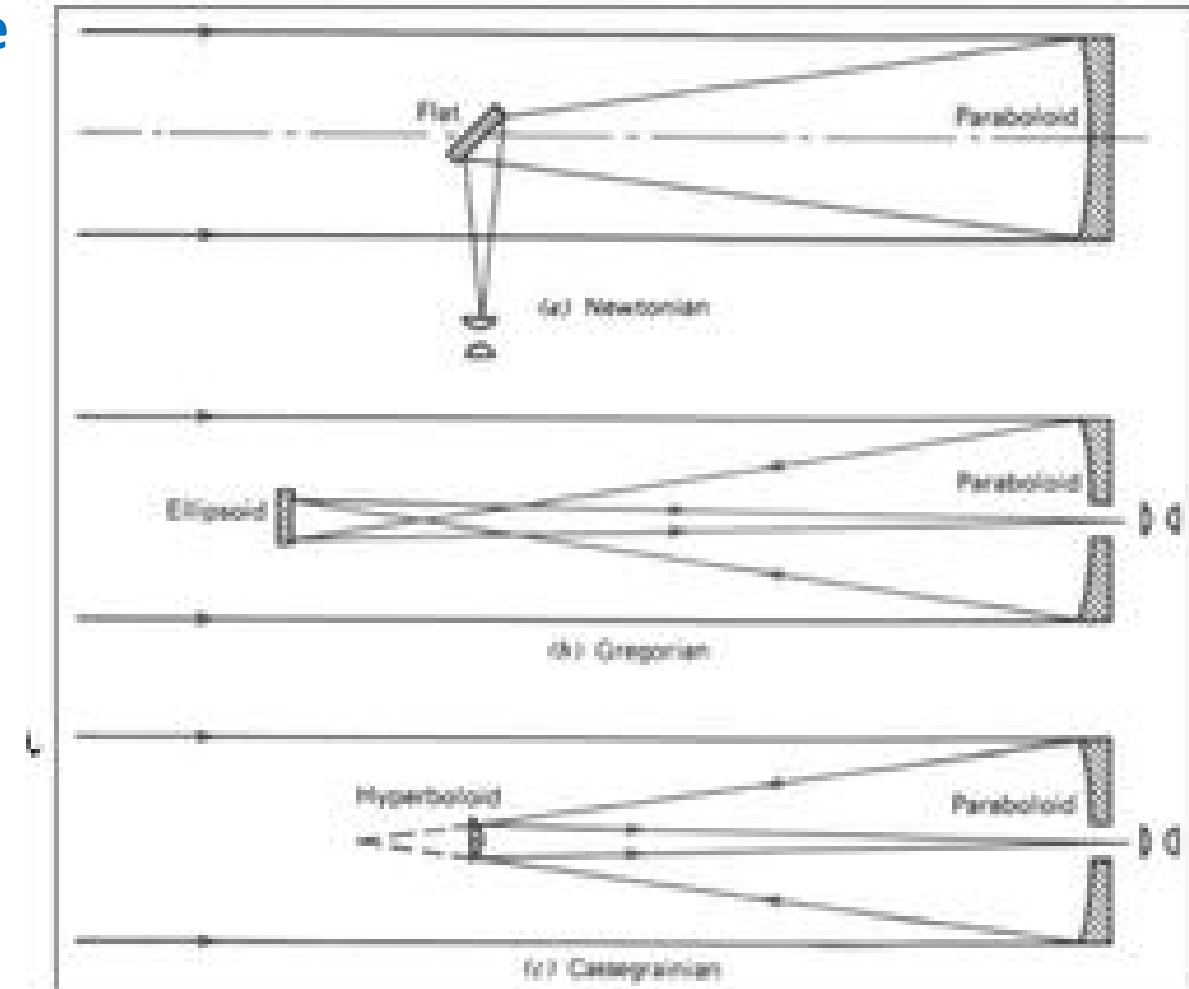
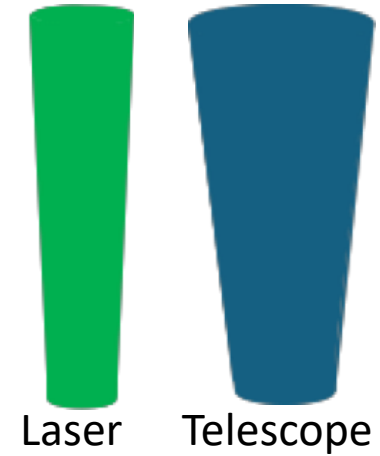
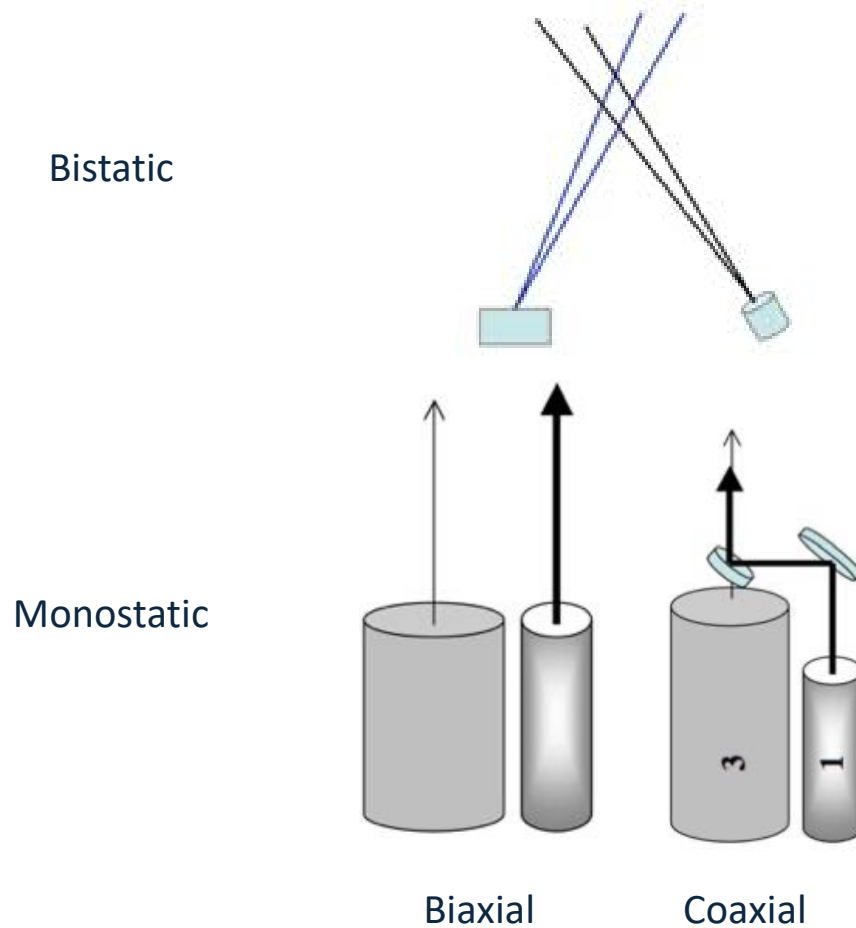


Fig. SOURCE: Measures (1992); R.M. Measures, "Laser Remote Sensing. Fundamentals and Applications". John Wiley & Sons, 1984. (Reprint de 1992, Krieger Publishing Company).

# Lidar Basics – Emission-reception

## Emission – reception geometry



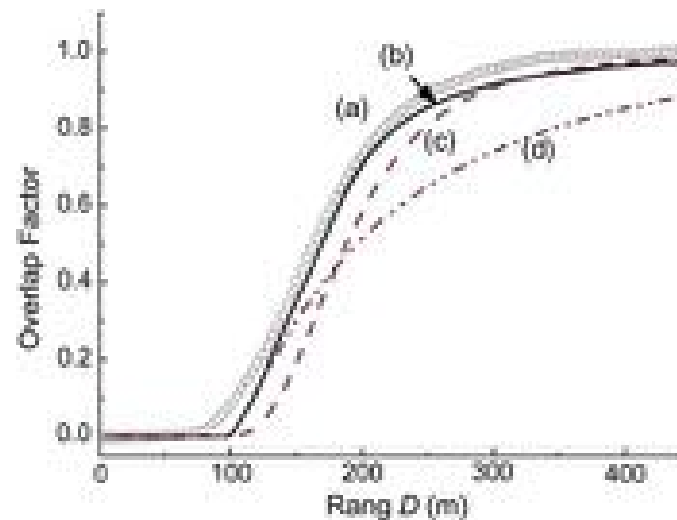
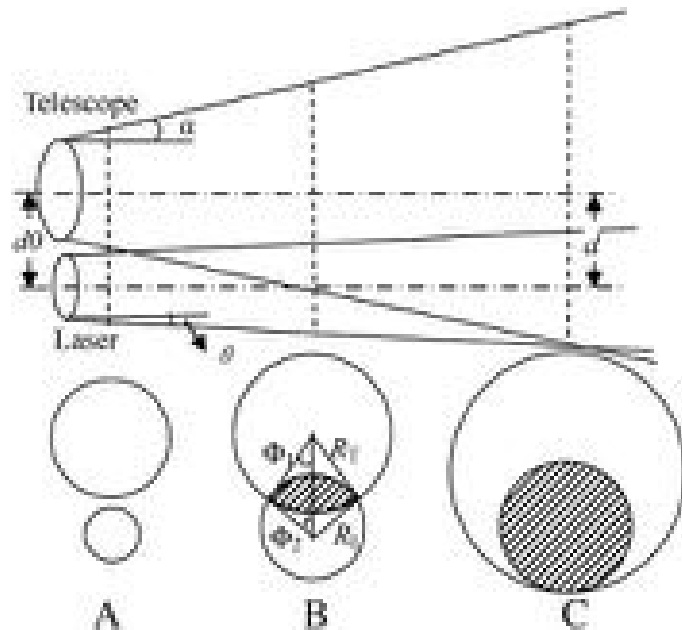
Background stray light is a major contributor to noise on the lidar signal and is a major challenge for daytime operations.

Reducing the field of view is the most effective way to mitigate this.

## Overlap factor

The telescope cannot “read” the full atmospheric cross-section illuminated by the laser beam (i.e., does not lie within its FOV).

The overlap function  $O(z)$  quantifies the fraction of the laser beam seen by the receiver. It increases from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (full overlap) as range increases.



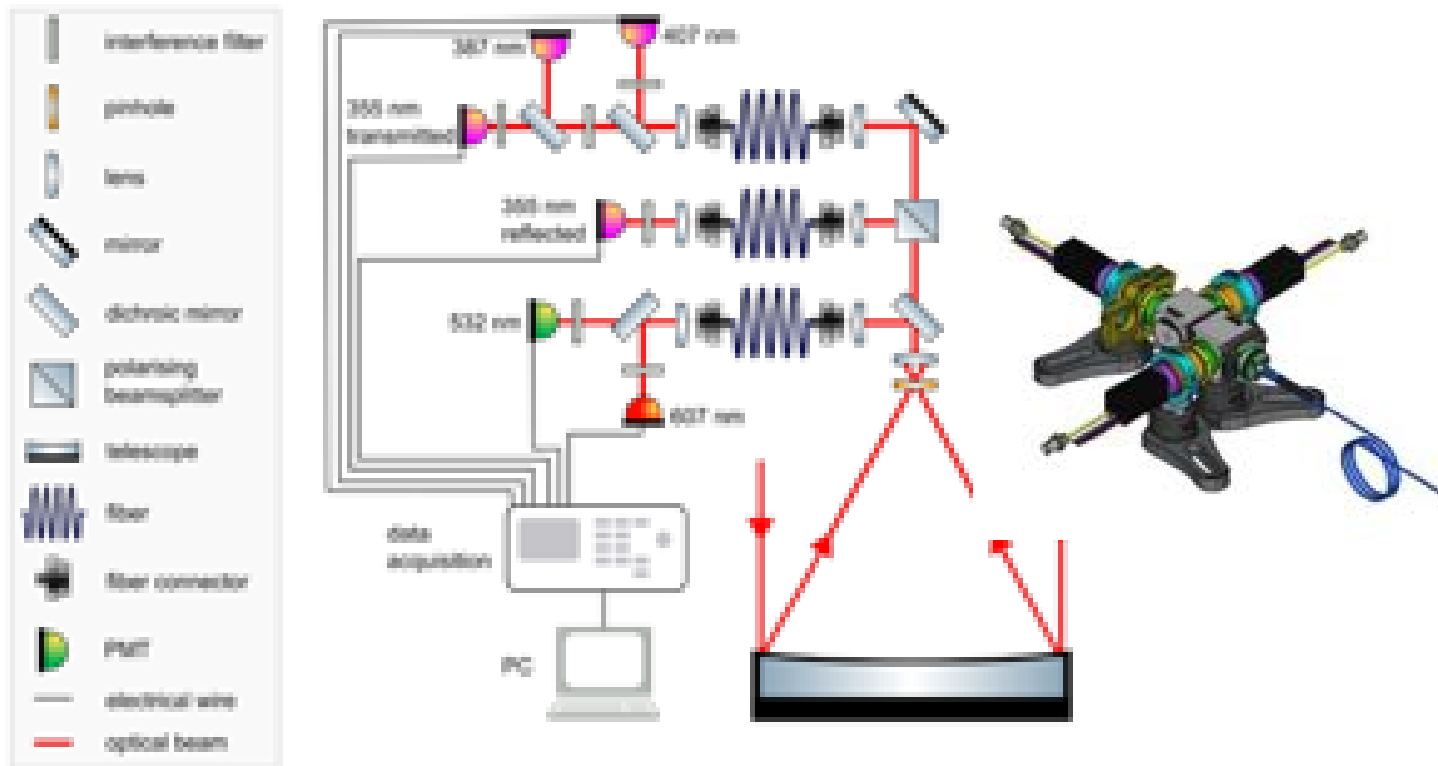
It is a function of many geometrical and optical parameters of both the laser and telescope.

Gong et al., 2011 (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.optcom.2011.01.062>)

# Lidar Basics – Optical selection

## From Telescope Output to PMTs

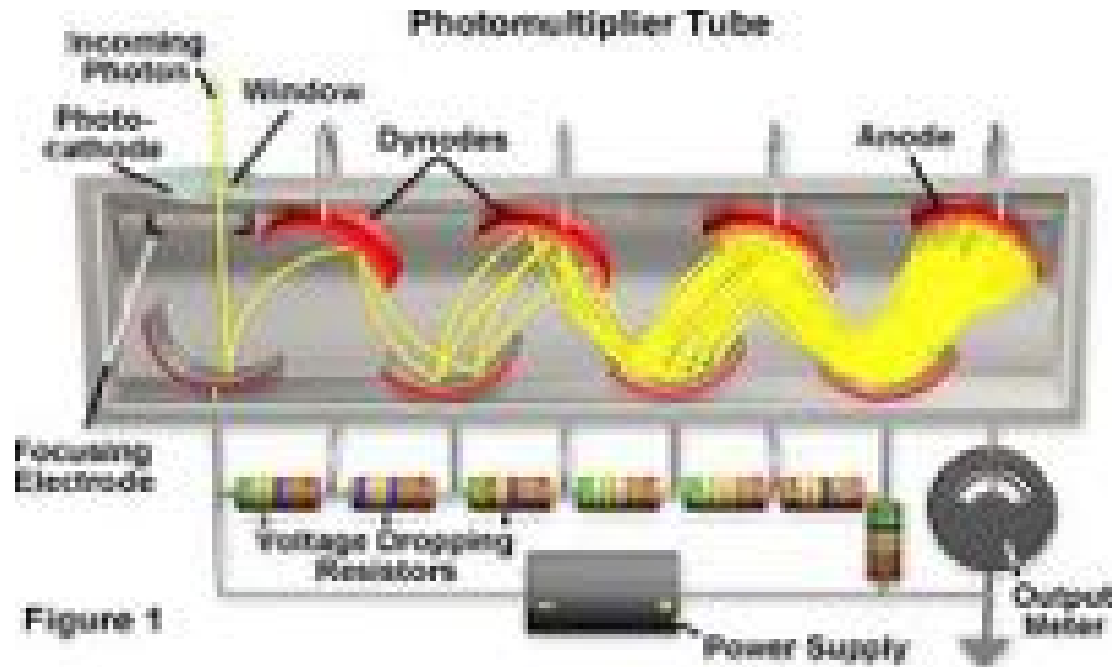
The receiver uses a field stop and collimating optics to stabilize angular response and define field of view.



# Lidar Basics – Detection

## PMT

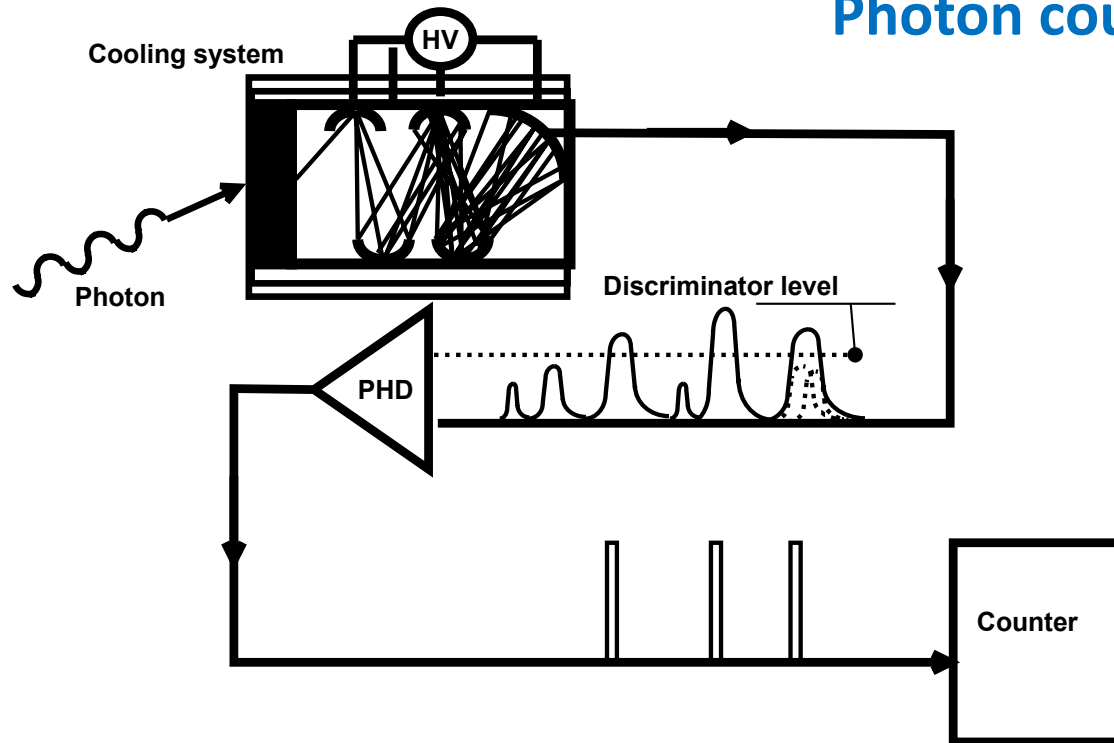
Photomultiplier tubes (PMTs) convert photons to an electrical signal



- Accelerate electrons within the chain of dynodes
- The amplification depends on the number of dynodes and the accelerating voltage. This amplified electrical signal is collected at an anode at ground potential, which can be measured

# Lidar Basics – Detection

## Photon counting



### Photon Counting Detection

Detects individual photons using devices like PMTs and SPADs to generate electrical pulses for weak signals.

### Signal Processing Chain

Amplifies pulses, applies threshold discrimination, and converts signals into standardized digital pulses for counting.

### Range Resolution and Profiling

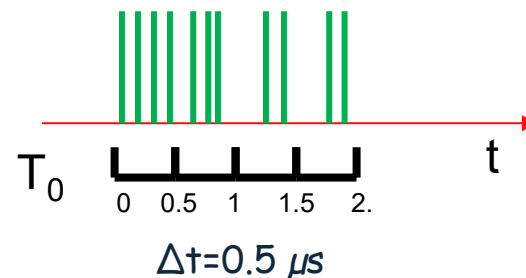
Time-binned photon counts enable calculation of range-dependent profiles with resolutions defined by bin width.

### Statistical Sensitivity and Limitations

Photon counting follows Poisson statistics and excels at low signals but suffers saturation at high count rates.

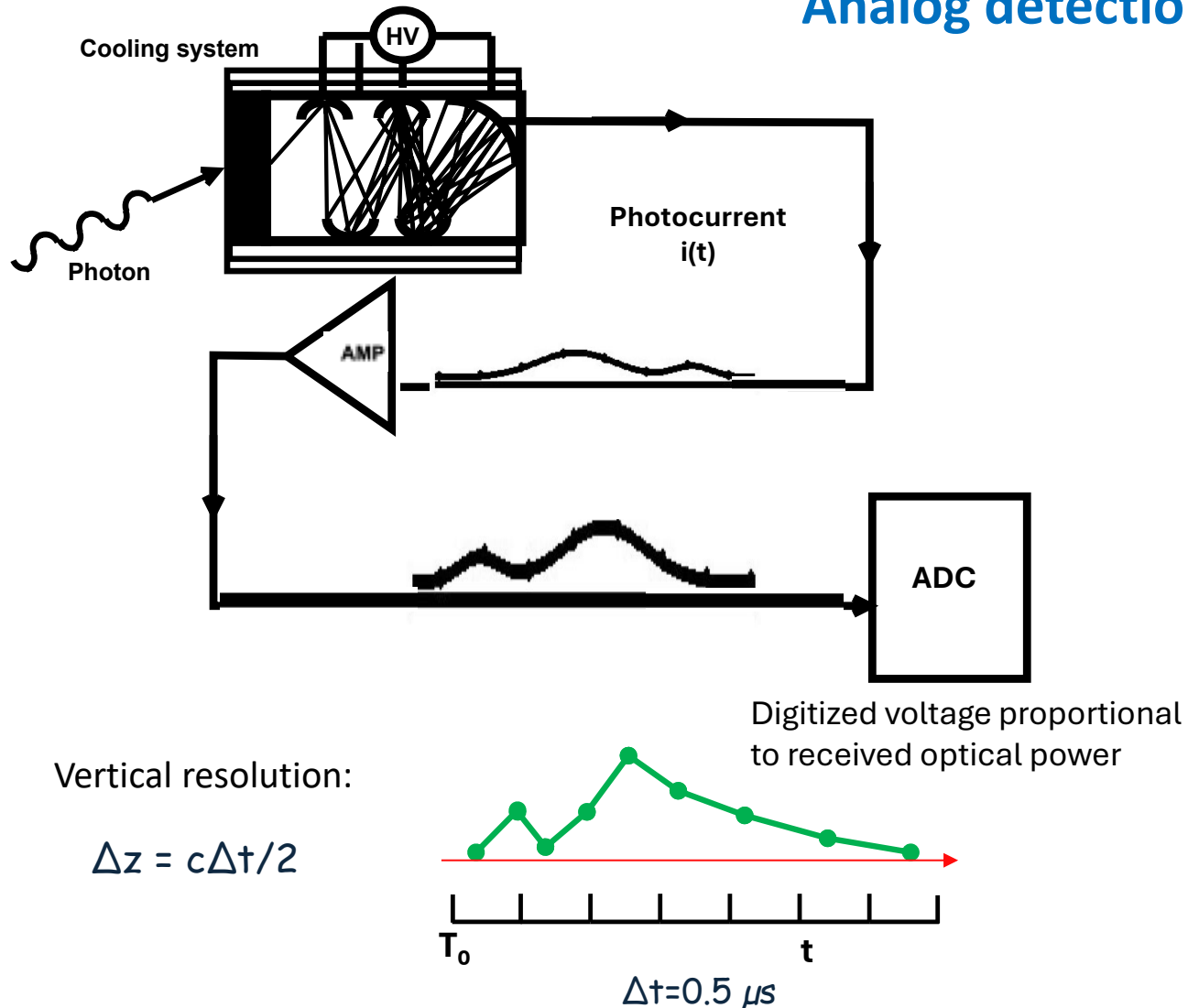
Vertical resolution:

$$\Delta z = c\Delta t/2$$



# Lidar Basics – Detection

## Analog detection



### Principle of Analog Detection

Analog detection converts photon flux into a continuous electrical signal proportional to optical power.

### Signal Amplification and Digitization

Photocurrent is amplified by a transimpedance amplifier and digitized by an analog-to-digital converter.

### Advantages and Limitations

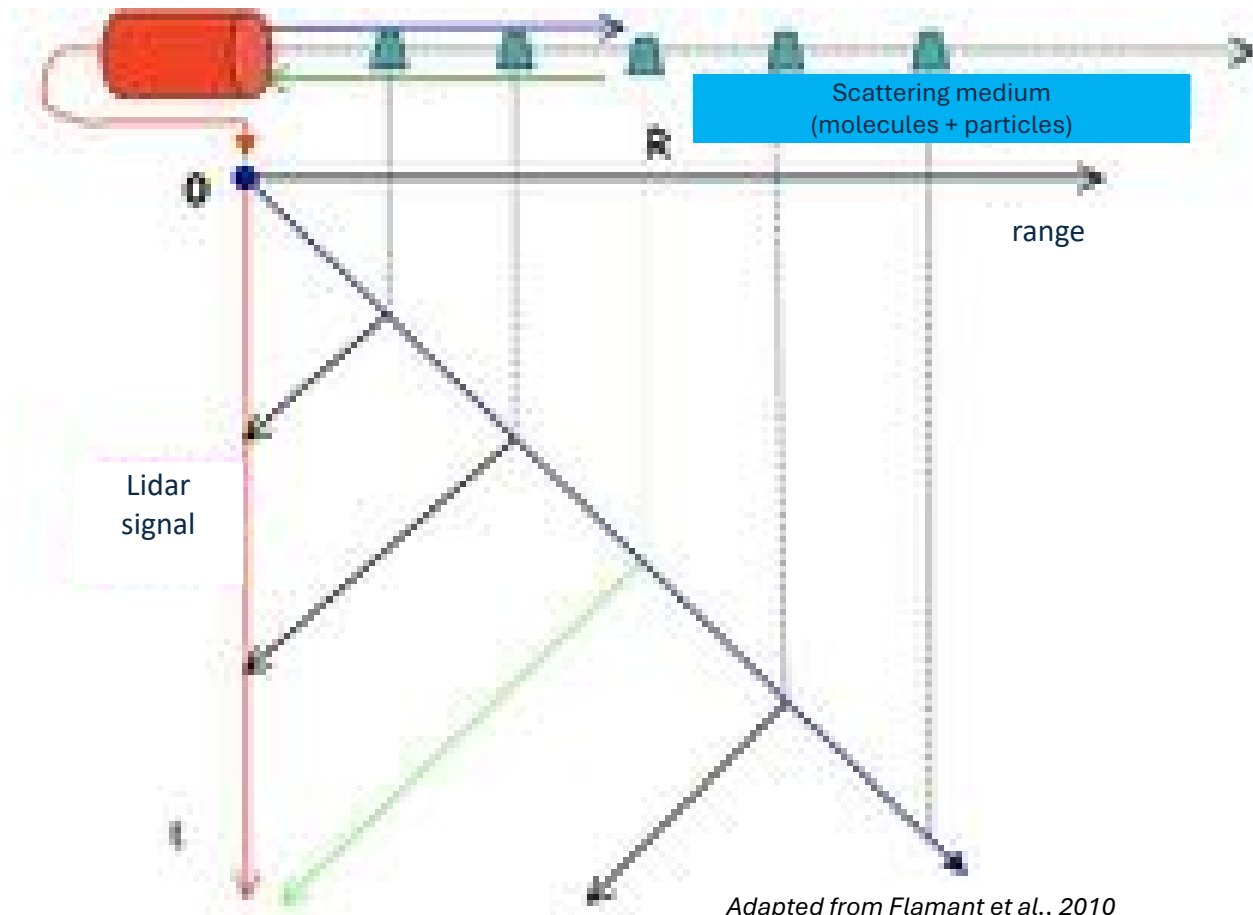
Analog mode handles high signals without saturation but suffers at low signals by electronic noise and shot noise.

### Combined Use with Photon Counting

Analog detection is complemented by photon counting to cover wide dynamic ranges effectively.

# Lidar Basics – Ranging

## Building a lidar profile



- The laser pulse is not stopped by the medium; it is progressively attenuated.
- Backscatter is received continuously along the line of sight.
- The output is a range-resolved atmospheric profile.

Each detection time corresponds to the range of the scattering volume.

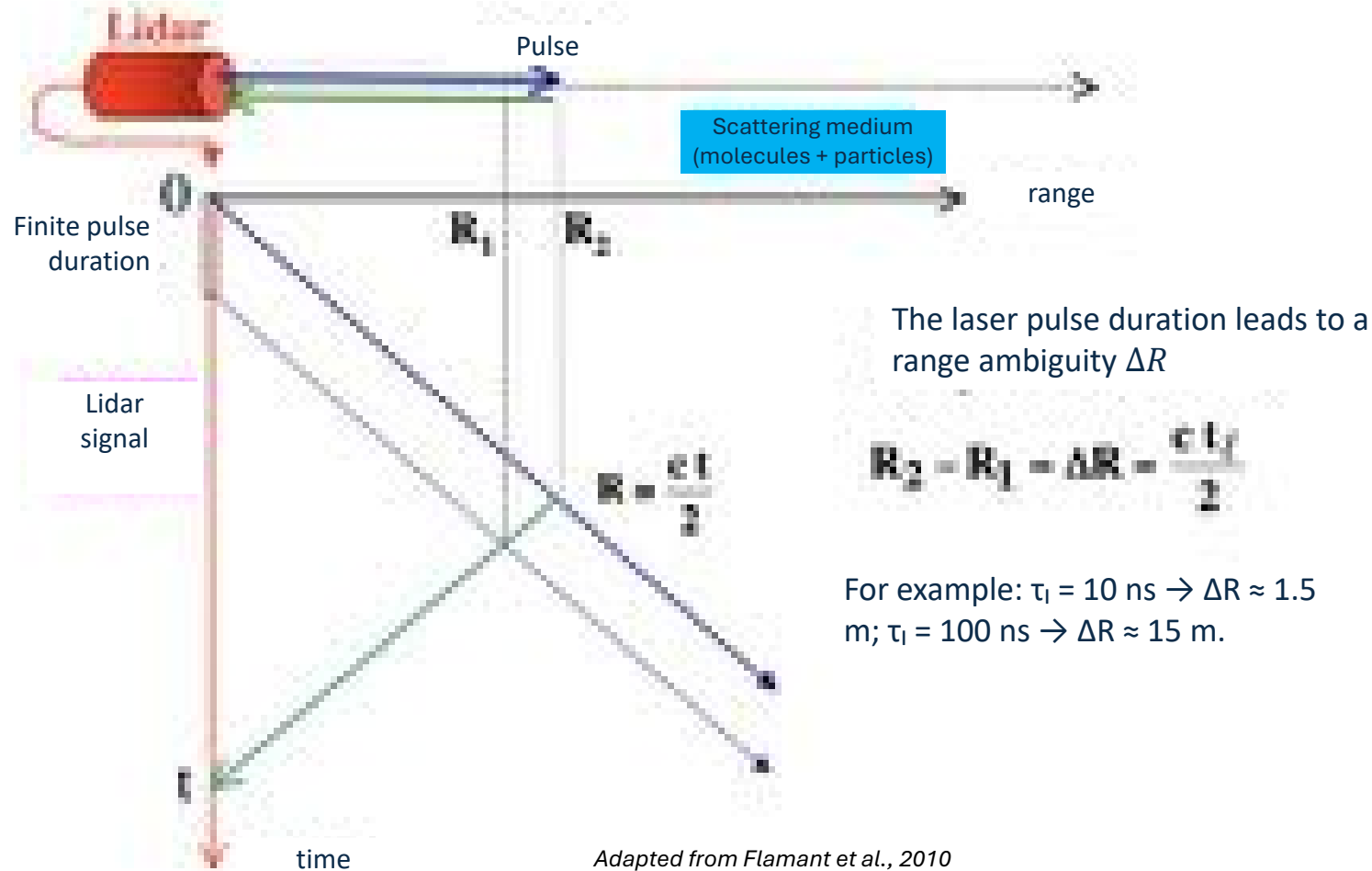
$$R = c t / 2$$

**Lidar ranging is a time-of-flight measurement with a two-way path.**

*Adapted from Flamant et al., 2010*

# Lidar Basics – Ranging

## Building a lidar profile



Adapted from Flamant et al., 2010

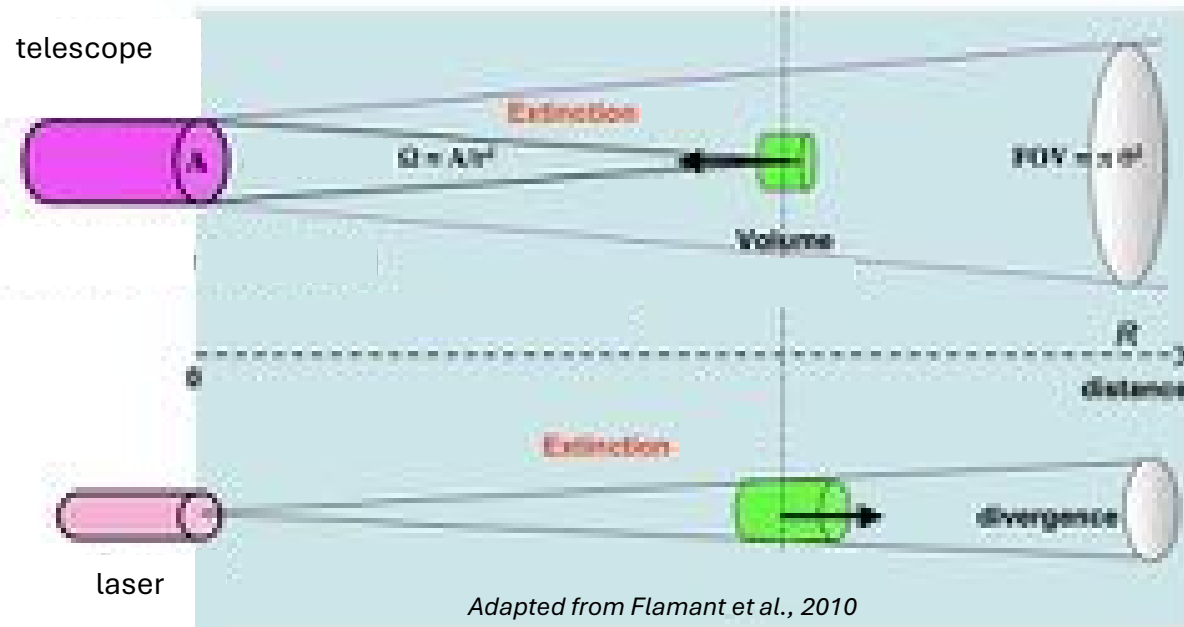
Lidar effective resolution is due:

- laser pulse duration
- detector/electronics response
- digitizer sampling interval
- range-bin integration time

# Lidar Basics – Lidar equation

## Elastic backscatter lidar

$$P(\lambda, r) = P_0(\lambda) \cdot K(\lambda) \cdot G(r) \cdot \Delta R \cdot \beta(\lambda, r) \cdot T^2(\lambda, r) + P_{bg}(\lambda)$$



$P(\lambda, r)$  = power received from a distance  $r$

$K(\lambda)$  = lidar instrument constant

$G(r) = \frac{A}{r^2}$  = telescope perception angle

$\beta(\lambda, r)$  = molecular plus particulate backscatter

$\Delta R = \frac{ct_l}{2}$  = lidar range resolution

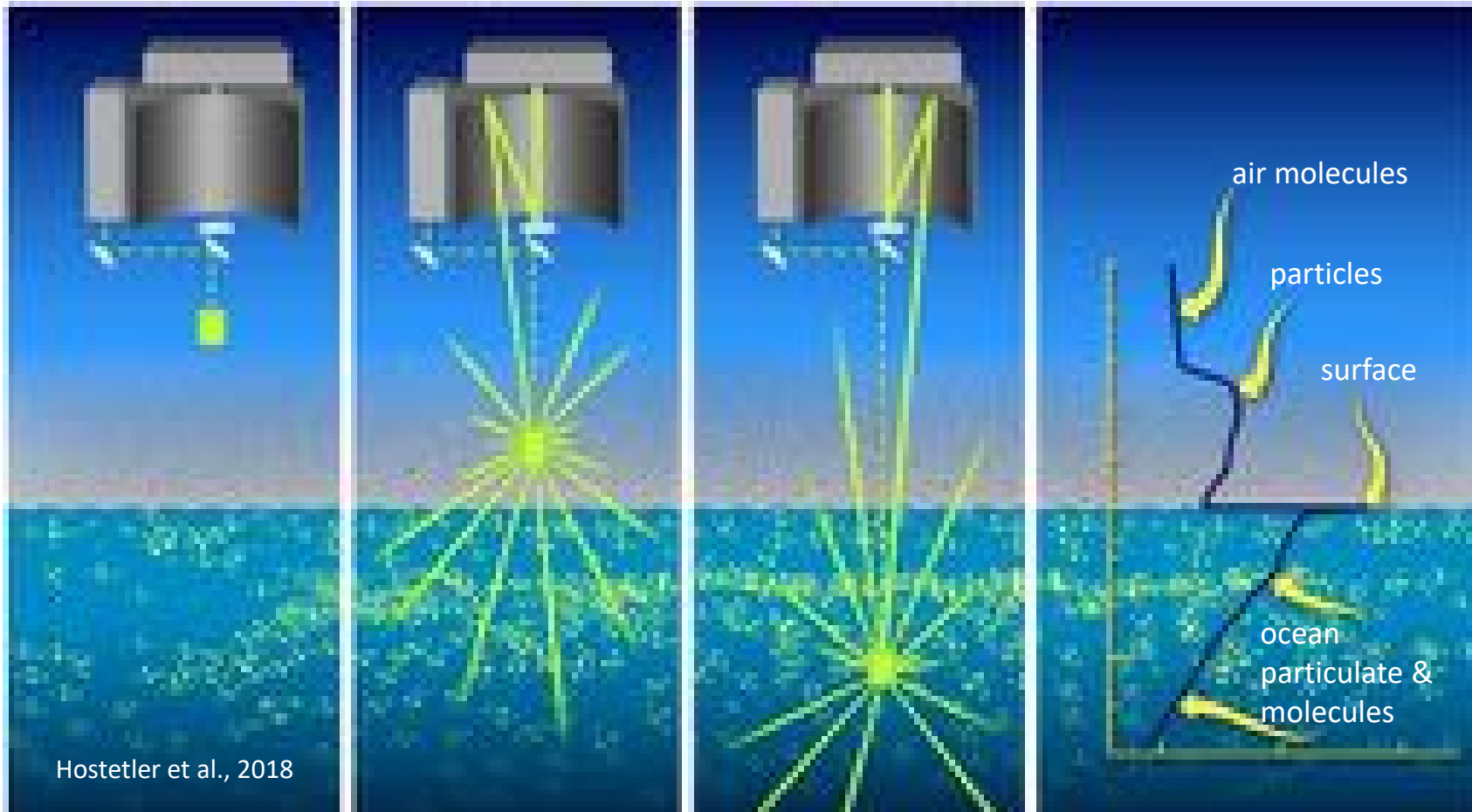
$T(\lambda, r)$  = transmission terms

$P_{bg}(\lambda)$  = background power

# Lidar Basics – Lidar equation

## Ocean elastic backscatter lidar

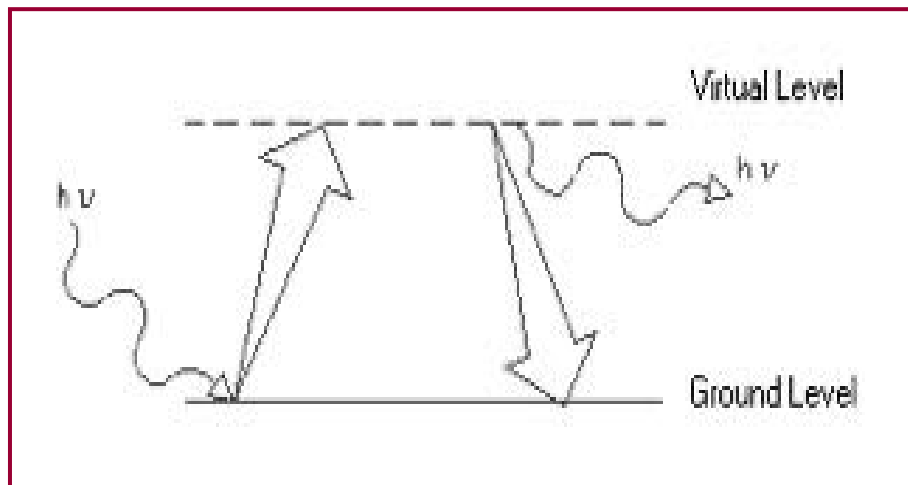
$$P(\lambda, r) = P_0(\lambda) \cdot K(\lambda) \cdot G(r) \cdot \Delta R \cdot \beta(\lambda, r) \cdot T_{atm}^2(\lambda, r) \cdot T_{surf}^2(\lambda, r) \cdot T_{ocean}^2(\lambda, r) + P_{bg}(\lambda)$$



Quasi-single-scattering approximation: light propagates through the water with a series of scattering events at small angles, undergoes a backscattering event, and then propagates back to the surface with only small-angle scattering events.

# Lidar Basics – Optical Interactions of Relevance

## Elastic interactions: Rayleigh scattering



Rayleigh Scattering

$$VSF = \sigma_{Ray} \cdot PSF$$

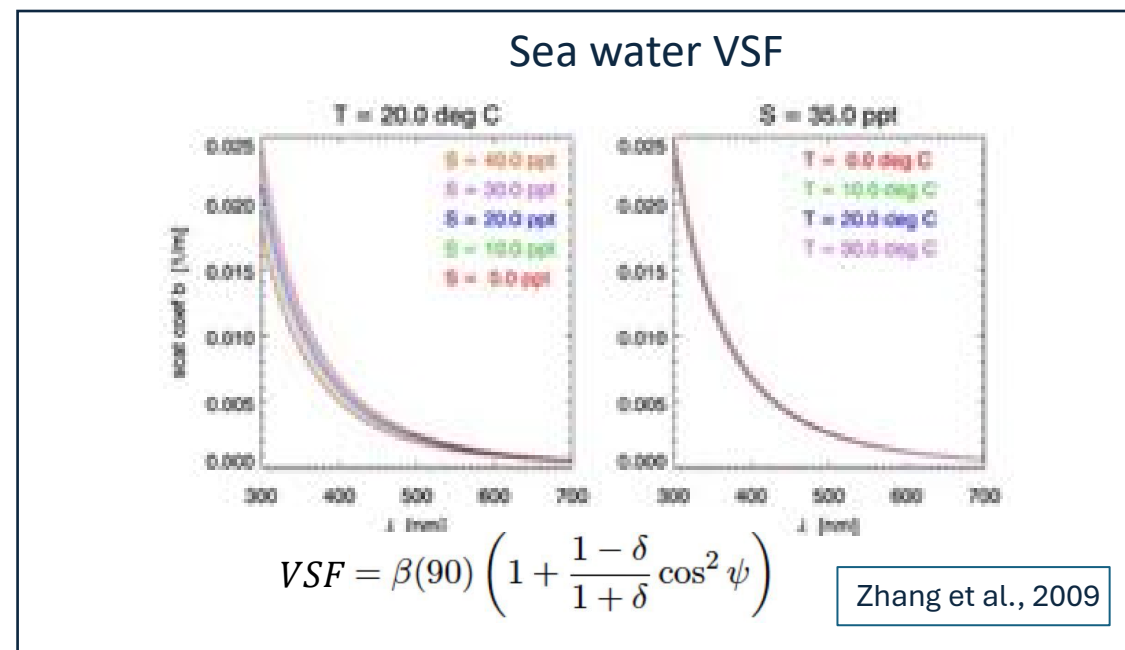
$$\sigma_{Ray} = \frac{\pi^5 \rho^6}{96 \lambda^4} \left( \frac{m^2 - 1}{m^2 + 2} \right)^2$$

$$PSF = \frac{3}{16\pi} (1 + \cos^2 \psi)$$

$$\text{size parameter} = \frac{2\pi\rho}{\lambda}$$

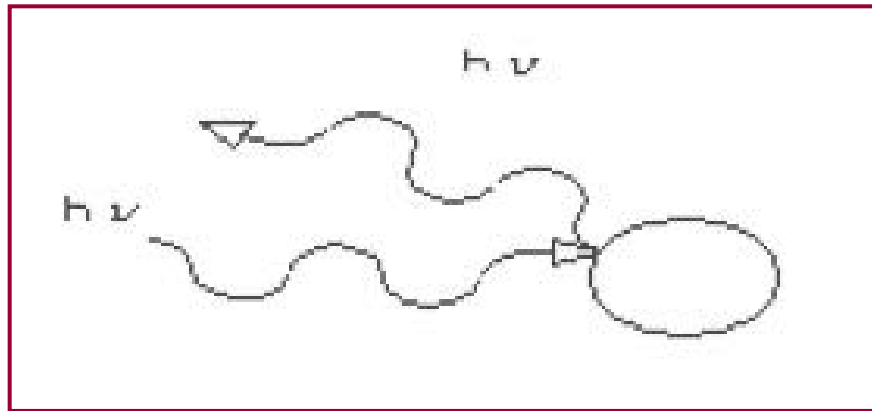
$$\bullet \lambda \gg \rho \rightarrow \sigma_{Ray} = C/\lambda^4$$

Rayleigh for size parameters up to 0.5.,  $x=2\pi\rho/\lambda=0.5$  for  $\lambda=500\text{nm} \rightarrow \rho=0.04\mu\text{m}$ .  
Rayleigh scattering not valid for phytoplankton or other oceanographic particles  
(size  $\rho \geq 0.5\mu\text{m}$ )

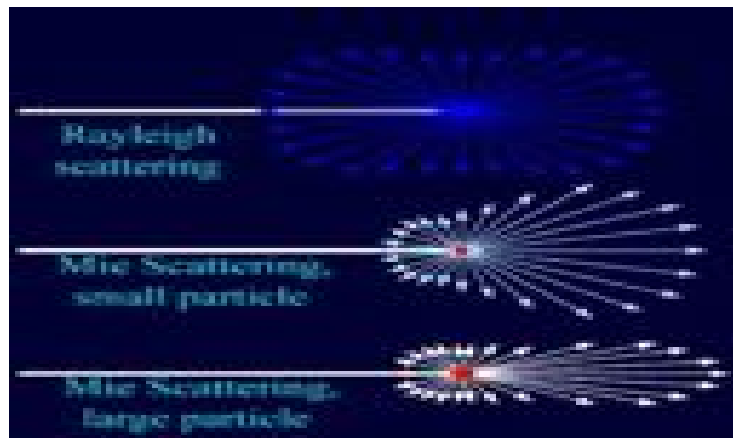


# Lidar Basics – Optical Interactions of Relevance

## Elastic interactions: Mie scattering

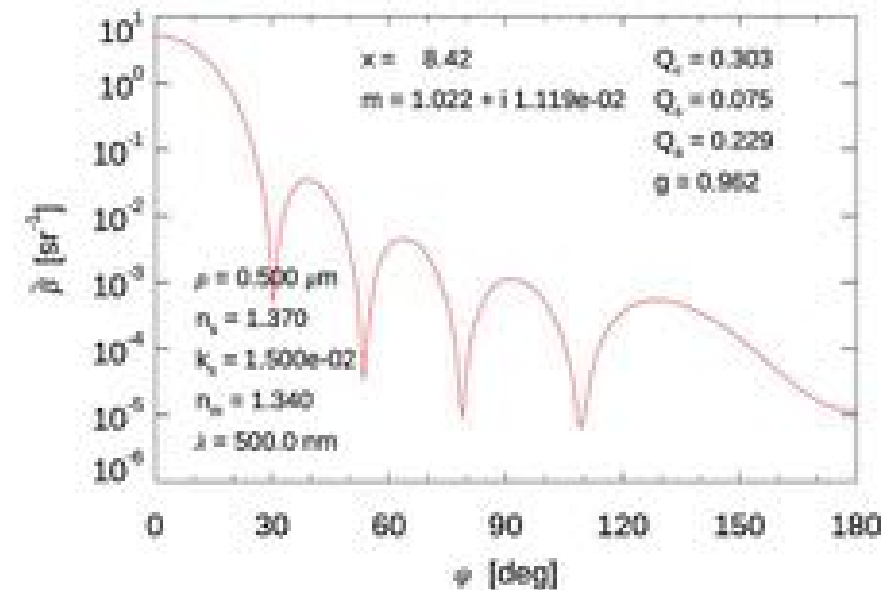


Mie Scattering



Mie theory is valid only for homogeneous spherical particles

$$\bullet \lambda \sim \rho \rightarrow \sigma_{\text{Mie}} = C/\lambda^a$$



PSF for unpolarized light for phytoplankton with  $\rho=0.5\mu\text{m}$ .

# Lidar Basics – Lidar equation

## Elastic lidar

Emitted wavelength = 355 nm  
Detection channels = 355 nm

$$S(z, \lambda) = C_L \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] \cdot (T_A^2(\lambda)) \cdot (T_S^2) \cdot [\beta_m(\pi, \lambda, z) + \beta_p(\pi, \lambda, z)] \cdot \exp\left[-2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz'\right] + S_B$$

$C_L$  = lidar instrument constant  
 $A$  = telescope area  
 $H$  = height of the lidar above the ocean  
 $v$  = speed of light in vacuum  
 $n$  = index of refraction of water  
 $K_L$  = lidar attenuation coefficient  
 $T_A$  = transmission of the atmosphere  
 $T_S$  = transmission of the water surface  
 $\beta_m$  = backscatter from water molecules  
 $\beta_p$  = backscatter from suspended particles  
 $S_B$  = background signal

- valid for quasi-single scattering approximation
- two unknowns:  $K_L$  and  $\beta_p$

Different inversion techniques to solve this equation:

1) Slope method:  $\frac{d(\ln S^{corr})}{dz} = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{d\beta}{dz} - 2K_L$  If  $\frac{d\beta}{dz} = 0 \Rightarrow K_L = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{dS^{corr}}{dz}$

where:  $S^{corr} = \frac{2nS(nH+z)^2}{vAC_L} - S_B$

Bukin et al., 1998  
Collister et al., 2018

2) Klett method: If  $\frac{d\beta}{dz} \neq 0$   $\frac{dS^{corr}}{dz} = \frac{k}{K_L} \frac{dK_L}{dz} - 2K_L \Rightarrow K_L(z) = \frac{\exp\left[\frac{S(z) - S_m}{k}\right]}{\left\{\frac{S(z) - S_m}{k} + \frac{2}{k} \int_z^{z_m} \exp\left[\frac{S(z) - S_m}{k}\right] dz\right\}}$   
 $\beta = \text{const} \cdot (K_L)^k$

Klett 1981  
Chen et al. 2021

## Elastic lidar

3) Perturbation method: 
$$S^{corr}(z, \lambda) = C \cdot (T_A^2) \cdot (T_S^2) [\beta_0 + \beta'(z)] \cdot \exp[-2K_{L0}z - 2 \int_0^z K'_L dz']$$

If the varying part of the attenuation can be neglected

$$\beta(z) = \frac{S^{corr}(z)}{S_0^{corr}(z)} \beta_0$$

where  $S_0^{corr}(z)$ , the homogeneous part of  $S^{corr}(z)$ , can be calculated from the following linear regression:

$$S_0^{corr} = \ln(C_{trans} \beta_0) - 2K_{L0} \quad \text{where } C_{trans} = C \cdot (T_A^2) \cdot (T_S^2)$$

Churnside and Marchbanks, 2017

The combined use of Klett method and perturbation retrieval techniques (i.e. the 'Hybrid technique')

Chen et al. 2022

Appropriate elastic algorithm depends on the measurement conditions

# Lidar Basics – Lidar equation

## Elastic polarization lidar

Emitted wavelength = 355 nm  
Detection channels = 355 nm, 355 nm

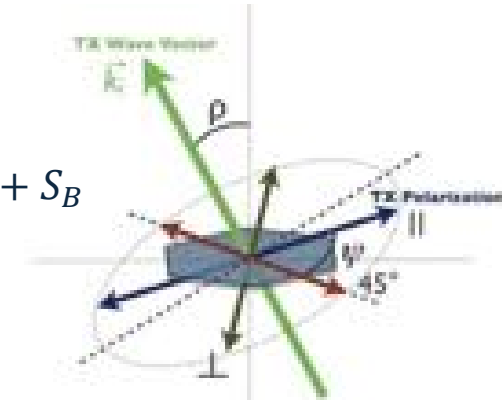
$$S_C(z, \lambda) = C_L \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] T_A^2(\lambda) T_S^2 f_C(\pi, z) \beta(\pi, \lambda, z) \exp \left[ -2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz' \right] + S_B$$

$$S_X(z, \lambda) = C_L \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] T_A^2(\lambda) T_S^2 \left[ f_X(\pi, z) \beta(\pi, \lambda, z) + 2 f_C(\pi, z) \beta(\pi, \lambda, z) \int_0^z \gamma(z') dz' \right] \exp \left[ -2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz' \right] + S_B$$

$\gamma$  = rate of depolarization by multiple forward scattering  
 $f_x$  = fraction of light co or cross polarized after scattering by  $\pi$  radians

Depolarization due to:

- 1) irregular oceanic particles (e.g. fish, zooplankton, and large phytoplankton)
- 2) multiple forward scattering



Neely et al. 2013

Depolarization ratio:  $\delta(\pi, z, \lambda) = \frac{S_X(z, \lambda)}{S_C(z, \lambda)} = \frac{f_X(\pi, z)}{f_C(\pi, z)} + 2 \int_0^z \gamma(z') dz' \rightarrow$  If the scattering properties of the water do not change with depth  $\frac{d\delta(\pi, z, \lambda_0)}{dz} = 2\gamma(z)$  Churnside, 2013



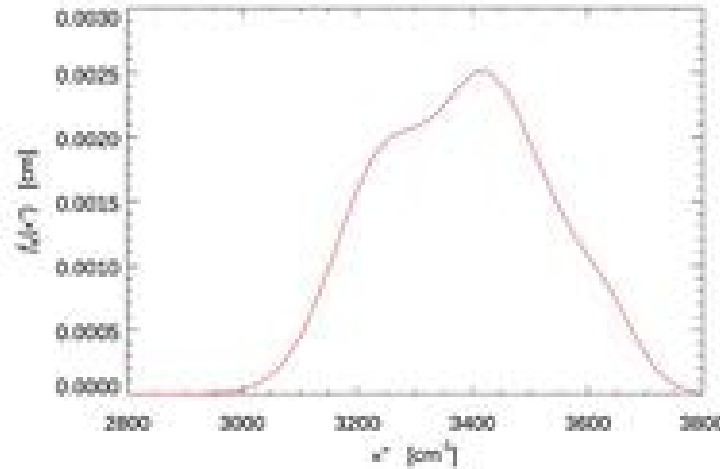
$$K_L = K_d \exp(f(\delta(\pi, z, \lambda)))$$

Hu, 2016

# Lidar Basics – Optical Interactions of Relevance

## Inelastic interactions: Raman scattering

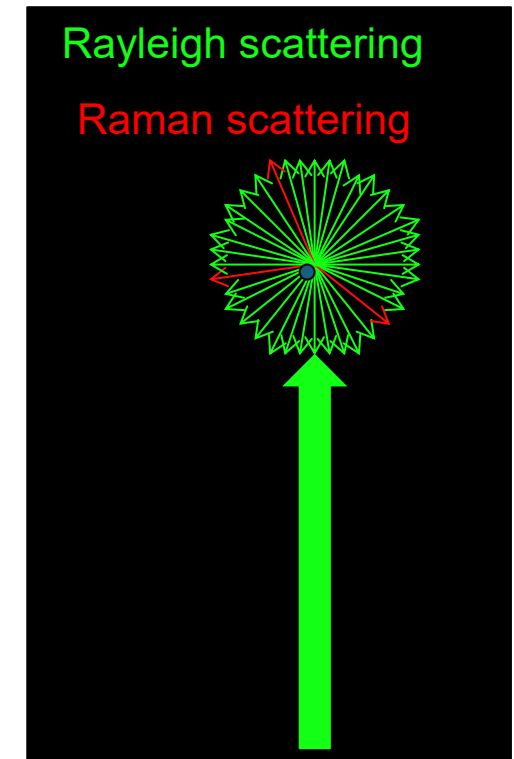
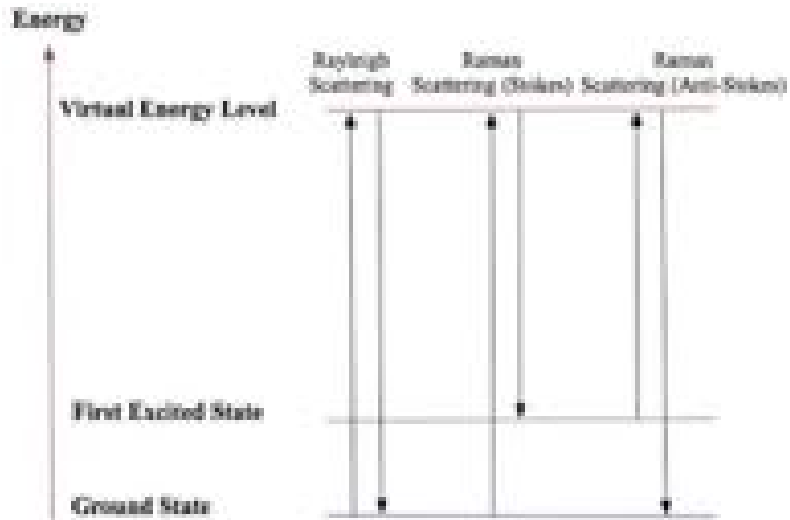
- Raman consists in a spectral shift of the returned wavelength characteristics of the considered molecule
- Raman signals that can be used to identify substances



Raman wavelength distribution function for pure water at 25 C.

- Interaction with the quantized vibrational & rotational energy levels of the molecule

$$\Delta\tilde{\nu} = \tilde{\nu}_1 - \tilde{\nu}_s = \frac{\Delta E}{hc_0}$$



## Elastic – Raman lidar

Emitted wavelength= 355 nm  
Detection channels= 355 nm,  
405 nm

$$S_{rmn}(z, \lambda, \lambda_{rmn}) = C_L \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] \cdot T_A(\lambda) \cdot T_A(\lambda_{rmn}) \cdot (T_s^2) \cdot \beta_{rmn}(\pi, z, \lambda) \cdot \exp \left[ - \left( \int_0^z [K_L(z', \lambda) + K_L(z', \lambda_{rmn})] dz' \right) \right] + S_B$$

$$S(z, \lambda) = C_L \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] \cdot (T_A^2(\lambda)) \cdot (T_s^2) \cdot [\beta_m(\pi, \lambda, z) + \beta_p(\pi, \lambda, z)] \cdot \exp \left[ -2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz' \right] + S_B$$

$$K_L(z, \lambda) + K_L(z, \lambda_{rmn}) = \frac{d}{dz} \ln \frac{\beta_{rmn}(z)}{S_{rmn}^{corr}(z)} \rightarrow K_L(z, \lambda) = \frac{\frac{d}{dz} \ln \frac{\beta_{rmn}(z)}{S_{rmn}^{corr}(z)}}{1 + \left( \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{rmn}} \right)^{k(z)}} \rightarrow \text{If density of seawater molecules is relatively constant (e.g. near-surface ocean):} \rightarrow K_L(z, \lambda) = \frac{-\frac{d}{dz} \ln S_{rmn}^{corr}(z)}{1 + \left( \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{rmn}} \right)^{k(z)}}$$

where:  $\frac{K_L(z, \lambda)}{K_L(z, \lambda_{rmn})} = \left( \frac{\lambda_{rmn}}{\lambda} \right)^{k(z)}$   $k(z)$  is the wavelength dependence of  $K_L$

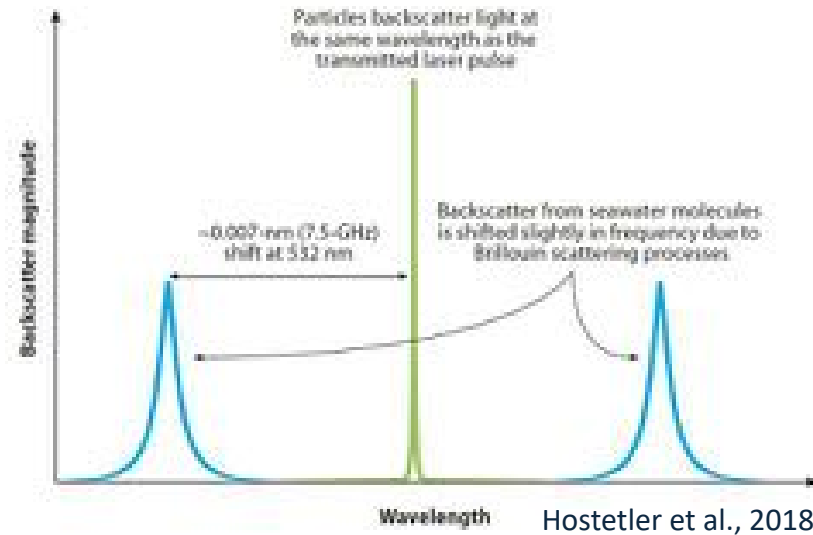
Coupling Elastic and Raman channel:

$$\frac{S^{corr}(z)}{S_{rmn}^{corr}(z)} = \frac{(\beta_m(\pi, z, \lambda) + \beta_p(\pi, z, \lambda))}{\beta_{rmn}(\pi, z, \lambda)} \cdot \frac{T_A(\lambda)}{T_A(\lambda_{rmn})} \cdot \Delta K_L(\lambda, \lambda_{rmn}, z') \rightarrow \beta_p(\pi, z, \lambda) = \beta_{rmn}(\pi, z, \lambda) \cdot \left[ \frac{S^{corr}(z)}{S_{rmn}^{corr}(z)} \cdot \Delta T_{atm}(\lambda_w, \lambda) \cdot \Delta K_L(\lambda_{rmn}, \lambda, z') - 1 \right]$$

where:  $\Delta K_L(\lambda, \lambda_{rmn}, z') = \exp \left( - \int_0^z [K_L(z', \lambda) + K_L(z', \lambda_{rmn})] dz' \right)$   
 $\frac{T_{atm\_ \lambda_w}}{T_{atm\_ \lambda_0}} = \Delta T_{atm}(\lambda_w, \lambda_0)$

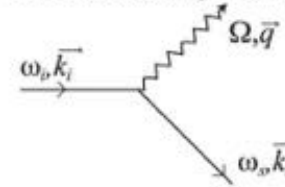
# Lidar Basics – Optical Interactions of Relevance

## Inelastic interactions: Brillouin scattering

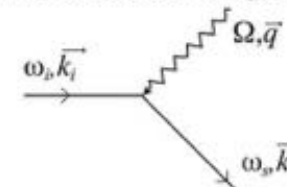


Brillouin light scattering is the result of the interaction between a photon of light and the acoustic phonons of a material.

Stokes scattering event:



Anti-Stokes scattering event:



Spontaneous Brillouin scattering occurs as a consequence of density or refractive index fluctuations in the optical properties of the medium.

- ❖ Raman scattering: photons scattered by the effect of vibrational and rotational transitions in the bonds between first-order neighboring atoms
- ❖ Brillouin scattering: the scattering of photons caused by large scale, low-frequency phonons.

Frequency shift 
$$\Delta\nu_L = \pm \frac{nV_L}{\lambda} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

# Lidar Basics – Lidar equation

## High Spectral Resolution Lidar

$$\left. \begin{aligned} S_m(z, \lambda) &= C_m \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] \cdot (T_A^2(\lambda)) \cdot (T_S^2) \cdot [\beta_m(\pi, \lambda, z)] \cdot \exp\left[-2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz'\right] + S_B \\ S_p(z, \lambda) &= C_p \frac{v}{2n} \left[ \frac{A}{(nH+z)^2} \right] \cdot (T_A^2(\lambda)) \cdot (T_S^2) \cdot [\beta_p(\pi, \lambda, z)] \cdot \exp\left[-2 \int_0^z K_L(z', \lambda) dz'\right] + S_B \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\beta_P = \beta_m \frac{(C_m S_p(z))}{(C_p S_m(z))} \quad K_L(z) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dz} \ln[(nH + z)^2 S_m(z)]$$

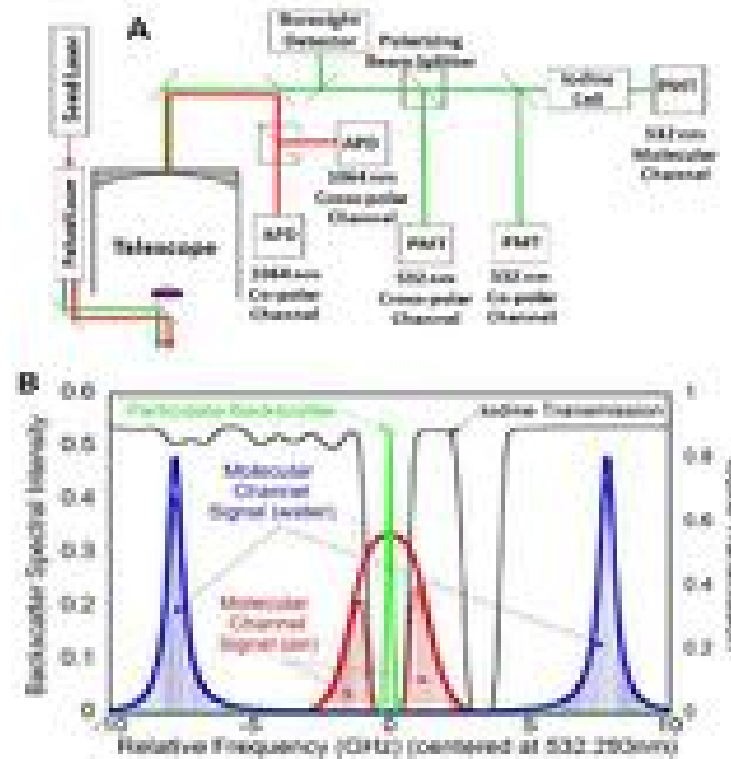
Depending of the instrument design, cross-talk can affect the molecular and particulate channels:

$$S_m^{corr}(z, \lambda) = C_m (C_1 \beta_m(\pi, \lambda, z) + C_2 \beta_P(\pi, \lambda, z)) \cdot (T_A^2) \cdot (T_S^2) \left[ \exp\left(-\int_0^z K_L(z') dz'\right) \right]^2$$

$$S_p^{corr}(z, \lambda) = C_P (C_4 \beta_m(\pi, \lambda, z) + C_3 \beta_P(\pi, \lambda, z)) \cdot (T_A^2) \cdot (T_S^2) \left[ \exp\left(-\int_0^z K_L(z') dz'\right) \right]^2$$

$$\beta_P = \beta_m \frac{(C_m \cdot C_1 - S_R C_P C_4)}{(S_R C_P C_3 - C_m C_2)} \quad \text{where:} \quad S_R = \frac{S_p^{corr}}{S_m^{corr}}$$

Emitted wavelength= 355 nm  
Detection channels= 355mol nm  
355par nm

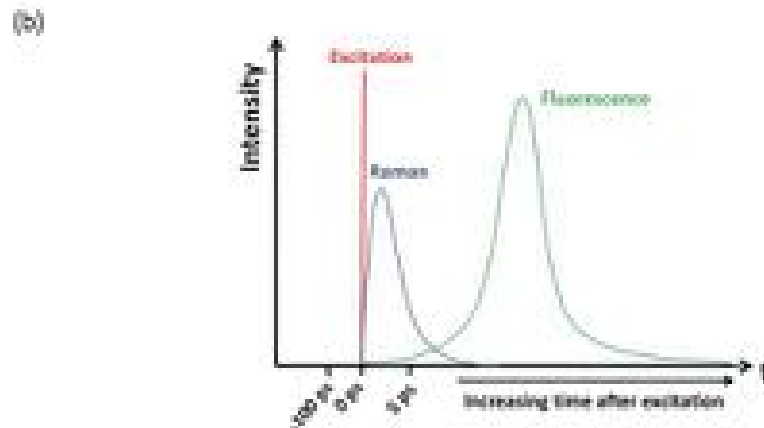
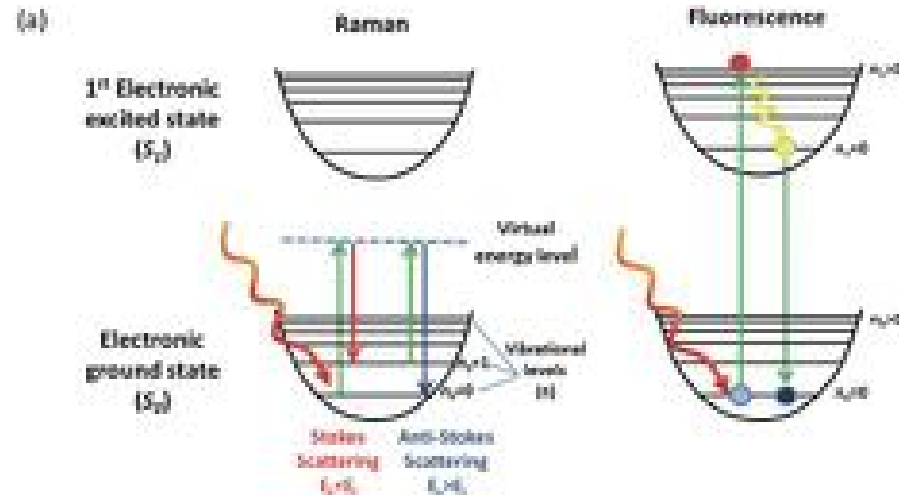


**Figure 1.** (A) Block diagram of the HSRL-1 instrument and (B) the spectra of backscatter signals at 532 nm relative to the iodine vapor filter absorption features.

Hair et al., 2016

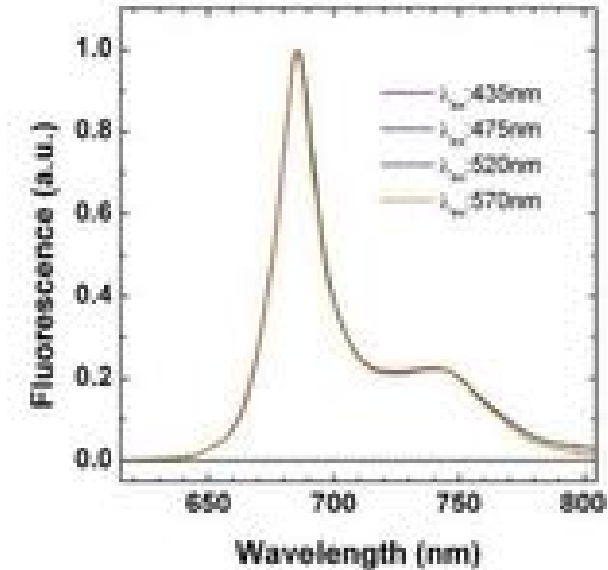
# Lidar Basics – Optical Interactions of Relevance

## Laser induced Fluorescence



Cabo-Fernandez et al., 2019

Typical chlorophyll fluorescence emission spectrum



Santabarbara et al., 2020

Fluorescence lifetime in the order of hundreds of ps to ns  
Raman scattering is instantaneous (within ps or fs)

## Fluorescence lidar

Emitted wavelength= 532 nm  
Detection channels = 650 nm  
685 nm

$$S_{FL}^{corr}(\lambda_{FL}, z) = T_S^2 T_A(\lambda) T_A(\lambda_{FL}) \beta_{FL}(\pi, z, \lambda) \left[ \exp \left( - \int_0^z [K_L(z', \lambda) + K_L(z', \lambda_{FL})] dz' \right) \right]$$

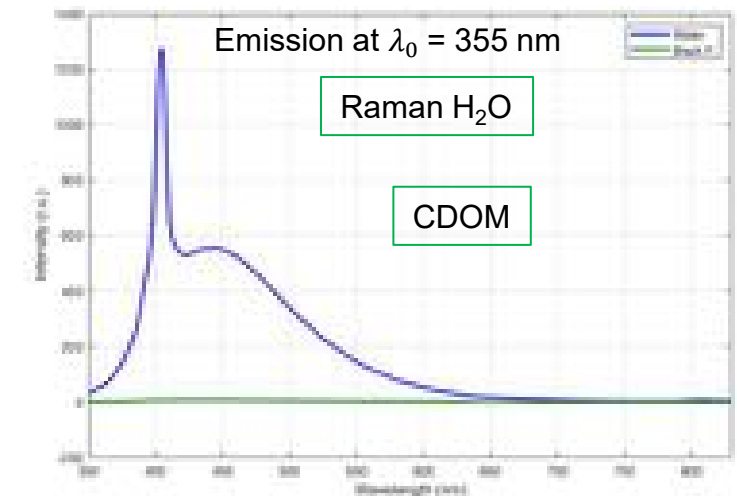
$$S_{rmn}^{corr}(z, \lambda, \lambda_{rmn}) = T_S^2 T_A(\lambda) T_A(\lambda_{rmn}) \beta_{rmn}(\pi, z, \lambda) \left[ \exp \left( - \int_0^z [K_L(z', \lambda) + K_L(z', \lambda_{rmn})] dz' \right) \right]$$

where:  $\beta_{FL}(\pi, z, \lambda) = \int_{rmin}^{rmax} \frac{dN(r)}{dr} \sigma_F(r) dr$   $\sigma_F(r) = \int_{\lambda min}^{\lambda max} \frac{d\sigma_F(\lambda, r)}{d\lambda} d\lambda$

Chlorophyll fluorescence-to-water Raman ratio  $\propto$  phytoplankton absorption coefficient

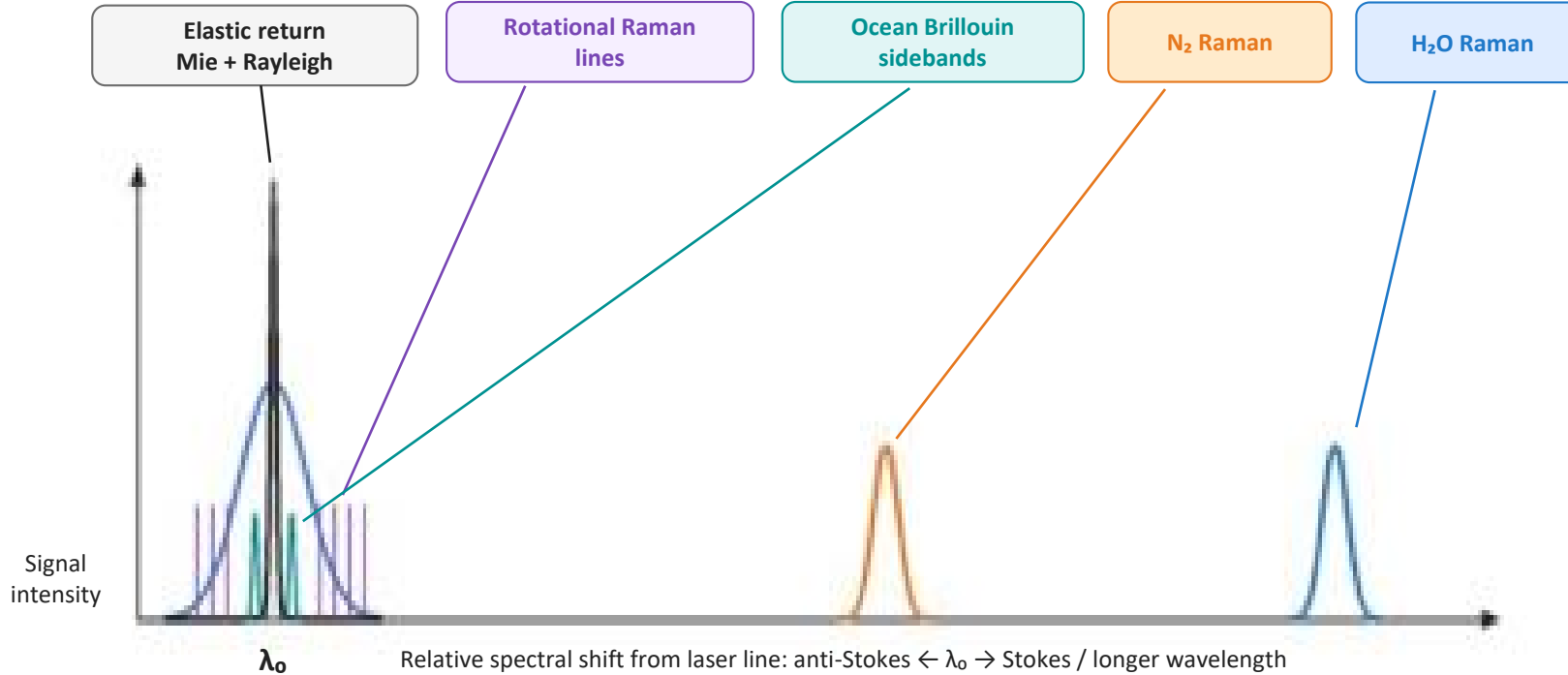
Hoge et al., 1995

Applications: CDOM, Chlorophyll, Oil spills



# Lidar Basics – Optical selection

## Wavelength selection



### Indicative spectral width

Approx.  $\Delta\lambda$  at  $\lambda_0 = 532$  nm

Mie / elastic particle  
 $\approx$  laser-limited  
 $< 10^{-3}$ – $10^{-2}$  nm

Rayleigh molecular  
Doppler broadened  
 $\approx 0.002$ – $0.005$  nm

Rotational Raman  
comb envelope  $\approx 1$ – $5$  nm  
individual lines  $\ll 0.01$  nm

Ocean Brillouin  
shift  $\pm 0.005$ – $0.010$  nm  
linewidth  $\approx 0.001$ – $0.003$  nm

Vibrational Raman  
 $N_2/H_2O$  channel IF  
 $\approx 0.3$ – $2$  nm FWHM

Order-of-magnitude values; instrument  
and T/P dependent.

### Typical spectral selectors

Elastic / Mie / Rayleigh  
Narrow IF; optional PBS

HSRL  
 $I_2$  cell or FPI

Rotational Raman  
FPI comb / IF pair

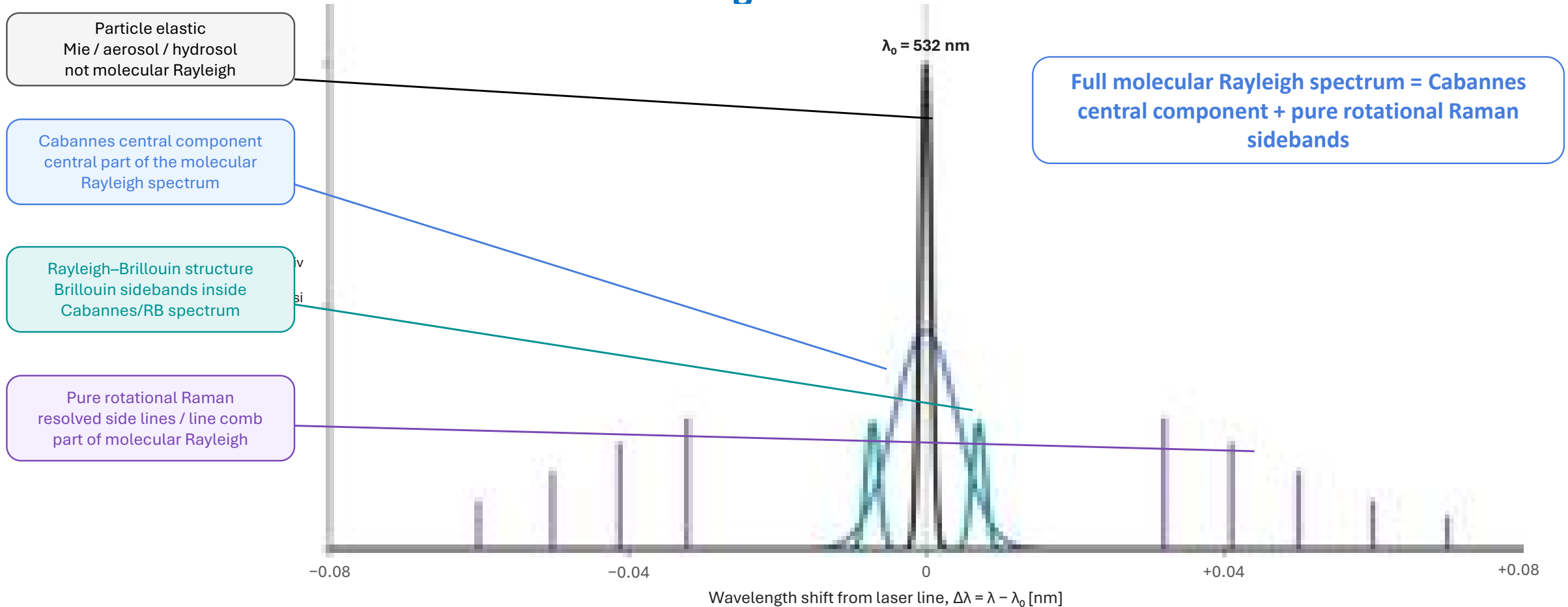
Brillouin ocean  
Fizeau / FPI / ASH

Vibrational Raman  
Dichroics + narrow-band IF

Far-shifted Raman bands can be isolated with dichroics and interference filters; near- $\lambda_0$  signals require high-resolution spectral discrimination.

# Lidar Basics – Optical selection

## Wavelength selection



Indicative scales at 532 nm: Cabannes/Rayleigh Doppler width  $\sim 10^{-3}$  nm scale; ocean Brillouin shift  $\pm \sim 0.007$  nm; rotational Raman extends over nm scale; Mie elastic is laser-line limited.

# Lidar Basics – Optical selection

## Wavelength selection

| Interaction              | Spectral feature                          | Typical selector                              | Selected signal                                             |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Rayleigh</b>          | Elastic $\lambda_0$ ; molecular broadened | Narrow IF; optional etalon                    | Molecular backscatter                                       |
| <b>Mie</b>               | Elastic $\lambda_0$ ; particle return     | Narrow IF + PBS for depol.                    | Aerosol / particles                                         |
| <b>Vibrational Raman</b> | Large Stokes shift                        | Dichroics + narrow IF                         | N <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O channels |
| <b>Rotational Raman</b>  | Small line comb near $\lambda_0$          | IF pair or Fabry–Perot                        | Temperature-sensitive RR                                    |
| <b>Brillouin ocean</b>   | GHz-shifted sidebands                     | Fizeau / Fabry–Perot / ASH                    | Temperature, salinity, sound speed, liquid water            |
| <b>HSRL</b>              | Molecular vs aerosol line shape           | I <sub>2</sub> absorption cell or Fabry–Perot | Extinction and backscatter                                  |

Examples: 532 nm elastic; N<sub>2</sub> Raman  $\approx$ 607 nm; H<sub>2</sub>O Raman  $\approx$ 660 nm.  
For 355 nm systems: N<sub>2</sub>  $\approx$ 387 nm and H<sub>2</sub>O  $\approx$ 407 nm.

## Relationship between lidar products and ocean color products

Lidar products



OC products



$$K_d = -\frac{d \ln E_d}{dz}$$

$$b_{bp} = 2\pi \int_{\pi/2}^{\pi} \beta_{wat}^{par}(\theta) \sin(\theta) d\theta$$

The described retrieval techniques assume quasi-single scattering approximation (i.e. most scattering in the ocean is at very small scattering angles) and are valid as long as the appropriate relationships between lidar and ocean products are used:

- $K_L \rightarrow K_d$  or  $c$  ?
- $\beta_p \rightarrow b_{bp}$

## Relationship between lidar products and ocean color products

What values should be used for  $K_L$ ?

$K_L$  varies as a function of both the lidar viewing geometry and the optical properties of the sensed water.

- Gordon (1983) proposed:  $K_L = K_d + (c - K_d)\exp(-0.85cD)$  for  $\lambda_0 = 532 \text{ nm}$

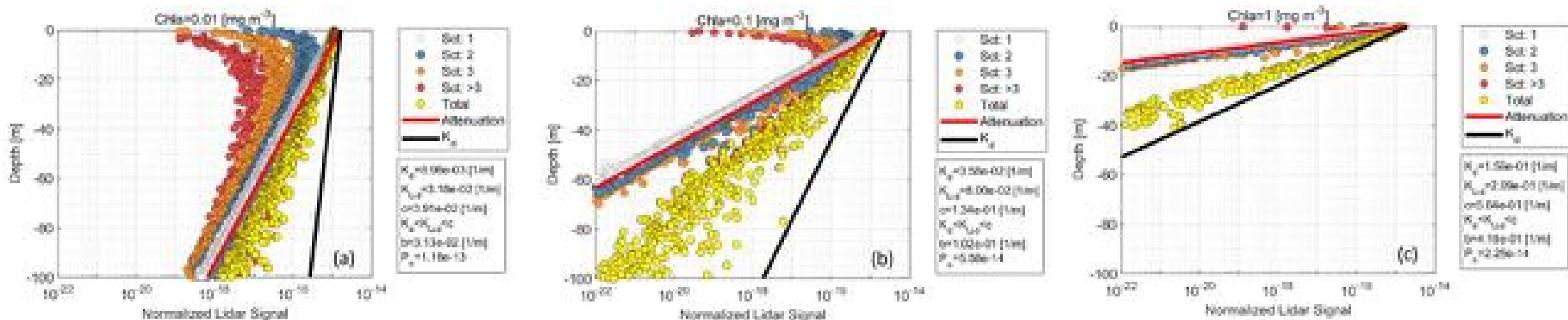
The ratio of the radius of the spot on the sea surface viewed by the lidar receiver optics to the mean free path of photons in water is a significant parameter related to  $K_L$ . When this ratio is near zero,  $K_L$  is given by  $c$ . If the ratio is greater than 5,  $K_L$  is given by  $K_d$ .

- Phillips and Koerber (1984) proposed that the upper and lower limits of  $K_L$  are given by  $c$  and the water absorption coefficient  $a$ , respectively, depending on the receiver FOV

# Lidar Basics – Lidar and OC

## Relationship between lidar products and ocean color products

AEOLUS case (D'Alimonte et al., 2024)

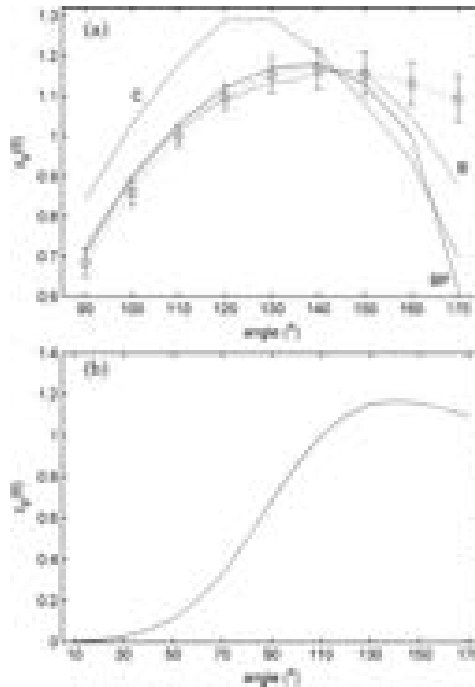


$K_L$  varies close to  $c$  and  $K_d$  at low and high Chl-a values, respectively with different single and multiple scattering contributions.

## Relationship between lidar products and ocean color products

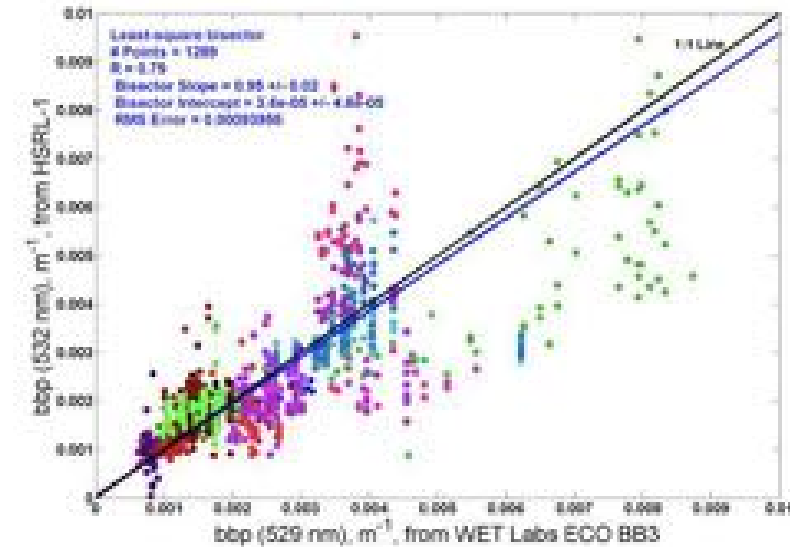
What values should be used for  $\chi_p$ ?

$$b_{bp}(z, \lambda_0) = 2\pi\chi_p\beta_p(\pi, z, \lambda_0)$$



$\chi_p = 1.06$  (Sullivan and Twardoski, 2009) - in-situ VSF measurements

The conversion factor  $\chi_p$  varies depending on size, shapes, and composition of the particle assemblage.

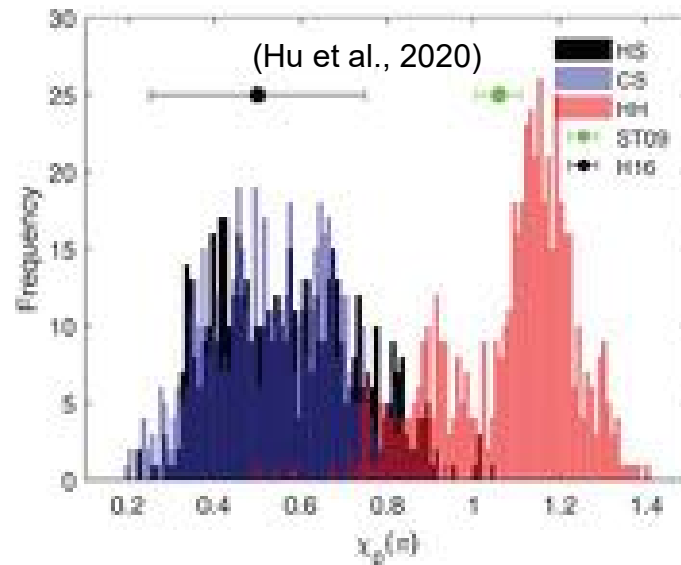


$\chi_p = 0.5$  (Hair et al., 2016), for  $\lambda_0 = 532$  nm - HSRL and in-situ measurements

# Lidar Basics – Lidar and OC

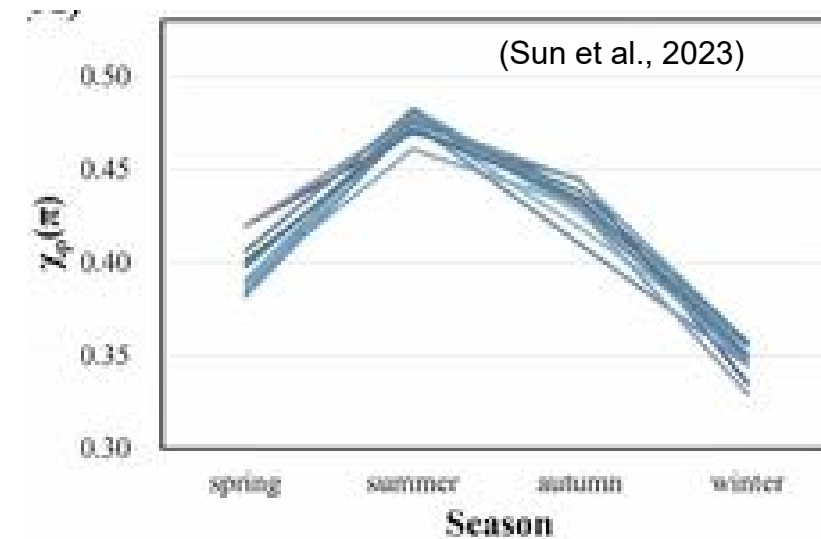
## Relationship between lidar products and ocean color products

-  $\chi_p$  VSF-inversion and forward modeling approach to the VSFs measured in a wide range of waters (Hu et al., 2020)



Depending on the particle model used,  $\chi_p$  varies from 0.22 to 1.45  
No spectral dependence

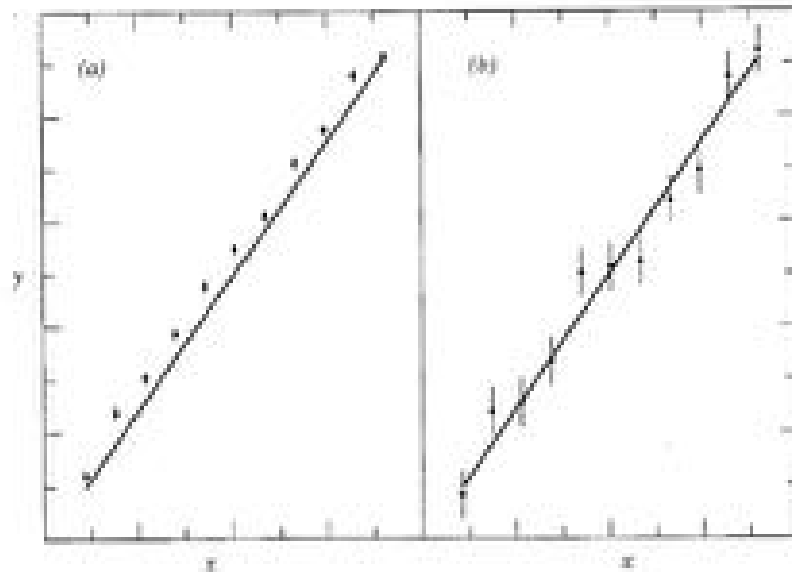
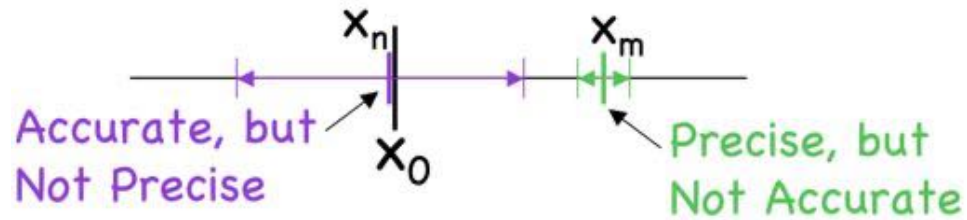
-  $\chi_p$  comparison between the CALIPSO-retrieved  $b_{bp}$  products and the BGC-Argo floats (Sun et al., 2023)



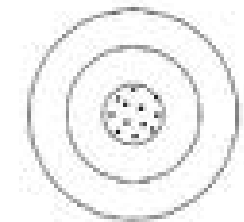
# Lidar Basics – Uncertainties

## Random errors and bias (systematic) errors

Two major types of uncertainty in lidar observations

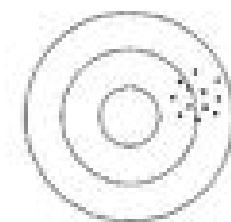


Data Reduction and Error Analysis, Bevington and Robinson (2003)



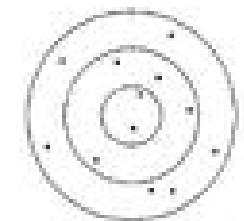
Random: small  
Systematic: small

(a)



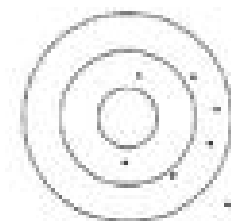
Random: small  
Systematic: large

(b)



Random: large  
Systematic: small

(c)



Random: large  
Systematic: large

(d)

## Random errors

Random errors determine the measurement precision.

**Random errors:** caused by random fluctuations (or noise) inherent in the measurement from:

- (a) **shot noise**
- (b) thermal noise
- (c) excess noise introduced in the multiplication process

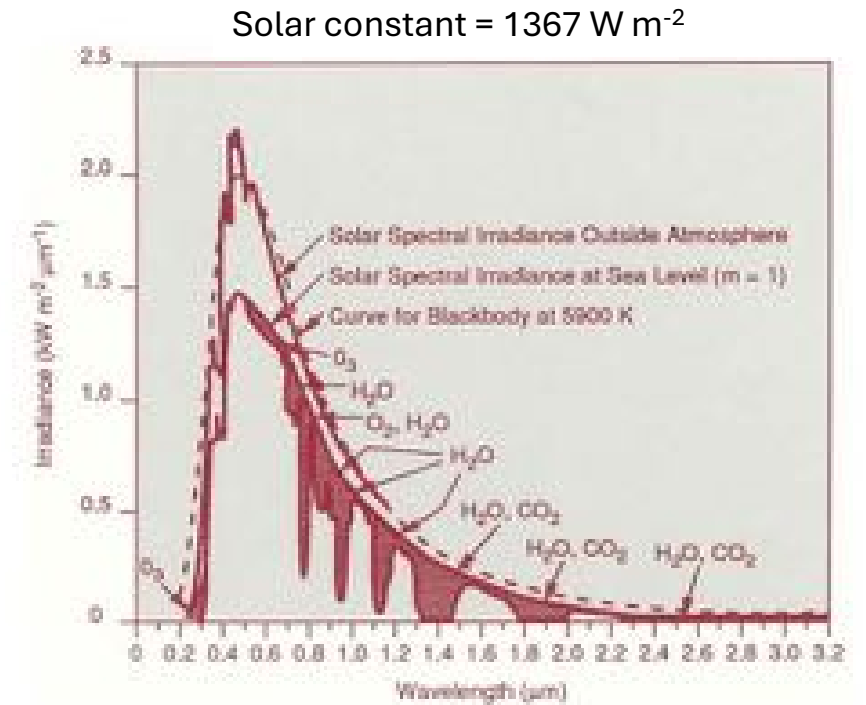
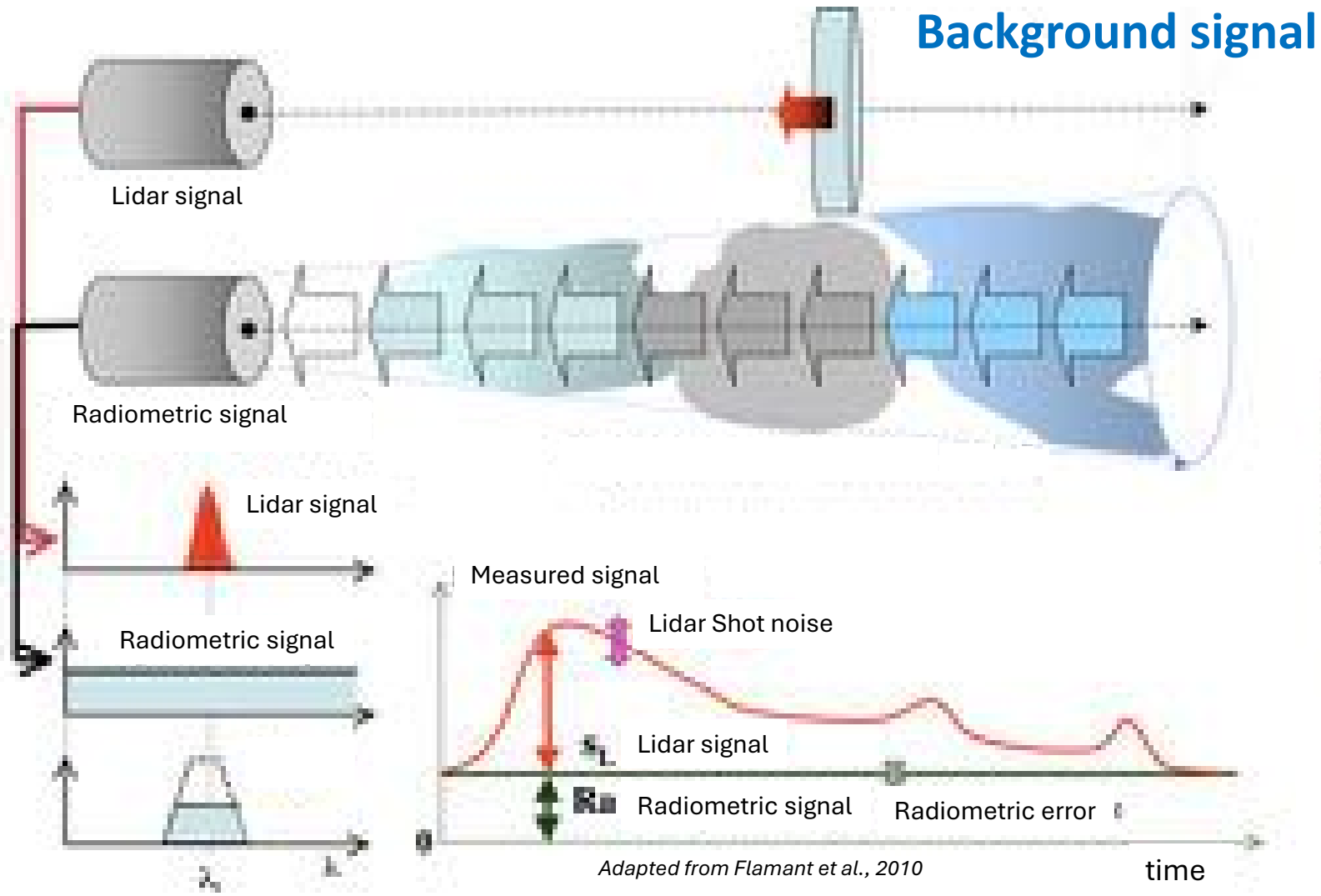
Photon counts obey Poisson distribution → for a given photon count  $N$ , the corresponding uncertainty is  $\Delta N = \sqrt{N}$

When many ( $m$ ) shots are integrated together:

$$\frac{\Delta(mN)}{mN} = \frac{\sqrt{mN}}{mN} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \frac{\sqrt{N}}{N} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \frac{\Delta N}{N}$$

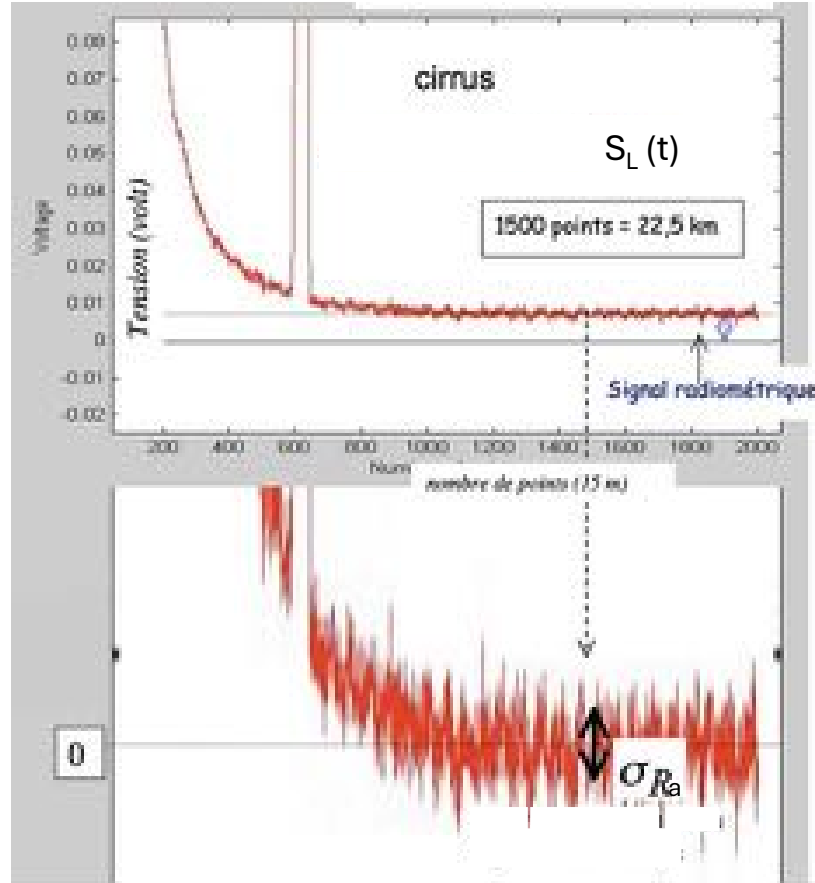
Random errors can be reduced by averaging or by repeating the measurement sacrificing temporal or spatial resolutions.

# Lidar Basics – Uncertainties



# Lidar Basics – Uncertainties

## Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)



### SIGNAL

Laser energy  
Telescope area  
Optical efficiency  
Backscatter coefficient  
Averaging / repetition rate

### NOISE

Solar background  
Detector dark counts  
Shot noise  
Electronic noise  
Surface reflection / stray light

$$\text{SNR}(z) = \text{Signal} / \text{Noise}$$

$$\text{SNR} = \sqrt{\frac{(S_L - R_a)^2}{\sigma_L^2 + \sigma_{Ra}^2}}$$

## Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)

### Improving SNR: Design Choices and Trade-off

| Strategy                    | Effect                 | Trade-off                              |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| Increase laser pulse energy | Higher signal          | Eye safety, power, thermal load        |
| Increase repetition rate    | More averaging         | Data volume, system complexity         |
| Larger telescope            | More collected photons | Size, weight, cost                     |
| Narrower field of view      | Less background        | More demanding alignment/overlap       |
| Narrower spectral filter    | Less background        | Lower throughput; wavelength stability |
| Longer averaging            | Lower random noise     | Lower temporal/spatial resolution      |
| Night operation             | Lower solar background | Limited operational flexibility        |

## Bias (systematic) errors

Systematic errors determine the measurement accuracy.

Accuracy is mainly determined by:

- (1) How much we understand the physical interactions and processes involved in the measurements or observations: e.g., scattering and absorption cross-section, transmission/extinction, interference absorption, etc.
- (2) How well we know the lidar system parameters: e.g., laser central frequency, laser linewidth and lineshape, photo detector/discriminator calibration, receiver filter function, overlapping function, inaccurate calibration, nonlinearities in the photodetector response, defects in optical components, and/or a systematic electronic noise

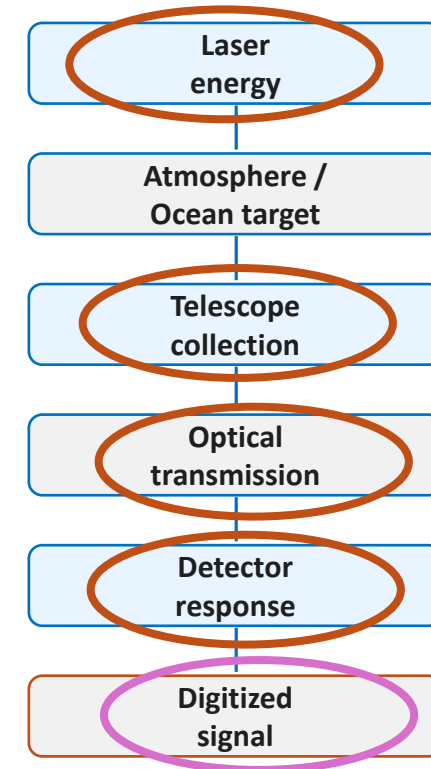
→ Inter-instrument comparison to assess the lidar measurement accuracy

# Lidar Basics – Uncertainties

## Lidar calibration

$$P(\lambda, r) = P_0(\lambda) \cdot K(\lambda) \cdot G(r) \cdot \Delta R \cdot \beta(\lambda, r) \cdot T^2(\lambda, r) + P_{bg}(\lambda)$$

- Lidar signal contains both geophysical information and instrumental response.
- $G(r) = 1$  at high range
- $K(\lambda)$  converts relative signals into quantitative products.
- $K(\lambda)$  describes **laser energy, optical alignment, optics transmission and detector gain** (may vary with time).
- $K(\lambda)$  uncertainty propagates into geophysical products.



From Signal to Quantitative Products: without calibration, lidar is mostly relative; with calibration, it becomes quantitative.

## Lidar calibration

| Element             | Calibration target                                   | Why it matters                                         |
|---------------------|------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| Laser               | Pulse energy; wavelength; repetition rate            | Controls emitted power and spectral channel definition |
| Receiver optics     | Transmission; alignment; field stop                  | Affects signal amplitude, FOV and background rejection |
| Telescope geometry  | Overlap function $O(z)$ ; FOV                        | Critical at short ranges and for near-surface ocean    |
| Detector            | Gain; linearity; dead time; dark counts              | Affects photon-counting and analog accuracy            |
| Polarization optics | Relative gain; cross-talk; extinction ratio          | Needed for depolarization ratio $\delta$               |
| Spectral selector   | Central wavelength; bandwidth; out-of-band rejection | Needed for Raman, HSRL, Brillouin channels             |

# Lidar Basics – Photons to Geophysical Products



$$P(\lambda, r) = P_0(\lambda) \cdot K(\lambda) \cdot G(r) \cdot \Delta R \cdot \beta(\lambda, r) \cdot T^2(\lambda, r) + P_{bg}(\lambda)$$

