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Laboratory evaluation of the (VIS, IR) scattering matrix of complex-shaped ragweed pollen particles

Danaël Cholleton^{1,2}, Emilie Bialic², Antoine Dumas², Pascal Kaluzny², Patrick Rairoux¹ and Alain Miffre¹ ¹University of Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, Institut Lumière Matière, F-69622, Villeurbanne, France ²TERA Sensor, ZI Rousset, 296 Avenue Georges Vacher, 13790, Rousset, France

Corresponding author: A. Miffre (alain.miffre@univ-lyon1.fr)

10 11 **Abstract**

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12 Ragweed or Ambrosia artemisiifolia pollen is an important atmospheric constituent affecting the Earth's 13 climate and public health. The literature on light scattering by pollens embedded in ambient air is however rather sparse; polarization measurements are limited to the sole depolarization ratio and pollens are 14 beyond the reach of numerically exact light scattering models mainly due to their tens of micrometre size. 15 16 Also, ragweed pollen presents a very complex shape, with a small-scale external structure exhibiting spikes 17 that bears some resemblance with coronavirus, but also apertures and micrometre holes. In this paper, to face such a complexity, a controlled-laboratory experiment is proposed to evaluate the scattering matrix of 18 19 raqueed pollen embedded in ambient air. It is based on a newly-built polarimeter, operating in the infra-red spectral range, to account for the large size of ragweed pollen. Moreover, the ragweed scattering matrix is 20 also evaluated in the visible spectral range to reveal the spectral dependence of the ragweed scattering 21 22 matrix within experimental error bars. As an output, precise spectral and polarimetric fingerprints for large 23 size and complex-shaped ragweed pollen particles are then provided. We believe our laboratory experiment may interest the light scattering community by complementing other light scattering 24 experiments and proposing outlooks for numerical work on large and complex-shaped particles. 25

26 Keywords

27 Scattering, ragweed pollen, scattering matrix, polarimetry, spectroscopy.

28 1. Introduction

29 Pollens are important atmospheric constituents with multitude of impacts. Through allergenic diseases, pollen exposure leads to pollinosis [1], clinically characterized by bronchial asthma or rhinoconjunctivis with 30 31 annual periodicity. Ragweed pollen or Ambrosia artemisiifolia represents one of the major seasonal allergens in Europe and Northern America [2–4] and induces asthma about twice as often as other pollens 32 [5]. To figure out, 15.8 million persons in Europe are clinically ragweed sensitised, for an economic cost in 33 34 Europe of about 7 billion euros [6]. This pollen allergenicity is further enhanced by atmospheric pollution by 35 particulate matter [7], which modifies the pollen morphological structure [8]. Pollens also contribute to the 36 Earth's climate through light scattering and extinction and by acting as cloud condensation and ice nuclei 37 [9], hence influencing regional precipitations [10,11]. At a local scale, the infra-red downwelling flux can be increased by up to eight times the monthly mean at high pollen concentrations [12]. Hence, climate 38 39 warming promotes the spread of ragweed in central Europe [13] and ragweed production and growth is directly impacted by rising atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations [14]. Due to climate change, the 40 ragweed pollen season starts earlier and has an increased duration [15]. Moreover, each ragweed plant 41 42 produces millions of pollen grains that can be transported over large distances and be observed far from source regions [5], up to a continental scale [16]. Hence, atmospheric transport models have been 43 44 developed to forecast pollen concentrations [17] by considering meteorological data, emission maps and 45 pollen counts [18].

46 With about twenty micrometres volume equivalent diameter, ragweed pollen grains are rather large 47 particles [19]. The ragweed shape is overall spherical but exhibits a smaller scale complex external structure with spikes, apertures and sub-micrometer holes, as well as an heterogeneous cell content [20]. 48 49 As recently underscored by Liu et al. [21], accounting for this complex geometry is key for radiative transfer applications involving pollens. To study the size and the morphology of ragweed, the most widely-used 50 methodology is the historical approach, based on optical and scanning electron microscopy after 51 gravitational deposition on a substrate [22]. Deep learning recently considerably improved this methodology 52 [23]. In the last two decades, complementary optical methodologies have been developed, based on laser-53 induced fluorescence, interferometry, or / and light scattering. In laser-induced fluorescence, the pollens 54 lifetime and emission spectra are recorded from the UV to the NIR spectral range to allow identifying 55

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56 fingerprints [24–26]. Pollens holography allows image-based recognition [27,28]. Moreover, as published by M. Berg and G. Videen [29], a cluster of ragweed pollen particles can be imaged in-situ using digital in-line 57 58 holography to discern the ragweed single-particle size and shape. The sensitivity of light scattering to the 59 pollens size and shape has been studied for several decades when pollen grains are embedded in 60 aqueous solutions [30-32]. More recently, light scattering by pollens has been studied when pollens are in a fixed orientation as deposited on a holder in [33-35] or more recently in [36]. Concerning airborne 61 62 pollens, forward and side scattering have been compared in [37] and the spectral dependence of forward light scattering patterns has been studied in [38], without however considering the light polarization 63 64 property, which may be vary during the scattering process for non-spherical particles [39], as for ragweed 65 pollen particles. The light depolarization ratio of several pollens has been evaluated in the atmosphere in [40-43]. However, such polarization measurements remain sparse and the measured atmospheric 66 depolarization ratio may differ [44,45] from that specific to raqweed since pollens are usually present in the 67 atmosphere in the form of particle mixtures. Furthermore, these polarization measurements are limited to 68 69 the sole particles depolarization ratio, while the ragweed ability to scatter light should be specified for each 70 polarization state by providing its scattering matrix. Likewise, due to their large size, and the small-scale 71 morphological structures of ragweed pollen grains are beyond the reach of numerically exact light-72 scattering models [46,47]. Historically, the Lorenz-Mie theory has been applied to study the influence of the 73 membrane thickness and the pollen refractive index on the scattered light intensity using a core/shell model [48]. However, as well-known [49], the spherical model cannot reproduce the polarization properties of 74 75 ragweed complex-shaped grains. Interestingly, the ragweed overall spherical shape with regular spikes 76 bears some resemblance with that of coronavirus, which has been recently studied using T-Matrix 77 numerical code by D. Petrov [50]. However, applying this numerical code to ragweed pollen particles a 78 priori remains challenging due to their larger size. Also, surface roughness should be considered for such 79 large particles. In this context, controlled laboratory measurements of the ragweed pollen scattering matrix 80 may help to discuss the underlying assumptions inherent to such light scattering numerical models for 81 pollens.

82 On account of the above literature, the scattering matrix of ragweed pollen particles should be evaluated by taking into account their large size and their complex shape, which is key for radiative transfer 83 applications [21]. The novelty of our contribution is then twofold. Firstly, a controlled-laboratory experiment 84 85 has been developed to precisely evaluate the scattering matrix of ragweed pollen particles embedded in 86 ambient air. It is based on a newly-built laboratory polarimeter, operating in the infra-red spectral range to account for the large size of ragweed pollen particles. As a second novelty, this ragweed scattering matrix 87 is evaluated also in the visible spectral range at 532 nm wavelength, to reveal precise spectral and 88 polarimetric fingerprints for ragweed. The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 details our laboratory 89 90 methodology to precisely evaluate the ragweed scattering matrix at two wavelengths with corresponding 91 sources of uncertainties. Section 3 is dedicated to the characterization of the size and the shape of our ragweed samples, based on scanning electron microscopy images and evaluation of their size distribution. 92 93 The evaluation of the ragweed scattering matrix at two wavelengths is presented in Section 4. The paper 94 ends with a conclusion and proposes outlooks.

95 2. Light scattering by ragweed pollen

96 **2.1.Scattering matrix formalism**

97 We here consider elastic scattering of an electromagnetic radiation (wavelength λ , polarization state π) by an ensemble of ragweed pollen particles embedded in ambient air. While the wavelength is preserved 98 during the elastic scattering process, the polarization states of the incident and scattered radiations 99 (respective wave-vectors $\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{0}}(\lambda)$ and $\mathbf{k}(\lambda)$) may differ and be analysed in the framework of the scattering 100 matrix formalism [39]. In this formalism, the polarization states of the incident and scattered radiations are 101 102 described by the incident and scattered Stokes vectors $(\mathbf{S}_0) = [I_0, Q_0, U_0, V_0]^t$ and $(\mathbf{S}) = [I, Q, U, V]^t$, where I corresponds to the light intensity, Q and U are parameters describing the linear polarization state, while V 103 refers to circular polarization. The wave-vectors $(\mathbf{k}_0, \mathbf{k})$ define the scattering angle, used as a reference 104 105 plane for the Stokes vectors. By assuming ragweed pollen particles to be randomly oriented and to have 106 their mirror particles in equal number in the particles ensemble, the incident and scattered Stokes vectors 107 relate as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I \\ Q \\ U \\ V \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi^2 d^2} \begin{bmatrix} F_{11}(\lambda) & F_{12}(\lambda) & 0 & 0 \\ F_{12}(\lambda) & F_{22}(\lambda) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & F_{33}(\lambda) & F_{34}(\lambda) \\ 0 & 0 & -F_{34}(\lambda) & F_{44}(\lambda) \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_0 \\ Q_0 \\ U_0 \\ V_0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(1)

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116

where *d* is the distance from the ragweed pollen particles to the light detector. In Eq. (1), the dimensionless scattering matrix elements $F_{ij}(\lambda)$ (*i*, *j* from 1 to 4) depend on the wavelength of the radiation, the scattering angle, the size, the shape and the refractive index of the ragweed pollen particles. If ragweed pollen particles were spherical, the scattering matrix elements would simplify [51] since for homogeneous spherical particles, $F_{11}(\lambda) = F_{22}(\lambda)$ and $F_{33}(\lambda) = F_{44}(\lambda)$. The scattering matrix elements can be normalized with respect to the scattering phase function $F_{11}(\lambda)$:

$$f_{ij}(\lambda) = F_{ij}(\lambda) / F_{11}(\lambda)$$

(2)

117 which at most equal unity, as detailed in light scattering textbooks [52].

2.2.Laboratory (VIS, IR) light scattering experimental setup for ragweed

119 Fig. 1 schemes our laboratory light scattering experimental set-up, based on two laboratory polarimeters operating at wavelength $\lambda_{VIS} = 532$ nm and $\lambda_{IR} = 1064$ nm respectively, to account for the spectral dependence of the ragweed pollen scattering matrix. Ragweed pollen particles are embedded in laboratory 120 121 ambient air as described in Section 3.1. While the λ_{VIS} -polarimeter is similar to our previous work [53], the 122 λ_{IR} -polarimeter is new and has been specifically designed to evaluate light scattering by ragweed pollen 123 124 grains, which exhibit a size in the tens of micrometres range. Special care has been taken to precisely 125 define the Stokes vector of the incident radiation at each wavelength. The polarization state of the scattered 126 radiation is analysed with a quarter-wave plate (QWP) and a retro-reflecting polarizing beam-splitter cube (PBC). At wavelength λ_{IR} , the intensity of the s-polarization component of the scattered radiation is 127 128 measured with an Si avalanche photodiode cooled at 0°C. To minimize wavelength cross-talks, a selective 129 interference filter is inserted before the photodiode. After minimizing the polarization and wavelength cross-130 talks (see Section 2.4), to add precision in the evaluation of the scattering matrix elements, the scattered light intensity is measured for a complete rotation of the QWP. The radiation scattered by ragweed pollens 131 132 grains is discriminated from light scattering by laboratory ambient air by achieving time-resolved measurements synchronized with the laser pulse, hence addressing the time-of-flight 2d/c taken by a laser 133 pulse to reach the detector after light scattering. The scattered intensity by ragweed pollens grains is then 134 135 evaluated by subtracting the intensity scattered by laboratory ambient air from the total intensity scattered by ragweed and ambient air. As underscored in Fig. 1, both polarimeters evaluate the scattering matrix 136 elements of the same ragweed sample and operate at a scattering angle of 178°, close to 180°, which can 137 be interesting for remote sensing applications. The scattering angle slightly differs from strict backscattering 138 139 to allow the Eq. (1) scattering matrix elements to be a priori independent from $F_{22}(\lambda)$. Indeed, at strict backscattering, only $F_{11}(\lambda)$ and $F_{22}(\lambda)$ would appear in Eq. (1) since $F_{33}(\lambda) = -F_{22}(\lambda)$, $F_{44}(\lambda) = F_{11}(\lambda) - F_{12}(\lambda)$ 140 141 $2F_{22}(\lambda)$, while $F_{12}(\lambda) = F_{34}(\lambda) = 0$.



143Fig. 1. Scheme of our laboratory experimental set-up for ragweed scattering matrix evaluation at two144wavelengths ($\lambda_{VIS} = 532$ nm and $\lambda_{IR} = 1064$ nm). The 178° scattering angle has been exaggerated to145ease the reading. Ragweed pollens grains are embedded in laboratory ambient air as described in146Section 3.1.

2.3. Methodology for evaluating the ragweed scattering matrix elements 147

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The light intensity scattered by ragweed pollen grains is evaluated by accounting for the successive 149 Mueller matrices encountered in Fig. 1 by the $(\lambda_{VIS}, \lambda_{IR})$ laser pulses. If $P_0(\lambda)$ is the incident laser power at 150 wavelength λ and the polarization state of the incident radiation is defined with a polarizer [P], the detected 151 scattered intensity at wavelength λ is given by: 152

$$I_{\pi}(\lambda) = \frac{\eta(\lambda)P_{0}(\lambda)}{d^{2}} (\mathbf{P}_{j})[\mathbf{PBC}][\mathbf{QWP}][\mathbf{F}(\lambda)][\mathbf{P}](\mathbf{S}_{0})$$
(3)

Where $\eta(\lambda)$ is the electro-optics efficiency of the light detector and $(\mathbf{P}_i) = [1, 0, 0, 0]$ is a unitary projector as 153 154 the light detector is solely sensitive to the first component of the scattered Stokes vector, i.e. the light intensity. [QWP] and [PBC] are the Mueller matrices of the guarter-wave plate and the reflecting PBC 155 respectively. The π -subscript is used in Eq. (3) to refer to the polarization state of the incident radiation 156 157 defined by the Stokes vector [P](S₀). To evaluate the five normalized ragweed scattering matrix elements $f_{ij}(\lambda) = F_{ij}(\lambda)/F_{11}(\lambda)$, three successive incident polarization states are required, for example $\pi =$ 158 (p, 45+, RC), corresponding to the following Stokes vectors $[\mathbf{P}](\mathbf{S}_0) = [1,1,0,0], [1,0,1,0]$ and [1,0,0,1]159 respectively. If ψ represents the angle between the QWP-fast axis and the scattering plane, using [54] for 160 **[QWP]** and **[PBC]**, the detected scattered intensity $I_{\pi}(\lambda, \psi)$ for incident polarization state π is given by: 161

$$I_{\pi}(\lambda,\psi) = I_{11}(\lambda) \times [a_{\pi}(\lambda) - b_{\pi}(\lambda)\sin(2\psi) - c_{\pi}(\lambda)\cos(4\psi) - d_{\pi}(\lambda)\sin(4\psi)]$$
(4)
163

Where $I_{11}(\lambda) = \eta(\lambda)P_0(\lambda)F_{11}(\lambda)/4d^2$ and ψ is counted counter-clockwise for an observer looking from the 164 PBC to the ragweed pollen particles. Interestingly, the $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $b_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $c_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ coefficients are combinations 165 of the normalized scattering matrix elements $f_{ii}(\lambda)$ and depend on the polarization state of the incident 166 167 radiation, as referred to by the π -subscript. After a few calculations detailed in Miffre et al. [53], the 168 normalized scattering matrix elements then express as:

$$f_{12}(\lambda) = 2c_{RC}/(a_{RC} + c_{RC})$$
(5a)
$$f_{12}(\lambda) = 2d - ((a_{RC} + c_{RC}))$$
(5b)

$$f_{34}(\lambda) = 2d_{RC}/(a_{RC} + c_{RC})$$
(5b)

$$f_{44}(\lambda) = -b_{RC}/(a_{RC} + c_{RC})$$
(5c)

$$f_{33}(\lambda) = 2d_{45+}/(a_{45+} + c_{45+})$$
(5d)

$$f_{22}(\lambda) = [f_{12}(\lambda) \times (c_p - a_p) + 2c_p]/(a_p + c_p)$$
(5e)

Where, to ease the reading, the dependence of $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $b_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $c_{\pi}(\lambda)$, $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ with wavelength λ has been 170 omitted. Hence, the normalized scattering elements $f_{33}(\lambda)$ and $f_{44}(\lambda)$ can be retrieved using incident 171 172 polarization states (45+) and (RC) respectively, while the normalized scattering matrix elements $f_{12}(\lambda)$ and $f_{34}(\lambda)$ can be retrieved either from (45+) or (*RC*) incident polarization state. From the evaluation of $f_{12}(\lambda)$, 173 incident polarization state (*p*) allows retrieving $f_{22}(\lambda)$. By adjusting the detected scattered intensity with Eq. 174 (4) over a complete rotation of the QWP, the coefficients $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$ to $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ can be precisely determined, 175 176 allowing precise evaluations of the normalized scattering matrix elements by applying Eqs. (5). Fig. 2 177 shows the variations of $I_{\pi}(\lambda, \psi)/I_{11}(\lambda)$ for given scattering matrix elements at incident polarization states $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$ when varying the modulation angle ψ . Following Eqs. (4, 5), the minima in Fig. 2(a), which 178 are equal to $2(1 - f_{22})$, are null for spherical particles and the (p)- polarization curve is $\pi/2$ -periodic as 179 coefficients $b_p(\lambda)$ and $d_p(\lambda)$ are zero. In Fig. 2(b) corresponding to 45 +-incident polarization state, the 180 detected scattered intensity $I_{45+}(\lambda)/I_{11}(\lambda)$ is π -periodic as $b_{45+}(\lambda)$ is not null. The difference between two successive maxima or minima in Fig. 2(b) is proportional to $f_{34}(\lambda)$. In Fig. 2(c) corresponding to *RC*-incident 181 182 polarization state, the detected scattered intensity $I_{RC}(\lambda, \psi)/I_{11}(\lambda)$ is also π -periodic, with minima equal to 183 184 $2(1 - f_{44}(\lambda)).$



Fig. 2. Numerical simulation of the detected scattered light intensity $I_{\pi}(\lambda, \psi)/I_{11}(\lambda)$ as a function of the ψ modulation angle of the QWP following Eq. (4), for $f_{22}(\lambda) = 0.6$, $f_{33}(\lambda) = -0.5$, $f_{44}(\lambda) = -0.2$, $f_{12}(\lambda) = -0.05$ and $f_{34}(\lambda) = -0.05$, at incident polarization states $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$ from panels (*a*) to (*c*). As detailed in Section 2.4, dashed curves show the modification induced in $I(\lambda, \psi)/I_{11}(\lambda)$ when considering a 2° deviation in both $\omega(\lambda)$ and $\chi(\lambda)$ for the incident polarization state.

192 **2.4. Accuracy on ragweed scattering matrix elements** $f_{ij}(\lambda)$

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194 Special care has been taken to precisely evaluate the uncertainties on the retrieved scattering matrix 195 elements $f_{ij}(\lambda)$ at wavelength λ .

- Statistical errors on $f_{ij}(\lambda)$ may arise from fluctuations in the probed scattering volume of the ragweed pollen particles number concentration. If the ragweed pollen number concentration is stable over a complete rotation of the QWP (see Section 4.2), fluctuations over a one second timescale may occur and add noise to the detected scattered intensity. As explained in [53], we overcame this difficulty by normalizing the detected scattered light intensity with a polarization insensitive photodetector.
- Systematic errors may occur if the incident polarization states differ from strict (p, 45+, RC)polarization states, or / and, through possible mismatch between the *s*-polarization axis of the emitted and detected scattered radiations, that may lead to undesirable polarization cross-talks. Also, wavelength cross-talks may occur between the VIS and IR-detectors.
- 206 To quantify these systematic errors, we follow the polarization state of the electromagnetic radiation from 207 the laser source to the light detector. The incident Stokes vector can be described by a vector in the Poincare sphere describing all possible polarization states by its longitude 2χ and latitude 2ω [54]. These 208 angles, which quantify the deviation from considered incident polarization states $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$, modify 209 $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$ to $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ coefficients (i.e. Eqs. (5) no longer apply). To minimize this remaining ellipticity, two 210 successive PBC have been used to precisely set the polarization state of the incident radiation at 211 wavelength λ to (p), then (45+, RC) using wave-plates. On the detector side, as the retro-reflecting PBC is 212 imperfect ($R_s > 99.5$ %, $T_p > 90$ %), the fraction $R_s T_p$ of the *s*-polarization component of the light intensity 213 is measured, together with an undesired fraction R_pT_s originating from the p -component of the scattered 214 radiation. To minimize this polarization cross-talk $CT = R_p T_s / R_s T_p$ and allow the s-polarization component 215 216 of the scattered radiation to be detected (with efficiency T_p), a second PBC has been inserted in the detector after the retro-reflecting PBC. Likewise, wavelength cross-talks between the VIS and IR-detectors 217 have been minimized by using narrow interference filters at wavelengths λ_{VIS} and λ_{IR} , presenting an optical 218 density of 5 at the complementary wavelength (i.e. at wavelength λ_{VIS} for the λ_{IR} -polarimeter). To be 219 220 quantitative, we quantified the error in $\Delta f_{ij}(\lambda)$ on $f_{ij}(\lambda)$ at first order in $\chi(\lambda)$, $\omega(\lambda)$ and $CT(\lambda)$:

| $\Delta f_{33}(\lambda) = 2\omega f_{34} + 2\mathrm{CT} f_{33}$ | (6a) |
|---|------|
| $\Delta f_{44}(\lambda) = 2\chi f_{34} + 2\mathrm{CT}f_{44}$ | (6b) |
| $\Delta f_{12}(\lambda) = 2\omega f_{22} + 2\mathrm{CT} f_{12}$ | (6c) |
| $\Delta f_{34}(\lambda) = 2\chi f_{33} - 2CT f_{34}$ | (6d) |

 $\Delta f_{22}(\lambda) = 5 \text{CT} f_{22} / [2(f_{12} + 1) + 3 \text{CT}]$ (6e) Where, to ease the reading, the wavelength dependence of $\chi(\lambda), \omega(\lambda)$ and $CT(\lambda)$ has been omitted. 221 Following Eqs. (6), at negligible polarization cross-talk, the error on $f_{ii}(\lambda)$ is majored by $2\chi(\lambda)$ or $2\omega(\lambda)$ 222 since $f_{ij}(\lambda)$ are below unity. The error on $f_{44}(\lambda)$ is then at most equal to $2\chi(\lambda)$. Fig. 2 displays in dashed 223 lines the variation of the detected scattered intensity when considering a 2° deviation in both $\chi(\lambda)$ and $\omega(\lambda)$ 224 assuming negligible polarization cross-talk. As to be seen in Fig.2(a) minima, the error on $f_{22}(\lambda)$ is 225 independent from $\chi(\lambda)$ and $\omega(\lambda)$. Moreover, when $f_{34}(\lambda) = 0.05$ and $f_{33}(\lambda) = -0.4$, a 1 %-relative 226 accuracy is achieved on $f_{33}(\lambda)$ (resp. $f_{44}(\lambda)$) if $\omega(\lambda)$ (resp. $\chi(\lambda)$) remains below 2.3°. The angles $\chi(\lambda)$ and 227 $\omega(\lambda)$ can be precisely evaluated in our experiment by taking benefit from complementary polarization states 228 (45-) and (LC) since $2\chi(\lambda) = a_{45+}/(a_{45+} + c_{45+}) - a_{45-}/(a_{45-} + c_{45-})$ while $2\omega(\lambda) = a_{RC}/(a_{RC} + c_{RC}) - a_{45-}/(a_{45-} + c_{45-})$ 229 230 $a_{LC}/(a_{LC} + c_{LC}).$

231 3. Ragweed pollen samples

232 3.1. Ambrosia artemisiifolia pollen

Our ragweed (Ambrosia artemisiifolia) samples are from Stallergenes Greer supplier. Dry ragweed powder 233 234 has been embedded in laboratory ambient air using a solid pollen generator supplied with dried 235 compressed air (RH < 10 %), before injecting the ragweed pollens grains in the light scattering volume as schemed in Fig. 1. The size and the shape of our raqweed samples have been characterized as detailed 236 237 below. Less than 5 % fluctuations in the ragweed pollen number concentration were observed in the coarse 238 mode of the size distribution. In complement, to validate the ability of the λ_{IR} -laboratory polarimeter to 239 precisely evaluate scattering matrices, spherical water droplets, which follow Mie theory, have also been embedded in ambient air using a commercial atomizer. 240

241 3.2. Ragweed pollen particles scanning electron microscopic images

242 To characterize the size and the shape of pollens, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used, following the historical methodology [20]. Since pollen are dielectric material, to apply SEM, the ragweed 243 244 pollen particles were deposited on an adhesive SEM tape, metallized with thin copper coating to increase 245 the conductivity of the grains' surface. Fig. 3 presents our scanning electron microscope images, observed with a magnification factor of 3250 (panel (a), then 10 000 (panel b) to highlight the surface roughness of 246 the pollen membrane. In agreement with the literature [19], our ragweed samples exhibit a volume 247 248 equivalent diameter of 21 µm and an overall spherical shape, covered by regular spikes (echinus) of about 1 µm length. One of the three characteristic black apertures of ragweed, which are smaller than 2 µm, is 249 visible at the pollen wall in the lower part of Fig. 3(a). In agreement with the literature, this pollen wall 250 exhibits a perforate structure, i.e. covered with around 100 nm diameter holes to be seen in Fig. 3(b). 251

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3.3. Ragweed pollen particles size distribution

To evaluate the size of our ragweed samples, in complement to the above SEM images, an aerodynamic 259 particle sizer (APS) was used. This commercial instrument evaluates the aerodynamic diameter through a 260 time-of-flight measurement. Fig. 4(a) presents the retrieved ragweed size distribution, which exhibits a 261 coarse mode at seventeen micrometres, but also finer particles attributed to sub-pollen particles [55]. The 262 aerodynamic diameter can be lower than the volume equivalent diameter since ragweed pollen grains are 263 non-spherical and exhibit a dynamic shape factor above unity [56]. Likewise, the size distribution of our 264 spherical water droplets embedded in ambient air was measured with a scanning mobility particle sizer 265 coupled to an optical particle sizer, as displayed in Fig. 4(b). 266

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Fig. 4. (a) Particle size distribution of our generated ragweed pollen particles, as measured with an aerodynamic particle sizer (upper measured size equal to 20 μ m). (b) Particle size distribution of water droplets to be used in Section 4.1 to validate the λ_{IR} -laboratory polarimeter.

273 4. Results and discussion

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Following Sections 2 and 3, the scattering matrix of ragweed pollen is evaluated in laboratory at wavelengths (λ_{VIS} , λ_{IR}) with corresponding error bars. The (λ_{VIS} , λ_{IR})-polarimeters are first validated on spherical water droplets that follow the analytical Lorenz-Mie theory.

4.1. (VIS, IR) experimental set-up validation on spherical water droplets

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280 By applying Fig. 1 experimental set-up on spherical water droplets, we recorded the variations of the detected scattered intensity $I_{\pi}(\lambda, \psi)$ for successive incident polarization states $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$ at 281 282 wavelength λ_{VIS} in Fig. 5(a) and wavelength λ_{IR} in Fig. 5(b). To account for potential particles number fluctuations, the detected scattered intensity has been normalized by that of a polarization insensitive 283 284 photodetector. At both wavelengths, the (p)-polarization curve exhibits null minima, consistent with 285 spherical particles for which $f_{22}(\lambda) = 1$. Similarly, in the (45+)-polarization curve, the difference between two successive minima is not distinguishable, meaning that $f_{34}(\lambda)$ is very close to zero for our spherical 286 particles. For each incident polarization state $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$, coefficients from $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$ to $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ are 287 evaluated by adjusting the experimental data points with Eqs (5) to provide the scattering matrix presented 288 289 in Table 1 at both wavelengths with corresponding error bars. Indeed, use of complementary incident 290 polarization states $\pi = (s, 45-, LC)$ allowed to evaluate $2\omega = 2\chi = 0.01$ at both wavelengths. Within our 291 experimental error bars, the retrieved normalized scattering matrix elements agree with numerically exact 292 solutions the Maxwell's equations, obtained by applying the Lorenz-Mie theory [49], which provides 293 $f_{22}(\lambda) = -f_{33}(\lambda) = -f_{44}(\lambda) = 1$ and $f_{12}(\lambda) = f_{34}(\lambda) = 0$ for the size distribution shown in Fig. 4(b) by taking into account the complex refractive index of water at both wavelengths. Hence, the newly-developed 294 295 $(\lambda_{VIS}, \lambda_{IR})$ -polarimeters precisely reveal the scattering matrix of spherical water droplets embedded in 296 ambient air at two both wavelengths.



Fig. 5. Detected light intensity $I_{\pi}(\lambda, \psi)$ scattered by water droplets as a function of the modulation angle ψ of the QWP at wavelength λ_{VIS} (panel (a), data in green) and wavelength λ_{IR} (panel (b), data in red) for successive incident polarization states $\pi = (p, 45+, RC)$ at 178° scattering angle. The detected scattered intensity, expressed in arbitrary units (a.u.) as $P_0(\lambda)$ is wavelength dependent, is adjusted with Eq. (4) to retrieve the scattering matrix elements $f_{ij}(\lambda) = F_{ij}(\lambda)/F_{11}(\lambda)$ using Eqs. (5).

304 Table 1

305 $(\lambda_{VIS}, \lambda_{IR})$ -evaluation of the scattering matrix elements $f_{ij}(\lambda) = F_{ij}(\lambda)/F_{11}(\lambda)$ for spherical water droplets at 178° scattering angle, retrieved by adjusting the Fig. 5 experimental data points with Eqs. (5).

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| VIS-wavelengt | th ($\lambda_{VIS} = 532$ | nm) | | IR-wavelength (| $\lambda_{IR} = 1064$ nr | n) | | |
|------------------|----------------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|------------------|------------------|--|
| [1 | -0.01 ± 0.02 | 0 | 0] | [1 | 0.01 ± 0.03 | 0 | 0] | |
| -0.01 ± 0.02 | 0.97 ± 0.02 | 0 | 0 | 0.01 ± 0.03 | 0.99 ± 0.04 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | -0.94 ± 0.02 | -0.02 ± 0.02 | 0 | 0 | -0.97 ± 0.04 | 0.02 ± 0.02 | |
| L 0 | 0 | 0.02 ± 0.02 | -0.98 ± 0.02 | LO | 0 | -0.02 ± 0.02 | -0.97 ± 0.02 | |
| | | | | | | | | |

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4.2.Spectral dependence of the scattering matrix elements of ragweed

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311 Fig. 6 is the analogue of Fig. 5 but dedicated to ragweed pollen particles. In contrary to Section 4.1, the 312 minima in the (p)-polarization curve (left panel), which are related to the scattering matrix element 1 - 1313 $f_{22}(\lambda)$, no longer vanish, in agreement with the ragweed overall nonspherical shape. Likewise, the minima in the (RC)-polarization curve (right panel) are constant and related to the scattering matrix element 1 - 1314 $f_{44}(\lambda)$. In the (45+)-polarization curve (middle panel), at wavelength λ_{IR} , a difference exists between two 315 316 successive local minima or maxima, meaning that $f_{34}(\lambda_{IR})$ is non-zero for ragweed pollen particles, as for 317 several biological species [31]. As for water droplets in Fig. 5, the reproducibility of these extrema is clearly 318 observed in Fig. 6, which means that the size and the shape distribution of our ragweed samples did not vary during the experimental acquisition. Coefficients $a_{\pi}(\lambda)$ to $d_{\pi}(\lambda)$ were then retrieved by adjusting our 319 experimental data points at both wavelengths (λ_{VIS} , λ_{IR}) with Eq. (4) to retrieve the normalized scattering 320 321 matrix elements $f_{ij}(\lambda)$ presented in Table 2 by applying Eq. (5). The conditions of applicability of the singlescattering approximation may there be questioned. Mishchenko et al. [57] underscored that for the SSA to 322 be applicable, a large average inter-particle distance $\langle d \rangle$ (i.e. $k_1 \langle d \rangle >> 30$, where k_1 is the wave vector in 323 324 the surrounding medium) and low particle volume concentrations ρ (low packing densities $\rho << 1$ %) should

be considered. In our laboratory light scattering experiment, from the ragweed particles size distribution 325 shown in Fig. 4, we calculate a particle volume concentration of $\rho = 3.9 \times 10^{-8} \ll 1$. Moreover, according 326 to [58], at volume fraction ρ , the mean distance between neighbour particles for monodisperse particles 327 with radius r is $\langle d \rangle = 0.554 \times (4\pi/(3\rho))^{1/3}$ r. Even if one considers $\rho = 3.9 \times 10^{-6}$, monodisperse grains 328 329 with effective radius $r = 10.5 \ \mu m$ correspond to $\langle d \rangle = 0.6 \ mm$, which leads to $k_1 \langle d \rangle \simeq 7000 \gg 30$. As a 330 result, the single-scattering approximation is fairly safe in our laboratory experiment where the particles are moving in a thin (2.5 mm) wide beam, so that the volume element is optically thin. The error bars in Table 2 331 result from the evaluation of $2\omega(\lambda_{VIS}) = 0.03$ and $2\chi(\lambda_{VIS}) = 0.02$, and $2\omega(\lambda_{IR}) = 2\chi(\lambda_{IR}) = 0.01$. 332 Interestingly, our error bars remain lower than the observed spectral variations of the scattering matrix 333 334 elements. Hence, due to negligible wavelength cross-talks, the spectral dependence of the ragweed 335 scattering matrix elements is revealed within our experimental error bars : the diagonal scattering matrix elements $f_{22}(\lambda)$, $f_{33}(\lambda)$ and $f_{44}(\lambda)$ are larger at wavelength λ_{IR} than at wavelength λ_{VIS} . Equally, the off-336 337 diagonal element $f_{34}(\lambda)$ increases from λ_{VIS} to λ_{IR} , except for $f_{12}(\lambda)$, which exhibits no spectral variation between both wavelengths λ_{VIS} and λ_{IR} . As a conclusion, the retrieved scattering matrix elements 338 339 presented in Table 2 provide precise spectral and polarimetric fingerprints of ragweed pollen.







342 343

341

344 Table 2

Same as Table 1 for ragweed pollen particles.

| VIS-wavelen | igth ($\lambda_{VIS} = 5$ | 532 nm) | | IR-waveleng | $\lambda_{IR} = 106$ | 64 nm) | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|--|
| [1 | 0.01 ± 0.04 | 0 | 0] | [1 | 0.02 ± 0.01 | 0 | 0] | |
| 0.01 ± 0.04 | 0.40 ± 0.01 | 0 | 0 | 0.02 ± 0.01 | 0.48 ± 0.01 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | -0.35 ± 0.06 | 0.00 ± 0.04 | 0 | 0 | -0.48 ± 0.02 | 0.05 ± 0.02 | |
| LO | 0 | -0.00 ± 0.04 | -0.18 ± 0.03 | LO | 0 | -0.05 ± 0.02 | -0.29 ± 0.02 | |
| | | | | | | | | |

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To interpret the observed spectral dependence of ragweed scattering matrix elements, two main arguments can be put forward. Firstly, the ragweed complex refractive index is a priori wavelength dependent, though the literature is, to our knowledge, not well documented, especially at wavelength λ_{IR} . At wavelength λ_{VIS} , values of the Pinus refractive index between 1.50 and 1.53 have been reported [59] using optical diffraction tomography and similar values were obtained for the refractive index of the cell of a yew pollen grain [60]. Secondly, ragweed pollen grains are large-sized particles and present periodic 354 structures, the interference of waves scattered by the large particle surface and the spikes may appear,, which may play a role in the observed spectral dependence of the scattering matrix elements. Also, the 355 interference of waves scattered by different spikes may also reveal itself in the phase and spectral 356 dependences of the scattering matrix elements. It is however far beyond the scope of this paper to 357 investigate these possible explanations. Still as is, our retrieved scattering matrix elements may interest the 358 359 light scattering numerical community for ragweed pollen grains exhibit fairly large size parameters (around 120 at wavelength λ_{VIS}) and are beyond the reach of numerically exact light-scattering methods. Light 360 scattering by ragweed is a priori difficult to model numerically as ragweed pollen particles are complex-361 362 shaped particles with regular spikes, apertures, holes and surface roughness. As underscored by M. 363 Kahnert et al. [61] in their review on model particles in atmospheric optics, several numerical approaches 364 have been considered to evaluate light scattering by complex-shaped particles. Very recently, D. Petrov [50] applied the T-matrix numerical code on coronavirus-shaped particles which exhibit characteristic 365 366 spikes, as for ragweed. Applying this new numerical method to ragweed pollen particles is interesting but a 367 priori challenging due to their larger size [62,63]. To account for surface roughness, the size parameter 368 (micrometer range, wavelength λ_{VIS}) is too small for applying geometrical optics, but geometrical optics 369 may eventually be used in conjunction with a random-tilting method (M. Kahnert, private communication), 370 as successfully applied for large ice particles presenting surface roughness [64]. These considerations underscore the complexity of a precise numerical modelling of light scattering by ragweed pollen particles, 371 372 which further reinforce the importance of controlled-laboratory experiments allowing to precisely retrieve the 373 ragweed scattering matrix at wavelengths (λ_{VIS} , λ_{IR}). Hence, to tackle the important issue of light scattering 374 by large and complex-shaped particles, more laboratory work has to be proposed, at other scattering 375 angles and at other laser wavelengths. Still as is, our retrieved scattering matrices may help to constrain 376 such light scattering numerical models.

5. Conclusion and outlooks

378 In this paper, a controlled-laboratory experiment is proposed to precisely evaluate the scattering matrix of 379 ragweed pollen particles embedded in ambient air. Ragweed pollen, or Ambrosia artemisiifolia, is indeed 380 one of the major pollens whose impact on public health and on the Earth's climate is appealed to increase in the forthcoming decades, due to global warming. In this context, the goal of this paper is to improve the 381 382 knowledge on this important pollen, by quantifying its ability to scatter light at two wavelengths. This task is 383 complex as ragweed is beyond the reach of numerically exact light scattering models, due its tens of micrometres size. Moreover, the shape of ragweed pollen particles is also complex, with a small-scale non-384 385 spherical feature exhibiting spikes, apertures and holes, as observed in Section 3 with scanning electron microscopy. To face such a complexity, we took benefit in Section 2 from the scattering matrix formalism to 386 build a controlled-laboratory experiment, based on two polarimeters, allowing precise evaluation of the 387 388 ragweed scattering matrix at two wavelengths, in the visible and infra-red spectral ranges. The infra-red spectral range was chosen to account for the large size of ragweed pollen particles and the newly-built 389 polarimeter at wavelength λ_{IR} has been validated on spherical water droplets following Lorenz-Mie theory. 390 Then, the polarimeters were operated on ragweed pollen particles embedded in ambient air. Special care 391 392 has been taken to evaluate the systematic and statistical uncertainties on the retrieved scattering matrix 393 elements by taking into account potential polarization and wavelength cross-talks. Interestingly, our experimental error bars are sufficiently low to reveal the spectral dependence of the ragweed scattering 394 matrix: all ragweed scattering matrix elements except f_{12} are higher at wavelength λ_{IR} than at wavelength 395 λ_{VIS} . As a result, precise spectral and polarimetric ragweed fingerprints are here provided. 396

397 The outlooks of this work are numerous. First of all, the ragweed scattering matrix elements may also be 398 evaluated in the UV-spectral range to improve our sensitivity to the small-scale irregularities exhibited at the 399 ragweed grains' surface. Moreover, evaluating the ragweed scattering matrix elements at wavelengths 400 larger than 1 µm would ensure the size parameters of the ragweed spikes to be within 1 or 2. As underscored in several papers [65-67], the features of exactly these sizes are responsible for characteristic 401 402 details in the phase and spectral dependences of the intensity and polarization. We may also extend this 403 evaluation to other scattering angles, including exact backscattering for remote sensing observations. Our laboratory experimental set-up allows scattering angles measurements from 176.0° to 180.0° [53] and the 404 dependence of the ragweed scattering matrix elements with the scattering angle will be studied in a 405 406 dedicated contribution, as this question may provide important information on the object under study itself 407 [68]. Addressing the phase function would also be interesting but challenging within our experimental set-408 up [53]. As well, other pollens can be likewise studied by applying the same methodology to investigate 409 how light scattering is modified by different grain morphologies. Finally, our laboratory findings can be

applied by the light scattering numerical community to further improve their numerical models by 410 investigating complex-shaped particles with spikes such as ragweed, or even coronavirus as recently 411 tackled by [50]. Indeed, the near but non-spherical overall ragweed shape, with regular spikes, bears 412 resemblances with that of other biological particles. Hence, our methodology may be potentially applied to 413 study such biological objects. This however represents a laboratory intensive work. Still, precise modelling 414 415 of light scattering by ragweed represents a challenging task due to its large size and complex shape. We 416 hope our experimental contribution at two wavelengths will help to further tackle the important issue of the 417 light scattering by complex-shaped and large particles.

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