



# Recovering Thermodynamics from Spectral Profiles Observed by IRIS. (II). Improved Calculation of the Uncertainties Based on Monte Carlo Experiments

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## Abstract

Observations by the Interface Region Imaging Spectrograph (IRIS) of the Mg II h & k spectral lines have provided a new diagnostic window toward knowledge of the complex physical conditions in the solar chromosphere. Theoretical efforts focused on understanding the behavior of these lines have allowed us to obtain a better and more accurate vision of the chromosphere. These efforts include forward modeling, numerical simulations, and inversions. In this paper, we focus our attention on the uncertainties associated with the thermodynamic model atmosphere obtained after the inversion of the Mg II h & k lines. We have used  $\approx 50,000$  synthetic representative profiles of the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database to characterize the most important sources of uncertainties in the inversion process, *viz.*: the inherent noise of the observations, the random initialization process, and the selection criteria in a high-dimensional space. We have applied a Monte Carlo approach to this problem. Thus, for a given synthetic representative profile, we have created five randomized noise realizations (representative of the most popular exposure times in the IRIS observations), and inverted these profiles five times with different inversion initializations. The resulting 25 inverted profiles, fit to noisy data, and model atmospheres are then used to determine the uncertainty in the model atmosphere, based on the standard deviation and empirical selection criteria for the goodness of fit. With this approach, the new uncertainties of the models available in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database are more reliable at the optical depths where the Mg II h & k lines are sensitive to changes in the thermodynamics.

*Unified Astronomy Thesaurus concepts:* [Solar chromosphere \(1479\)](#); [Radiative transfer \(1335\)](#)

## 1. Introduction

The study of the chromosphere is critical to understand the solar atmosphere (Carlsson et al. 2019). Although this region of the solar atmosphere has been observed for decades, understanding it is still a challenge. This is due to several major issues: (1) the complex coupling between the radiation field and the local magnetic field and the thermodynamic conditions, which means interpretation of the radiation must consider non-local thermodynamic equilibrium; (2) the transitions from fully ionized plasma to partially ionized and back to fully ionized, and from domination by the plasma to domination by the magnetic field; (3) the highly dynamic and highly structured nature of the chromosphere on small spatiotemporal scales, necessitating high-quality subarcsecond observations on time-scales of seconds. During the last few decades, both theoretical and observational improvements have allowed us to gain a better knowledge of the chromosphere and the events that occur in this region (e.g., Scharmer et al. 2008; Leenaarts et al. 2011, 2013a, 2013b; De Pontieu et al. 2014; Vissers et al. 2015; Quintero Noda et al. 2016; Carlsson et al. 2019; de la Cruz Rodríguez et al. 2019; Centeno et al. 2021; De Pontieu et al. 2021; Ishikawa et al. 2021; Trujillo Bueno & del Pino Alemán 2022; Vissers et al. 2022).

The Interface Region Imaging Spectrograph (IRIS; De Pontieu et al. 2014) has been providing high-resolution observations (free from seeing effects introduced by the Earth's

atmosphere) of the chromosphere through the near-UV (NUV) spectral range around the Mg II h & k lines since 2013. The IRIS wavelength range also contains the Mg II UV triplet lines (hereafter denoted as Mg II UV2&3). The Mg II h & k lines are optically thick lines, being sensitive to the conditions at the high- and mid-chromosphere (Leenaarts et al. 2013a, 2013b; Pereira et al. 2013), while the Mg II UV2&3 lines typically form lower in the chromosphere (although under flaring conditions the line formation may be different; Kerr et al. 2016; Rubio da Costa et al. 2016). The most reliable method to derive physical information along the optical depth from these lines is by the “inversion” of these lines. This involves an iterative process in which, at first, an initial atmosphere is assumed and radiative transfer equations are solved considering non-local thermodynamic equilibrium and the partial frequency redistribution of the radiation from scattered photons, leading to a refinement in the underlying atmosphere, followed by further iterations.

The state-of-the-art Stockholm inversion Code (STiC; de la Cruz Rodríguez et al. 2016, 2019) is the only available code capable of inverting these lines under these conditions. However, the inversion of a single Mg II h & k profile is computationally expensive (2.5 CPU hours per observed profile). To minimize this burden, we created the IRIS Inversion based on Representative profiles Inverted by STiC (IRIS<sup>2</sup>; Sainz Dalda et al. 2019). This technique is based on the inversion of the representative profiles (RPs) of a broad selection of observations taken by IRIS of the Mg II h & k lines. An RP is the averaged profile of those profiles belonging to a data set that share the same shape, *i.e.*, a similar distribution of the intensity over a given spectral range. This



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shape—or profile—is the signature of the conditions in the solar atmosphere where the radiation originates. Therefore, the RP is the average of those profiles sharing similar conditions in the Sun. It is natural to define a representative model atmosphere (RMA) for the atmospheric conditions associated with an RP, which is obtained from the inversion of the RP. The core of IRIS<sup>2</sup> is the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database, which has three components: (i) synthetic RPs (RP<sup>syn</sup>), i.e., the best synthetic profile that is the best fit to the observed profile; (ii) their corresponding RMAs obtained from the inversion of the observed RPs; and (iii) the uncertainty of the thermodynamics variable  $p$ ,  $\sigma_p$ , of the RMA associated with the RP<sup>syn</sup>. The IRIS<sup>2</sup> database consists of  $\approx 50,000$  items, obtained from (1) clustering 312 data sets on different targets (observed by IRIS) by using the  $k$ -means technique (Steinhaus 1957; MacQueen 1967); (2) inverting each RP with STiC; and (3) obtaining the RP<sup>syn</sup>, RMA, and  $\sigma_p$ . The physical information relies on the relationship between the RP<sup>syn</sup>, the RMA, and the uncertainties of the latter ( $\sigma_p$ ), while the statistical significance of IRIS<sup>2</sup> is given by the selection of the data sets considered in the database, which takes into account different solar features, exposure times, and locations on the solar disk.

In the first publicly released version of IRIS<sup>2</sup>, the uncertainty of a physical variable  $\sigma_p$  was obtained using the expression<sup>5</sup> (see and del Toro Iniesta & Ruiz Cobo 2016):

$$\sigma_p^2 = \frac{2}{nm + r} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^q [I(\lambda_i)^{\text{obs}} - I(\lambda_i; \mathbf{M})^{\text{syn RP@STiC}}]^2 \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}}{\sum_{i=1}^q R_p^2(\lambda_i) \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}} \quad (1)$$

with  $i = 0, \dots, q$  the sampled positions in the wavelength  $\lambda_i$ ,  $w_i$  their weights,  $\sigma_i$  the uncertainties of the observation (e.g., photon noise),  $m$  the number of physical quantities in model  $\mathbf{M}$  evaluated in  $n$  grid points along the solar atmosphere,  $r$  the number of physical quantities considered constant along that atmosphere, and  $R_p$  the response function (RF) of a Stokes parameter to the physical quantity  $p$  (Mein 1971; Landi Degl'Innocenti 1979; Ruiz Cobo & del Toro Iniesta 1992). The RF provides the sensitivity of a wavelength sample in a Stokes profile to changes of a physical quantity. In this study, we only consider the intensity Stokes parameter,  $I$ .

The expression above is valid to calculate  $\sigma_p$ ; however, practical cases using IRIS<sup>2</sup> show an underestimation in  $\sigma_p$  in those regions where the line is sensitive to changes in the physical variable  $p$ , and an overestimation of  $\sigma_p$  where the line is not so sensitive to those changes. This is due to the fact that  $R_p$  is calculated considering all the optical depths (or nodes) of the model  $\mathbf{M}$ , while for  $I(\lambda_i; \mathbf{M})^{\text{syn RP@STiC}}$  only variations in a selected number of nodes in model  $\mathbf{M}$  are considered. That means,  $R_p$  encodes the information at all optical depths, while the RP<sup>syn</sup> comes from a model evaluated in selected optical depths. Thus, in particular nodes where a line is more sensitive to changes in  $p$ ,  $R_p$  will be larger than in those nodes where it is less sensitive, making  $\sigma_p$  ( $\sim R_p^{-1}$ ) smaller in regions where the line is more sensitive and larger in regions where the line is less sensitive. This is the expected behavior, but in practice, in many cases, the obtained  $\sigma_p$  is unrealistically very low (high) for optical depths where the line is (not) sensitive to changes in the physical variable  $p$ .

<sup>5</sup> A formal derivation of this expression can be found by using the equations of Section 2.3 in Sánchez Almeida (1997) and of Sections 6.2 and 6.3 in Bellot Rubio (1998).

In this paper, we present a new approach to calculate the uncertainties of the RMAs in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database initially presented by Sainz Dalda et al. (2019). In Section 2, we explain how these new uncertainties have been calculated using a Monte Carlo simulation approach. The criteria used to determine the uncertainties are presented in Section 2.2. In Section 3, we evaluate the results obtained with the new version of IRIS<sup>2</sup> with those obtained from inversion using STiC. Finally, in Section 4 we present the main conclusions and limitations of the new IRIS<sup>2</sup> database.

## 2. Methodology

When we invert an observed profile there are several factors that introduce a randomness to some key elements in the inversion. First, the noise inherent to an observation, both the one associated to the distribution of photons detected by the instrument (i.e., Poisson noise for our NUV photons), and the one associated to the readout or other electronic variations in our detector.

In addition, the initialization of the iterative inversion process is usually randomized. Thus, the path started and followed during an inversion of an observed profile may be different from another independent inversion for the same profile, which may yield different results. To understand the impact of this randomness in the initialization of the inversion better, we can invert the same profile several times with different initializations. This Monte Carlo inversion approach to quantify the uncertainty was used for the first time, to the best of our knowledge, by Westendorp Plaza (1999). Another source of possible variability in inversion results comes from the initial atmosphere model. To minimize this, the inversion code DeSIRe (Ruiz Cobo et al. 2022) uses several initial guess models to invert the same profile independently, selecting the best fit of all the fits produced by each inversion. We have not considered this case in our study since the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database was built with the results from the inversion of RPs using an unique initial guess model (FALC; Fontenla et al. 1993), and that is the one we only consider in our Monte Carlo approach.

One other aspect to consider when estimating uncertainties is that the inversion technique is based on the minimization of:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{i=0}^q [I(\lambda_i)^{\text{obs}} - I(\lambda_i; \mathbf{M})^{\text{syn RP@STiC}}]^2 \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} \quad (2)$$

with  $i = 0, \dots, q$  the sampled wavelengths,  $w_i$  their weights,  $\sigma_i$  the uncertainties of the observation (e.g., photon noise),<sup>6</sup> and  $\nu$  the number of observables, i.e., the spectral samples. This is the weighted Euclidean distance between the observed (input) and the synthetic (output) profile, with the weight higher for those wavelengths in which we are more interested. However, as we will see below, this metric is not optimal for those cases where the dimension of the observation, i.e., the number of observed wavelengths, is high.

The method that we have used to estimate the uncertainties associated with the RP<sup>syn</sup>-RMA takes into account all these issues.

<sup>6</sup> Formally, Equation (2) considers a weight and a noise value per spectral position per profile. However, for computational reasons only one weight and noise level per spectral profile is provided for all the profiles inverted in a batch. In this study, a batch is all the RP<sup>syn</sup> <sub>$t_{\text{exp, noi}}$</sub>  at a given  $t_{\text{exp}}$  at a given  $\mu$ .

### 2.1. Building a Noisy Database

As we have already mentioned the physical information in IRIS<sup>2</sup> is given by the relationship between the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  and the RMA. This information is determined by the physical considerations made in solving the radiative transfer equation for the Mg II h & k lines. Therefore, we can consider the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$ –RMA pair as the ground truth. Keeping that in mind, we have created a new noisy database using these pairs as guides. The steps taken in this process are the following:

1. We applied Poisson noise to a  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  at a given  $t_{\text{exp}}$  (exposure time). The values of  $t_{\text{exp}}$  are 1, 4, 8, and 30 s, which are the most used in the IRIS observations. We also add readout noise characterized by a Gaussian distribution with a standard deviation of 18 ( $e^-$ ) (De Pontieu et al. 2014). The result is a noisy synthetic profile dependent on the exposure time,  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ .
2. We repeat the previous step five times considering a different randomization for the same  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  each time. Thus, we now get 20 noisy profiles associated with one of the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database: five random realizations in noise for each of the four exposure times considered. We denote these profiles as  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ , with the  $\sim$  indicating the noisy nature of the profile for a given  $t_{\text{exp}}$ , with the five randomizations in the noise (“noi”). Thus,  $t_{\text{exp}} = [1, 4, 8, 30] \text{ s}$ , and  $\text{noi} = 1, \dots, 5$ .
3. Each  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  is independently inverted five times with STiC, following the same inversion scheme as the one used in IRIS<sup>2</sup>. This Monte Carlo simulation tries to characterize the impact of the randomness of the initialization of the inversion. Hence, for each  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  we obtained five  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ . The superscript “MC” indicates the 1, ..., 5 independent (initialization) inversions. The superscript “syn” denotes that the associated input profile in the inversion is not an observed profile (“obs”), but a (noisy) synthetic profile.
4. At this point, for a given  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  at a given exposure time,  $t_{\text{exp}}$ , we have 25 associated  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ . Thus, each of the 25  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  takes into account the random nature of the noise (noi) for a given exposure time ( $t_{\text{exp}}$ ), and the random nature of the initialization of the inversion (MC).

The new noisy database consists of  $\approx 1.25M$  (million)  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ – $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  pairs for each  $t_{\text{exp}}$ , or a total of  $5M$  pairs considering all the exposure times. Figure 1 shows two examples of  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ . In both panels, the first row shows the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  as included in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database. The next four rows show in black the five noisy profiles for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8,$  and  $30 \text{ s}$ , in violet the inverted synthetic profiles that fit the five  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  with a  $\chi^2 \leq 3$  (“good” fits), and in orange those inverted synthetic profiles that fit the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  with a  $\chi^2 > 3$  (“bad” fits). Because  $\text{noi} = 1, \dots, 5$ , the total number of inverted profiles displayed for a given  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  at a given  $t_{\text{exp}}$  is 25. The number of the good and the bad inverted synthetic profiles is given in each panel in violet and orange font, respectively. In the following section, we describe why we have selected this threshold for  $\chi^2$ . Each line is plotted with a transparency factor so that the intensity of the color expresses the probability of signals. Thus, the common values in each

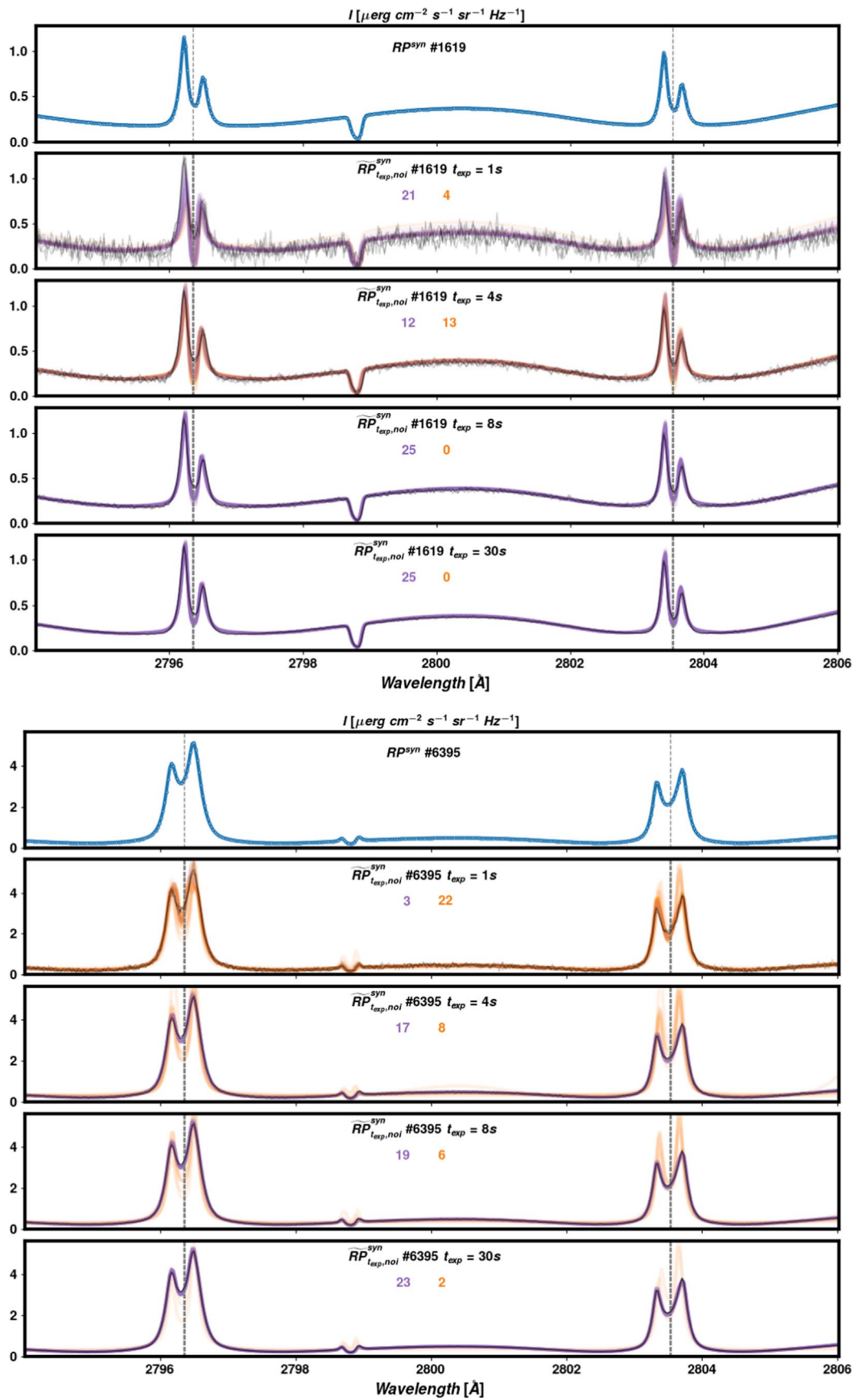
profile are more visible than those where the profiles are less common. This effect can be seen in the wavelength range between the two Mg II h & k lines (which we refer to as the photospheric “bump,” since it is formed in the photosphere) for the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  #1619 (second panel from the top in Figure 1) for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1 \text{ s}$ , where the four “bad” inverted profiles (in orange) show a contribution located at a range of different intensity values. As a result, the colored lines look rather faded in that spectral region. In contrast, the “good” inverted profiles (in violet) overlap in this wavelength range, and also in the Mg II h & k lines and in the Mg II UV2&3 lines. If we now look at the profiles for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 4 \text{ s}$ , we can barely distinguish the “good” inverted profiles (12) from the bad ones (13), since they mostly contribute equally in the same spectral region with similar values, resulting in a brownish profile quite well defined in the photospheric bump and the Mg II UV2&3 region but slightly blurred or dispersed in the Mg II h & k lines. With this visualization we want to illustrate how various spectral regions contribute (or not) to the nature of the fit (“good” or “bad”), and thus to the uncertainty associated with the RMA. In Section 3 we discuss these inverted profiles, but we have to first answer an important question: when do we consider a fit to be good or bad?

### 2.2. Selection Criteria

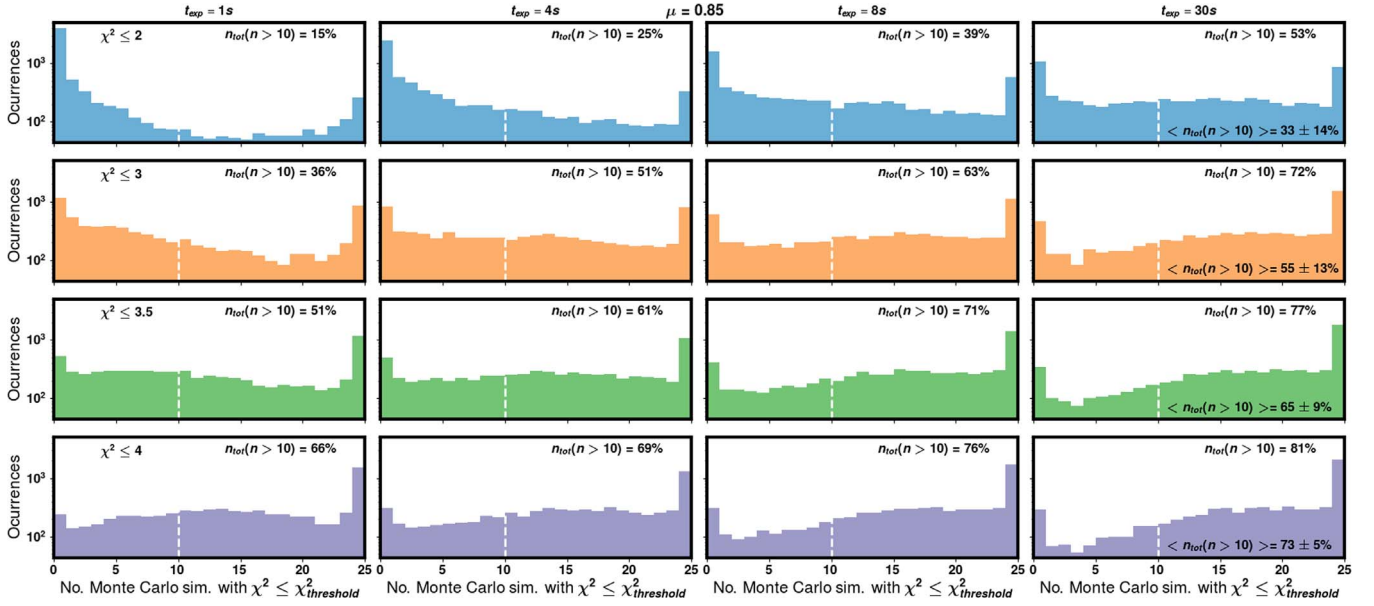
The next step is to calculate the uncertainty associated with the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$ –RMA pair. We use Monte Carlo simulations to calculate the uncertainty for a physical variable as the standard deviation of all the Monte Carlo experiments; that is, the standard deviation of the 25  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  associated with an  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$ . In this context, we refer to a Monte Carlo simulation as the exercise of calculating the 25 inversions for a given  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  (five times for each of the five  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  associated with that  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$ ), and to a Monte Carlo experiment as one of these 25 inversions (or experiments).

In an ideal scenario, we would need a large number of Monte Carlo experiments for each Monte Carlo simulation: this means a large number of independent inversions considering several random initializations of the noise for a given exposure time. In this fashion, the impact of statistical outliers would be reduced compared to our approach with just 25 experiments. However, such an approach is computationally very expensive and not practical. Our current approach to build the “noisy” database required roughly 10M CPU hours executed in the NASA Pleiades supercomputer. A larger number of Monte Carlo experiments or simulations would provide more statistical samples (e.g.,  $\approx 100$ ), but would require many more CPU hours—in the example given 40M CPU hours. Such a large number of computational resources is beyond the scope of the current investigation.

As has been mentioned, the standard procedure would be to consider all (25)  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  to calculate the uncertainties (by determining the standard deviation of the physical parameters determined by the inversions in each experiment). However, due to the limited number of simulations, in some cases, only a few fits out of the 25 fits between the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  and the resulting inverted profile are “good.” In these cases, the standard deviation of these 25  $\text{MCRMA}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  may be very large, since it takes into account a large number of bad fits. Therefore, we adopt a more empirical approach in which the selection of the



**Figure 1.** Top panel:  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#1619$  is shown in the first row. The four following rows show their corresponding  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  (in black) for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8$  and  $30 \text{ s}$ , and the "good" and "bad" MC fits in violet and orange, respectively, (the colored numbers indicate the number of "good" and "bad" MC fits). Bottom panel: the same for  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#6395$ .



**Figure 2.** Histograms of the number of Monte Carlo simulations (for all IRIS<sup>2</sup> entries with  $0.8 \leq \mu < 0.9$ ) for which  $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$ , with different values of  $\chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$  in each row (indicated in the upper left of each panel), and different exposure times in each column. Indicated in the top right of each panel is the fraction of cases for which there are at least 10 Monte Carlo simulations with a goodness of fit better than  $\chi \leq \chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$ .

$\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  considered for calculating the uncertainties is based on the goodness of fit between the  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  and its corresponding inverted profile, i.e., on the value of  $\chi^2$ :

$$\chi^2 = \frac{1}{\nu} \sum_{i=0}^q [\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}(\lambda_i) - I(\lambda_i; \widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}})]^2 \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} \quad (3)$$

with  $\nu$  the number of observables. Note that we are now quantifying the fit between the noisy  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  and its inverted profile  $I$ , which is the resulting radiation at  $\lambda_i$  from the model  $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$ . Thus, for a given  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$ , we have 25 values of  $\chi^2$  corresponding to the fits associated between the  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  and the 25 inverted profiles  $I$  generated by the 25  $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$ .

We have selected a criterion that considers a large enough number of experiments to preserve some statistical meaning from the Monte Carlo approach, and that also attempts to minimize the impact of bad inversions in the calculation of the uncertainties. To enable this, we always consider at least 10 Monte Carlo experiments. If the number of fits with a  $\chi^2$  below a given threshold ( $\chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$ ) is less than 10, then the  $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  associated with the 10 best fits are used to calculate the standard deviation of the model. If the number of fits  $n$  with  $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$  is larger than 10, then  $n$   $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  are used to calculate the uncertainties of the associated RMA. To justify this empirical approach, we have analysed the distribution of the number of inversion fits with a  $\chi^2$  below different thresholds. Each row of Figure 2 shows the distribution of the number of fits  $n$  with a  $\chi^2$  below a threshold ( $\chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$  indicated in the top left corner in the first column) for each  $t_{\text{exp}}$  (column) for the case of  $0.8 \leq \mu < 0.9$ . The threshold values are  $\chi^2_{\text{threshold}} = 2, 3, 3.5, \text{ and } 4$ . In each individual panel, the percentage of the total number of  $n > 10$  with  $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$  is indicated in the top right corner, while in the bottom right corner of the last column the average of these values for

all the  $t_{\text{exp}}$  at a given  $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{\text{threshold}}$  is indicated. Figure 3 shows the behavior of the latter average with respect to  $\mu$ . In this figure, we can see that for  $\chi^2 \leq 3$ , except for  $\mu = 0.55$  and  $\mu = 0.75$ , the averaged-in- $t_{\text{exp}}$  percentage of the Monte Carlo experiments (inversions) for a given  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  with at least 10 fits with  $\chi^2 \leq 3$  is larger than 50%, and for the values mentioned before the percentages are very close to 50%. Therefore, we consider  $\chi^2_{\text{threshold}} = 3$  and  $n \geq 10$  to be good criteria to ensure a Monte Carlo simulation with a well-balanced number of good and bad fits at (almost) any  $\mu$  and  $t_{\text{exp}}$  value.

In summary, the uncertainty of the physical variable  $p$  in the RMA is calculated as the standard deviation of the set of the  $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  corresponding to the  $n$  best fits of the Monte Carlo experiments, with  $N$  determined by:

$$N = \max(n \text{ with } \chi^2 \leq 3, n = 10) \quad (4)$$

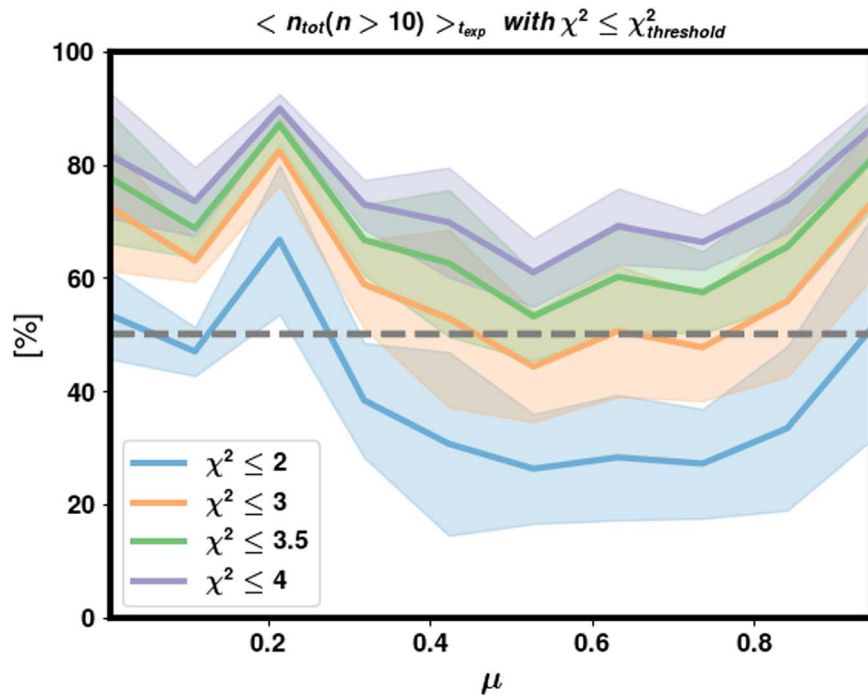
Therefore, the uncertainty of physical variable  $p$  is:

$$\sigma_p = \text{standard deviation} ([N] \widehat{\text{RMA}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}) \quad (5)$$

For instance, if a  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  has 16 fits with  $\chi^2 \leq 3$ , then  $\sigma_p$  will be calculated considering their 16 associated  $\widehat{\text{MC}}\text{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$ , i.e.,  $[16] \widehat{\text{RMA}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$ . But, if it has only three fits with  $\chi^2 \leq 3$ , then  $\sigma_p$  will be calculated considering the corresponding  $[10] \widehat{\text{RMA}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  to the 10 best fits, including seven ‘‘bad’’ fits, which will result in a larger uncertainty. We believe this approach captures the impact of the uncertainties introduced by the inversion process. Note that while MC takes values between 1 to 5,  $N$  in  $[N]$  may take any value from 10 to 25.

### 3. Discussion

Let us now discuss the impact of these new calculations on the uncertainties on the thermodynamic parameters from IRIS<sup>2</sup>, and in particular some cases that highlight the



**Figure 3.** Histogram, as a function of the cosine of the viewing angle ( $\mu$ ), of the average (across all exposure times considered) fraction of IRIS<sup>2</sup> database entries for which there are at least 10 Monte Carlo simulations that meet the goodness-of-fit criterion  $\chi \leq \chi_{\text{threshold}}^2$ . The colors show different values of  $\chi_{\text{threshold}}^2$ , while the ranges shown indicate the standard deviation (across different exposure times) on the average fraction.

difference between the previous and new approach, and the limitations of any uncertainty calculation.

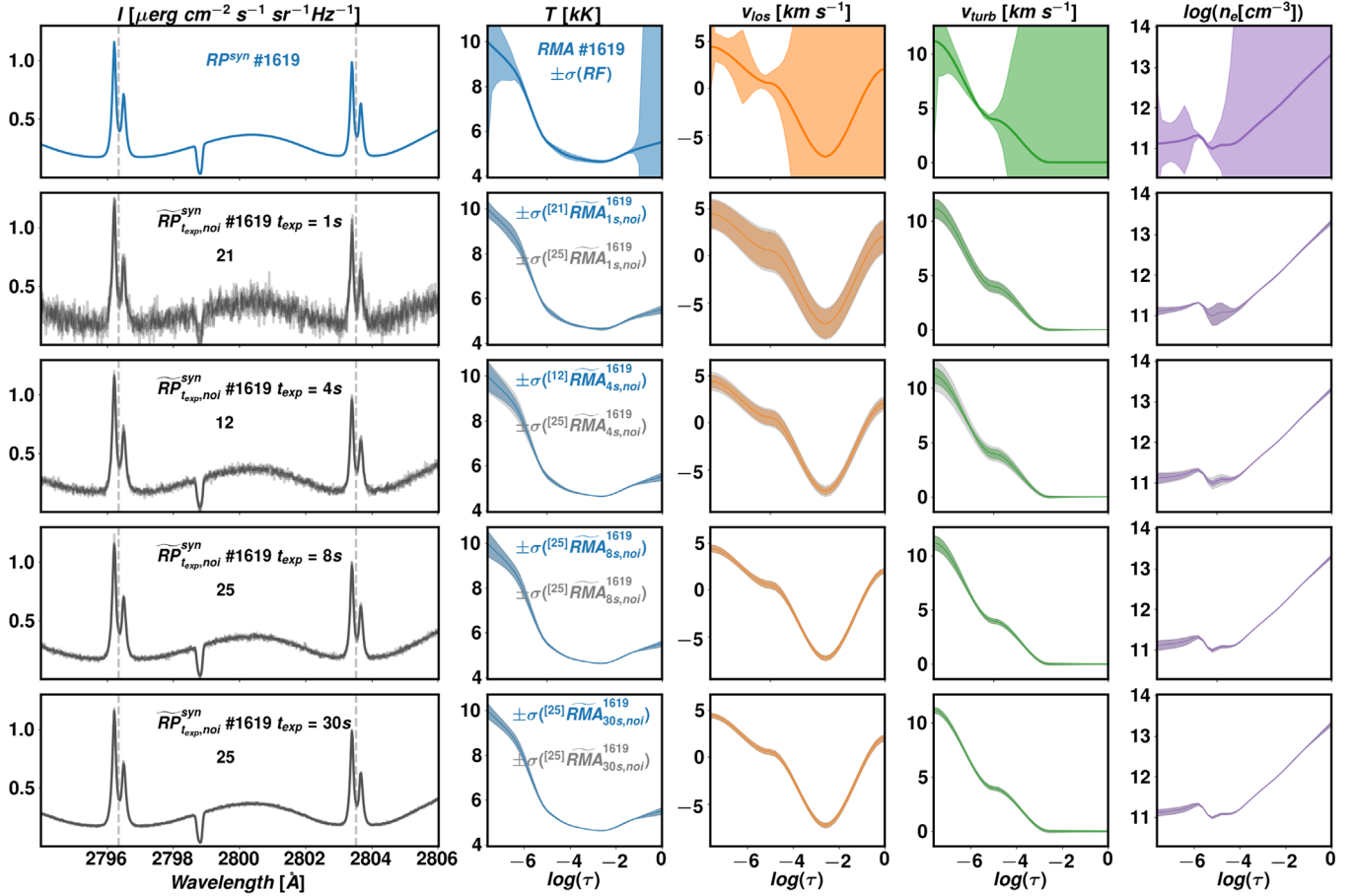
The first row of Figures 4 and 5 shows the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  (first column) and the associated RMAs for  $T$ ,  $v_{\text{los}}$ ,  $v_{\text{turb}}$ , and  $n_e$  (in the second, third, fourth, and fifth columns, respectively) with the uncertainties calculated using Equation (3) in Sainz Dalda et al. (2019), i.e., using the RFs. In the following rows, the first column shows  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  for  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#1619$  with  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8,$  and  $30$  s, with the five noise randomizations over-plotted; from the second to the fifth columns the same RMA thermodynamic variables as in the first row, but now showing two types of uncertainties. In blue, we show the uncertainties calculated using the standard deviation of those  $\widehat{\text{MCRMA}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  associated with the inverted profiles for  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  that satisfy condition (4). In gray we show the uncertainties derived from all 25 Monte Carlo experiments, i.e.,  $^{[25]}\widehat{\text{RMA}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ . In each panel of  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  the number of profiles used to calculate the uncertainty is indicated in black, and, as a reference, the number of profiles that satisfies  $\chi^2 \leq 3$  when that number is less than 10, is indicated in green.

The uncertainties in  $T$  are relatively small between  $-6 \leq \log(\tau) \leq -3$  for all the  $t_{\text{exp}}$  in both examples (#1619 and #6395). When all the 25 Monte Carlo experiments are considered (in gray), we see some differences, with the largest difference at  $\log(\tau) \leq -7$  and to a lesser extent around  $\log(\tau) = -5$ . The former location is the region in the optical depth where neither the Mg II h & k nor the Mg II UV2&3 are sensitive to variations in the thermodynamic variables. The latter is where the Mg II h & k lines are more sensitive to changes in the atmosphere. Therefore, we should expect some uncertainty in the atmosphere for inversion cases in which the  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  values are not well fitted, and also where the Mg II h & k lines are actually sensitive to variations in the thermodynamic

parameters. For  $-3 \leq \log(\tau)$ , the uncertainties are usually larger, which makes sense since the IRIS Mg II h & k profiles barely encode photospheric information, i.e., these lines are not sensitive to variations in the thermodynamics at this optical depth range.

It is important to distinguish how the uncertainties are calculated in the considered methods. In the method using the RFs, a small variation in the atmospheric parameter is introduced at given optical depth, then the RF is obtained as the difference between the synthetic profile from the atmosphere with the slightly modified parameter with respect to the profile corresponding to the unperturbed model atmosphere (i.e., without variation of any physical parameter). This process is repeated for all the optical depths considered in the model atmosphere. Let us now consider how the uncertainties are determined in our new method. First, we note that during the inversion of the profiles only some optical depths (nodes<sup>7</sup>) are considered. In the Monte Carlo approach, five full inversions for the five  $\widehat{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  are executed to evaluate the reproducibility of the results, using the standard deviation of the resulting models as the uncertainties for the original model. In the first case (using the RFs), the synthetic profiles come from a model atmosphere evaluated at all the optical depths with a small variation, while this is not the case in our new calculations: the variation of the model atmosphere during the inversion only occurs in the nodes. In some cases, the inversion code may find a good fit generating some variations in some nodes, and none (or negligible) in other nodes because the code is able to fit the input profile without variation in these nodes. This is why in some cases the uncertainties at  $-2 \leq \log(\tau)$  are very small.

<sup>7</sup> The cycles and nodes used in this study are the same as the ones used in Sainz Dalda et al. (2019): the first cycle considers four nodes in temperature, and three nodes both  $v_{\text{turb}}$  and  $v_{\text{los}}$ . The second cycle uses seven nodes in temperature, and four nodes both in  $v_{\text{turb}}$  and  $v_{\text{los}}$ .



**Figure 4.** The first column shows  $RP^{\text{syn}}\#1619$  in blue, and in black its  $\widehat{RP}_{t_{\text{exp}},\text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8,$  and  $30$  s. The corresponding RMAs for  $T, v_{\text{los}}, v_{\text{turb}},$  and  $n_e$  and their uncertainties are shown from the second to the fifth columns, respectively. In the first row, the uncertainty is obtained from the RFs, while the ones from the second to the fifth rows are obtained by using  $N$  Monte Carlo experiments as shown in  $^{[N]}\widehat{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp}},\text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ , for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8,$  and  $30$  s, respectively.

This effect can be seen for  $v_{\text{los}}$  for  $MC\widehat{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp}},\text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}\#6395$  with  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1$  s in comparison with the other  $t_{\text{exp}}$ . For the latter, the Mg II UV2&3 lines are more well defined (less noisy) and the inversion code may be trying to introduce a variation in the nodes at  $-3 \leq \log(\tau)$ . This effect is also noted in  $v_{\text{turb}}$ , and in  $n_e$  at  $-1 \leq \log(\tau)$ . The conclusion then is that when assessing the uncertainties, we have to be aware of the optical depths where the observed lines are mostly sensitive to different parameters. These regions are slightly different for different solar features (e.g., umbra, penumbra, or plage), and different from the physical parameters (e.g., see Figure 2 in de la Cruz Rodríguez et al. 2016).

The first row of Figure 6 shows maps of the uncertainty calculated using the RFs ( $\sigma^{\text{RF}}$ ) of  $T, v_{\text{los}}, v_{\text{turb}},$  and  $n_e$  at  $\log(\tau) = -4$ . The second and the third rows show, respectively, the uncertainties calculated using the selective Monte Carlo experiments ( $\sigma^{\text{selMC}}$ ), i.e.,  $^{[N]}\widehat{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp}},\text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ , and all 25 Monte Carlo experiments ( $\sigma^{\text{all25MC}}$ ), i.e.,  $^{[25]}\widehat{RMA}_{t_{\text{exp}},\text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$ . At this optical depth, in the plage and the umbra and extended penumbra or canopy  $\sigma_T^{\text{RF}} < \sigma_T^{\text{selMC}} < \sigma_T^{\text{all25MC}}$ , while for  $v_{\text{los}}, v_{\text{turb}},$  and  $n_e$   $\sigma^{\text{RF}} > \sigma^{\text{all25MC}} \gg \sigma^{\text{selMC}}$ . This situation is however different at  $\log(\tau) = -2$  (see Figure 7), where  $\sigma_T^{\text{RF}} > \sigma_T^{\text{all25MC}} \gg \sigma_T^{\text{selMC}}$ , and for  $v_{\text{los}}, v_{\text{turb}},$  and  $n_e$   $\sigma^{\text{RF}} \gg \sigma^{\text{all25MC}} \gg \sigma^{\text{selMC}}$ . These two figures illustrate what we mentioned above. When we calculate the uncertainties from

the RFs (as in Sainz Dalda et al. 2019), the uncertainties may be too low for those optical depths where the lines are sensitive to changes in the thermodynamics (large RFs), while they may be unrealistically high for those optical depths where the line is barely sensitive to changes in the thermodynamics (small RFs). We find that, for the Monte Carlo approach, the variation with optical depth of the uncertainties is more moderated, and typically smaller for the selective criterion than when considering all 25 Monte Carlo experiments.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this paper, we present and discuss a novel methodology and the results of applying a selective Monte Carlo approach to determine the uncertainties associated with the RMAs in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database. These new uncertainties represent more realistic values than the previously publicly released uncertainties (Sainz Dalda et al. 2019) which were based on RFs. This is because the uncertainties in our new approach have been calculated from synthetic representative profiles ( $RP^{\text{syn}}$ ) considering the different sources of uncertainty in the whole process, i.e.,: different exposure times, different noise randomization, and different inversion initializations. We define the uncertainty of a physical parameter associated with an  $RP^{\text{syn}}$ -RMA pair as the standard deviation of this parameter in the set of depth-stratified output models (from the Monte Carlo experiments) that satisfy the ad hoc selection criterion

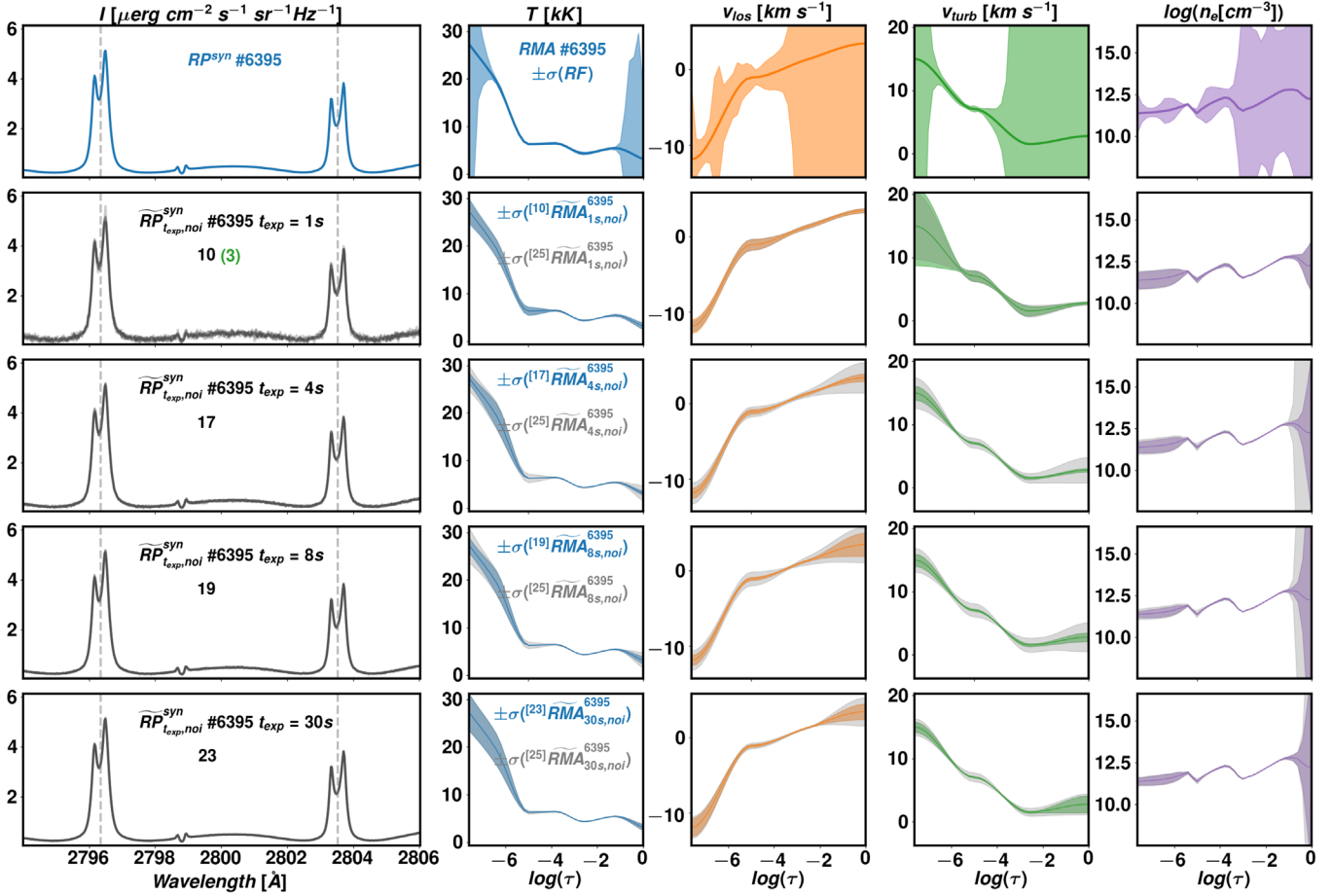


Figure 5. Same as Figure 4 but for  $RP^{\text{syn}} \#6395$ .

shown in Equation (4). The latter expression is used to minimize the impact of the output models based on inversions that produce a bad fit (with the noisy synthetic profile associated with  $RP^{\text{syn}}$ ). In general, at the optical depths where the Mg II h & k and Mg II UV2&3 lines are sensitive to variations in a thermodynamic parameter, the difference between considering all 25 Monte Carlo experiments instead of the number that satisfies expression (4) is very small. The difference is larger for optical depths where the lines are not sensitive to thermodynamic changes.

The new uncertainties will be available to the public in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database, both for IDL and Python. The uncertainties calculated from the 25 Monte Carlo experiments will also be provided as an extra field in the new version of the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database. Therefore, the new database will have the following elements:

1.  $RP^{\text{syn}}$ : 472 wavelength positions, from 2794 to 2806 Å, with a spectral sampling of  $\approx 0.025 \text{ m}\text{\AA}$
2. RMA: depth-stratified  $T$ ,  $v_{\text{los}}$ ,  $v_{\text{turb}}$ , and  $n_e$ , sampled at 39 optical depths (i.e., “heights” in the atmosphere) with  $\Delta \log(\tau) = 0.2$
3.  $\sigma_{\text{sel}}$ : depth-stratified  $\sigma_T$ ,  $\sigma_{v_{\text{los}}}$ ,  $\sigma_{v_{\text{turb}}}$ , and  $\sigma_{n_e}$ , sampled at 39 optical depths with  $\Delta \log(\tau) = 0.2$ , obtained from the selected Monte Carlo experiments (selective mode). These values are given for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8, \text{ and } 30 \text{ s}$ . Therefore,  $4 \times \sigma_{\text{sel}}$  values are in the database.
4.  $\sigma_{\text{all}}$ : depth-stratified  $\sigma_T$ ,  $\sigma_{v_{\text{los}}}$ ,  $\sigma_{v_{\text{turb}}}$ , and  $\sigma_{n_e}$ , sampled at 39 optical depths with  $\Delta(\log(\tau)) = 0.2$ , obtained from the

25 Monte Carlo experiments (all-in mode). These values are given for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1, 4, 8, \text{ and } 30 \text{ s}$ . Therefore,  $4 \times \sigma_{\text{all}}$  values are in the database.

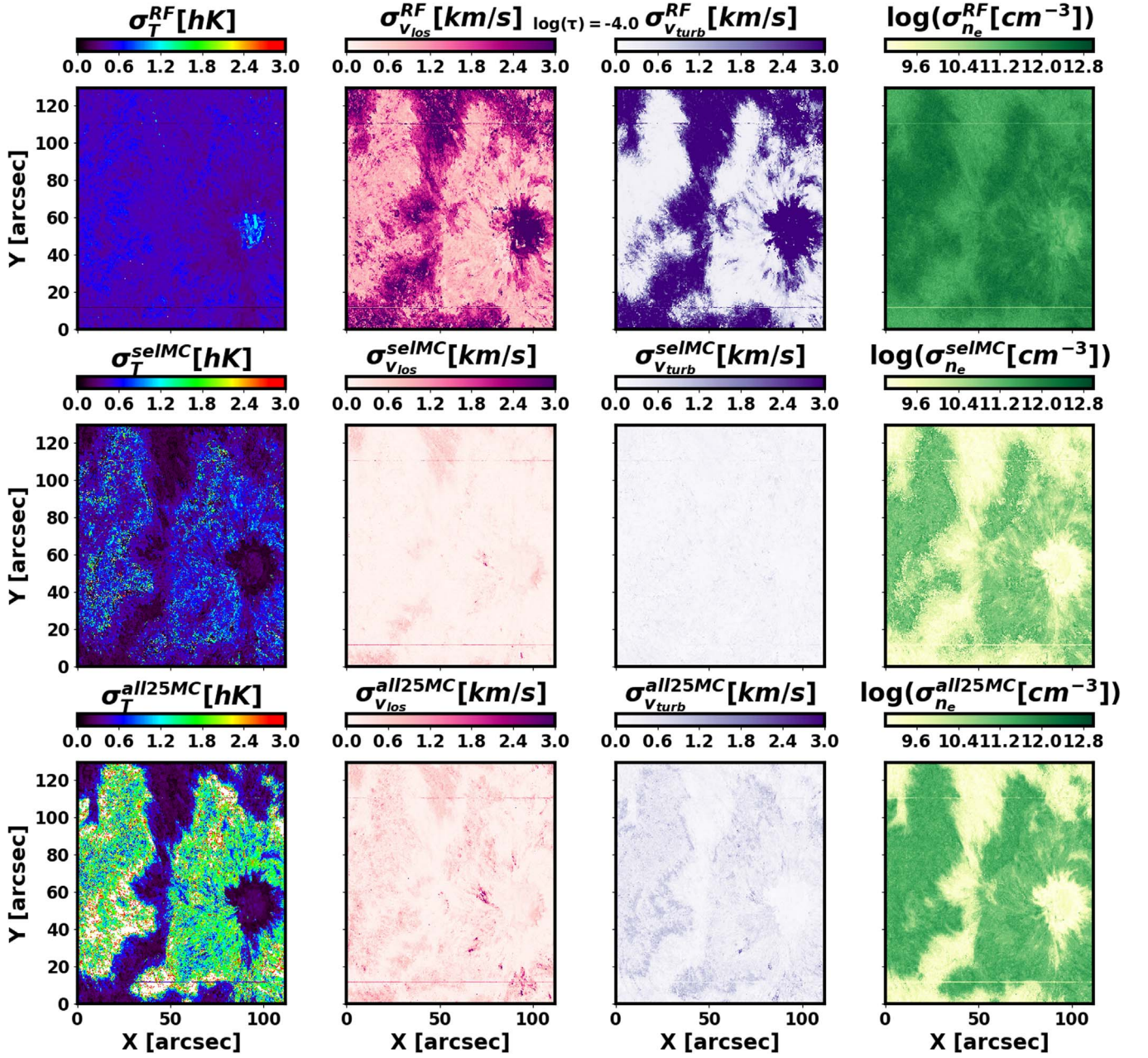
5.  $\mu$ : from 0 to 1, starting from  $\mu = 0.05$  at steps of 0.10, as indicated in Table 1.

The different IRIS<sup>2</sup> inversion tools that allow users to interface with this database will use these database elements for internal calculations. The inversion of an IRIS Mg II h & k data set will only return the closest  $RP^{\text{syn}}$  to the observed profiles, the corresponding RMAs, and the uncertainties taking into account the  $\mu$  and the  $t_{\text{exp}}$  of the observation and the uncertainty mode (selective or all-in) chosen by the user.

We believe that the empirical methodology we have developed for IRIS<sup>2</sup> will be useful for understanding the uncertainties associated with other or similar inversion approaches.

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**Figure 6.** The uncertainties in  $T$ ,  $v_{\text{los}}$ ,  $v_{\text{turb}}$ , and  $n_e$  at  $\log(\tau) = -4$  when considering the RFs (top row), the selective Monte Carlo approach (middle row), or all the 25 Monte Carlo experiments (bottom row).

Asensio Ramos and Jaime de la Cruz Rodríguez for insightful discussions, and to Marc DeRosa for his improvements in the text.

*Software:* IRIS<sup>2</sup>, see <https://iris.lmsal.com/iris2/>.

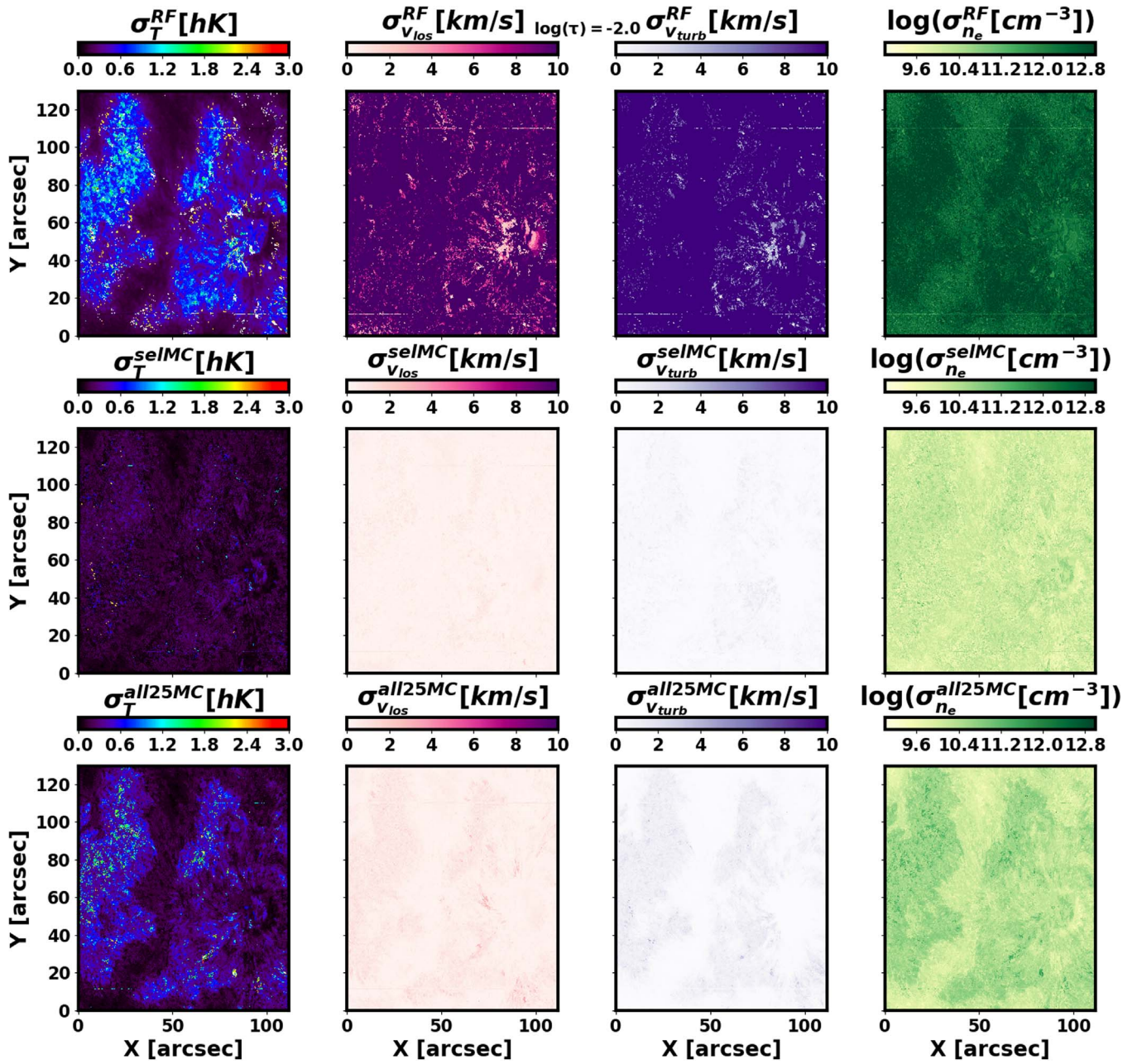
## Appendix

### Limitations of the Inversion Approach

This appendix describes in more detail some limitations of the inversion approach that has been used for the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database.

As we mentioned above, Figure 1 shows the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  (top row), its five associated  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}^{\text{syn}}}$  (black) and its 25 associated inverted profiles (violet and orange for good and bad fits, respectively) for two cases of the IRIS<sup>2</sup> database.

For  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  #1619 (top panel), we can see an interesting behavior: the number of good fits for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1$  s is almost as large as for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 8$  and 30 s, and definitely larger than for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 4$  s. At first glance, one would perhaps expect that for longer  $t_{\text{exp}}$  finding a good inverted profile close to the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}^{\text{syn}}}$  should be more difficult than for a profile with shorter  $t_{\text{exp}}$ . However, the latter is noisier than the former, and thus it has a larger variation in its values, making it easier to find a fit that is good enough to end the iterative process of the inversion and for the code to declare a “good fit.” This is easily visible in the second row of the top panel: larger noise in the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}^{\text{syn}}}$  allows the inverted profile to fit more easily to the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}^{\text{syn}}}$ . That means, the difference between the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}^{\text{syn}}}$  and the candidate to the final inverted profile is less than the noise. The larger the

Figure 7. Same as Figure 6 for  $\log(\tau) = -2$ .

noise, the easier expression (4) can be satisfied. However, during the inversion process, the code may find a local minimum in the search for the best fit, and therefore it may not be able to find a better solution, and eventually reach the number of maximum iterations allowed. On the other hand, it can also occur that the code actually finds the best fit in all the cases despite less noise, as seems to happen for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 8$  and 30 s. This is even more evident for  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}} \#6395$ .

We now describe another peculiarity related to the inversions. During the inversion, the code tries to minimize  $\chi^2$ , which is basically the average of the ratio of the weighted difference of the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp}}, \text{noi}}^{\text{syn}}$  and the fit from the inversion with respect to the noise. As we have already mentioned, because of computational constraints the inversion code only accepts a single noise value for all the profiles considered in the inversion. That means, the noise is the same at any wavelength.

And more importantly, it is the same for a profile where the ratio between the line (peaks and the core) and the photospheric bump ( $r_{l2b} = I_{\text{line}}/I_{\text{bump}}$ ) is large (e.g., a location with strong chromospheric heating such as  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#6385$ ) as for a profile with a small  $r_{l2b}$  (e.g., a quiet Sun location such as  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#1619$ ). Whether the core of the spectral lines (as opposed to the wings or continuum) has a large impact on the  $\chi^2$  value depends on the value for  $r_{l2b}$ , the noise value, and the number of wavelengths sampled within and outside of the wavelength range covered by the spectral lines.<sup>8</sup>

Thus, if the noise is large (e.g., for  $t_{\text{exp}}$  equal to 1 or 4 s) and  $r_{l2b}$  is small, the contribution of the lines and the bump to the  $\chi^2$  is very similar, since the difference between the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  and

<sup>8</sup> Both in the inversions used to build IRIS<sup>2</sup> and the ones used in this current work, the weights of the lines, photospheric bump, and wings are taken to be the same.

**Table 1**  
Distribution of RPs in the IRIS<sup>2</sup> Database with a Value of  $\mu$  in the Interval  $\mu_c - 0.05 \leq \mu < \mu_c + 0.05$  Centered Around  $\mu_c$

$\mu_c$	0.05	0.15	0.25	0.35	0.45	0.55	0.65	0.75	0.85	0.95
No. RP	2069	1744	798	1755	1118	3031	2552	4944	7029	25559
No. RP [%]	4.1	3.4	1.6	3.5	2.2	6.0	5.0	9.8	13.9	50.5

**Note.** Thus, there are 1755 RPs having a  $\mu$  value in the interval  $0.30 \leq \mu < 0.40$ , i.e., in an interval centered around  $\mu_c = 0.35$ .

the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  in the line and the bump are similar. For that reason  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#1619$  has a large number “good” fits for short  $t_{\text{exp}}$ : there are large number of  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  that on average fit the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  within the (large) noise, even when the core of the lines is not well fit, since the contribution of the small number of sample wavelengths in the line to the  $\chi^2$  is small. However, if there is a lot of noise but  $r_{l2b}$  is large, since the values in the line are much larger than in the bump, they will have a significant impact in the  $\chi^2$ . Therefore,  $\chi^2$  will more easily consider as “bad” fits those profiles that have a poor fit in the line (usually in the core). This is the case for  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#6385$  for  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1$  or 4 s. If the amount of noise is small, all the points both on the line and the bump have to be fit more strictly, since the difference between the  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  and the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  should be comparable to the small noise. In this case, since the noise is small, the inversion will look for solutions that strictly fit all the sampled wavelengths of the  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  both the line and the bump have a similar impact in the  $\chi^2$ . This happens for  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}} \#1619$  and  $\#6385$  when  $t_{\text{exp}}$  is 8 or 30 s.

In summary, we can see that  $\chi^2$  is not necessarily always the best metric (or loss function) to quantify the quality of the fit of  $\widetilde{\text{RP}}_{t_{\text{exp, noi}}}^{\text{syn}}$  in the inversions. This is due to the high dimensionality of the profiles (a large number of sampled spectral positions) and the computational constraints that impose the same weight and noise per spectral sample and per  $\text{RP}^{\text{syn}}$  and per data set in IRIS<sup>2</sup> in this study.

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