

1           **Impacts of prescribed fires on air quality over the**  
2           **southeastern United States in spring based on modeling**  
3           **and ground/satellite measurements**

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2 **Prescribed burning is a large aerosol source in the southeastern United States. Its**  
3 **air quality impact is investigated using 3-d model simulations and analysis of**  
4 **ground and satellite observations. Fire emissions for 2002 are calculated based on a**  
5 **recently developed VISTAS emission inventory. March was selected for the**  
6 **investigation because it is the month with most active prescribed fires. Inclusion of**  
7 **fire emissions significantly improved model performance. Model results show that**  
8 **prescribed fire emissions lead to ~30% enhancements of mean OC and EC**  
9 **concentrations in the Southeast and a daily increase of PM<sub>2.5</sub> up to 25  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,**  
10 **indicating that fire emissions can lead to PM<sub>2.5</sub> nonattainment in affected regions.**  
11 **Surface enhancements of CO up to 200 ppbv are found. Fire count measurements**  
12 **from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) onboard the**  
13 **NASA Terra satellite show large springtime burning in most states, which is**  
14 **consistent with the emission inventory. These measurements also indicate that the**  
15 **inventory may underestimate fire emissions in the summer.**

16

## 17 **Introduction**

18       About 5 million acres of forest, crop, and range land are burned annually in the  
19 southeastern United States. Prescribed fires comprise 60% of the burned acreage (1) and  
20 are the most common because of the use for forest resource management, such as  
21 reducing hazardous fuels and improving wildlife habitats (2). While effective and  
22 economical, the emissions of aerosols and gases can adversely affect local and regional  
23 air quality.

1 Prescribed burning is one of the most important sources of carbonaceous aerosols  
2 in the Southeast (3). It contributes ~15% of total particulate matter (PM) emissions over  
3 this region (1). Since all southeastern states except Florida have PM2.5 nonattainment  
4 areas (<http://www.epa.gov/pmdesignations/statedesig.htm>), this additional contribution of  
5 PM2.5 from prescribed burning is of great concern for air quality management. A better  
6 understanding of air quality impacts from fire emissions is necessary (4-6).

7 More attention has been drawn to wildfires than prescribed fires since the  
8 intensity per event is much larger in wildfires. While less intense, prescribed fires are  
9 very frequent in the Southeast in winter and spring, leading to a potentially large impact  
10 on regional air quality. The chemical composition of prescribed fire emissions differs  
11 from wildfires due to the nature of under-story burning of prescribed fires (7). We use the  
12 fire emission inventories for 2002 developed by the Visibility Improvement - State and  
13 Tribal Association of the Southeast (VISTAS) program. It is the most comprehensive  
14 compilation to date on the basis of fire activities reports from county, state, and federal  
15 agencies of the southeastern states (1).

16 The fire impacts on the air pollutants, CO, organic (OC) and elemental carbon  
17 (EC), can be better evaluated using chemical transport model simulations with the  
18 improved emission inventory. The model simulations are evaluated with surface  
19 measurements of these species. We choose March 2002 as the studying period, which is  
20 the month of the most burned acres in the VISTAS inventory.

21 The VISTAS inventory can be evaluated more directly using fire count  
22 measurements from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)  
23 onboard the NASA Terra satellite. Its large spatial coverage has many advantages in

1 monitoring wildfire activities (8,9). However, most prescribed fires are under-story and  
2 the effectiveness of the MODIS fire detection algorithm (10) for under-story fires is  
3 unknown. The temperature threshold of 310 K in the MODIS fire detection algorithm can  
4 be too high for identifying the relatively small and cool prescribed fires (11). To  
5 minimize uncertainties, we evaluate if spatially-averaged (state-level) seasonal variations  
6 of estimated burned areas and MODIS fire counts are in agreement. March is the month  
7 with the most active burning in the VISTAS inventory. We expect to find a large signal  
8 in MODIS fire count measurements.

## 9 **Method**

10 EPA Models-3 Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system  
11 (12) is used to simulate the distributions of gas and particulates emitted from fires.  
12 Surface observations of O<sub>3</sub>, CO, and aerosols are employed for model evaluations.  
13 Satellite measurements of lower tropospheric CO are also used to study its fire  
14 enhancements. The uncertainty of fire emissions in the VISTAS inventory is discussed in  
15 its comparison with satellite fire count products.

16 **VISTAS Emission Inventory.** The VISTAS emission inventory was developed from the  
17 1999 National Emissions Inventory (NEI) version 2 and used 2002 as the base year (1).  
18 Its anthropogenic emissions are projected from NEI 99 emission inventory. Fire  
19 emissions were recalculated for the southeastern states based on the updated fire records  
20 collected from state and federal fire agencies. Complete updates for prescribed fire  
21 emissions are available in 9 of the 10 Southeastern states (except VA), with 5 states (AL,  
22 FL, GA, MS, and SC) having the most complete data. Among the other 4 southeastern  
23 states (KY, NC, TN, WV), partial updates have been done whenever the government

1 reports were available. For model evaluation, we therefore focus more on the states with  
2 the more complete data.

3       Among the four fire types, wildfire, prescribed burning, agricultural fires, and  
4 land clearing fires, prescribed burning plays a dominant role in all months except May  
5 when wildfire is the largest. Figure 1 compares the monthly mean emissions of three  
6 major fire emitted pollutants (OC, EC, and CO). Prescribed fire emissions cover large  
7 regions of the southeastern US, although the geographic variability is large. Most of the  
8 high emission spots appear in 4 states, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and South Carolina.  
9 Burning is the most active in March when prescribed fire compromises >70 % of the total  
10 burned area.

11 **Air Quality Modeling System.** CMAQ version 4.4 with the SPARC99 chemical  
12 mechanism (13) and AERO3 aerosol module (14) is used. The meteorological fields were  
13 assimilated using Penn State/NCAR MM5 with the NCEP reanalysis data (15,16). The  
14 148×112 model-grid domain covers the contiguous United States and part of southern  
15 Canada and northern Mexico with a grid distance of 36 km. We specified 19 vertical  
16 layers, of which 12 are below 1 km. The study period is March 2002. Nested simulation  
17 using 12-km resolution does not improve the model results due in part to the relatively  
18 coarse temporal and spatial resolution of the fire emission inventory (Supporting  
19 information).

20       CMAQ emission inputs were prepared from the VISTAS inventory using the  
21 Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) Modeling System  
22 (<http://www.smoke-model.org/index.cfm>) version 2.2. Annual county-level fire  
23 emissions were allocated to each month based on VISTAS reported burned areas in each

1 state. These emissions are distributed in SMOKE using forest distributions as surrogates.  
2 The monthly temporal resolution of fire emissions contributes to the discrepancies  
3 between model results and measurements. The default EPA daily emission profile in  
4 SMOKE is applied to distribute prescribed fire emissions (mostly from 10 am to 8 pm).  
5 Biogenic emissions are calculated with the BEIS3 model. The detailed model  
6 configurations are described in supporting information.

7       Considering active boundary layer mixing in daytime, the effect from plume rise  
8 mainly comes from the fraction injected above the top of the boundary layer. Since  
9 controlled prescribed burning is smaller in scale and cooler in temperature than wildfires  
10 (17), the injected fraction from prescribed fires is also smaller. There is currently not  
11 enough information from the VISTAS inventory to properly treat plume rise in the model  
12 and hence plume rise above the boundary layer is not included. We consider this  
13 uncertainty in model evaluations with measurements and find some support for plume  
14 rise in analyzing MOPITT data although it is qualitative (Supporting information).

15       Default CMAQ initial and boundary conditions are used except for CO. For CO  
16 with a relatively long chemical lifetime, the default CO concentration at 80 ppbv in the  
17 surface layer leads to underestimations with the observations at surface sites (18) and in  
18 the free troposphere (19). We therefore specify CO initial and boundary conditions with  
19 GEOS-CHEM simulations (20), which have been evaluated extensively (19, 21).

20       We performed two CMAQ runs, one base run with all emissions and one  
21 sensitivity run without prescribed fire emissions over 10 VISTAS states. A comparison is  
22 then conducted between the two simulations to reveal the enhancements of certain air  
23 pollutants from fire emissions, such as CO and carbonaceous particles. Modeled

1 distributions of fire pollutants are spatially consistent with the spatial distributions of the  
2 fire emissions (Supporting information).

3 **Surface CO and Aerosol Observations.** Model simulations are evaluated with surface  
4 observations from two networks, the Southeastern Aerosol Research and Characterization  
5 project (SEARCH) (18) and Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments  
6 (IMPROVE) (22) (Figure 2). Both gases and aerosols are measured at the 4 pairs of  
7 urban-rural SEARCH stations. Only aerosols are measured at the IMPROVE stations,  
8 located mainly in rural areas. OC and EC measurements from SEARCH and IMPROVE  
9 are comparable since the thermo-optical reflectance (TOR) method was used in both  
10 networks. More extensive CO measurements from the EPA AIRNow network cannot be  
11 used since only values  $> 0.5$  ppmv were reported and CO concentrations at rural sites  
12 were lower than the reporting limit.

13 **MODIS Fire Counts.** MODIS fire detection products from the NASA Terra satellite (10)  
14 are used to evaluate the seasonal variations of the VISTAS fire inventory. Cloud pixels  
15 were removed before the fire detection algorithm was applied (10). Level 3 daily Terra  
16 MODIS global products (MOD14A1) include daytime and nighttime observations  
17 (~10:30 am and pm). Most fire counts are observed during daytime, consistent with the  
18 diurnal profile in SMOKE. The horizontal resolution of this dataset is  $1 \times 1$  km<sup>2</sup>. Given the  
19 difference in temporal resolutions of MODIS measurements and the VISTAS inventory,  
20 we focus on the monthly statistics.

## 1 **Air quality impacts at surface sites**

2 We first examined model simulations with available surface observations using  
3 published statistical metrics (Supporting information). Model results capture the general  
4 characteristics of observed O<sub>3</sub>, CO, EC, OC, and PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

5 **Ozone.** Prescribed burning has very little influence on simulated O<sub>3</sub> during this period.  
6 At SEARCH sites, it only leads to a 1.5% ozone increase, which is much smaller than the  
7 impacts by biomass burning in the tropics (*e.g.*, 23, 24). More extensive evaluation using  
8 the measurements from the EPA AIRNow network in the Southeast shows similar results.  
9 One of the reasons is that emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> from prescribed fire are much smaller than  
10 those from fossil fuel sources over North America. NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations only increase by  
11 1% at SEARCH sites. Another reason is that photochemistry is relatively slow in March.

12 **Carbon Monoxide.** We use the relatively long-lived biomass burning tracer CO to  
13 examine the influence of fire emissions in the region. On average, fire emissions increase  
14 surface CO concentrations by 6%. Since the EPA AIRNow measurement sites report CO  
15 only when its mixing ratios are CO > 0.5 ppmv, we are limited to SEARCH sites. Among  
16 these, we only find two sites (CTR and OLF) with significant signals (Figure 3). These  
17 peaks are identified as simultaneous increases of CO, EC, and OC and the model captures  
18 better high CO concentrations in the measurements with fire emissions. During the period  
19 of March 5 to 10, both sites show high concentrations of CO. Without prescribed fire  
20 emissions, the model would underestimate CO by up to 200 ppbv (or 130%).

21 The observations also show another high-CO episode between March 12 and 16.  
22 However, the model is only able to simulate high CO at the OLF site. A few reasons may  
23 contribute to this discrepancy. Chief among them is the quality of the emission inventory.

1 There are uncertainties in the magnitudes of emissions and the temporal and spatial  
2 resolutions are not high enough to capture all impact peaks driven by fire emissions at a  
3 specific site. Nonetheless, the evaluation presented here indicates that the CMAQ model  
4 with the currently available emission inventory has some predicting skills and provides a  
5 useful way to assess the typical impacts of fire emissions.

6 **OC and EC.** Observations of OC and EC come from SEARCH and IMPROVE  
7 networks. We compare the model results with the observations at 4 selected sites, CTR  
8 (SEARCH), GFP (SEARCH), EVER (IMPROVE), and MACA (IMPROVE) (Figure 4  
9 and Supporting information: Figure S4). The effects on OC and EC are similar. The base  
10 run with full emissions agrees better with observations than the sensitivity run without  
11 prescribed fire emissions. The differences between the two simulations are due to fire  
12 emissions, which can be significant. The increases of OC and EC from fire emissions are  
13 up to 5 times at the CTR site, where local burning is large. Here we define local burning  
14 as that in the county where the site is located. What is perhaps unexpected are that the  
15 increases of OC and EC (by 100% on some occasions) at the MACA site, where there is  
16 almost no local burning. Simulated enhancements are entirely due to regional transport. It  
17 is evident from this comparison that the measurement frequencies of once per 3 days (as  
18 in most sites used here) can miss the effects of fire emissions.

19 The dispersion of episodic fire emitted pollutants highly depends on the  
20 meteorological conditions. Although the fire emissions are continuously distributed in the  
21 model due to the lack of burning timing information, the model did not simulate  
22 continuous aerosol enhancement at surface. The episodic aerosol enhancements are

1 evident in fire induced high OC and EC concentrations (Figure 4). It indicates a  
2 combined influence of fire emissions and meteorological conditions.

3 We compared all OC and EC at 24 stations available in the Southeast (Figure 5).  
4 The scattering around the 1:1 line reflects the uncertainties in model formulation and  
5 inputs, which includes emission uncertainties. Without fire emissions, the model results  
6 have clear low biases. Table 1 shows the observed and simulated mean concentrations of  
7 EC and OC. Prescribed fire emissions lead to a simulated mean OC increase from 1.33 to  
8  $2.24 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$  (or 68%) compared with the observed mean of  $1.92 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$  and a  
9 simulated mean EC increase from 0.29 to  $0.49 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$  (or 69%) compared with the  
10 observed mean of  $0.51 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ . The inclusion of fire emissions does not significantly  
11 reduce scattering of simulated data against the measurements (Supporting information),  
12 which reflects the uncertainties in simulated impacts of individual fire events. Averaged  
13 over the 10 southeastern states, the monthly simulated mean contributions of prescribed  
14 fires to OC and EC are 28% ( $0.8 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ ) and 31% ( $0.2 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ ), respectively.  
15 However, the simulated maximum increases of daily OC and EC from prescribed  
16 emissions are much larger, 13.4 and  $3.2 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ , respectively. Prescribed fire can lead to  
17 an enhancement of daily carbonaceous matter (CM = OM + EC, organic matter (OM) =  
18  $1.4 \times \text{OC}$ ) up to  $22 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , or 63% of the EPA standard of 24-hour PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration  
19 of  $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ .

20 A positive correlation is found between the local (county) burned areas and OC  
21 and EC enhancements at 24 sites. The correlation coefficients for OC and EC are 0.65  
22 and 0.63 respectively. Therefore, local burning only explains about 40% of fire induced  
23 variance. Regional transport is an important factor. To further study the transport effects,

1 we divided the 10 VISTAS states into two groups. In the states with high fire emissions  
2 (AL, GA, FL, and SC), prescribed fires contribute to 39% and 42% of OC and EC,  
3 respectively. In the states with low fire emissions (KY, MS, NC, TN, VA, and WV), its  
4 mean contributions to OC and EC are smaller but still significant at 14% and 17%,  
5 respectively.

6 To further estimate the effects of prescribed fire emissions, we compute the  
7 concentrations of organic matter and carbonaceous matter. The simulated mean  
8 concentrations of OM, CM, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> at 24 sites are 2.9, 3.3, and 9.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  
9 respectively. CM accounts for 37% and 25% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in states with high and low fire  
10 emissions, respectively. The simulated mean contributions of prescribed fires to PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
11 are 12% and 3%, respectively, over states with high and low local burning emissions. The  
12 average OC/EC ratio in high burning areas is smaller than in low burning area (25),  
13 consistent with previous studies (26, 27).

#### 14 **Fire emission evidence from satellite measurements**

15 **MOPITT CO at 850 hPa.** Based on model comparison with surface measurements  
16 (Figure 3), we selected two episodes to compare the model results to the integrated lower  
17 tropospheric CO column measurements (reported as 850 hPa) by the Measurements Of  
18 Pollution In The Troposphere (MOPITT) satellite (28) in the Southeast (Supporting  
19 information). Generally, MOPITT shows CO enhancements over regions where the  
20 model simulates impacts from fire emissions, although the enhancement levels are lower  
21 in the model. The simulated CO vertical distribution may be problematic due to  
22 inadequate simulations of plume rise or vertical transport.

1 **Terra MODIS fire counts.** Direct detection of burned areas from satellite instruments is  
2 ineffective for prescribed fires, since the burning is understory by design. Fire count  
3 measurements based on surface temperature changes are more useful. The spatial  
4 resolution of MODIS fire counts is  $1 \times 1 \text{ km}^2$ . The detection efficiency of prescribed fires  
5 with scales  $< 1 \text{ km}$  is unknown. Quantitative comparison is therefore difficult between  
6 burned areas in the VISTAS inventory and MODIS fire counts. The correlation  
7 coefficient is 0.57 between the monthly MODIS fire counts and the burned areas in  
8 VISTAS inventory at the state level in 2002. We focus on the qualitative aspect in the  
9 comparison by examining if March is the month with the largest amount of fires as found  
10 in the VISTAS inventory.

11 We show the comparisons for the 4 states (AL, FL, GA, and SC) with large fire  
12 emissions in Figure 6. The secondary peak in May in the VISTAS inventory for Georgia  
13 is due to wildfires. Generally, the VISTAS inventory shows consistent spring maximum  
14 and summer minimum in the Southeast. MODIS fire counts show clear spring maximum  
15 in Florida and South Carolina, in good agreement with the VISTAS inventory. In  
16 Georgia, the May fire counts are larger than in March, likely because of wildfires. In the  
17 VISTAS inventory, wildfires account for  $\sim 80\%$  of the total burned areas in May in GA. It  
18 has higher burning temperature than prescribed fires due to less control (13). These large  
19 wildfires are much easier for satellite to detect than prescribed fires.

20 The largest difference for spring is found over Alabama, where MODIS fire  
21 counts are fairly low. Previous model evaluations with surface measurements of CO at  
22 the CTR and OLF sites (Figure 3) and OC and EC at the CTR site (Figure 4) clearly  
23 demonstrate the large impacts of fire emissions in Alabama. Chemical mass balance

1 (CMB) (29) and positive matrix factorization analyses (30) showed a spring peak of  
2 wood burning in the Southeast. Therefore, we believe that MODIS fire counts failed to  
3 detect fire activities in Alabama in spring 2002. The mean temperature for prescribed  
4 fires is 440 K (13); the detection sensitivity of MODIS begins to decrease in this  
5 temperature range (10). Moreover, prescribed fires may still in the early burning stage  
6 when Terra satellite passes over at 10:30 am local time. Some underestimation is  
7 expected. The reason for much lower detection in Alabama than Georgia or South  
8 Carolina, however, is unclear.

9 Three out of four states (AL, GA, and SC) show peaks of fire activities (fire  
10 counts) in the summer, which is not present in the VISTAS inventory. First, the fully-  
11 grown forest canopies in the summer shield the upwelling radiation from fires and reduce  
12 the thermal signal and detection efficiency of the MODIS instrument than spring. The  
13 second potential interference factor is the presence of cloud. We examined MODIS cloud  
14 fractions in 2002 over the Southeast. There are 10-30% monthly variations through this  
15 year. But no large decrease of cloud fraction is found from spring to summer. Another  
16 possible factor is hot and dry surfaces in summer, such as the urban and industrial  
17 regions, which could trigger false positives (10). It is however not supported by spatial  
18 analysis of MODIS fire spots in Alabama in August. It shows locations mostly over  
19 forest areas with a few on cropland or grassland. Indications are that the VISTAS  
20 inventory may have underestimated fire emissions in summer. More detailed analysis is  
21 currently under way.

22 CMAQ analyses of surface pollutant concentrations and satellite measurements  
23 suggest large enhancements of OC, EC, and CO due to fire emissions in March. CO is a

1 good tracer to understand the transport of fire emissions. However, surface observational  
2 evidence is limited. More CO measurements are available from the EPA AIRNow  
3 network, but the current lower limit of 0.5 ppmv in reported values is too high and  
4 renders the data unusable. To explore in greater detail MOPITT measurements,  
5 measurements of CO vertical profiles are needed. The monthly mean enhancement of  
6 PM<sub>2.5</sub> is 8% ( $0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and daily enhancement is up to  $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , posing a problem for  
7 the attainment of the daily national PM<sub>2.5</sub> standard of  $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . For more detailed  
8 analysis, fire emission inventories with better spatial and temporal resolutions than  
9 VISTAS are needed. A higher temporal resolution is critical to simulate better episodic  
10 PM<sub>2.5</sub> enhancements. A higher measurement frequency of OC and EC aerosols at the  
11 surface networks is needed to more adequately characterize the fire impacts.

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## 17 **Supporting Information Available**

18 Supporting Information includes simulated regional enhancements from fire emissions,  
19 model performance evaluation, model comparisons with 36 and 12 km grids, and  
20 MOPITT observed CO enhancement at 850 hpa. This information is available free of  
21 charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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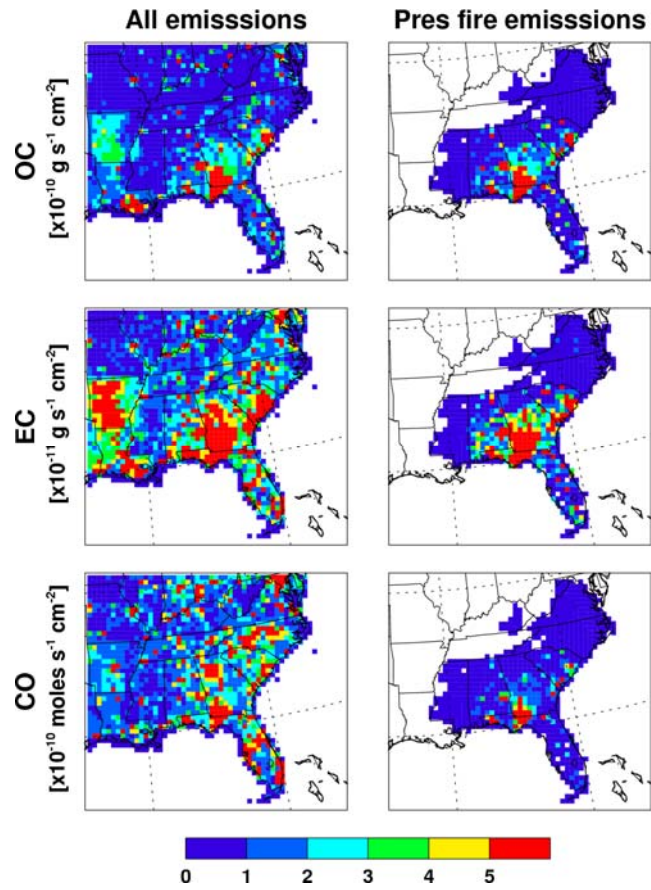
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Table 1. Mean and median OC and EC concentrations from observations and model simulations with and without prescribed fire emission at 24 stations in the Southeast in March 2002.

		Observation ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ )	Model w/ fire ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ )	Model w/o fire ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ )
OC	Mean	1.92	2.24	1.33
	Median	1.49	1.54	1.00
EC	Mean	0.51	0.49	0.29
	Median	0.37	0.30	0.18

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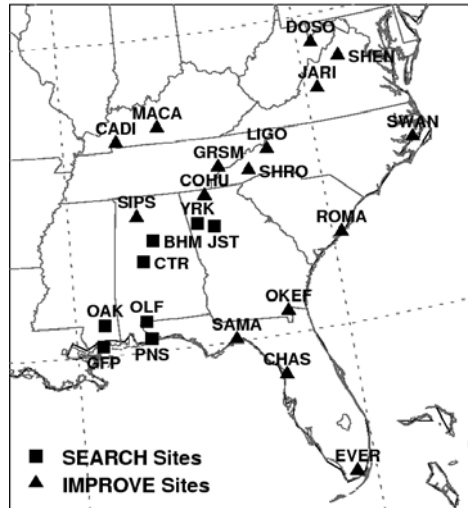
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Figure 1. SMOKE processed OC, EC, and CO emissions from standard VISTAS emission inventory and prescribed fires over the southeastern United States in March 2002.

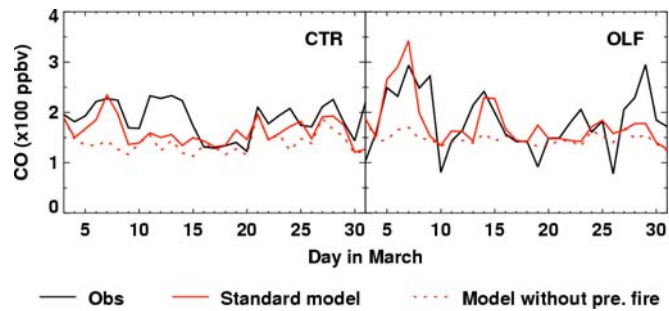
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Figure 2. 8 SEARCH (squares) and 16 IMPROVE (triangles) sites over the southeastern United States.

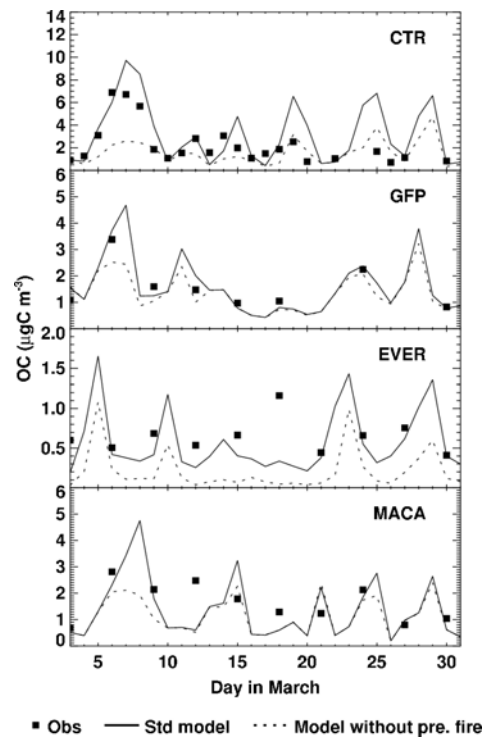
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Figure 3. Daily mean CO concentrations (ppbv) at 2 SEARCH sites in March 2002 from observations (black lines), model simulations with (red solid lines) and without (red dotted lines) prescribed fire emissions, respectively. The site locations are shown in Figure 2.

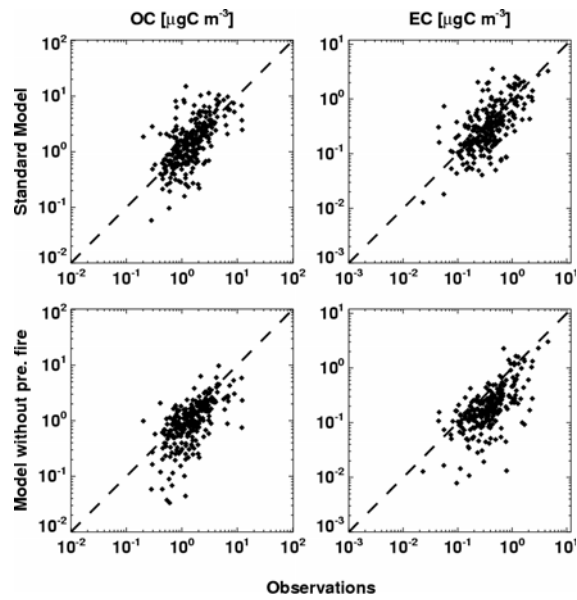
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11 Figure 4. Daily mean OC concentrations ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ ) at 4 stations in March 2002 from  
12 observations (squares), model simulations with (solid lines) and without (dotted lines)  
13 prescribed fire emissions, respectively. The site locations are shown in Figure 2.

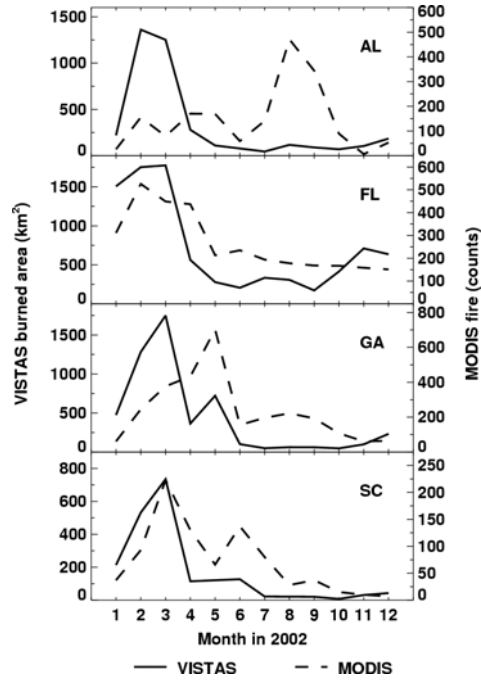
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9 Figure 5. Comparisons between daily OC and EC observations and two simulations with  
10 and without prescribed fire emissions at 24 SEARCH and IMPROVE sites.

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Figure 6. Monthly variations of total burned areas for all fire types from VISTAS inventory (solid lines) and the corresponding Terra MODIS fire counts (dashed lines) over Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina in 2002.

1 **Table of Contents brief:**

2

3 Modeling analyses of surface and satellite observations show that prescribed fire

4 emissions significantly affect air quality in the Southeast

1 **Supporting information**

2  
3 **Impacts of prescribed fires on air quality over the**  
4 **southeastern United States in spring based on modeling**  
5 **and ground/satellite measurements**

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8 Tao Zeng<sup>1\*</sup>, Yuhang Wang<sup>1</sup>, Yasuko Yoshida<sup>2</sup>, Di Tian<sup>3</sup>, Amistead G. Russell<sup>4</sup>, and  
9 William R. Barnard<sup>5</sup>

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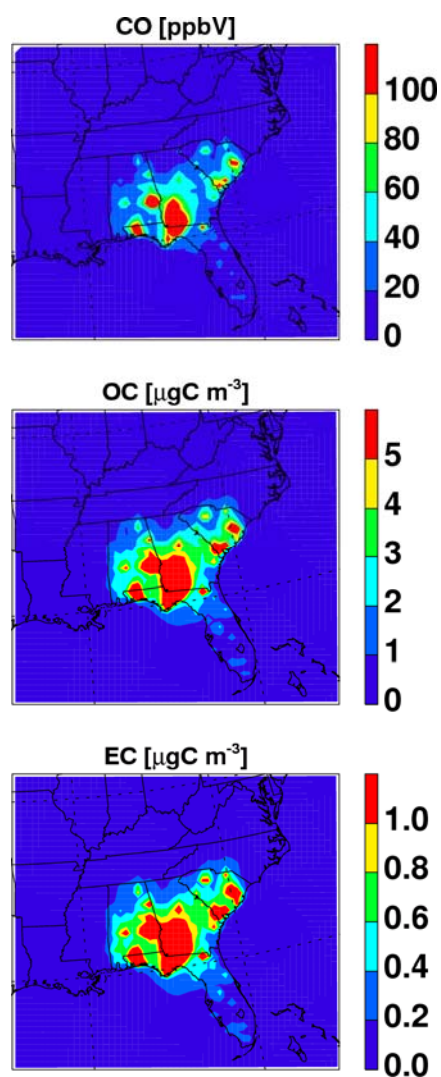
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1 **I. Simulated regional enhancements of fire emitted pollutants**

2           The simulated monthly mean enhancements of CO, OC, and EC due to prescribed  
3 fire emissions are shown in Figure S1. It is obtained by subtracting the sensitivity results  
4 without fire emissions from the base run results. Large increases are mostly found in AL,  
5 FL, GA, and SC. The distribution of enhancements correlates well with prescribed fire  
6 emissions (Figure 1).



7  
8 Supporting Information. Figure S1. Monthly enhancements of CO, OC, and EC due to  
9 prescribed fire emissions in the southeastern United States in March 2002.

## II. CMAQ model performance evaluations

### 1. Ozone and CO

Three statistical measures recommended by US EPA (1) are used here, Mean Normalized Bias (MNB), Mean Normalized Gross Error (MNGE) of all pairs > 60 ppb of ozone and 200 ppbv of CO, and Average Peak Prediction Accuracy (APPA). Hourly ozone observations from the EPA AIRNow and SEARCH networks in March 2002 are compared to the CMAQ ozone simulation results. CO observations are only available from the SEARCH network.

Table S1. Statistics of model performance evaluation for ozone and CO<sup>1</sup>.

Species	N_OBS <sup>2</sup>	Obs_Mean <sup>2</sup> (ppbv)	Sim_Mean <sup>2</sup> (ppbv)	Mean Bias (ppbv)	Mean Error (ppbv)	MNB (%)	MNGE <sup>3</sup> (%)	APPA (%)
1-hr O <sub>3</sub>	6176	47.9	49.9	2.0	8.2	6.1	23.8	23.6
8-hr O <sub>3</sub>	11454	47.4	49.0	1.7	7.0	5.0	20.9	7.7
CO	2423	279.0	250.1	-28.8	134.7	15.9	1.7	-15.4

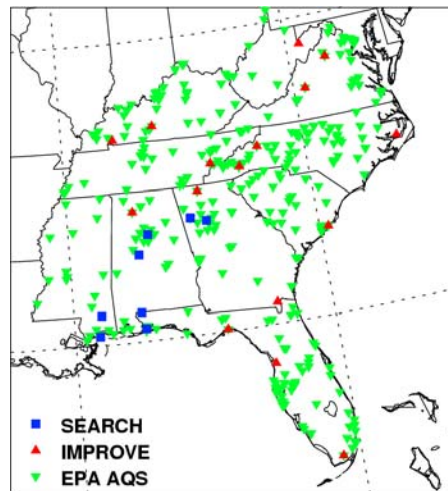
<sup>1</sup> The recommended US EPA (2005) criteria for MNB, MNGE, and APPA for ozone are  $\pm 15\%$ ,  $\pm 30\%$ , and  $\pm 20\%$ , respectively.

<sup>2</sup> N\_OBS denotes the number of observations. Obs\_Mean denotes the observed mean. Sim\_Mean denotes the simulated mean.

<sup>3</sup> MNGE is calculated for data with ozone >60 ppbv and CO >200 ppbv.

The CMAQ model errors for 1-hr and 8-hr ozone and CO are within the EPA recommended range. Model simulated CO values tend to have small low biases. However, the CO statistics are based on the measurements from only 4 urban-rural pair sites (SEARCH) compared to many more ozone observation sites (AIRNow and SEARCH) (Figure S2). Increasing model resolution to 12 km does not solve the problem. The underestimate may be partially due to the CO lateral boundary conditions taken from the global GEOS-CHEM model in our simulation. The lifetime of CO in spring is >1 month. The errors of boundary conditions would propagate into the model domain.

1 However, there are clearly not enough measurement sites to determine if such a case can  
 2 be made.



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 4  
 5 Supporting Information. Figure S2. SEARCH (blue), IMPROVE (red), and AIRNow  
 6 (green) network sites over the southeastern United States.

7  
 8 **2. OM, EC, and PM2.5**

9 We use the recently suggested statistical measures (2) to evaluate the model  
 10 performance for particulates. Daily aerosol observations from the EPA IMPROVE and  
 11 SEARCH networks are employed in the evaluation (Figure S2). The TOR method is used  
 12 for OC and EC measurements in both networks.

13 Table S2. Statistics of model performance evaluation for OM, EC, and PM2.5

Species	N_OBS <sup>1</sup>	Obs_Mean <sup>1</sup> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Sim_Mean <sup>1</sup> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Mean Bias ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Mean Error ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	MFB <sup>2</sup> (%)	MFE <sup>2</sup> (%)
OM	261	2.69	3.13	0.44	1.61	5.3	35.0
EC	261	0.51	0.49	-0.02	0.28	-5.7	35.7
PM2.5	377	9.71	9.83	0.12	4.16	-2.4	30.0

14 <sup>1</sup> N\_OBS denotes the number of observations. Obs\_Mean denotes the observed mean.

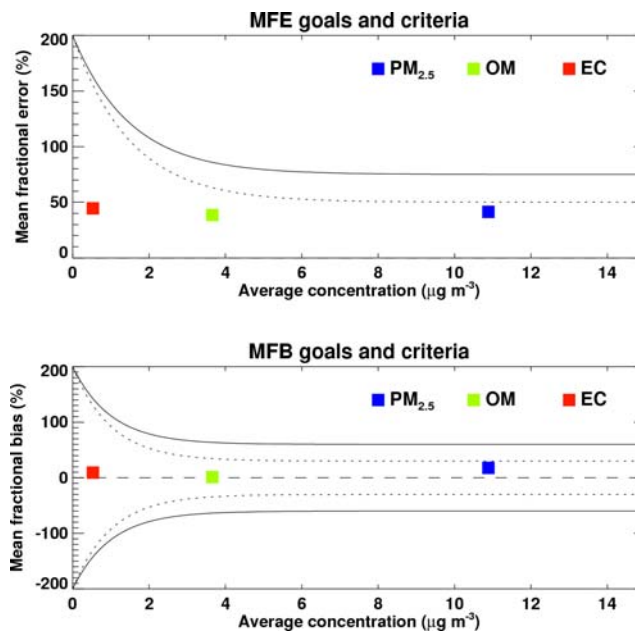
15 Sim\_Mean denotes the simulated mean.

16 <sup>2</sup> MFB - Mean fractional bias; MFE - Mean fractional error.

17

1           Figure S3 illustrates our model results along with the suggested goals (good  
2 performance) and criteria (acceptable performance) of MFB and MFE (2). The model  
3 results are within recommended ranges, indicating that aerosol species are simulated  
4 reasonably well.

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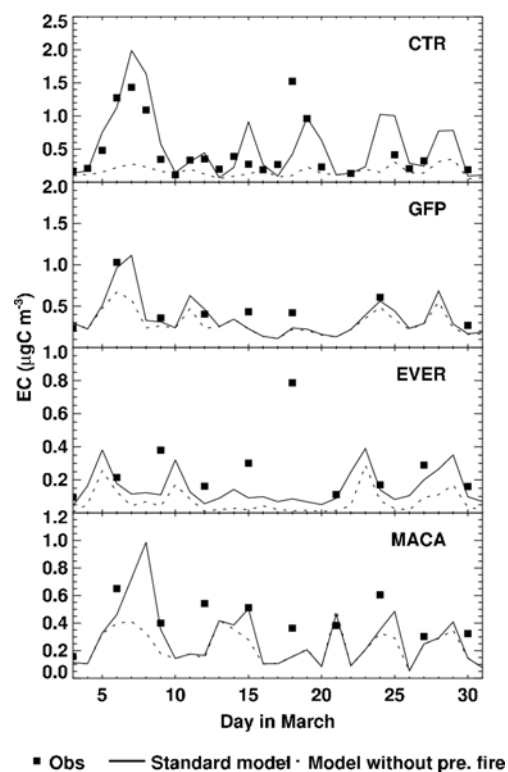
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8 Supporting Information. Figure S3. MFB and MFE values for simulated  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , OM, and  
9 EC. Solid and dotted lines represent the MFE and MFB goals and criteria (2),  
10 respectively.

11

12

13 EC simulations were compared to the observations at 4 selected sites in the  
14 southeastern United States (Figure S4). The standard model run with prescribed fire  
15 emissions generally captures better the observed EC enhancements as in the case of OC  
(Figure 4).

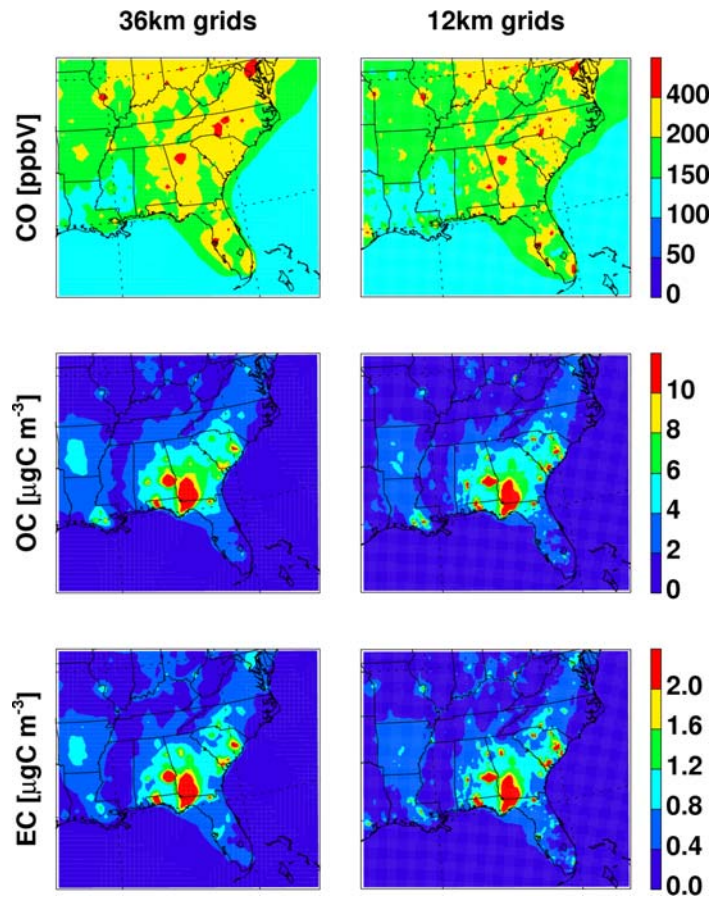


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Supporting Information. Figure S4. Daily mean EC concentrations ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ ) at 4 stations in March 2002 from observations (squares), model simulations with (solid lines) and without (dotted lines) prescribed fire emissions, respectively. The site locations are shown in Figure 2.

### 9 III. CMAQ simulation results with 36 km vs 12 km grids

10 Figure S5 shows that the distributions of CO, OC, and EC are quite similar in the  
11 model results. A higher spatial resolution does not improve the simulation results in this  
12 season. Another CMAQ model study (3) shows similar results between model resolutions  
13 of 32 and 8 km.



1

2 Supporting Information. Figure S5. Distributions of simulated surface CO, OC, and EC  
 3 with horizontal resolutions of 36 and 12 km, respectively.

4

#### 5 **IV. MOPITT CO at 850 hPa**

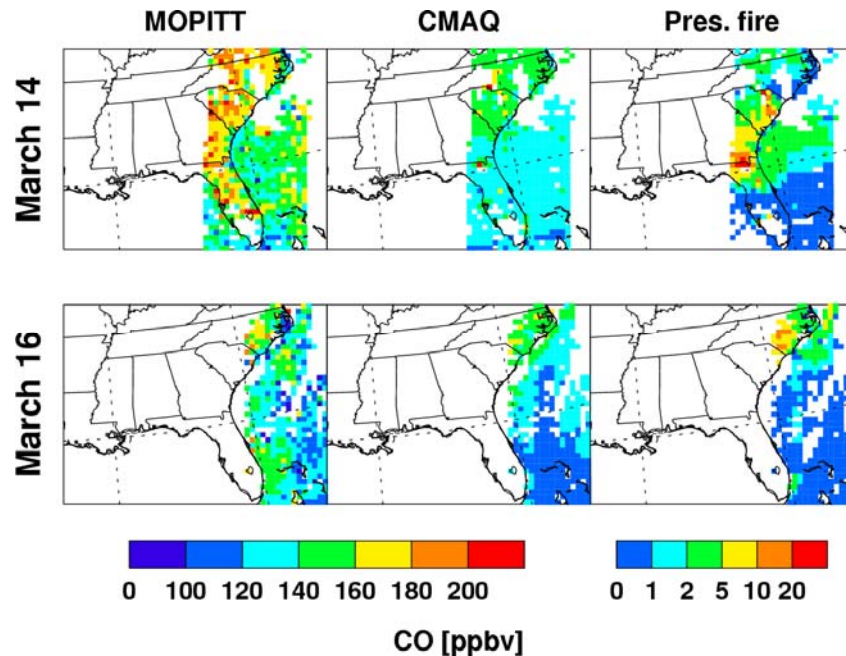
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7 Tropospheric column CO is measured using correlation spectroscopy by the  
 8 Measurement of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) instrument onboard the NASA  
 9 Terra satellite (4). MOPITT version 3 level 2 products of free tropospheric CO are used  
 10 to evaluate the fire plume dispersion. Daytime measurements are available once per day  
 11 at 10:30 AM local time. The spatial resolution is  $22 \times 22 \text{ km}^2$ . We choose to only analyze  
 12 daytime data to avoid the uncertainties due to low sensitivity in the night with lower  
 13 surface temperature (5).

1 MOPITT measurements of lower tropospheric CO are characterized by the  
2 retrievals at 850 hPa (5). Since the degree of freedom for signal is normally  $<2$  (6),  
3 MOPITT CO at this level also includes signals from boundary layer, which is influenced  
4 by fire emissions. Comparisons between model results and MOPITT measurements  
5 indicate that only qualitative agreement can be found.

6 Surface measurements at SEARCH sites (CTR and OLF) show high CO  
7 enhancements on March 14 (Figure 3). MOPITT observations in the eastern part of the  
8 Southeast also showed high CO concentrations. We show the comparison results for  
9 March 14 and 16 in Figure S6. Model simulated CO concentrations are lower. Sensitivity  
10 analysis indicates large amounts of CO enhancements up to 108 ppbv (or 49%) in the  
11 coastal regions of Georgia and South Carolina, which is consistent with MOPITT  
12 measurements. However, the fire impacts are underestimated. There are two potential  
13 reasons. The first is that CO emissions from fire sources are underestimated. Figure 3  
14 suggests that model agreement with surface measurements is reasonable, although the  
15 spatial coverage is too limited to draw a general conclusion. The second is that MOPITT  
16 observed CO enhancements are biased towards fires that inject CO into the free  
17 troposphere since MOPITT is more sensitive to CO in the free troposphere than the  
18 boundary layer (4). The uplifting of fire CO plumes in these cases may not be adequately  
19 simulated by the model in part because plume rise is not included in the model.  
20 Measurements of vertical CO profiles are needed to resolve this issue. On March 16, the  
21 impacts by fire emissions are much lower. MOPITT CO concentrations are also lower, in  
22 better agreement with the measurements. The simulated fire enhancements up to 12 ppbv

1 (or 8%) are over the coastal regions of South Carolina, where MOPITT measurements  
2 also show higher concentrations.



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6 Supporting Information. Figure S6. CO concentrations at 850 mb from MOPITT,  
7 standard CMAQ simulations, and prescribed fire emissions (standard – sensitivity  
8 CMAQ simulations) on 14 and 16 March, respectively. Only the areas with MOPITT  
9 coverage are shown for CMAQ simulations. Model simulations are processed with  
10 averaging kernels (5) in the comparison.

11

## 12 **V. Model configurations**

13 The modeling system consists of 3 components, MM5, SMOKE, and CMAQ.  
14 Their configurations are described in more detail in this section.

15 MM5 version 3.6.2 was used for the meteorological simulation with four  
16 dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) (7). The modeling domain has a horizontal  
17 resolution of 36 km. There are 34 vertical layers in MM5 simulations. They are reduced  
18 to 19 layers in the Meteorology-Chemistry Interface Processor (MCIP) (version 2) for

1 SMOKE and CMAQ simulations. The main physical options include Kain-Fritsch2  
2 (KF2) convective parameterization, Pleim-Xiu boundary layer and land surface model,  
3 and Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM) radiation.

4 Model emissions are prepared by SMOKE version 2.2 with the input of the  
5 VISTAS emission inventory. Several source categories are addressed including biogenic  
6 sources by BEIS3, on-road mobile sources by MOBILE6, non-road mobile sources, area  
7 source, and stationary point sources. Actual electrical generating units (EGU) and fire  
8 emissions in the base year 2002 are used within VISTAS domain. Fire emissions are split  
9 into area and point sources. Point sources are fewer in number and are allocated at by  
10 time and locations of fires. In point source calculation, hourly-specific plume rise was  
11 computed to distribute the emissions vertically. Area fire emissions are evenly distributed  
12 each day in the month, and spatially surrogated by the forest area and type in each  
13 county.

14 CMAQ version 4.4 was used to simulate the impacts of prescribed fire emissions.  
15 SAPRC99 module is chosen for gas phase chemistry simulation. AERO3 module with  
16 aqueous-phase reactions is used for aerosol simulations. The vertical diffusion in the  
17 boundary layer is computed by the EDDY module. Cloud convection is computed by  
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