

# Quantifying the impact of BOREal forest fires on Tropospheric oxidants over the Atlantic using Aircraft and Satellites (BORTAS) experiment: design, execution and science overview

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**Abstract.** We describe the design and execution of the BORTAS (Quantifying the impact of Boreal forest fires on Tropospheric oxidants using Aircraft and Satellites) experiment, which has the overarching objective of understanding the chemical aging of airmasses that contain the emission products from seasonal boreal wildfires and how these airmasses subsequently impact downwind atmospheric composition. The central focus of the experiment was a two-week deployment of the UK BAe-146-301 Atmospheric Research Aircraft (ARA) over eastern Canada. The planned July 2010 deployment of the ARA was postponed by 12 months because of activities related to the dispersal of material emitted by the Eyjafjallajökull volcano. However, most other planned model and measurement activities, including ground-based measurements at the Dalhousie University Ground Station (DGS), enhanced ozonesonde launches, and measurements at the Pico Atmospheric Observatory in the Azores, went ahead and constituted phase A of the experiment. Phase B of BORTAS in July 2011 included the same measurements, but included the ARA, special satellite observations and a more comprehensive measurement suite at the DGS. Integrating these data helped us to describe pyrogenic plumes from wildfires on a wide spectrum of temporal and spatial scales. We interpret these data using a range of chemistry models, from a near-explicit gas-phase chemical mechanism to regional and global models of atmospheric transport and lumped chemistry. We also present an overview of some of the new science that has originated from this project.

## 1 Introduction

The Quantifying the impact of Boreal forest fires on Tropospheric oxidants over the Atlantic using Aircraft and Satellites (BORTAS) experiment was conducted during July-August 2010 and 2011 (phases A and B, respectively) funded by the UK Natural Environmental Research Council, with meteorological field support from the UK Meteorological Office and Environment Canada. The overarching objective of BORTAS was to better understand the chemical evolution of plumes emitted from the burning of biomass, with a particular emphasis on the net production of tropospheric ozone ( $O_3$ ), and downwind impacts on air quality. Our sub-objectives include: i) sample biomass burning outflow from boreal North America over the western boundary of the North Atlantic during summer 2011 using the UK BAe-146-301 Atmospheric Research Aircraft; ii) describe observed chemistry within plumes by using the measurements to constrain a near-explicit chemical mechanism, with particular attention to the  $NO_y$  and organic chemistry; iii) derive a reduced chemical mechanism suitable for a global chemistry transport model (CTM) that accurately describes chemistry within the plumes; iv) quantify the impact of boreal forest fires on oxidant chemistry over the temperate and subtropical Atlantic using a nested 3-D CTM, driven by a reduced version of the near-explicit chemical mechanism and by assimilated field measurements; and v) detect, validate and quantify the impact of boreal biomass burning on global tropospheric composition using data from space-borne sensors. To address these objectives, BORTAS integrated a number of concurrent activities:

1) airborne in situ measurements, 2) space-borne measurements, 3) balloon, ground-based in situ and remote-sensed measurements in Canada and the Azores, 4) near-explicit tropospheric chemical modelling, 5) regional and global chemistry transport models, and 6) inverse models. This paper provides an overview of BORTAS-B with an emphasis on the summer measurement campaign;

40 BORTAS-A was described by Parrington et al. (2012).

Over the past 20 years (1990-2011), Canadian forest fires have burned a median of 1.7 million hectares/year, ranging from 626,000 hectares in 2001 to over 7 million hectares in 1995 (data from Natural Resources Canada), with a year to year variability partly explained by large-scale changes in climate (e.g., the El Niño Southern Oscillation). Although this is a small fraction of the forested  
45 land (0.1-1.8%), it represents a substantial input of carbonaceous material and trace gases released to the atmosphere. The predominant tree species (by volume) includes coniferous spruce (53%) and pine (9%) and broad-leaf poplar (12%), which determines the distribution of natural emission of biogenic volatile organic compounds but also the release of volatiles as part of pyrolysis associated with forest fire (Drysedale, 2008).

50 Tropospheric  $O_3$  is a regulated secondary air pollutant because at elevated concentrations it is linked with human respiratory illness and damage to vascular plants with implications for food production and biogeochemical cycling. A considerable body of work has shown that long-range transport of  $O_3$  and its photochemical precursors can represent a significant contribution to background  $O_3$  over downwind continents and in some circumstances result in an increased number of days  
55 that exceed the regulated threshold concentration. The role of seasonal wildfires on this long-range transport of pollution remains unclear, partly because of its large year-to-year variability and partly because there remains substantial uncertainty in our understanding of the chemistry within these plumes. The primary focus of BORTAS was to understand the production and loss of  $O_3$  within plumes emitted from boreal forest fires as they are transported across the North Atlantic towards  
60 Europe.

Figure 1 shows a simplified schematic of the general atmospheric chemical system (Atkinson and Arey, 2003) that is the focus of BORTAS. We start on the left hand side with an emitted volatile organic compound (VOC) being oxidized by a common atmospheric oxidant OH,  $NO_3$  or  $O_3$ , resulting in the production of an alkyl radical R that rapidly reacts with molecular oxygen to form per-  
65 oxy radicals ( $HO_2$ ,  $RO_2$ ). The fate of peroxy radicals depends on the photochemical environment. In a pyrogenic environment, where levels of nitrogen oxides ( $NO+NO_2=NO_x$ ) are significantly elevated above ambient concentrations,  $RO_2$  typically proceeds via the  $RO_2+NO$  and  $RO_2+NO_2$  routes.  $RO_2+NO$  proceeds via two channels resulting in the production of alkyl nitrates ( $RONO_2$ ) and/or the production of RO and  $NO_2$ , which can lead to the formation of  $O_3$  via  $NO_2$  photolysis.  $RO_2+NO_2$   
70 can also lead to the formation of  $ROONO_2$ . Here, we focus on the peroxy acyl nitrates, denoted as PANs, where  $RO_2$  is  $R'C(O)OO$ . PAN is thermally stable at temperatures lower than  $<263$  K, typical of the free and upper troposphere, resulting in an atmospheric lifetime of months so that it

can be transported over long distances; in contrast, the lifetime of PAN in the lower troposphere (>287 K) is minutes to hours. The most abundant PANs in the troposphere is the eponymous peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN,  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) and peroxypropionyl nitrate (PPN,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) with PAN representing 75–90% of the total PAN concentration. PAN is effectively a thermally controlled reservoir for reactive nitrogen delaying subsequent chemistry. Previous studies have shown that  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$  is still a significant sink of  $\text{RO}_2$  in a pyrogenic environment, producing peroxides ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and hydroperoxides,  $\text{ROOH}$ ), with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  readily removed by wet deposition.  $\text{ROOH}$ , which is much less soluble than  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , has an atmospheric lifetime of 2–3 days and can produce alkoxy radicals (via photolysis) and produce aldehydes and recycle  $\text{RO}_2$  via OH oxidation. A recent review of chemistry measurements of pyrogenic plumes highlights that, based on the enhancement ratio of  $\Delta\text{O}_3/\Delta\text{CO}$  (a common, brute-force metric for characterizing  $\text{O}_3$  production), there is no canonical theory of  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry within plumes (Jaffe and Wigder (2012) and references therein). This is not surprising given the combined effects of large variations in, for example, fuel type/loading, combustion efficiency (and subsequent emitted VOC amounts), meteorological and photochemical environments (e.g., convective energy, and aerosol and cloud characteristics), and the age of the measured plumes on the chemical system.

The impetus for BORTAS was a small number of pyrogenic airmasses originating from northern Canada and Alaska that were intercepted during the 2004 UK International Transport of Ozone and Precursors (ITOP) measurement campaign, which was part of the larger International Consortium for Atmospheric Research on Transport and Transportation (ICARTT). The main focus of ICARTT was to characterize the air quality over the North Atlantic, with an emphasis on long-range transport of anthropogenic pollution. The pyrogenic airmasses were identified by a distinct distribution of primary chemical markers (CO, ethene, acetylene, and benzene), accompanied by elevated concentrations of PAN (Lewis et al., 2007). Analysis of these airmasses revealed no robust relationship between CO and  $\text{O}_3$ . In a case study, one pyrogenic plume, sampled at three different locations as it travelled across the North Atlantic, showed a net increase (17 ppb) in  $\text{O}_3$  and a concurrent decrease in CO over the five-day period. A Lagrangian model, used to understand the responsible chemical processes as the plume travelled over the North Atlantic, highlighted the role of aerosol in slowing both the production and loss of  $\text{O}_3$  but found the plume remained chemically active mainly driven by the thermal decomposition of PAN as it descended through the free troposphere (Real et al., 2007). They also found that the model reproduced the change in  $\Delta\text{O}_3/\Delta\text{CO}$  (negative to positive) over the North Atlantic confirming that the change in  $\text{O}_3$  was due to photochemistry rather than dilution. The BAe-146 aircraft payload during BORTAS, described below, included instruments to better appreciate the  $\text{NO}_y$  budget and characterize aerosols, including semi-volatiles.

The NASA Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites (ARCTAS) 2008 campaign included a science objective on quantifying emissions from boreal forest fires and the near-field chemical evolution of the fire plumes (Jacob et al., 2010). During the Spring

110 (April) phase over Alaska they intercepted Alaskan air masses (3-8 days old) and found evidence of  
O<sub>3</sub> production, but during the Summer phase (June–July) over western Canada they sampled mainly  
young, near-field plumes (< 1day) and evidence supporting net O<sub>3</sub> production was inconclusive.  
During the summer phase they showed that 40% of the NO<sub>x</sub> was converted to PAN within a few  
hours of emission thereby limiting the immediate reactivity within the plume (Alvarado et al., 2010).  
115 Model analyses of these data concluded that forest fire plumes have little impact on the median O<sub>3</sub>  
profile over Canada (Alvarado et al., 2010). During BORTAS, owing to large-scale fires in northwest  
Ontario, we were able to sample pyrogenic plumes with a range of photochemical ages providing us  
with an excellent opportunity to understand the photochemical aging processes within these plumes.

This paper describes the experimental design of the BORTAS-B airborne campaign which was  
120 conducted during 12th July–3rd August, 2011. This includes an overview of BORTAS-B incorpo-  
rating a description of the fire activity and meteorology (section 2) for the time period; a detailed  
description of the ground-based, airborne, and space-borne instruments that supported the BORTAS-  
B campaign (section 3); a description of first results (section 4) from individual research groups from  
the BORTAS-B science team, including a description of the modelling strategy that is the subject of  
125 individual papers. We conclude in section 5.

## 2 Campaign Overview

To determine the optimal time and location of the measurement campaign we used the GEOS-Chem  
atmospheric chemistry transport model driven by NASA GEOS-5 reanalysis meteorology (section  
3.5) to study the atmospheric transport of year-specific biomass burning emissions over Canada, ac-  
130 knowledging substantial year-to-year variations in the emissions and transport pathways. Based on  
that analysis we identified late July as the period that would give us the largest probability of inter-  
cepting near-field (within Canada) and far-field (e.g., from boreal Asia) plumes. We also identified  
Halifax Nova Scotia as the optimal locus for our base of operations for the BAe-146 ARA, giving us  
access to long-range transported plumes at high latitudes and near-field plumes that tend to remain  
135 close to the latitude of emission. As we discuss below, choosing Halifax also provided us with an  
opportunity to work with the ground-based measurement community, which greatly enhanced the  
science return of the campaign.

BORTAS has four major elements: Canadian ground-based network, BAe-146 Atmospheric Re-  
search Aircraft (ARA), satellite observations, and the computer modelling of atmospheric chemistry  
140 and transport, all of which contribute to the science objectives of the campaign and are discussed in  
detail below.

BORTAS was originally planned for Summer 2010 but the BAe-146 ARA was grounded for civil  
contingency flying associated with the dispersal of volcanic aerosol from the eruption of Eyjafjal-  
lajökull (Dacre et al., 2012). We decided to run the campaign as planned (12th July –3rd August,

2010) but without the ARA, providing an important dry-run for the modelling and ground-based measurement teams; we hereinafter refer to this as Phase A of the campaign (BORTAS-A). Deployment of the ARA in 2011 during 12th July–3rd August is Phase B of BORTAS (BORTAS-B) and is the main subject of this paper.

## 2.1 Fire Activity

Figure 2 shows the time and location of active fires over the Northern Hemisphere during Phases A and B of BORTAS. In many respects, the number and distribution of July fires over high northern latitudes during 2010 were closer to the decadal mean than 2011 with the exception of fire activity over Russia. During 2011 there was substantially less burning over Chukotka and Kamchatka federal subjects of Russia. Fires over Canada during BORTAS-B were comparatively early, with large wildfires near Richardson Backcountry and Slave Lake, Alberta, starting in May, which removed some of the combustible material in that area that would have typically burned later in the summer (see 2010 vs 2011). BORTAS-B was largely characterized by a small number of large near-field fires over Northwestern Ontario which started and completed during the campaign and substantial far-field fires from boreal Asia. Tree species over this region includes pine (*Pinus banksiana*, *Pinus resinosa*, *Pinus strobus*), spruce (*Picea glauca*, *Picea mariana*), poplar (*Populus balsamifera*), aspen (*Populus grandidentata*, *Populus tremuloides*), maple (*Acer rubrum*), fir (*Abies balsamea*), birch (*Betula papyrifera*), ash (*Fraxinus nigra*), and tamarack (*Larix laricina*).

## 2.2 Meteorological Overview for BORTAS-A and BORTAS-B

The climatological flow pattern in the Northern Hemisphere troposphere in summer indicates that pollutants generally follow a west to east flow pattern, often increasing in forward speed as they depart the east coast of North America and head toward the European continent. This feature of transport over the North Atlantic is regulated by the location and strength of the polar vortex and the mid-North Atlantic subtropical high. We present the synoptic meteorology and accompanying atmospheric transport that occurred during the BORTAS-B field intensive and discuss it in context with BORTAS-A and the climatological mean for the same period. Table 1 provides a brief description of the meteorology associated with each BORTAS-B flight.

### Mid-troposphere flow patterns

Figure 3a shows the climatological (1979–1995) mid-tropospheric flow (500 hPa) for North America for the period 15th July–3rd August, which is similar to the first two weeks of July and shows a trough over Hudson Bay across Quebec to Greenland and Iceland. Figure 3d shows that the 2010 flow was similar to the climatological pattern with only weak positive anomalies in height over North America and stronger positive anomalies with ridging off the west coast of Canada and over European Russia and far eastern Siberia and Kamchatka. This is in contrast to the BORTAS-B



period 3g, with strong positive anomalies in geopotential height over the upper Mississippi, the  
180 North Pacific and a dramatic positive height anomaly over Eastern Siberia. A positive anomaly also  
lay over the mid-North Atlantic covering all of Greenland possibly resulting in a more northerly  
route for the North Atlantic transport to the European continent. Labrador and Maritime Canada  
had negative anomalies along with Alaska and British Columbia. The Maritime Canada negative  
anomaly is indicative of the cooler and cloudy weather that occurred during BORTAS-B.

#### 185 **Lower troposphere flow patterns**

Figure 3b shows the climatology mean 850 hPa surface during the BORTAS period. The pattern  
maintains ridging over the NE Pacific, the subtropical anticyclone over the mid North Atlantic, with  
a minor trough from a low in northern Davis Strait to the northern Labrador Sea. Figure 3e shows  
that the anomaly for 2010 has strong positive variation over NE Pacific, weak negative over central  
190 Quebec with an extension to Northwestern Ontario and just South of Newfoundland and East of  
Nova Scotia. Figure 3h shows that for 2011 there are stronger negative anomalies to the Southeast  
of Nova Scotia, south of Sable Island with a trough to Hudson Bay then extending west to northern  
Saskatchewan to the upper Mackenzie Valley to Yukon. A slight positive anomaly lay to the south  
of the Great Lakes again indicative of the surface and upper ridging that favoured the development  
195 of forest fires in Northwestern Ontario.

#### **Surface flow patterns**

Figure 3c shows the climatological mean sea level pattern over North America for the BORTAS  
period, which shows a weak pressure pattern with a few isobars due to continued ridging associated  
with the subtropical anticyclone off the western North Atlantic and the ridge over the Northeast  
200 Pacific, and a low over Baffin Island with a weak trough to the central and western US. Figure 3f  
shows that the anomaly pattern for 2010 has a strong high over the Northeast Pacific off British  
Columbia and a low pressure area south of Newfoundland with a trough to Northwestern Ontario  
then along the tree line to Great Slave Lake, Northwest Territories. Figure 3i shows that a more  
dramatic anomaly pattern in 2011 with lower pressure south of Newfoundland and east of Nova  
205 Scotia, a low on southern Baffin Island and a significant negative anomaly over Yukon and Northwest  
Territories to Northwestern Ontario. A potential result of the pattern for 2011 is that more synoptic  
low pressure systems transited from west to east than is the norm. In summary, the surface synoptic  
pattern for 2011 commenced with an area of high pressure in the earlier portion of the study then  
quickly gave way to the intrusion of frontal troughs, weak low pressure systems and shifts of wind  
210 from the southwest to the west and northwest. A respite from this dynamic pattern occurred on 29th  
July as a short-lived ridge moved across Atlantic Canada.

### 3 BORTAS-B Measurements

#### 3.1 BAe-146 Aircraft Payload and Deployment

The BAe-146 aircraft has an endurance of approximately 5.5 hours with a full science payload (4.2 tons) and has a science speed of 200 knots Calibrated Airspeed (103 m/s CAS), resulting in a standard air range of approximately 2000 km at sea level, increasing to 3,300 km at a typical maximum working standard pressure altitude (sHp) of 30,000 ft (9.1 km); for A-to-A flights with varying altitudes and time on station this typically gave a working radius of about 900 km, and for A-to-B science flights a range of about 1800 km. Table 2 shows the BAe-146 instrument payload during BORTAS-B. The payload reflects the core science objectives of characterizing the chemical processing of pyrogenic airmasses with measurements of total alkyl nitrates, total peroxy nitrates, total NO<sub>y</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and PAN.

Before entering the BORTAS in-theatre domain the aircraft transited from Cranfield UK (where it is based) to Horta, Azores on the 12/7/11; from Horta, Azores to St John's, Newfoundland on the 13/7/11; from St John's, Newfoundland to Halifax on the 13/7/11. Figure 4 shows the 13 non-transit BORTAS-B flights and the location of active ozonesonde launch sites (Table 3) and Along-Track Scanning Radiometer (ATSR) firecounts. With the exception of flight B624 when there was no Light Induced Fluorescence (LIF) NO<sub>y</sub> data, all instruments were operational and reported data for all flights shown. Table 1 summarizes each BORTAS-B flight, including outbound and inbound transit legs; a total of 77 hours, 28 mins, and 33 secs. The BAe-146 spent most of the time sampling in the free troposphere, with more than a third of the time between 6 and 9 km.

#### 3.2 Dalhousie Ground Station (DGS) and Additional Canadian Sites

Wherever possible we coordinated surface measurements with the BORTAS-B aircraft deployment to improve understanding of the transport of pyrogenic plumes as they travelled over Canada. The DGS represents a coordinated measurement activity conducted at a height of 65 m on the roof of the Sir James Dunn building at Dalhousie University (44.64° N, 63.59° W), including investigators from Dalhousie University, Environment Canada, University of Toronto, and University of Sherbrooke. Table 4 summarizes the individual instruments that participated in the DGS activity during BORTAS-B. BORTAS flight B623 explicitly included profile measurements around the DGS. Some of the DGS science activities are briefly discussed below.

The University of Toronto Atmospheric Observatory (TAO), located at 43.66°N, 79.40°W and 174 m a.s.l. on the 16th floor of the Burton Tower of the McLennan Physical Laboratories in downtown Toronto, including in particular an ABB Bomem DA8 FTIR Spectrometer (Wiacek et al., 2007) similar to the instrument housed at Dalhousie University. Work within BORTAS-B led by DGS investigators have found instances where pyrogenic plume pass over both the TAO and DGS, providing an opportunity to study the chemical evolution of a plume (Griffin et al., 2012; Franklin et al., 2012).



We worked closely with Environment Canada to coordinate additional launches of ozonesondes that could help characterize the vertical distribution of  $O_3$  associated with pyrogenic plumes. Table 3 shows the key launch sites during BORTAS-B; for interest Table 3 also shows the corresponding launches for 2010 which were supporting another measurement intensive to understand stratosphere-troposphere exchange (Bourqui et al., 2012). The 2010 ozonesonde data were used to help evaluate the GEOS-Chem atmospheric chemistry transport model (Parrington et al., 2012) as part of modelling activities supporting BORTAS-B.

BORTAS investigators also used data from the Canadian Operational Research Aerosol Lidar Network (CORALNet) led by Environment Canada (Strawbridge, 2012) with sites at Egbert (Ontario), Sherbrooke (Quebec) and Acadia (Nova Scotia). These sites were chosen to monitor transport events as well as investigate regional air quality issues. For further information about the Lidar technology the reader is referred to Strawbridge (2012)

### 3.3 Pico Atmospheric Observatory

The Pico Mountain station (also known as PICO-NARE) is located in the Azores, Portugal ( $38^\circ 28.226''$  N,  $28^\circ 24.235''$  W, 2225 m a.s.l.). Its geographical location makes it ideal to study the long-range free-tropospheric transport of pyrogenic plumes from boreal North America (Honrath et al., 2004), and provides us with opportunity to study aged plumes after they have travelled partway across the North Atlantic. Table 5 shows the measurements taken during BORTAS phase A and B. As part of the outbound and inbound transit flights the BAe-146 ARA encircled PICO-NARE in an attempt to cross-calibrate similar measurements.

Figure 5 shows a typical FLEXPART “retroplume” during July 2011 when elevated CO at Pico was attributed to biomass burning. We only include a brief description of this calculation here, referring the reader to Honrath et al. (2008) for a detailed discussion. Each retroplume represents the mean of the backward transport of thousands of individual particles, with each particle affected by convection, dispersion and advection. The plume calculation, driven by  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  ECMWF meteorology, is initialized every three hours centred on Pico station over the altitude 2–2.5 km above sea level. The residence times of the particles were normalized by the air density in each cell to account for difference in air density along the back trajectories to yield the specific volume weighted residence time (SVWRT). The SVWRT was convolved with time-dependent emission inventories for anthropogenic (Olivier and Berdowski, 2001) and burning biomass (Mu et al., 2011) CO sources. Values reported in Figure 5 represent the residence time, scaled by the maximum value in the meridional direction and vertically integrated, such that a non-dispersive plume could be 100% from the point of emission to the receptor location. During July 2011 the atmospheric flow over the BORTAS-B region was such that variations of CO at Pico from Canadian pyrogenic sources were not as prominent as previous years.

### 3.4 Satellite Observations

Validating space-borne observations associated with wildfires was a core science objective of BORTAS-B, allowing us to relate the relatively small-scale data from the BAe-146 aircraft to larger spatial  
285 scales and longer temporal scales. During the campaign near-real time satellite data were used to inform deployment of the BAe-146 aircraft.

We used near-real time measurements from the Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric Sounding (MIPAS) (Fischer et al., 2008) aboard the Envisat satellite and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) (Clerbaux et al., 2009) aboard the MetOp satellite to help us  
290 intercept pyrogenic plumes with the aircraft during BORTAS-B. MIPAS measures atmospheric limb emission spectra  $14.5\text{--}4.1\mu\text{m}$  at a spectral resolution of  $0.0625\text{ cm}^{-1}$  since January 2005 over a tangent altitude range 6–68 km and is in a polar sun-synchronous orbit with a local solar time of 10:00 and a 35-day repeat cycle. MIPAS observations were specially planned to coincide with BORTAS-B flights. IASI uses an infrared Fourier Transform (FTIR) spectrometer to measure spec-  
295 tra  $15.5\text{--}3.62\mu\text{m}$  at a spectral resolution of  $0.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and is in a polar sun-synchronous orbit with a local solar time of 09:30 and a 29-day repeat cycle. We used MIPAS products developed by the University of Leicester, including CO, PAN, acetylene, formic acid, ethane, and acetone (Moore and Remedios, 2010; Parker et al., 2010; Moore et al., 2012; Illingworth et al., 2011), which have been shown previously to be markers of wildfires (Alvarado et al., 2010). The IASI near-real-time CO  
300 data product was provided by C. Clerbaux (CNRS/INSU, LATMOS-IPSL, Paris, France) and P.-F. Coheur (Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium) (Clerbaux et al., 2009; George et al., 2009). We also used IASI products developed by the University of Leicester, including CO, formic acid, and acetylene, with detection products for these compounds and also ethene, ammonia, and HCN. Figure 6 shows an example of how these detection products were used in BORTAS-B to un-  
305 derstand the spatial extent of biomass burning plumes. The data show a distinct CO plume over eastern Canada on 19th July 2011, derived from the difference in brightness temperature between  $5\mu\text{m}$  and  $10\mu\text{m}$ , which also corresponds to elevated concentrations of formic acid.

We also used data from the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment (ACE) (Bernath et al., 2005; Tereszchuk et al., 2011) which is a high-resolution FTIR spectrometer that measures spectra 750 to  
310  $4400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with a resolution of  $0.02\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . ACE aboard SCISAT-1, which is in a  $74^\circ$  inclination circular orbit, can measure up to 30 sunrise and sunset occultations per day with a vertical resolution of 2–3 km from 150–5 km in cloud-free scenes. A number of trace gases are retrieved from the ACE spectra that are elevated in wildfires e.g., CO, acetonitrile, formic acid, formaldehyde, acetylene, ethane, methanol (Tereszchuk et al., 2011, 2012). Figure 7 shows IASI total column CO for 2/8/11,  
315 with a black symbol superimposed denoting the location of an ACE occultation profile from which we show a profile of HCN and PAN down to 7 km. Both PAN and HCN show elevated concentrations suggesting this enhancement is due to the biomass burning outflow shown by IASI.

In collaboration with colleagues at the NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory we requested special

“step-and-stare” observations from the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) (Beer et al., 2001) aboard the Aura spacecraft with a repeat cycle of 16 days. TES is a high-resolution imaging FTIR spectrometer that observed spectral radiance in the range 650–3050  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  at a resolution of 0.1  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . It has an instrument field-of-view at the surface of  $8 \times 5 \text{ km}^2$ . Data from this instrument has been used previously to study boreal wildfires over Siberia (Verma et al., 2009) and Canada (Alvarado et al., 2010). The BORTAS-B step-and-stare TES observations effectively increased the spatial density of measurements over eastern Canada during BORTAS-B and subsequently increased the number of coincident profile measurements.

Figure 8 shows a comparison between an  $\text{O}_3$  profile measured from the BAe-146 during its descent into Thunder Bay airport, Ontario on 26th July 2011 and a colocated  $\text{O}_3$  profile retrieved by TES on the same date separated by approximately 30 km and 4 hours. Figure 8a shows the raw 1-second aircraft  $\text{O}_3$  measurement, the TES retrieval and its prior, and the aircraft profile smoothed by the TES averaging kernels. The prior for the TES  $\text{O}_3$  retrieval has been scaled to the aircraft profile, and the retrieved  $\text{O}_3$  profile has been adjusted to this scaled prior, following Kulawik et al. (2008); Rodgers and Connor (2003). The aircraft profile was smoothed with the TES averaging kernels by (i) removing repeat measurements at the same vertical level, (ii) appending the scaled prior to extend it into the stratosphere, and (iii) interpolating it to the TES vertical pressure grid. Figure 8b shows the averaging kernels for the retrieved  $\text{O}_3$  profile. The  $\text{O}_3$  profile measured from the BAe-146 showed relatively low (20–40 ppb) mixing ratios between the surface and 750 hPa with a relatively thick layer of enhanced  $\text{O}_3$  extending from 700 to 400 hPa with mixing ratios of 50–80 ppb. The prior profile used in the TES retrieval was scaled to match the  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratio measured from the aircraft at the highest pressure level (approximately 350 hPa). Between the surface and this pressure level the scaled prior is representative of background tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratios (red dotted line in Figure 8a). The TES  $\text{O}_3$  profile (red solid line in Figure 8a) showed a similar vertical distribution to the aircraft profile with mixing ratios of 20–40 ppb below 750 hPa, similar to the prior, increasing to approximately 60 ppb at 400 hPa. The averaging kernels in Figure 8b indicate that this retrieval was not sensitive to  $\text{O}_3$  at the lowest pressure levels of the profile but was sensitive to the pressure levels with the observed  $\text{O}_3$  enhancement. At higher pressure levels (lower altitudes), the TES profile showed good agreement with the raw aircraft measurements. Comparison against the aircraft profile smoothed with the TES averaging kernels, however, indicated that the TES retrieval overestimated the  $\text{O}_3$  profile in the middle troposphere by up to 20 ppb.

### 3.5 Model and Data Forecast Products

The main forecasting products for BORTAS-B included 1) NASA GEOS-5 (Global Earth Observing System) forecasts of carbon monoxide emitted boreal biomass burning (latitudes  $>50^\circ$ ), in collaboration with Global Modelling and Assimilation Office at NASA Goddard; and 2) Environment Canada meteorological forecasts together with operational output from the air quality model GEM-

355 MACH (Global Environmental Multi-scale-Modelling Air quality and CHemistry). We also used forecasts from the UK Meteorological Office and the European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts, and used the HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Draxler, 1999) to locate the origin of plumes observed by the aircraft.

As part of the deployment planning we used near-real time fire data from: 1) Natural Resources  
360 Canada [http://cwfis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/en\\_CA/fwmaps/fdr](http://cwfis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/en_CA/fwmaps/fdr); 2) emission data from the Fire Locating And Monitoring of Burning Emissions (FLAMBE) which incorporates fire data from geostationary and polar orbiting satellite (Reid et al., 2009); and 3) fire products from the NASA Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instruments from the Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS) via the NASA Earth Observing System Data and Information Service. This  
365 information is independent to the Quick Fire Emission Dataset (QFED) developed by NASA and used by the GEOS-5 CO forecasts (Rienecker et al., 2008; Ott et al., 2011). CO total column and profile data from IASI (described above), available <3 hours after measurements, was also used for plume tracking and flight planning during BORTAS.

#### 4 First results and science overview

370 The BORTAS-B airborne campaign delivered a rich dataset to better understand chemistry in biomass burning plumes, partly serendipitously because of the timing and location of fires over Northwestern Ontario during our Halifax-based deployment. We are still in the early stages of interpreting these data but our results have already revealed new insights, some of which we briefly describe here and refer the reader to dedicated papers.

375 Intercepting pyrogenic plumes is non-trivial but we found that GEOS-5 CO fields reliably forecasted the general spatial distribution of the plumes, allowing us to accordingly deploy the BAe-146. Figure 9 shows the GEOS-5 CO forecast for B624 on the 21st July 2011, which showed pyrogenic plumes in the mid-lower troposphere over Newfoundland Island and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The flight pattern was designed to maximize time within the plume and explore the vertical dimension.  
380 These aircraft observations serve to illustrate the rapid horizontal and vertical gradients associated with the plume. Figure 10 shows that these plumes indeed travel as thin, coherent filaments with a vertical dimension of the order of 100 m, in agreement with previous studies, reflecting possibly vertical wind shear where the material was first lofted into the atmosphere. As part of BORTAS we are parameterizing time-dependent forecast skill of the GEOS-5 CO fields using optical flow methods  
385 (Keil and Craig, 2009), which is the subject of an upcoming paper (Matthiesen et al., 2012). Associated with these filamental structures were rapid gradients in O<sub>3</sub> across the plume boundaries, in agreement with previous studies of near-field powerplant plumes that showed a non-linear response to levels of NO<sub>x</sub> (Ryerson et al., 2001).

For BORTAS science studies we have collectively chosen to use CO, with some combination of

390 biomass burning tracers acetonitrile ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ ) and hydrogen cyanide ( $\text{HCN}$ ), to identify biomass-  
burning plumes. By virtue of the primary science objective of BORTAS, the resulting airborne data  
are biased to biomass burning plumes so that we cannot use the mean statistics of these data to  
identify plumes, an approach adopted by other campaigns. Instead, we have used measurements  
395 concentrations representative of the background atmosphere: mean and median values were lower than  
those derived from all the data, and there was no significant statistical relationship between CO and  
 $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ . Even in the background atmosphere, we expect a distribution of trace gas concentrations.  
Here, we define a plume that has a value greater than the 99th percentile ( $\simeq \text{mean} + 3$  standard de-  
viations) of the B625 data. For CO,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ , and HCN these 99th percentile threshold values are  
400 148 ppb ( $n=237$ ), 150 ppt ( $n=236$ ), and 122 ppt ( $n=118$ ), respectively. Combining these constraints  
will improve the confidence of identifying a plume. This admittedly crude statistical analysis helps  
to justify our method of plume identification and provides a definition for all subsequent BORTAS  
science studies.

Figure 11 shows significant contributions of total CO from biomass burning regions during the  
405 BORTAS-B period, as depicted by the tagged version of the GEOS-Chem global 3-D model (Par-  
rington et al., 2012). The model is driven by uncorrected FLAMBE biomass burning emission  
estimates, which are known to have a positive bias. At the surface over eastern Canada, where  
BORTAS-B took place, the largest contribution to CO is from Siberia (as it is indeed for the rest of  
the Northern hemisphere), with substantial contributions from East and West Canada and the South-  
410 west and Eastern United States. In the free troposphere, where the aircraft spent most of its time,  
the background is dominated by Siberian burning with near-field variations also from East and West  
Canada. Particularly strong Siberian burning episodes were observed on 28th July using IASI CO  
data, although enhanced CO amounts were detected over this region throughout the BORTAS-B pe-  
riod. A more detailed treatment of the emission and transport of biomass burning emission will the  
415 subject of a future study.

Emissions from open biomass burning (i.e., incomplete combustion) still represent largely  $\text{CO}_2$   
and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  but also include CO and a suite of organic compounds. The relative abundance of these  
organic species depends on the phase of the fire (flaming or smouldering). The co-emission of these  
organic compounds along with CO has been reported extensively and the correlation of these with  
420 CO and with dry mass of biomass burnt has been used to derive emission ratios (ER) and emission  
factors (EF); see for example Andreae and Merlet (2001). During BORTAS-B we determined a wide  
range of emission ratios for organic compounds (expressed as ppt[NMHC] per ppb[CO]) using data  
from whole air samples analysed on the ground using GC-FID and in flight for selected species us-  
ing PTR-MS. Derived ER values during BORTAS-B (Lewis et al., 2012) agreed very well for many  
425 species with earlier experiments over a similar geographic region (Simpson et al., 2011), providing  
confidence in subsequent analysis involving the scaling-up of these measurements using CO fire

emission estimates and a global 3-D chemistry transport model. In particular, the BORTAS-B ERs have been used to determine the extent to which biomass burning contributes to the global distribution of species such as benzene, ethene, propene and toluene, which are traditionally thought of as  
 430 mainly anthropogenic tracer whose regulation has seen a continued decline in developed countries. Analysis using the GEOS-Chem chemistry transport model shows that in many remote locations biomass burning can be the dominant hydrocarbon source (Lewis et al., 2012).

Pyrogenic emissions of many simple non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) and small oxygenated compounds such as methanol and acetone are now well established but larger polar and semi-volatile  
 435 species are less well characterized. These species have lower vapour pressures than simple non-methane hydrocarbons so that if they transported under cool free troposphere conditions they can partition to the aerosol phase. Laboratory studies (e.g., Christian et al. (2004)), and near-field measurements (e.g., Yokelson et al. (2008)) of forest burning biomass show that a range of higher carbonyl compounds are released and there is some evidence of enhanced emissions of monoterpenes and longer chain aliphatic compounds. However, detection of these compounds in the field,  
 440 and in particular in plumes undergoing long-range transport, is analytically difficult. They are often not amenable to sampling and storage in whole air sampling canisters because of wall and O<sub>3</sub> losses, and the complexity of isomers makes PTR-MS an unsuitable technique for individual speciation. BORTAS-B provided the first flight opportunities for a fast response in-flight GC-MS designed  
 445 specifically for C<sub>5</sub>-C<sub>12</sub> VOCs including oxygenated compounds and monoterpenes. Intercepted boreal biomass burning plumes in the mid-troposphere showed that species such as furfural, benzaldehyde, benzonitrile, acetophenone and benzoic acid were present in significant abundances and that downwind fire plumes also showed elevated higher hydrocarbons such as naphthalene and monoterpenes including alpha pinene, camphene, beta-pinene, 3-carene limonene and eucalyptol. ERs for  
 450 these species from aged plumes have been determined and their phase partitioning estimated for a range of plume temperatures. The addition of an in-flight GC-MS to BORTAS-B also provided additional discrimination to PTR-MS data, in particular providing a quantitative measurement of the relative abundance of furan and isoprene species that give a combined response by PTR-MS and which vary greatly as forest-influenced airmasses from burnt and unburnt regions are encountered.  
 455 These data are reported in greater detail by Purvis et al. (2012).

The ozone photochemistry associated with alkyl nitrates ( $\sum \text{ANs}$ ,  $\sum \text{RONO}_2$ ) and peroxy nitrates ( $\sum \text{PNs}$ ,  $\sum \text{RO}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) is described in section 1. The Thermal Dissociation Laser Induced Fluorescence (TD-LIF) system (Dari-Salisburgo et al., 2008; Di Carlo et al., 2012) observed NO<sub>2</sub>,  $\sum \text{PNs}$ ,  $\sum \text{ANs}$  and NO<sub>y</sub> on the BAe-146 aircraft during BORTAS (Table 2). Analysis of simultaneous ob  
 460 servations of  $\sum \text{ANs}$ , CO, O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> during BORTAS showed that  $\sum \text{AN}$  formation suppresses O<sub>3</sub> production at the rate of  $\leq 10 \text{ O}_x (= \text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$  per  $\sum \text{ANs}$ . In plumes where CO and CH<sub>4</sub> are the main precursor of O<sub>x</sub> formation, we observe a productive rate of  $> 100 \text{ O}_x$  per  $\sum \text{ANs}$ . Ongoing analysis will improve the separation of pyrogenic plumes to understand the role of  $\sum \text{ANs}$  during



the evolution of forest fire plumes. BORTAS included several profiles from the ground to upper tro-  
 465 posphere and showed a factor of five increase of  $\sum$ PNs in airmasses affected by wildfire emissions  
 compared to ambient air. Based on coincident measurements of  $\text{NO}_2$  we found that approximately  
 40% of the initial  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from the fires are converted within a few hour to PAN, in agreement  
 with analysis of ARCTAS-B data (Alvarado et al., 2010).

Ozone photochemistry in boreal biomass burning plumes was evaluated using measurements of  
 470 NMHCs and  $\text{NO}_y$  species made from the BAe-146 with different instruments. The observed  $\text{O}_3$   
 distribution in pyrogenic outflow, identified using tracers such as CO, and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ , during the cam-  
 paign showed no distinguishable difference to the observed distribution in clean air. At the highest  
 values of CO ( $>300$  ppb)  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratios were observed in a relatively narrow range between  
 approximately 40 and 60 ppb. Photochemical processes influencing the  $\text{O}_3$  distribution in boreal  
 475 biomass burning plumes were evaluated through photochemical age calculations using ratios of dif-  
 ferent alkanes assuming a common sink of oxidation by OH (Parrish et al., 2007)) and comparison  
 of the observed  $\text{O}_3$  distribution relative to total alkyl nitrates and the surrogate species  $\text{NO}_z$  ( $= \text{NO}_y$   
 minus  $\text{NO}_x$ , the sum of  $\text{NO}_x$  oxidation products) (Olszyna et al., 1994; Rickard et al., 2002), rep-  
 resenting the conversion of  $\text{NO}_x$  into  $\text{O}_3$  (Parrington et al., 2013). Photochemical ages, calculated  
 480 relative to initial mixing ratios derived from research flight B626 over Northwestern Ontario, pro-  
 duced values of between 2–3 days aging for the strongest plumes ( $\text{CO} > 300$  ppb) encountered in  
 the lower troposphere earlier in the campaign (i.e. flights B622-B624) and 6–7 days for plume air  
 that was encountered at higher altitudes later in the campaign (i.e. flights B628-B630); Table 6 re-  
 ports the range of photochemical ages of pyrogenic plumes for each flight. Graphical comparison  
 485 of the  $\text{O}_3$  distribution to that of the alkyl nitrates and  $\text{NO}_z$  revealed clear ‘L-shape’ patterns with  
 higher values of alkyl nitrates/ $\text{NO}_z$  at lower values of  $\text{O}_3$ , and lower values of alkyl nitrates/ $\text{NO}_z$   
 at higher  $\text{O}_3$ . The two branches of these ‘L-shape’ patterns revealed a clear distinction between  
 measurements with different characteristics: 1) high measurements of alkyl nitrates/ $\text{NO}_z$  and lower  
 $\text{O}_3$  were typically made at lower altitudes (below 5 km) with higher values of black carbon counts  
 490 (greater than 20) and at higher relative humidity (greater than 80%); and 2) low alkyl nitrates/ $\text{NO}_z$   
 and high  $\text{O}_3$  measurements were typically made at higher altitudes, with lower black carbon ( $<20$ ),  
 and low relative humidity ( $<80\%$ ). Further comparison of the  $\text{O}_3$  forming potential, calculated from  
 the ratio of  $\text{O}_3:\text{NO}_z$ , to measured  $\text{NO}_x$  mixing ratios indicated that BORTAS measurements were  
 made under different chemical regimes. Lower values of  $\text{O}_3$  production efficiency (less than 150 ppb  
 495  $\text{O}_3/\text{ppb NO}_z$ ) show a larger range of  $\text{NO}_x$  mixing ratios (0.05-1.0 ppb) indicative of a VOC-limited  
 regime, and higher values (greater than 150 ppb  $\text{O}_3/\text{ppbNO}_z$ ) show a narrower range of  $\text{NO}_x$  mixing  
 ratios (0.0-0.2 ppb) indicative of a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime. This work is reported by Parrington et al.  
 (2013).

Source attribution of observed variations in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at the DGS was achieved using a combination  
 500 of statistical data analysis and atmospheric transport modelling. During the BORTAS-B period 45

consecutive days of filter samples were collected at the DGS, the analysis from which was combined with continuous measurements of black carbon (BC) and organic carbon (OC) (Table 4). The US EPA Positive Matrix Factorization v3.0 (PMF) receptor model (Paatero and Trapper, 1994) was used to determine the source contribution of boreal forest fire aerosol to the total surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration in Halifax (Song et al., 2001; Larson et al., 2004). The identification of the boreal forest fire source factor within PMF was characterized by the simultaneous increase in the chemical markers potassium and BC and corresponding decreases in other source markers, e.g. secondary ions, surficial material, sea salt, ship and vehicle emissions (C.-H. et al., 2008; Ward et al., 2012). The identified boreal forest fire source factor was also found to be coincident with FLEXPART and HYSPLIT back trajectories from known boreal forest fire source regions and with corresponding elevated surface CO concentrations predicted using the GEOS-Chem model. Measurements from the Raman LiDAR and from the BAe-146 that provided further evidence for boreal forest fire aerosol contributing to surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration in Halifax (Gibson et al., 2012).

Describing the observed photochemistry using a hierarchy of chemical mechanisms, a core objective of BORTAS, allows us to investigate the uncertainties in our understanding O<sub>3</sub> production and loss within the biomass burning outflow and to quantify the resulting perturbation to tropospheric chemistry over the western boundary of the North Atlantic. Here, we used v3.2 of the MCM (<http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM>), a near-explicit chemical mechanism describing the detailed gas-phase degradation of a series of primary emitted VOCs (Saunders et al., 2003), which contains 143 primary emitted VOCs, 6,700 species involved in 17,000 reactions. We also used a reduced chemical mechanism, the “common representative intermediates” (CRM mechanism) (Jenkin et al., 2008), which is benchmarked against the more comprehensive MCM. The CRI mechanism provides an economical alternative to the MCM that can be applied to global 3-D CTMs such as GEOS-Chem whilst retaining much of the fidelity of the more detailed mechanism. The CRI mechanism contains a series of generic intermediate radicals and products (based on the O<sub>3</sub> creation potential for a given VOC) each of which is able to represent a larger set of species in the MCM. These generic intermediates mediate the breakdown of larger VOCs into smaller fragments, the chemistry of which is treated explicitly. The latest version of the CRI mechanism (v2) contains 442 species and 1191 reactions ( 7% of the full MCM). These mechanisms will be compared against the GEOS-Chem mechanism that is much less detailed than the CRI mechanism. We have used photochemical models that incorporate MCMv3.2 and CRIv2 mechanisms and constrained them with BORTAS aircraft observations to 1) investigate the chemistry controlling O<sub>3</sub> formation and loss and NO<sub>y</sub> speciation along each BORTAS flight track, 2) evaluate the CRI mechanism, and subsequent reduced versions (Watson et al., 2008), and the GEOS-Chem mechanism, against the benchmark MCM, and 3) evaluate the initialization and speciation methodologies applied during the bottom-up model studies (Hays et al., 2002; Simpson et al., 2011). The majority of the calculations using the CRI mechanism reproduce the benchmark MCM calculations over 5–10 days, with most of the photochemical O<sub>3</sub>

formed within the first 12–15 hours of daylight after emission, and capture most of the variation in the aircraft observations. This work is described by Young et al. (2012).

## 540 5 Concluding Remarks

The BORTAS-B experiment during 12th July–3rd August 2011 has delivered a large, diverse, and publicly available dataset that brings together aircraft, ground-based, balloon, and space-borne data associated with the pyrogenic emission and subsequent transport and photochemical aging of associated airmasses over Canada. The timing of the experiment reflects the climatological maximum  
545 of burning over this geographical region. Our choice to base the UK BAe-146-301 Atmospheric Research Aircraft at Halifax, Nova Scotia was because this region was one of the climatological loci of burning outflow over eastern Canada.

We have described the BORTAS experimental objectives and the methods and data we used to address them. We have also included brief descriptions of the Canadian ground station at Dalhousie  
550 University, which included a large suite of measurements to characterize the composition of pyrogenic material at ground level and to investigate trace gases and aerosols above the site, and the Pico Mountain Atmospheric Observatory in the Azores, located in the free troposphere days downwind of North American fires.

During the experiment, in order to help us determine our flight plans we used a combination of  
555 GEOS-5 forecast 3-D fields of CO, near-real time measurements of CO from the IASI satellite, and a range of meteorological products from Environment Canada, ECMWF and the UK Meteorological Office. We found the GEOS-5 forecast fields were generally reliable (without using any quantitative metric) in helping us laterally intercept both near-field and far-field pyrogenic plumes. We found pyrogenic plumes travelled in vertical filaments of the order of 100 m, even far downwind of any  
560 potential source.

The Northwestern Ontario fires, whilst devastating for local communities, provided BORTAS-B an unprecedented opportunity to sample near-field and far-field measurements from the same fires, allowing us to evaluate a variety of models based on our fundamental understanding of atmospheric photochemistry. The high-resolution/frequency measurements aboard the UK BAe-146 in particular  
565 provided a wealth of information about emissions, chemical aging of airmasses, and the subsequent transport of plumes. Some early results, described briefly in this paper, already reveal new insights about plume chemistry.

Synthesis and integration of a wide range of observations/modelling tools is required to look at the effect of biomass burning over a range of temporal and spatial scales. Preliminary analysis of co-  
570 ordinated measurements from space-borne, aircraft, and ground-based sensors and the GEOS-Chem global 3-D atmospheric chemistry transport model is encouraging with similar vertical structure associated with plumes. This level of coordination, while often non-trivial, provides invaluable val-

idation of the satellite data and confidence in our scaling up of aircraft measurements using models and global space-borne data.

Beyond the initial tranche of studies, described here, there is substantial science to be done with these data. In the short term, we want to understand how much error is introduced in, say, our understanding of O<sub>3</sub> production and loss within plumes by systematically simplifying the photochemistry. Within BORTAS-B we are developing a scheme that has been traceably reduced from the Master Chemical Mechanism (Saunders et al., 2003) moving towards the number of reactions that can be supported by a global 3-D chemistry transport model. Also in the short-term we want to understand how these data can improve our quantitative understanding to chemistry on the regional to hemispheric scale. This will be achieved using a data assimilation methodology (e.g., Parrington et al. (2012)) that can effectively extrapolate the detailed information collected during BORTAS-B to the larger domains. In the longer term putting BORTAS-B into context with all similar previous studies using, for example, a consistent modelling framework will result in additional insights into the underlying chemistry associated with the pyrogenic environment.

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Table 1: Synoptic meteorology and associated with BORTAS flights over Canada.

| Flight #, data         | Sortie description                                 | Synoptic Meteorology   |
|------------------------|--|--|
| B618, 12th July, 2011  | Outbound transit 1: Cranfield, UK to Horta, Azores | Low from surface to 500 hPa S of Sable Island. Weak ridge lowest levels over northern Gulf and southern Labrador. (Fig. 3a). Cloud over NS and Prince Edward Island otherwise clear.<br>Weak short wave trough crossing Maritime Canada, cold front crossing Nova Scotia. Weak ridge building into S Labrador. (Fig. 3b). Cloud and precip over Nfld. Showers inland from the N shore of Gulf. Clearing skies for the return flight. |
| B618, 13th July, 2011  | Outbound transit 2: Horta, Azores to St John's, NL |  |
| B619, 13th July, 2011  | Outbound transit 2: St John's, NL to Halifax, NS   |  |
| B620, 15th July, 2011  | Halifax, NS-Quebec, NS-Halifax, NS                 |  |
| B621a, 18th July, 2011 | Halifax, NS-Goose Bay, NL                          | Low from surface to 500 hPa S Ungava Bay. Surface low and frontal wave moving E from mouth of St Lawrence. (Fig. 3c) Flight in warm sector skies mainly clear.   |
| B621b, 18th July, 2011 | Goose Bay, NL - Halifax, NS                        |  |
| B622, 20th July 2011   | Halifax, NS - Quebec City, QC                      | Low from surface to 500 hPa S Ungava Bay. Surface low and frontal wave just N of Anticosti Island and cold front west. (Fig. 3c). Showers and thundershowers along and in advance of front. Aircraft may have encountered showers over PEI.  |
| B623, 20th July, 2011  | Quebec City, QC - Halifax                          |  |
| B624, 21st July, 2011  | Halifax, NS, - St John's, NL - Halifax, NS         | Low from surface to 500 hPa over extreme N Labrador. Cold front from NB to S of NF. Weak low crossing NB late day. (Fig. 3d). Cloud moved into flight zone from the west. Precipitation for return flight from S of NF to Halifax.   |
| B625, 24th July, 2011  | Halifax, NS region                                 | Low from surface to 500 hPa southern Davis Strait with trough to deepening low over NF moving east. (Fig. 3e). Cold front east of NF. Flight path in clear skies.  |
| B626, 26th July, 2011  | Halifax, NS - Thunder Bay, ON                      | Low from surface to 500 hPa over extreme S QC. Ridge surface and aloft over NW ON. (Fig. 3f). Flight in clouds westbound over S QC. Showers likely below flight level. Clear skies in ON.  |
| B626, 26th July, 2011  | Thunder Bay, ON, region                            | As above for flight B626 (Fig. 3f). Clear skies with convective clouds over NW ON. Some showers late in flight period.   |
| B627, 27th July, 2011  | Thunder Bay ON - Goose Bay, NL                     | Weak ridging over Ontario all levels and weak trough Labrador to Maritimes. (Fig. 3g). Cloud moving into western Ontario. Clear over E ON and W QC. Cumulus over central QC and Labrador.  |
| B628a, 28th July, 2011 | Goose Bay, NL, region                              | Weak ridge surface through to 500 hPa central Labrador to NB. (Fig. 3h). Mostly clear for flight route.  |
| B628b, 28th July, 2011 | Goose Bay, NL - Halifax, NS                        | Cumulus and towering cumulus over higher terrain southern Labrador.  |
| B629, 31st July, 2011  | Halifax, NS region                                 | Trough from surface through to 500 hPa along Labrador coast to low centre off south coast NF. Cooler airmass over region. Weak ridge building over NB to W Labrador. (Fig. 3i). Generally clear skies for flight route and level.  |
| B630, 31st July, 2011  | Halifax, NS region                                 | As above for Flight B629 (Fig. 3i).  |
| B631, 2nd August, 2011 | Halifax, NS to Horta, Azores                       | Return transit leg 1.  |
| B631, 3rd August, 2011 | Horta, Azores to Cranfield, UK                     | Return transit leg 2.  |



Table 2: BAe-146 payload during BORTAS.

| Species/<br>parameter  | Method  | Averaging<br>time   | Precision/<br>accuracy  | Reference/<br>affiliation  |
|--|---|---|---|--|
| Position, winds, u, v, w   | INS, GPS, 5-port turbulence probe                           | 0.1 s   | $0.01 \Delta P / P_s$   | FAAM, Petersen and Renfrew (2009)  |
| Relative humidity  | Hygrometer, General Eastern 1011b                           | 4 Hz  | $\pm 0.5$ – $\pm 3$ K dependent on<br>dew point and ambient conditions  | FAAM, Ström et al. (1994)  |
| Temperature  | Rosemount Aerospace Ltd<br>sensor 102 AL                    | 32 Hz   | $\pm 0.3$ K   | FAAM; Lenschow (1986)  |
| CO   | VUV resonance/fluorescence                                  | 1 s   | 1 ppb, 3%   | FAAM, Gerbig et al. (1999).  |
| CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub>  | Cavity enhanced absorption<br>spectrometer                  | 1 sec   | At 1 Hz:<br>2.5 ppb for CH <sub>4</sub> and<br>0.5 ppm for CO <sub>2</sub>  | O'Shea et al. (2012), FAAM   |
| O <sub>3</sub>   | UV absorption   | 3 Hz  | 1 ppb, $\pm 5\%$  | FAAM, Wilson and Birks (2006)  |
| HCN, HCOOH, N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>  | Chemical Ionisation Mass<br>Spectrometer (CIMS)             |   | 26 ppt  | U. Manchester  |
| NO <sub>2</sub> , $\sum RO_2NO_2$ ,<br>$\sum RON_2O_2$ , NO <sub>y</sub>   | Light Induced Fluorescence<br>(LIF)                         | 10 Hz   | 10%, 22%, 34%, and 46%<br>for NO <sub>2</sub> , $\sum PNs$ ,<br>$\sum ANs$ , and NO <sub>y</sub> , respectively           | Dari-Salisburgo et al. (2008)<br>CETEMPS, Department of Physical and<br>Chemical Sciences, University of L'Aquila, Italy |
| C <sub>5</sub> –C <sub>12</sub> VOCs   | GC-MS   | 180 s   | Species dependent<br>typically 10 ppt (20%)   | Purvis et al. (2012)<br>U. York  |
| C <sub>2</sub> –C <sub>7</sub> NMHCs, acetone<br>CH <sub>3</sub> OH  | WAS-GC  | 30 s fill time  | Species dependent<br>typically 1–5 ppt (5%)   | Hopkins et al. (2003)<br>U. York   |
| CH <sub>3</sub> CN, C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>6</sub> O,<br>C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>8</sub> , MVK+MACR,<br>C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>8</sub> O, C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>6</sub> ,<br>C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>8</sub> , C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> | PTR-MS  | 1 s   | 37, 95, 120, 59,<br>61, 45, 109, 148 ppt, respectively.<br>Mean of the precision<br>estimates over all<br>BORTAS flights. | Murphy et al. (2010)   |
| NO, NO <sub>2</sub>  | Chemiluminescence, single-channel<br>Air Quality Design Inc | 10 s  | 10 ppt  | FAAM, Lee et al. (2009); Reidmiller et al. (2010)  |
| PAN  | Dual column GC-ECD  | 90 s  | 3%, 10%   | Whalley et al. (2004)  |
| Non-refractory aerosol<br>composition, 40–700 nm<br>vacuum aerodynamics diameter   | AMS   | LOD <sup>1</sup> :<br>3ng/m <sup>3</sup> for nitrate and sulphate;<br>25ng/m <sup>3</sup> for organics; and<br>30ng/m <sup>3</sup> for ammonium.<br>Precisions same as LOD.<br>Accuracy: 20%. | 15–150 ng/m <sup>3</sup>  | Jayne et al. (2000)  |
| Refractory black carbon,<br>70–520 nm  | SP2   | Accuracy 20%, precision 5% at 5 s<br>average  |   |  |
| jNO <sub>2</sub> , jO <sup>1</sup> D   | Fixed bandwidth radiometry, 0.3–3.0 μm                      | 1 Hz  | 5.5%  | Junkermann et al. (1989); Volz-Thomas et al. (1996)<br>McConnell et al. (2010)   |

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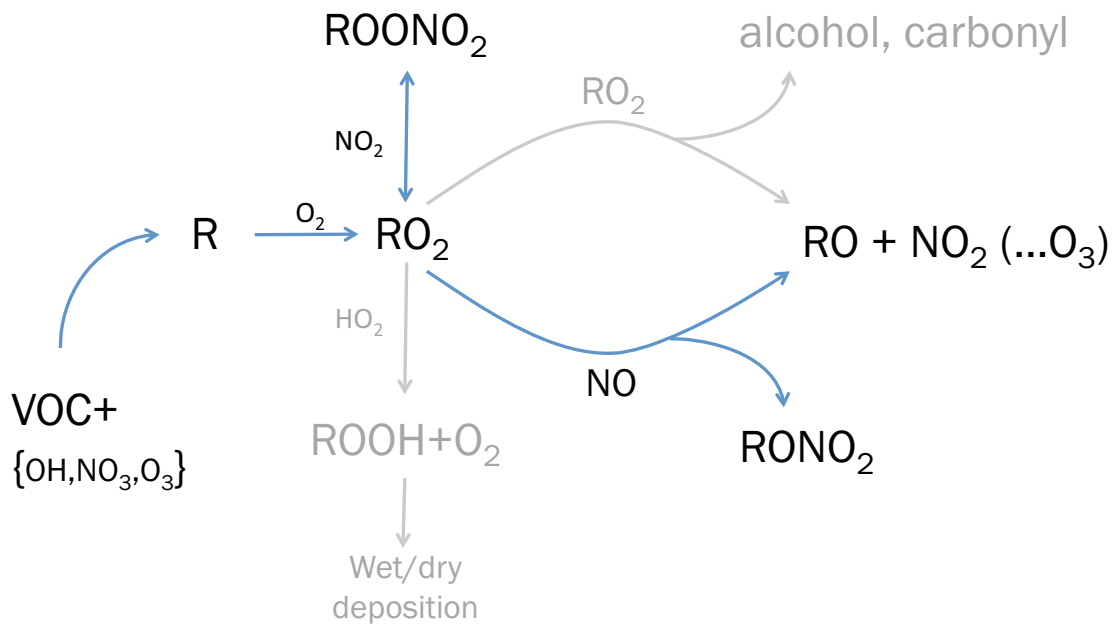


Fig. 1: A schematic of the atmospheric chemical system studied within BORTAS (Atkinson and Arey, 2003)

Table 3: Environment Canada ozonesonde launch sites during BORTAS A (2010) and B (2011).

| Site  | BORTAS-A launches <sup>1</sup> | BORTAS-B launches <sup>2</sup> |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Alert, Nanavut (82°N, 62°W)                   | 1                              | 1                              |
| Bratt's Lake, Saskatchewan (50°N, 105°W)      | 18                             | 20                             |
| Churchill, Manitoba (59°N, 94°W)              | 1                              | -                              |
| Egbert, Ontario (44°N, 80°W)                  | 16                             | 15                             |
| Eureka, Nunavut (80°N, 86°W)                  | 2                              | 2                              |
| Goose Bay, Newfoundland (53°N, 60°W)          | 20                             | 20                             |
| Kelowna, British Columbia (50°N, 119°W)       | 2                              | 2                              |
| Montreal, Quebec (45°N, 73°W)                 | 19                             | -                              |
| Resolute, Nunavut (75°N, 95°W)                | 2                              | 1                              |
| Sable Island, Nova Scotia (44°N, 60°W)        | 19                             | 19                             |
| Stony Plain (Edmonton), Alberta (54°N, 114°W) | 2                              | 2                              |
| Walsingham, Ontario (43°N, 81°W)              | 14                             | -                              |
| Yarmouth, Nova Scotia (44°N, 66°W)            | 19                             | 20                             |

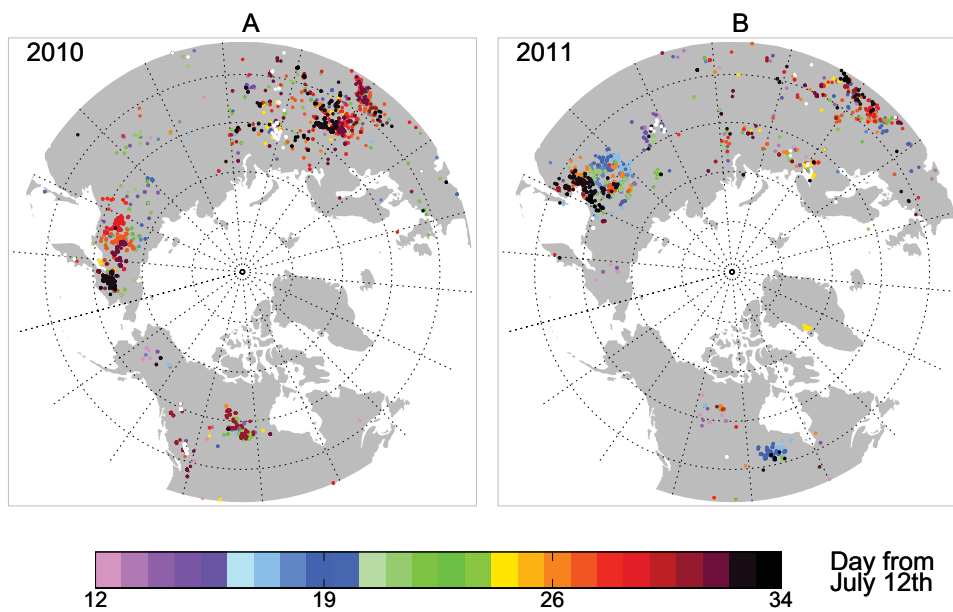


Fig. 2: Time and location of active fires during 12th July–3rd August 2010 (A) and 2011 (B), informed by the ATSR radiance measurements (Mota et al., 2006). The colour denotes the day from 12th July. ATSR firecount data are from ATSR-WFA, from the Data User Element of the European Space Agency.

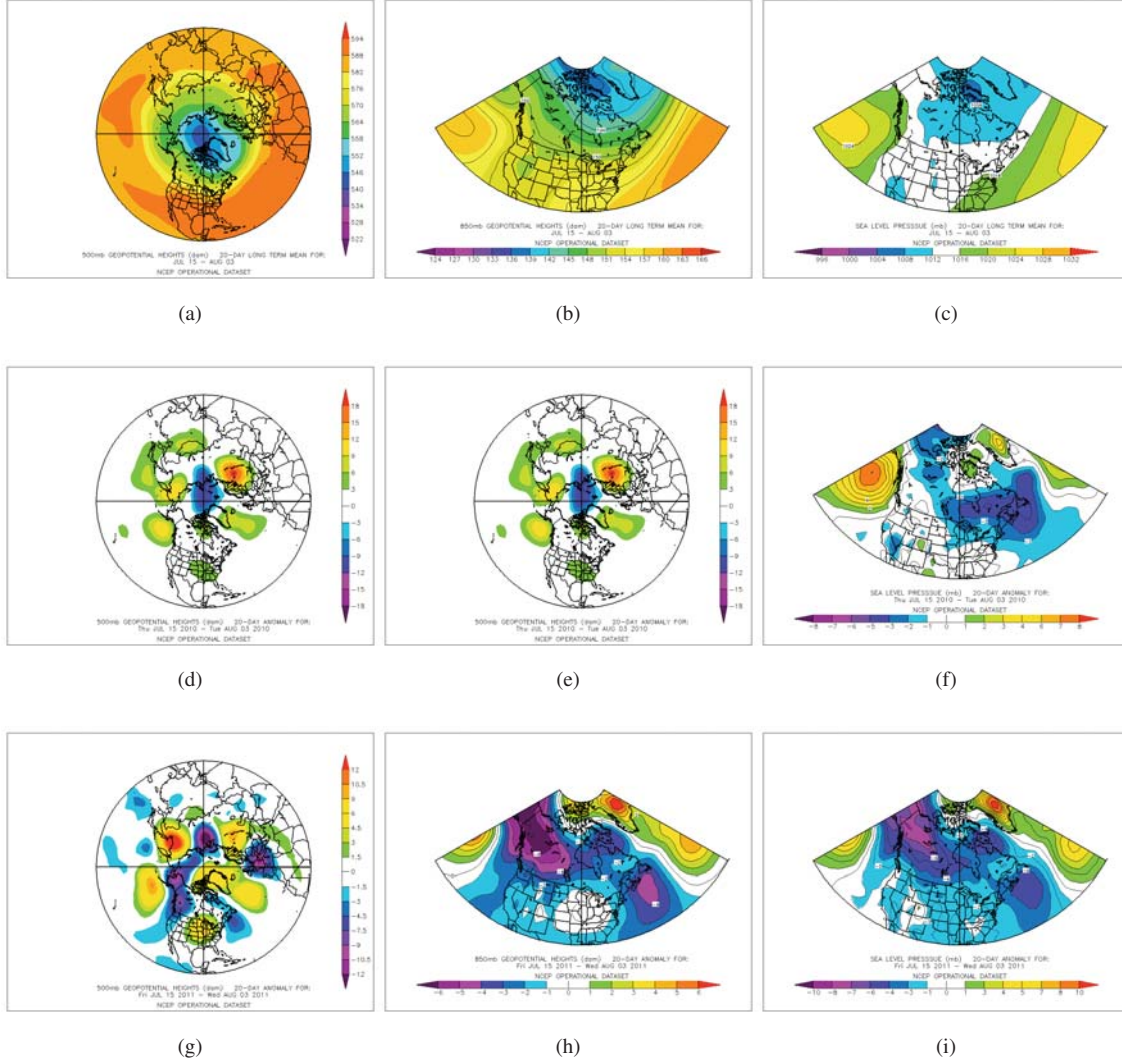


Fig. 3: Climatological mean 500 hPa (a) and 850 hPa (b) geopotential heights (expressed in decameters, dam), and sea level pressure (mb, c) for 15th July–3rd August for the period 1979–1995; and the corresponding departures from those means for 15th July–3rd August, 2010 (d–f) and for 15th July–3rd August, 2011 (g–i). Analyses accessed from the web site of the Earth Systems Research Laboratory (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/histdata/>).

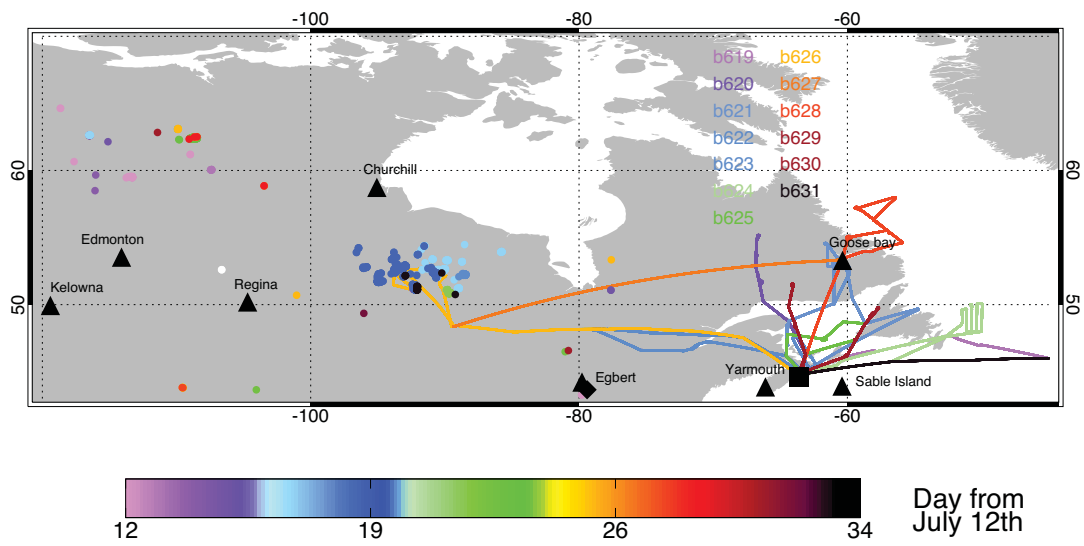


Fig. 4: Flight tracks for BORTAS, excluding inbound/outbound transit flights. Solid upward triangles denote ozonesonde launch sites, and the solid square denotes the Dalhousie ground station. The colour circles denote active burning throughout the BORTAS period. The flights and burning areas use a common colour scale that denote the day since 12th July 2011.

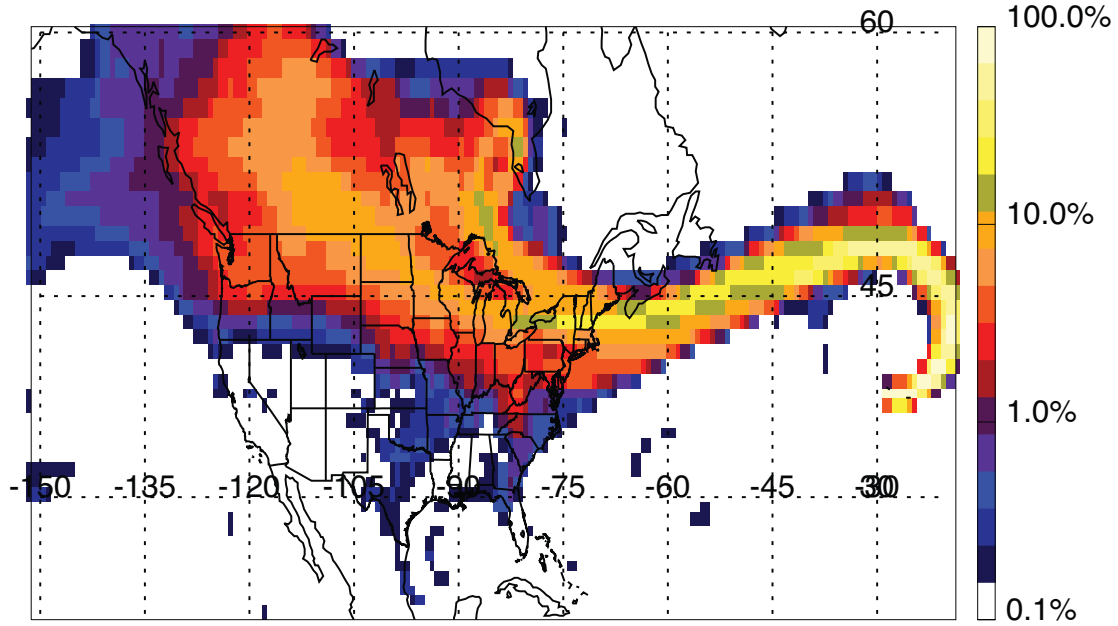


Fig. 5: Results for 13-day retroplumes with release times centered on 2100 UTC from the Pico Atmospheric Observatory between the altitudes of 2–2.5 km above mean sea level on the 24th July 2011. Percentage values reported represent the residence time, scaled by the maximum value in the meridional direction and vertically integrated. The mean altitude of this plume (not shown) was 4 km over the ocean and between 5–6 km over the contiguous US and Canada.

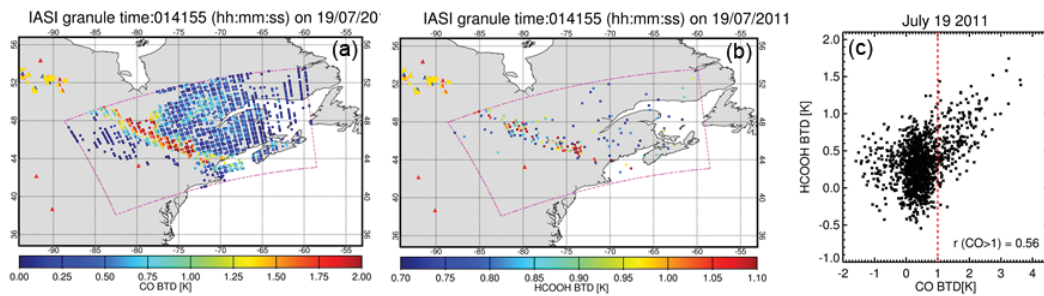


Fig. 6: Brightness temperature difference (BTBD, K) detection of (a) CO and (b) formic acid (HCOOH) enhancements from a single IASI data granule for 19th July 2011. MODIS fire count data are shown as triangles according to detection certainty: high (red), nominal (yellow), and low (blue) confidence. (c) The corresponding scatterplot of CO and HCOOH with the Pearson correlation coefficient  $r$  shown inset.



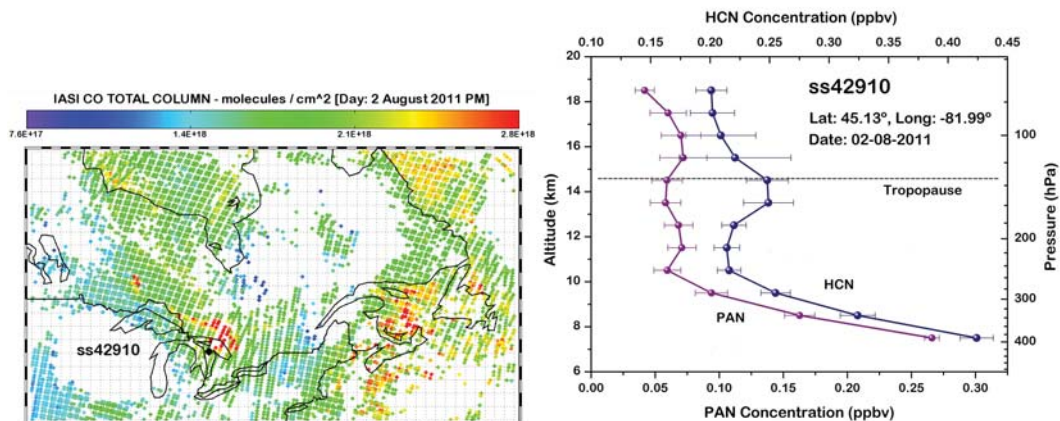


Fig. 7: Left: IASI total column CO (molec/cm<sup>2</sup>) for 2nd August 2011. The black diamond superimposed denotes the position of occultation ss42910 from the ACE space-borne sensor. Right: vertical profiles of HCN (ppb) and PAN (ppb) from ACE during occultation ss42910 (45.13°N, -81.99°W).

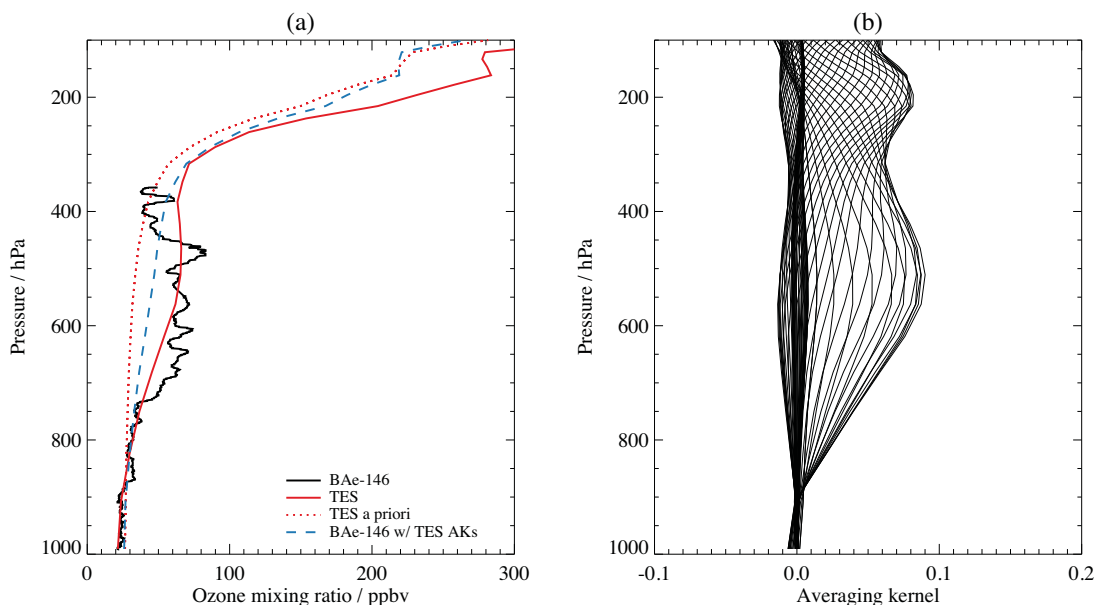


Fig. 8: Ozone profiles measured during a descent of the BAe-146 into Thunder Bay, ON on 26th July 2011. Plot (a) shows the O<sub>3</sub> profile measured from the BAe-146 (solid black line), retrieved from the collocated TES measurements and its prior (solid and dotted red lines, respectively), and the aircraft profile smoothed with the TES averaging kernels. Plot (b) shows the averaging kernels for the TES O<sub>3</sub> profile retrieval.

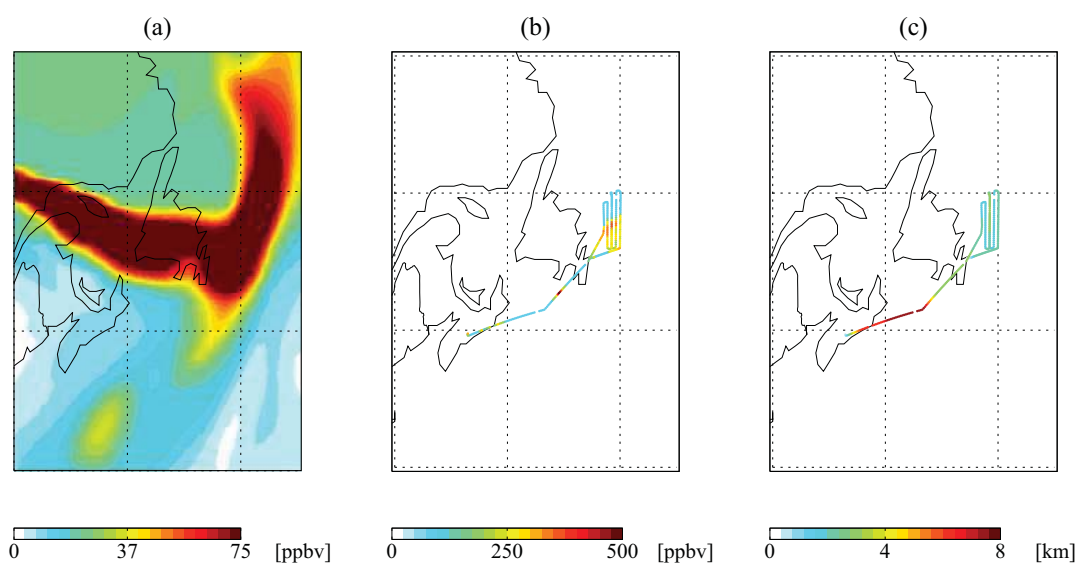


Fig. 9: (a) GEOS-5 model CO concentration (ppb) forecast for 1930Z at 750 hPa (initialized at 00Z on the same day), (b) BAE-146 aircraft CO measurements (ppb) and (c) altitude (km) for flight B624, 21st July 2011.

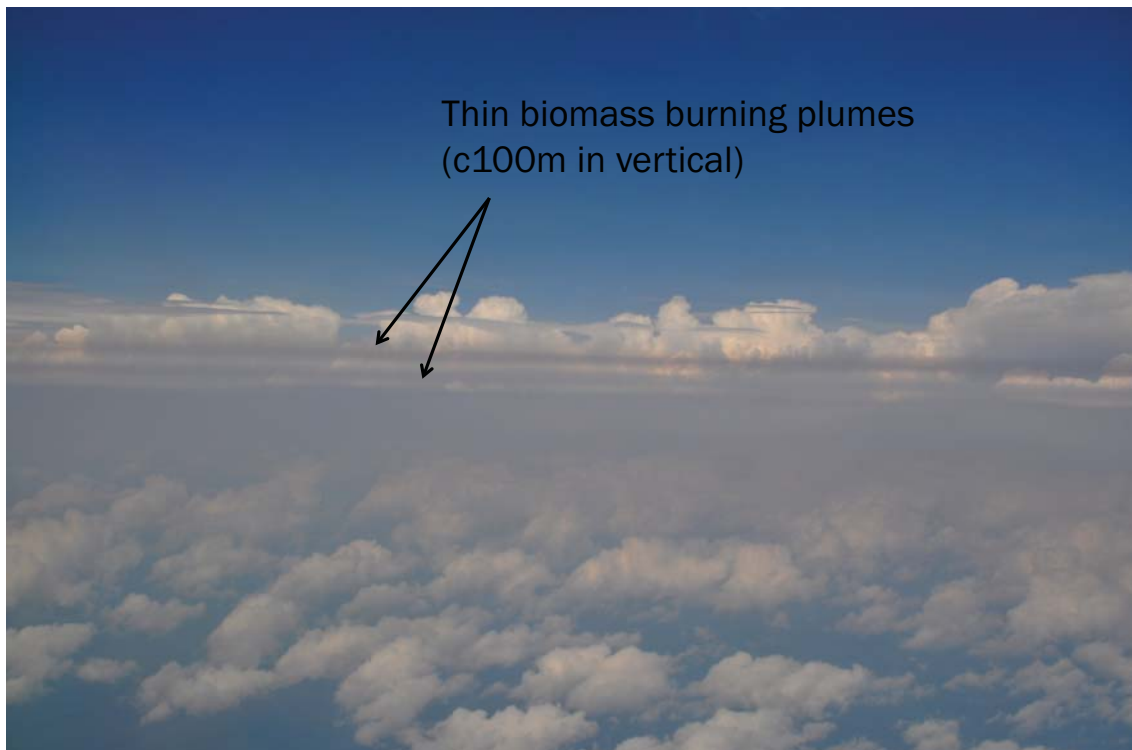


Fig. 10: A photograph (c/o Steve Andrews) from the BAe-146 at c7 km altitude during BORTAS-B (flight B624, 21st July 2011) illustrating the thin filaments of pyrogenic outflow.

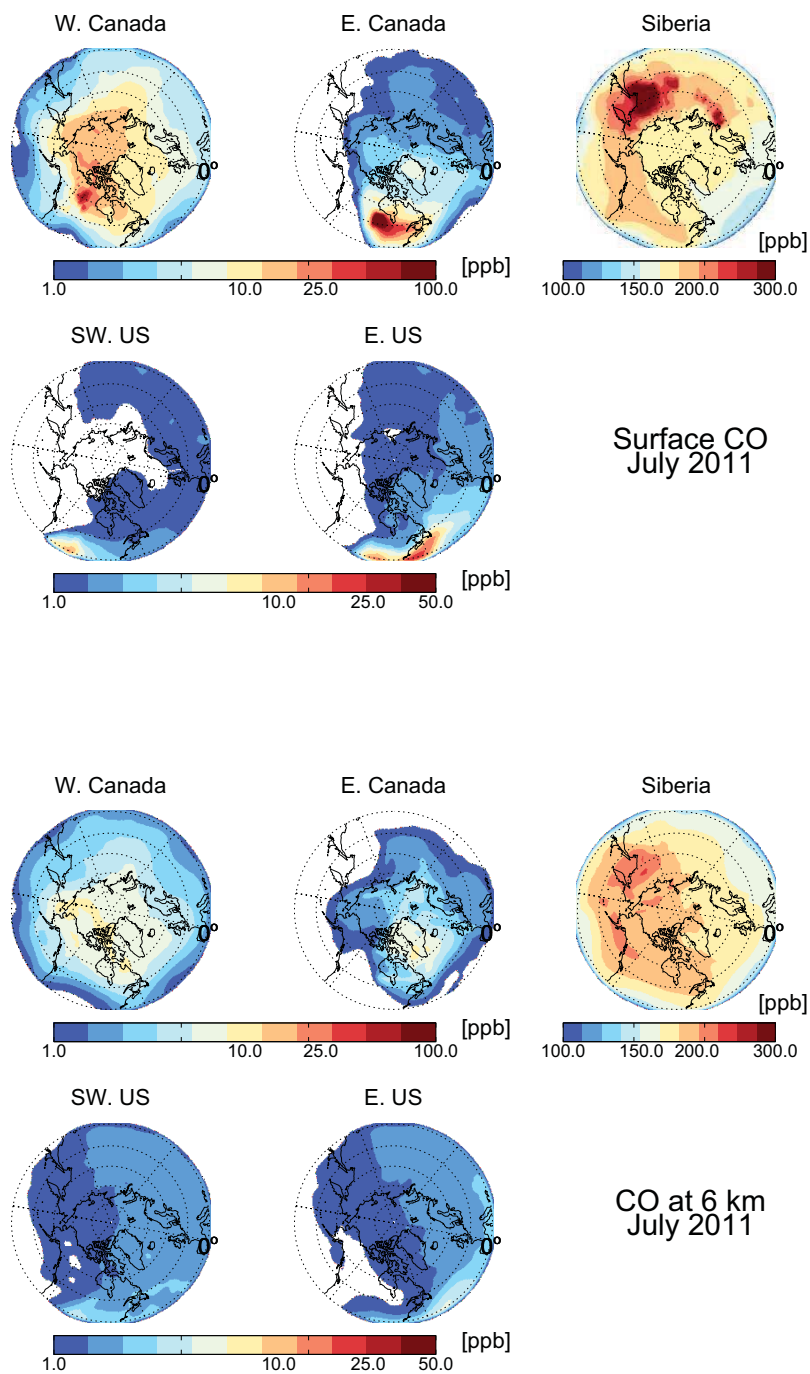


Fig. 11: Monthly mean GEOS-Chem global 3-D chemistry model output for July 2011 that describes pyrogenic contributions to total CO (ppb) from Western Canada, Eastern Canada, Siberia, Southwest contiguous US and Eastern contiguous US. The upper (lower) panel shows CO concentration at the surface (6 km).

Table 4: Ground-based measurements at the Dalhousie Ground Station during BORTAS.

| Parameters  | Instrument  | Reference/Affiliation                      |
|---|---|--|
| Weather station   | Temperature, dewpoint temperature, RH, wind direction and speed, rain amount, barometric pressure   | Environment Canada,                        |
| Profiles of aerosol and cloud extinction  | Raman LiDAR, Nd:YAG laser pulsing at 532 nm at 20 Hz  | Dalhousie University, Bitar et al. (2010)  |
| Partial columns of CO, CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O, C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub> , O <sub>3</sub> | Dalhousie Atmospheric Observatory ABB Bomem DA8 FTIR Spectrometer measuring 750-4300 cm <sup>-1</sup> with a resolution of 0.004 cm <sup>-1</sup> .   | Dalhousie University                       |
| Black carbon  | Two-wavelength Magee AE22 aethalometer  | Dalhousie University, Gibson et al. (2012) |
| PM <sub>2.5</sub> , PM <sub>2.5-10</sub>  | Teflon filter samples using Thermo Partisol 2025-dichotomour sampler. Filters analyzed for mass (gravimetric) and elements (energy dispersive x-ray fluorescence)   | Dalhousie University, Gibson et al. (2009) |
| PM <sub>2.5</sub> anions and cations<br>PM <sub>2.5</sub> organics, wood smoke marks, and OC/Elemental C  | Nylon filter samples using Thermo ChemComb with integrated denuder to prevent positive sulphate artifacts. Nylon filters analyzed by ion chromatograph.   | Dalhousie University, Gibson et al. (2012) |
| Total columns of CO, CH <sub>4</sub> , O <sub>3</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O                                  | Portable Atmospheric Research Interferometric Spectrometer for the Infrared (PARIS-IR) measuring solar absorption spectra in the mid-IR (750-4400 cm <sup>-1</sup> ) at a resolution of 0.02 cm <sup>-1</sup> | University of Toronto, Fu et al. (2007)    |
| Aerosol number concentrations (20-500 nm, over 6 channels)  | TSI 3031 Ultrafine Particle (UFP) Monitor (20-30 nm, 30-50 nm, 50-70 nm, 70-100 nm, 100-200 nm, 200-500 nm)   | Environment Canada,                        |
| Aerosol number concentrations (500 nm-20 μm, over 52 channels)  | TSI 3321 Aerodynamic Particle Size (APS)  | Environment Canada,                        |
| Aerosol ion characterization (10 nm-18 μm, over 12 size ranges)   | MSP Micro-orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor (MOUDI) 100/110NR for sulphate, nitrate, sodium, chloride, ammonium, and pH  | Environment Canada, Marple et al. (1991)   |
| Aerosol speciation (40 nm-1 μm)   | Aerodyne Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) Ammonium, organics, sulphate, nitrate, chloride   | Environment Canada, Ng et al. (2011)       |
| O <sub>3</sub>  | UV photometric analyzer Thermo Scientific 49i   | Environment Canada,                        |
| Aerosol optical thickness   | AERONET Sun Photometer 340, 380, 440, 500, 675, 870, 1020, 1640 nm  | Dalhousie University Holben et al. (1998)  |
| Aerosol optical thickness   | Star photometer (418.3, 449.4, 469.2, 500.1, 532.4, 551.3, 607.6, 641.9, 679.0, 755.1, 783.3, 868.0, 939.9, 950.3, 959.9, 1033.8 and 1048.5 nm)<br>Precision accuracy 0.003 < Δτ < 0.011                      | U. Sherbrooke Leiterer et al. (1995)       |

Table 5: Chemical and physical atmospheric observations at the Pico Mountain Observatory during BORTAS A and B.

| Measurement  | Method/Instrumentation  |
|--|---|
| Meteorological variables   | Commercial sensors for temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and direction                   |
| O <sub>3</sub>   | UV Absorption, Thermoenvironmental Corp. Model 49C  |
| CO   | NDIR, Thermo Environmental, Inc., Model 48C-TL  |
| NO, NO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>y</sub> *  | Custom-built Chemiluminescence Instrument   |
| NMHCs  | Custom-built Preconcentration System with GC-FID  |
| Black carbon   | Aethalometer, Magee Scientific Model AE31   |
| Particle size  | Intracavity Optical Particle Sizer/PMS LAS-X  |
| CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O, SF <sub>6</sub> , CO, CO <sub>2</sub> ,<br>NMHC, CO <sub>2</sub> and CH <sub>4</sub> stable isotopes | Whole Air Sample Collection into Glass Flask<br>Samples with subsequent analysis at NOAA-GMD, USA |

\* Not available in 2011.



Table 6: Range of photochemical ages of airmasses, identified as of pyrogenic origin using CO, CH<sub>3</sub>CN and HCN concentrations, intercepted during non-transit BORTAS-B flights, 15th July–31st July, 2011.

| Flight # | Photochemical Age (days)                  |
|----------|---|
| B620     | -   |
| B621     | Typically 3–4, few older                  |
| B622     | Typically 1–5, few younger and older      |
| B623     | Typically 2–4, few older                  |
| B624     | Typically 2–4, few younger and older      |
| B625     | -   |
| B626     | ≥5 earlier in flight, 1–2 later in flight |
| B627     | -   |
| B628     | Typically 8–11                            |
| B629     | Typically 5–8                             |
| B630     | Typically 5–9                             |