

1 **Swelling of Transported Smoke from Savanna fires over the Southeast Atlantic Ocean?**

2 J. Kar<sup>1,2</sup>, M. Vaughan<sup>2</sup>, J. Tackett<sup>1,2</sup>, Z. Liu<sup>2</sup>, A. Omar<sup>2</sup>, S. Rodier<sup>1,2</sup>, C. Trepte<sup>2</sup>, P. Lucker<sup>1</sup>

3 <sup>1</sup> Science Systems and Applications Inc., Hampton, VA

4 <sup>2</sup> NASA Langley Research Center, Hampton, VA

5 **Abstract.**

6 We use the recently released Version 4 (V4) lidar data products from CALIPSO to study the smoke  
7 plumes transported from Southern African biomass burning areas. The significant improvements  
8 in CALIPSO V4 Level 1 calibration and the V4 Level 2 aerosol subtyping algorithms, the latter  
9 being particularly relevant to biomass burning smoke over this area, lead to a better representation  
10 of their optical properties. For the first time, we show evidence of smoke particles increasing in  
11 size, evidenced in their particulate color ratios, as they are transported over the South Atlantic  
12 Ocean from the source regions over Southern Africa. This is likely due to hygroscopic swelling of  
13 the smoke particles and is reflected in the higher relative humidity in the middle troposphere for  
14 profiles with smoke. This finding may have implications for radiative forcing estimates over this  
15 area and is relevant to the ORACLES field mission that is currently underway.

16 **Key points:**

- 17 1. Optical properties of smoke particles transported over Southeast Atlantic Ocean studied using  
18 CALIPSO lidar data (V4).
- 19 2. Size of the smoke particles shows a distinct increase from land to ocean.
- 20 3. This is likely due to hygroscopic swelling as seen in the relative humidity profiles.

21

22 **1. Introduction:**

23 The impact of different types of aerosols on our environment is not very well understood and there  
24 is an ever-increasing need to characterize the various aerosol types in different parts of the globe  
25 (IPCC, 2013). In particular, the smoke from biomass burning needs to be understood better because  
26 of the important radiative effects of black carbon (Bond et al., 2013), and because forest fires have  
27 been growing in size and frequency in many parts of the world. As such, there have been many  
28 studies of biomass burning smoke and their properties and evolution with time (e.g., Reid et al.,  
29 2005, Semeniuk et al., 2007, Saide et al., 2015) and some of these properties depend upon the  
30 location and type of burning, e.g., smoldering or flaming.

31 Over Southern Africa, savanna burning occurs every year between June and October and  
32 constitutes the largest source of biomass burning smoke over the globe (IPCC, 2013; Van der Werf  
33 et al., 2010). The smoke plumes from these fires get transported over the Southeast Atlantic Ocean  
34 over 5-7 days, overlaying one of the largest low altitude extended stratus cloud decks anywhere  
35 on the globe, which has consequences for radiative forcing estimates in this area. Passive satellite  
36 remote sensing has limited utility for studying these plumes, and vertically resolved information  
37 on these “above cloud aerosols” (ACA) is crucial. This vertical information has become possible  
38 in the last decade because of the space borne lidar CALIPSO, which has been providing high  
39 quality measurements of the aerosol vertical profiles globally since June 2006 (Winker et al.,  
40 2009). Measurements from CALIPSO have been used to derive highly accurate estimates of  
41 radiative forcing of the ACA in this region (Chand et al., 2008, 2009).

42 In the CALIPSO data processing sequence, the attenuated backscatter data are first  
43 examined to detect the layers using a thresholding algorithm (Vaughan et al., 2009) and then the  
44 layers are classified as either a cloud or aerosol (Liu et al., 2009). The aerosol layers are

45 subsequently assigned various subtypes based on their optical properties and geospatial location  
46 (Omar et al., 2009). The November 2016 release of version 4.1 (V4) of the CALIPSO Level 2 lidar  
47 data products incorporates significant improvements in the retrieval algorithms, including the  
48 subtype assignments. In particular, there was a significant anomaly in the subtyping over the  
49 Southeast Atlantic in earlier versions, where many smoke layers were misclassified as marine  
50 layers. This has since been addressed in V4. Many more smoke layers are now identified over the  
51 Atlantic, thus presenting a good opportunity for further study of these extensive and regularly  
52 occurring smoke plumes. In particular, the evolution of the optical properties of these smoke  
53 plumes as they are transported to great distances over the South Atlantic may now be better  
54 characterized.

55         In this letter, we use V4 CALIPSO data to present evidence of the evolution of size of the  
56 smoke particles being exported from the Southern African savanna burning zones. We show that  
57 these particles tend to increase in size as they are transported over large distances over the ocean.  
58 While most constituents of smoke plumes are generally hydrophobic, aging and oxidation  
59 processes during the transport might make them hydrophilic, and the signatures of this behavior  
60 could be discerned in the relative humidity data. This result should be of interest to the currently  
61 ongoing Observations of Aerosols above Clouds and their Interactions (ORACLES) aircraft  
62 mission studying the smoke and its interaction with clouds over the same area (Zuidema et al.,  
63 2016).

64

65

66

67

68 **2. Data:**

69 We use the CALIPSO V4 level 2 aerosol profile product, which reports height-resolved profiles  
70 of the total backscatter and extinction coefficients at 532 nm and 1064 nm as well as the  
71 perpendicular backscatter coefficients at 532 nm for all layers detected. The horizontal resolution  
72 of the data is 5km while the vertical resolution is 60m up to 20km and 180m above that. As part  
73 of the V4 level 2 updates, the retrieval algorithms were optimized to take maximum advantage of  
74 the changes in the V4 level 1 data which were released earlier, with significant improvements in  
75 both the 532 nm and 1064 nm channel calibrations (Getzewich et al., 2015). In particular, the  
76 improvement in 1064 nm channel calibration makes it feasible to study the color ratio (ratio of  
77 backscatter at 1064 nm to that at 532 nm) with a higher degree of confidence in this new data set.  
78 We use smoke subtypes for our analysis. Previous iterations of the CALIPSO aerosol subtype  
79 assignments have been validated by comparison with AERONET data as well as high spectral  
80 resolution lidar (HSRL) data (Mielonen et al., 2009, Misra et al., 2013, Burton et al., 2013, Bibi et  
81 al., 2016). We also use the 1064 nm measurements retrieved from the Cloud-Aerosol Transport  
82 System (CATS) lidar on board the International Space Station (ISS) Mode 7.2 Version 1-05 level  
83 2 Operational (L2O) Layer and Profile data products. The CATS lidar measures 1064 nm elastic  
84 backscatter in polarization planes parallel and perpendicular to the transmitted linearly polarized  
85 laser pulses, thus providing depolarization ratio data at 1064 nm since March 2015 (Yorks et al.,  
86 2016).

87

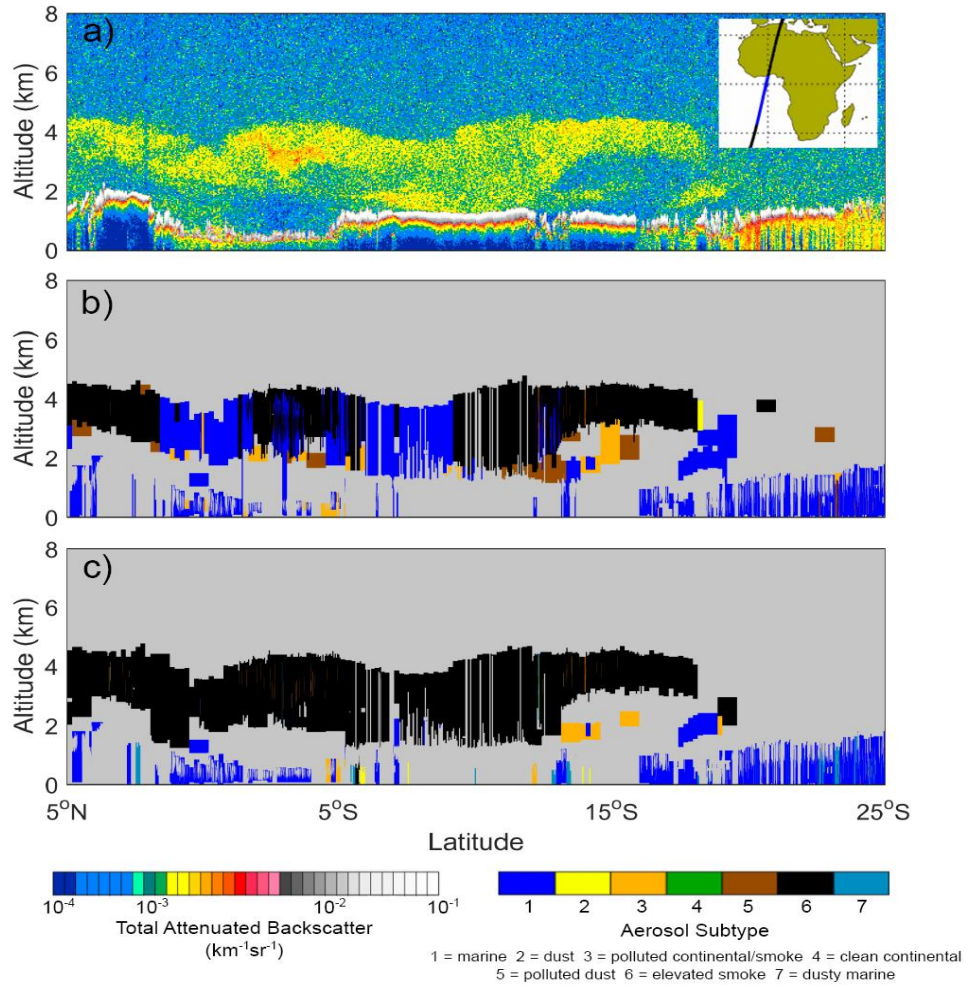
88

89

90 **3. Results**

91 **3.1. Particulate color ratio evolution in transported smoke.**

92

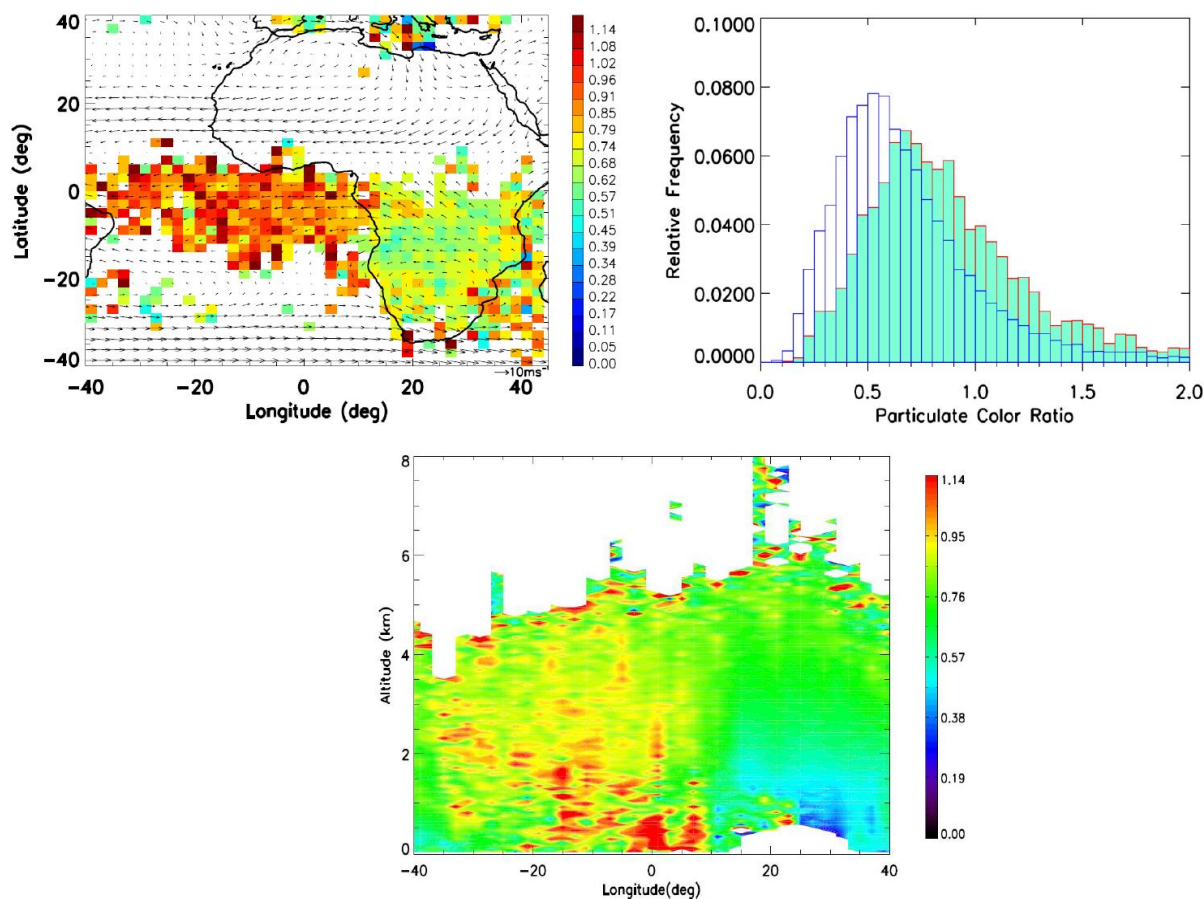


93

94 **Figure 1.** CALIPSO browse images of a) 532 nm attenuated backscatter coefficients and  
95 b) aerosol subtypes from V3 and c) V4 on September 5, 2010.

96 Figure 1a shows the 532 nm attenuated backscatter coefficients measured over the South Atlantic  
97 off the coast of Southern Africa on September 5, 2010. The extended plume at 2-5 km altitude  
98 between 19°S and 5°N is smoke that has been transported from the extensive fires that occur over  
99 Southern Africa between June and October every year. Figure 1b shows the aerosol subtypes

100 assigned in the version 3 (V3) data products. As can be seen, in the V3 analysis the plume between  
101 2 and 5 km is punctuated by a large number of misclassified marine layers (in blue). The  
102 misclassification of smoke layers as marine was a pervasive problem in V3 data over this area.  
103 Figure 1c shows the recently released V4 data, where now we can see a fuller and more coherent  
104 smoke plume. The V4 analysis reports much larger number of smoke layers (and an upward  
105 revision of the aerosol optical depth) over this most important and extensive biomass burning area.  
106 Thus, we now have more representative information about the spatial extent of biomass burning  
107 plumes in this region so that we can better exploit the optical properties reported in the CALIPSO  
108 data products.  
109



110

111 **Figure 2.** a) Particulate color ratio distribution of smoke at 3.03 km for August, 2006-2010  
112 (binned at  $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$  in latitude and longitude), with wind vectors from MERRA-2 (August  
113 2006-2010) re-binned into  $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$  in latitude and longitude; b) histograms of particulate  
114 color ratio over land ( $25^\circ\text{S}$ - $0$ ,  $10^\circ\text{E}$ - $35^\circ\text{E}$ , in blue) and ocean ( $25^\circ\text{S}$ - $0$ ,  $30^\circ\text{W}$ - $10^\circ\text{E}$ , in  
115 aquamarine, filled) at 3.03 km (August 2006-2010); and c) height-longitude cross section  
116 of particulate color ratio along  $0$ - $25^\circ\text{S}$  (August 2006-2010).

117 Figure 2a shows the spatial distribution of the particulate color ratio of the aerosol samples  
118 classified as smoke at 3.03 km using nighttime data for the month of August averaged over 2006-  
119 2010. An important change in CALIPSO V4 that is particularly relevant over this area is that the  
120 V4 aerosol subtyping algorithm no longer distinguishes between polluted continental and smoke  
121 at low altitudes. Instead these layers are identified as “polluted continental/smoke”. An “elevated  
122 smoke” subtype is defined for those smoke layers with top altitudes exceeding 2.5 km. We have  
123 included both smoke categories in our analysis. The particulate color ratio is the ratio of the total  
124 backscatter coefficients at 1064 nm and 532 nm, and provides a measure of aerosol particle size.  
125 The data shown in Figure 2 used only cloud free nighttime profiles. Further, we have included  
126 data from only those profiles which had the extinction quality control flag as either zero, indicating  
127 that the initial lidar ratio resulted in stable extinction retrievals, or one, which flags those cases  
128 where the lidar ratio could be inferred directly from the data (constrained retrievals). We also  
129 filtered out the data points where the extinction uncertainty estimate diverged and where the  
130 uncertainty of particulate color ratio exceeds 500%. A minimum number of 15 samples was used  
131 for each grid box.

132 As can be seen in Figure 2a, there is a clear increase in the particulate color ratio values  
133 from the source areas over land to those over the ocean. Figure 2b shows the histograms of the

134 particulate color ratio at 3.03 km over the source regions on land (in blue, between 25°S-equator,  
135 10°E-35°E) and over oceanic regions (in aquamarine, filled, between 25°S-equator, 30°W-10°E).  
136 There is a significant difference in the color ratio distribution between land and ocean. At 3.03 km,  
137 the mean particulate color ratio over land is ~0.7 while that over the ocean is ~0.9, an increase of  
138 ~29%, while at 2 km it can be as much as 60% with much larger contrast in the color ratio  
139 distributions between land and ocean (not shown). This likely represents an increase in the size of  
140 the smoke particles as they are swept over the ocean over 5-7 days. To our knowledge this is the  
141 first time such an increase in the size of the smoke particles is being reported over this area. This  
142 was seen for all months between June and October and in all years with some interannual  
143 variability. Similar results were also obtained using the daytime data. The full altitude information  
144 can be seen in Figure 2c, which shows the height-longitude cross-section of the particulate color  
145 ratios over 0-25°S, using only the cloud free nighttime profiles for August 2006-2010. Once again,  
146 the difference between the land and ocean can be clearly seen with somewhat higher values at the  
147 lowest altitudes over the ocean, which might be due to gravitational settling of relatively larger  
148 and heavier particles. Given that this phenomenon occurs consistently for the key biomass burning  
149 months every year, it is not likely to be a data artifact.

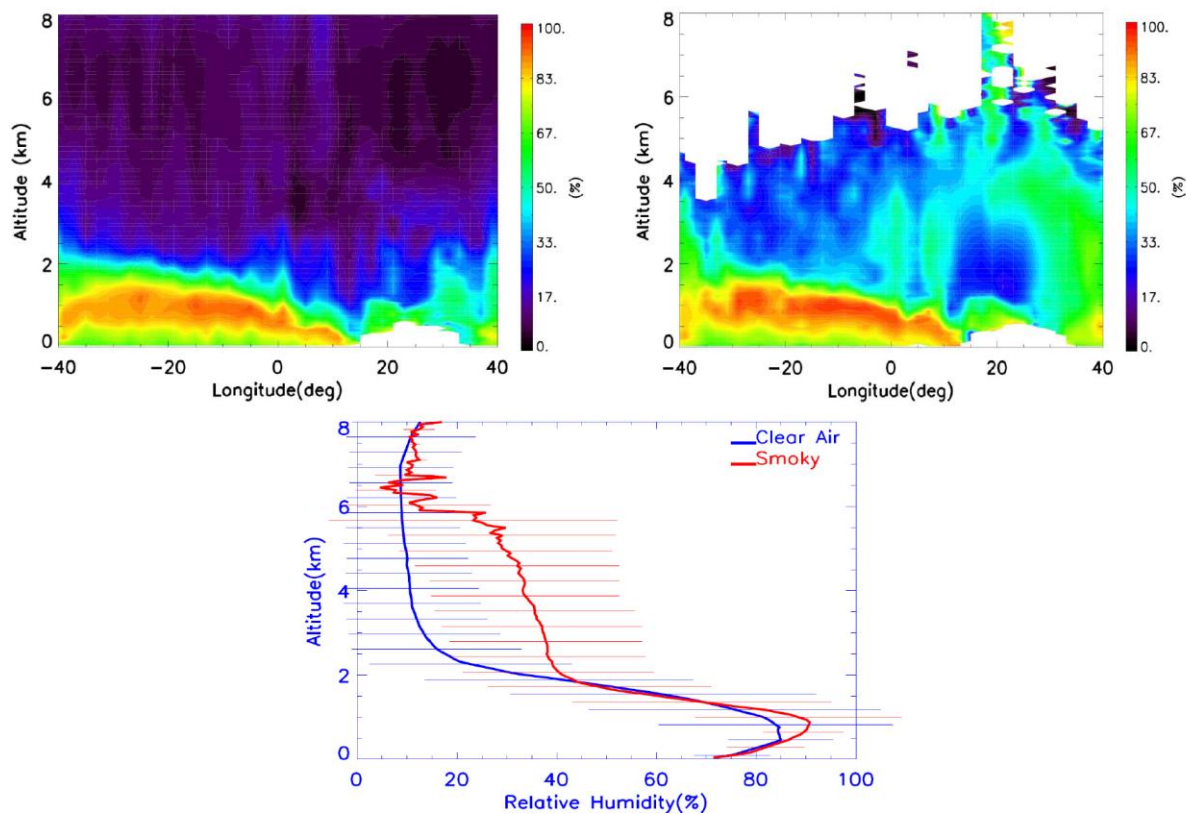
150         The current version (V4.10) of CALIPSO data processing scheme employs the Modern Era  
151 Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA-2) for meteorological  
152 information. The latter, for the first time, assimilates aerosol optical depth (AOD) retrieved from  
153 AVHRR, MODIS, MISR and AERONET through the integration of the GOCART model and the  
154 aerosol radiative feedbacks to the atmospheric fields (Randles et al., 2016). Comparisons of  
155 MERRA-2 assimilated AODs with independent retrievals (including DIAL/HSRL from  
156 SEAC<sup>4</sup>RS) have shown good correlations. The vertical profiles of the total attenuated backscatter



157 from MERRA-2 generally reproduce the CALIPSO vertical profiles at various places over the  
158 globe but show some biases (Randles et al., 2016). Insofar as MERRA-2 already incorporates  
159 aerosol information, it is important to determine if the results presented above are biased in any  
160 way. We found similar particulate color ratio enhancements over the ocean using V3 CALIPSO  
161 data, which reported fewer smoke layers but used GEOS-5.7.2 meteorological data that did not  
162 assimilate the aerosol information, thus discounting the possibility of any bias coming from the  
163 MERRA-2 meteorology.

### 164 3.2 Relative Humidity Variations

165 The most likely explanation for the increase in size of the smoke particles has to do with swelling  
166 of the particles by water uptake which might have a signature in the relative humidity (RH)  
167 profiles.



168

169 **Figure 3.** Height longitude cross sections (0-25°S) of relative humidity for a) clear air  
170 profiles, b) profiles with smoke samples in them, and c) averaged profiles and standard  
171 deviations of relative humidity (0-25°S, 30°W-10°E, using all data for August, 2006-2010.

172 Figures 3a and 3b show the height longitude distribution of RH from MERRA-2 as available in  
173 CALIPSO data files averaged over 25°S-equator, for August 2006-2010 nighttime data. The clear  
174 air RH profiles correspond to cloud free and aerosol free columns within this area, while the smoky  
175 profiles correspond to columns that are cloud free but contain smoke samples (essentially  
176 corresponding to Fig 2c). Enhanced RH values seem to be associated with the biomass burning  
177 smoke plumes. As can be seen in Figure 3c, there is a notable difference between the two mean  
178 RH profiles between 2 km and 6 km (over the Atlantic ocean, 0-25°S, 30°W-10°E) where the RH  
179 values for the smoky profile are substantially larger than in the clear air mean profile.

180 To characterize the uncertainty in MERRA RH profiles, Adebisi et al. (2015) had earlier  
181 shown that the RH profiles on average tend to reproduce the large scale features from high  
182 resolution radiosonde profiles obtained at St. Helena Island (~16°S, 6°W), which is located near  
183 the southern parts of the region in this study. The deviation in the mean RH profiles between  
184 MERRA and radiosondes is ~10% (Adebisi et al., 2015). However the bias changes sign around  
185 700 hPa. Below this pressure level, MERRA profiles have a low bias as compared to sondes; above  
186 this pressure level, they have a higher bias. Note, however, that Adebisi et al. (2015) used an  
187 earlier version of the MERRA product, and not the MERRA-2 reanalyses.

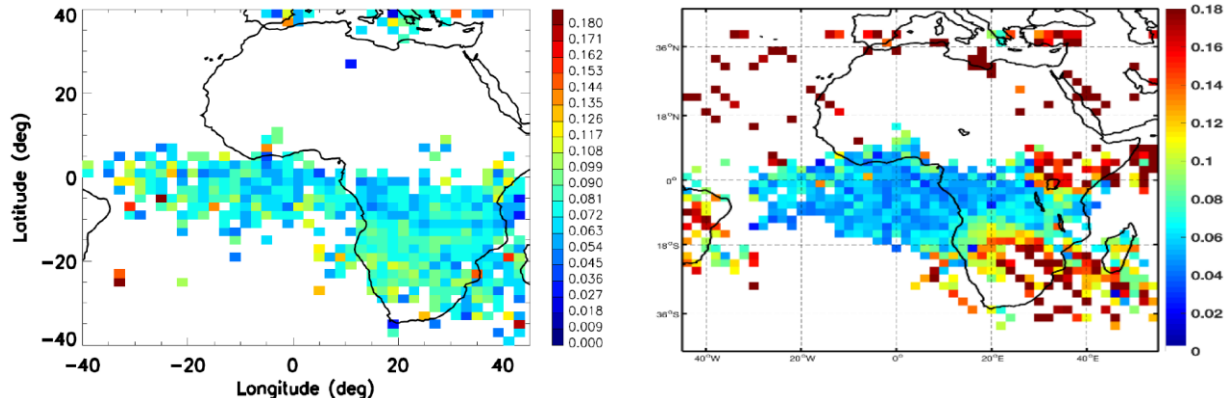
188

189

190           The mid-tropospheric difference between the smoky and the clear air RH profiles in Figure  
191 3c is quite similar to the results of Adebisi et al. (2015) at St. Helena Island, representing the  
192 difference between polluted and non-polluted conditions. The increase in moisture collocated with  
193 increased aerosol loading suggests an environment conducive for swelling of smoke particles as  
194 evidenced by the increase in particulate color ratio. There is also large variability in the RH profiles  
195 for the smoke samples. Adebisi et al. (2015) presented individual CALIPSO smoke extinction  
196 profiles which often closely matched that of the radiosonde RH profiles at St. Helena with high  
197 RH values ( $\sim 80\%$ ) at the top of the smoke layer with the largest extinctions. In contrast, the RH  
198 profiles for the non-smoke days showed much lower RH values ( $\leq 20\%$ ) in the mid troposphere.  
199 Adebisi et al. (2015) do not discuss the possible swelling effects on the smoke particles, though  
200 they do mention the possibility of this occurring.

### 201 **3.3. Particulate depolarization of smoke**

202 Is there any other evidence of swelling of the smoke particles due to water uptake, as, for example,  
203 in their shape? The particulate depolarization ratio (i.e., the ratio of the backscatter in the  
204 perpendicular and parallel channels at 532 nm) reported in the CALIPSO data provides insight  
205 into the shape of the scattering particles. In general, swelling might be expected to enhance the  
206 sphericity of particles. However, because biomass burning typically generates quasi-spherical  
207 particles having low depolarization ratios (Burton et al., 2013), it may be difficult to detect further  
208 changes in particle shape using this measurement.



210

211 **Figure 4.** a) Particulate depolarization of smoke at 532 nm at 3.03 km from CALIPSO for August,  
 212 2006-2010 and b) volume depolarization of smoke at 1064 nm at 3 km from CATS for August  
 213 2015-2016. A minimum number of 15 samples per grid box was used for each plot.

214 Figure 4a shows the spatial distribution of the particular depolarization of smoke samples  
 215 at 3.03 km from CALIPSO, once again using only nighttime cloud free profiles in August for  
 216 2006-2010. We rejected depolarization data having estimated relative uncertainty above 500%.  
 217 This criterion removes data points with very low negative particulate depolarization with  
 218 associated uncertainties much higher than 500%. There is significant noise in the data. There seems  
 219 to be suggestion of a somewhat higher depolarization over the land areas over South Africa as  
 220 compared to the oceanic regions, although the contrast is not as striking as the particulate color  
 221 ratios shown in Figure 2. As an independent measurement, Figure 4b shows the spatial distribution  
 222 of the volume depolarization of smoke at 3 km at 1064 nm as observed by the CATS lidar for  
 223 August 2015-2016. The CATS data products do not report particulate depolarization ratios.  
 224 However, because molecular contributions to the backscatter signal at 1064 nm are substantially  
 225 smaller than at 532 nm (by a factor of  $\sim 17$ ), the CATS 1064 nm volume depolarization ratios  
 226 should provide essentially the same information as the particulate depolarization ratios. The CATS

227 depolarization ratios also show somewhat higher values over the source regions and fall off to  
228 somewhat lower values over the Atlantic Ocean. Note that CATS data products are only available  
229 at 1064 nm, so we cannot confirm the changing color ratio using the CATS data.

#### 230 **4. Discussion and Conclusions:**

231 We have presented evidence of an increase in the size of smoke particles that are transported over  
232 the South Atlantic Ocean in large amounts from the biomass burning regions of South Africa as  
233 reflected in the particulate color ratios retrieved from the CALIPSO space borne lidar. Coagulation  
234 may be ruled out as a possible cause of this result so far away from the emission regions, although  
235 Radke et al. (1995) found significant changes in smoke size distributions in a large plume from  
236 Oregon and suggested these could be occurring due to coagulation. On the other hand, the  
237 enhanced RH profiles for smoke samples in the mid troposphere as compared to the clear air  
238 samples suggests an association with water uptake by these particles. As such, there have been  
239 reports of significantly increased moisture content in biomass burning smoke plumes, particularly  
240 for smoldering fires (Achtemeir, 2006, Clements et al., 2006). In Southern Africa, smoldering fires  
241 may be more frequent towards the equator during the wet season (Midzak et al., 2017). A number  
242 of studies have confirmed the hygroscopicity of smoke under certain conditions. Semeniuk et al.  
243 (2007) studied the hygroscopic behavior of 80 aerosol particles sampled from southern African  
244 burning sources during the SAFARI 2000 mission, which included tar balls and soot, as well as  
245 mixed particles. While tar balls and soot were found to be hydrophobic, mixed particles and  
246 particles with inorganic coatings showed significantly enhanced hygroscopicity. A similar  
247 conclusion about the effect of inorganic material substantially increasing the hygroscopicity of  
248 smoke from Siberian fires was also reached by Popovicheva et al. (2016). Further, Vakkari et al.  
249 (2014) found that the hygroscopicity of smoke particles, again sampled from South African

250 biomass burning areas, can increase rapidly within the first 2-4 hours due to oxidation and  
251 secondary aerosol formation. Aging and further oxidation of the smoke particles as they are  
252 transported to vast distances over the ocean may lead to further water uptake.

253         To our knowledge, this is the first report of a change in size distribution of smoke particles  
254 in this area far from the source regions. This is an important result, insofar as the aerosol indirect  
255 effect depends strongly on the size of the particles. The enhanced moisture associated with the  
256 smoke particles may also be important for radiative forcing and leads to a cooling in September-  
257 October in this area (Adebisi et al., 2015). Therefore, this finding needs to be explored further  
258 using field missions as well as with satellite data. In fact, a major field mission, ORACLES, is  
259 currently studying the aerosol and cloud properties over this very region, and the ORACLES  
260 measurements should provide a wealth of resources to validate the results presented here.

## 261 **5. Acknowledgements:**

262 The CALIPSO aerosol and cloud profile data as well as the CATS lidar data are available at the  
263 NASA Langley Research Center Atmospheric Science Data Center. The MERRA 2 wind data  
264 were taken from the MERRA-2 Giovanni instance.

265

266

267

268

269

270

271 **6. References:**

- 272 Achtemeier, G. L.(2006): Measurements of moisture in smoldering smoke and implications for  
273 fog, *Int. J. Wildland Fire*, 15, 517-525.
- 274  
275 Adebisi, A. A. et al. (2015), The convolution of dynamics and moisture with the presence of  
276 shortwave absorbing aerosols over the Southeast Atlantic, *J. Clim.*, 28, 1997-2024,  
277 doi:10.1175/J-CLI-D-14-00352.1.
- 278 Bibi, H., K. Alam and S. Bibi, (2016): “In-depth discrimination of aerosol types using multiple  
279 clustering techniques over four locations in Indo-Gangetic plains”, *Atmos. Res.*, **181**, 106-  
280 114, doi:10.1016/j.atmosres.2016.06.017.
- 281 Bond, T. C. et al. (2013), Bounding the role of black carbon in the climate system: A scientific  
282 assessment, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 118, 5380-5552, doi:10.1002/jgrd.50171.
- 283 Burton, S. P., et al. (2013), Aerosol Classification from Airborne HSRL and Comparisons with the  
284 CALIPSO Vertical Feature Mask. *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, **6**, 1397-1412.
- 285 Chand, D. et al. (2008): Quantifying above-cloud aerosol using spaceborne lidar for improved  
286 understanding of cloudy-sky direct climate forcing, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **113**, D13206,  
287 doi:10.1029/007JD009433.
- 288 Chand, D., et al. (2009): Satellite-derived direct radiative effect of aerosols dependent on cloud  
289 cover, *Nature Geosc.*, **2**, 181-184,doi:10.1038/NGE0437.
- 290 Clements, C. B., Potter, B. E., and Zhong, S. (2006).: In situ measurements of water vapor, heat,  
291 and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes within a prescribed grass fire, *Int. J. Wildland Fire*, 15, 299-306.

292 Getzewich, B. J., et al. (2015): “CALIOP Calibration: Version 4.0 Algorithm Updates”, The 27th  
293 International Laser Radar Conference (ILRC 27), EPJ Web of Conferences, **119**, 04013,  
294 doi:10.1051/epjconf/201611904013.

295 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, IPCC, (2013), Climate Change 2013: The physical  
296 science basis. The contribution of working group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the  
297 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

298 Liu, Z., et al. (2009): “The CALIPSO Lidar Cloud and Aerosol Discrimination: Version 2  
299 Algorithm and Initial Assessment of Performance”, J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol., **26**,  
300 1198–1213, doi:10.1175/2009JTECHA1229.1.

301 Midzak, N. et al. (2017), Determining smoke particle sphericity using CATS data, paper  
302 presented at the 97<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of the American Meteorological Society, Seattle,  
303 Jan 22-27, 2017.

304 Mielonen, T. et al. (2009). Comparison of CALIOP Level 2 aerosol subtypes to aerosol types  
305 derived from AERONET inversion data. Geophys. Res. Lett., **36**, L18804.

306 Misra, A. K. et al. (2013). Study of MPLNET-derived aerosol climatology over Kanpur, India  
307 and validation of CALIPSO Level 2 version 3 backscatter and extinction products.  
308 J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol., **29**, 1285–1294.

309 Omar, A. et al. (2009), The CALIPSO automated aerosol classification and lidar ratio selection  
310 algorithm, J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol., **26**, 1994-2014.

311 Popovicheva, O. B., et al. (2016), Small-scale study of Siberian biomass burning: II. Smoke  
312 hygroscopicity Aerosol and Air Quality Res., **16**, 1558-1568.

313 Radke, L. F. et al., (1995), Effects of aging on the smoke from a large forest fire, Atmos. Res, **38**,  
314 315-332.



315 Randles, C. A. et al., (2016), The MERRA-2 aerosol assimilation, NASA/TM–2016-104606 / Vol.  
316 45, vol. 45, ed. R. D. Koster.

317 Reid, J. S. et al. (2005), A review of biomass burning emissions part III. Intensive optical properties  
318 of biomass burning particles, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 5, 827-849.

319 Saide, P. E. (2015): Central American biomass burning smoke can increase tornado severity in  
320 the U.S, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **42**, 956–965, doi:10.1002/2014GL062826.

321 Semeniuk, T. A., et al. (2007), Hygroscopic behavior of aerosol particles from biomass fires using  
322 environmental transmission electron microscopy, *J. Atmos. Chem.*, 56, 259-273.

323 Vakkari, V., et al. (2014), Rapid changes in biomass burning aerosols by atmospheric oxidation,  
324 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 41, 2644–2651, doi:10.1002/2014GL059396.

325 Van der Werf, G. R., et al. (2010), Global fire emissions and the contribution of deforestation,  
326 savanna, forest, agricultural, and peat fires (1997-2009), *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 10, 11707-  
327 11735.

328 Vaughan, M., et al. (2009): “Fully Automated Detection of Cloud and Aerosol Layers in the  
329 CALIPSO Lidar Measurements”, *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 26, 2034–2050, doi:  
330 10.1175/2009JTECHA1228.1.

331 Winker, D. M. et al., (2009), Overview of the CALIPSO mission and CALIOP data processing  
332 algorithms, *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, 26, 2310-2323.

333 Yorks, J. E. et al. (2016), An overview of the CATS Level 1 processing algorithms and data  
334 products, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43, 4632–4639, doi:10.1002/2016GL068006.

335 Zuidema, P. et al., (2016): Smoke and Clouds above the Southeast Atlantic: Upcoming Field  
336 Campaigns Probe Absorbing Aerosol's Impact on Climate, BAMS, 97, 1131–1135,  
337 doi:10.1175/BAMS-D-15-00082.1.

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347